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Easterling, Debbie S., Ph.D.

The Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical Col., 1990

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**SALESPERSON PERFORMANCE, SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER:
A Review, A Reconceptualization and an Empirical Investigation**

A Dissertation

**Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

in

The Interdepartmental Programs in Business Administration

by

**Debbie S. Easterling
B.S., Management, 1981
Masters in Business Administration, 1982
August 1990**

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Fifteen years ago, I took my first college classes -- they were Christmas gifts -- from my mom and my brother, David. Because I was a single parent, my dad donated his services as a babysitter and his car so that I could get back and forth from class. Mom, Dad, and Dave -- thank you so much for getting me started -- and for encouraging me to keep going.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Abstract	viii
Chapters	
1. THE RESEARCH TOPIC	1
Overview of the Topic	1
Introduction	1
Current Research in the Area of Performance and Satisfaction	9
Theoretical Perspectives	10
Satisfaction leads to Performance	10
Performance leads to Satisfaction	12
Performance/Satisfaction Relationship mediated by Other Variables	12
An Interactionist Perspective.....	14
Methodological Issues	15
Current Research in the Area of Turnover...	17
Performance, Satisfaction and Turnover: Reconceptualized.....	20
Research Questions	23
The Dissertation Research.....	24
Contributions of the Research	25
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	27
Review of Employee Performance and Job Satisfaction Literature.....	29
The Relationship of Employee Performance and Job Satisfaction.....	29

Chapter 2. Literature Review, cont.

Theories of Satisfaction/Performance	32
Satisfaction leads to Performance	33
Performance leads to Satisfaction	38
Lawler-Porter Model	41
Walker, Churchill and Ford Model	42
Behrman and Perreault Model	43
Dubinsky and Hartley Model	47
Summary	49
The Performance/Satisfaction Relationship as Moderated by Other Variables	50
Triandis Model	52
Bagozzi Model	53
Performance Not Specifically Related to Satisfaction	56
Locke, Cartledge, and Knerr Model	58
Darden, Hampton, and Howell Model	58
Summary & Comparison of Models	61
Literature Review: Turnover.....	63
Relationship of Performance to Turnover..	66
Relationship of Satisfaction to Turnover.	70
Hypothesized Antecedents of Turnover.....	72
Functional/Dysfunctional Turnover.....	75
Summary of Turnover Literature	77
An Interactionist Perspective.....	78
Gaps and Deficiencies in the Literature ...	82
Performance and Satisfaction.....	82
Turnover.....	83
Other Constructs of Interest: Situational and Individual Variables.....	85
Situational Variables: Role Perceptions.	85
Individual Variables: Gender and Tenure	93
Gender.....	93
Tenure.....	97

	Summary and Hypotheses	104
3.	METHODOLOGY	109
	Design of the Study	109
	Data Collection Procedure	109
	Population, and Sample Size.....	110
	Population	110
	Sample Size	111
	The Survey Instruments.....	112
	Introduction.....	112
	The Questionnaire.....	115
	Tenure.....	115
	Role Ambiguity.....	115
	Role Conflict	118
	Employee Performance.....	118
	Satisfaction.....	119
	Data Analysis	119
	Reliability Assessment	120
	Validity Assessment	122
	Hypothesis Tests	123
4.	DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	128
	Introduction	128
	Reliability Assessment.....	129
	Correlations Among Model Constructs.....	131
	Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis	136
	Tests of the Research Hypotheses.....	138
	Hypothesis 1 Results.....	139
	Hypothesis 1 Discussion.....	144
	Hypothesis 3 Results.....	149
	Hypothesis 3 Discussion.....	160

Test for Differences: Gender and Turnover.....	171
Gender Differences	172
Turnover Differences.....	174
Summary of Analyses.....	176
5. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	178
Summary of Research.....	178
Conclusions regarding Model Constructs.....	179
Employee Performance.....	179
Job Satisfaction.....	180
Turnover.....	181
Conclusions regarding Interactionist Approach.....	181
Limitations of the Research.....	183
Implications and Directions for Future Research.....	186
Summary.....	187
Appendix A: Dissertation Questionnaire	188
Appendix B: Task Performance Evaluation	212
Appendix C: Performance: Item Analysis.....	214
Appendix D: Satisfaction: Item Analysis.....	220
Appendix E: Role Variables: Item Analysis.....	230
Appendix F: Information Related to Constructs.....	233
F1 Selected Review of Proposed Moderating Variables which Impact Performance	234

F2	Selected Review of Proposed Moderating Variables which Impact Satisfaction	250
F3	Definitions of Performance	254
F4	Measures Utilized in Previous Research .	257
F5	Summary of Turnover Research.....	266
	Bibliography	267
	Vita	294

LIST OF TABLES

Table		
2.1	Empirical Results: Behrman & Perreault....	44
2.2	Replacement Costs: Insurance Industry.....	64
2.3	Correlates of Turnover	73
2.4	Summary of Turnover Correlates.....	74
3.1	Sample Size and Response Rates for Selected Performance Studies	113
3.2	Sample Size and Response Rates for Selected Turnover Studies.....	114
3.3	Conceptual Definitions	116
3.4	Summary of Information Concerning Measures.	117
3.5	Data Analysis Procedure to be Followed.....	121
3.6	Research Hypotheses and Required Analysis..	124
3.7	Suggested Framework for Identifying Moderator Variables.....	127
4.1	Scale Reliabilities.....	130
4.2	Descriptive Statistics and Inter-Correlations.....	133
4.4	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Subjective Measures of Performance.....	141
4.5(a)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Objective Measures of Performance.....	142
4.5(b)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Objective Measures of Performance.....	143
4.6	Identification of Moderator Variable with Dependent Measure: Performance.....	147
4.7(a)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Dimensions of Job Satisfaction (Customers).	151
4.7(b)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Dimensions of Job Satisfaction (Co-Workers).....	152

4.7(c)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Dimensions of Job Satisfaction (Pay).....	153
4.7(d)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Dimensions of Job Satisfaction (Policy).....	155
4.7(e)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Dimensions of Job Satisfaction (Promotion).....	156
4.7(f)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Dimensions of Job Satisfaction (Supervision).....	158
4.7(g)	Summary of Hierarchical Regression using Dimensions of Job Satisfaction (the Job).....	159
4.8	Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses..	161
4.9	Comparison of Findings Related to Satisfaction.....	165
4.10	Identification of Moderator Variable for Dependent Measure: Job Satisfaction..	167
4.11	Gender Differences Across Study Variables.....	173
4.12	Turnover Differences Across Study Variables.....	175

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures

1.1	Illustration of Relationships Between Sales-Person Attitudes or Behavioral Outcomes, the Individual and the Situation.....	22
2.1	Theoretical Model of Performance and Satisfaction.....	41
2.2	Determinants of Salesperson's Performance	42
2.3	Role Stress Model of Performance and Satisfaction of Industrial Salespersons ...	45
2.4	Hypothesized Model of Salesperson Performance	47
2.5	Output-Job Satisfaction Curve	52
2.6	Causal Model Showing Hypothesized Relationships and Predicting Outcomes	55
2.7	Model of Satisfaction, Goal-Setting and Performance	58
2.8	A Commitment Model	59
2.9	Interactionist Framework Depicting Relationships between Salespersons' Attitudes or Behavioral Outcomes, the Individual and the Situation.....	106

ABSTRACT

Search for a meaningful relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has continued for more than three decades. Despite ongoing theoretical, empirical and practical interest, research findings have been inconclusive. Literature reviews indicate that there still exists much confusion concerning the relationship between satisfaction and performance.

Three conceptualizations of the relationship between satisfaction and performance have been proposed: (1) satisfaction is an antecedent of performance (a view associated with the early "human relations" school of thought); (2) the view that performance leads to satisfaction (through its impact on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards); and (3) the view that the relationship between satisfaction and performance is moderated by other variables. Each of these conceptualizations have been empirically tested.

Employee turnover has received attention from both managers and academicians for many years. The conditions which lead to an individual's decision to leave an organization are not fully understood today, despite many years of research attention.

Of particular interest to the dissertation research was the interaction of individuals and their environment in predicting employee performance, job satisfaction and employee

turnover in a sales setting. Therefore, this study examined individual variables, situational variables, and their interaction. It also addressed possible factors related to the lack of consensus regarding job satisfaction, employee performance and employee turnover (i.e., theoretical, measurement and methodological issues).

CHAPTER ONE

THE RESEARCH TOPIC

Chapter One begins with an introduction to the dissertation research topic. Research questions are then presented, and the design of the dissertation study is briefly described. Anticipated contributions and implications of the research are discussed in a final section.

OVERVIEW OF THE TOPIC

Introduction

The profession of selling is in a state of flux. It is expected that in the coming decade, sales managers and their salesforces will face an increasingly difficult environment within which to operate. It has even been suggested that "no job will be more important than sales" in efforts directed toward increasing the overall competitiveness of our nation (Anderson, Hair, & Bush, 1988, p. xi). Further, it is predicted that it is precisely the performance levels of both sales managers and salespeople that will be among the most critical determinants of success -- in terms of the well-being of our nation, of selling organizations in general, and of the specific individual careers of salespeople.

There are several challenges facing not only those who enter the profession of selling -- but also facing those who manage the profession of selling. Some, in terms of their potential impact, seem particularly noteworthy: increasing foreign competition (in terms of both goods and services provided); changes in the overall makeup of salesforces (increasing numbers of women and minorities entering the field); and dramatic increases in the costs of selling. Other challenges facing the selling profession are: increasing consumer expectations (which results in consumers being less tolerant of product and service limitations); increasing customer expertise (which requires salespeople to be knowledgeable in many different areas) and related advances in technology and the telecommunications industry.

Those individuals pursuing a career in selling (and those that are responsible for managing them) will, without question, be directly affected by the marketing efforts of foreign firms. For many industries (even those considered to be most stable), U. S. firms are becoming vulnerable to the possibility of losses in market share and profitability. Such losses can be diminished or perhaps even prevented through the effectiveness and performance of an organization's selling efforts.

Another factor creating change in selling environments is the increased number of women choosing selling careers. Gable and Reed (1987) report noteworthy increases (119.7

percent) in female representation in selling careers for the time period of 1970-1980. However, (for this time period) overall representation of women in selling remained somewhat low; women accounted for only 14.5 percent of all salespeople (excluding retail sales) while men accounted for 85.5 percent. Data from the early 1980s indicate that increasingly more women continue to choose careers in selling -- "women held 23 percent of all selling jobs" (Fugate, Decker & Brewer, 1988, p.33). Predictions for the future suggest that female representation in selling careers will continue to increase.

It appears likely that sales managers and researchers would be interested in the question of how increasing numbers of women will be assimilated into a (heretofore predominantly male) selling environment. Since "professional selling has typically been viewed in the past as a 'man's job'", many assume "that it is necessary to possess only masculine characteristics in order to achieve success in this occupation" (Gable & Reed, p. 35). Is success in selling contingent upon masculine characteristics? This question and other questions related to the change in salesperson composition remain largely unanswered. Other questions of interest may include: do males and females differ in terms of their 'selling abilities'; do male and female salespersons differ in their attitudes toward their jobs; and are there differences between male and female salespersons in terms of their likelihood to remain with or leave a selling

organization?

It has been suggested that there are differences between male and female salespersons in their work-related attitudes and behaviors and that such differences should be addressed by sales managers (Fugate, Decker & Brewer, 1988, p. 38). Attention to sales training for, and sponsorship of, female salespersons is implied as critical to their performance and success.

Salesforce performance is an important factor in meeting and satisfying the demands and expectations of customers. Responsive, top-performing salesforces will view goods and services from a customer's perspective. Thus, it would be expected that top-performing salesforces will have a major effect on overall customer satisfaction.

Of the many challenges facing the selling profession, one of the most troublesome is that of increasing costs. For example, from 1972 to 1985, selling costs almost tripled; a typical week in the field cost a salesperson \$726.23 in 1985 (compared to \$250.45 in 1972). These costs are based on expenses related to meals, lodging, and auto rentals. It is expected that by 1990, a typical week in the field will cost a salesperson close to \$900.00. Further, selling costs are hardly limited to direct travel expenses. Another significant cost of selling is expenses related to customer entertainment. It was estimated in U.S. News and World Report, that U.S. firms spent close to 30 billion dollars on meals with

customers or potential customers in 1985 ("Corporations Toe," 1986). In this same article, another 6-7 billion dollars was estimated for expenditures related to customers' hotel rooms, hospitality suites and bar tabs.

Another way of looking at expenses is on a "per sales call" cost. The average cost (in 1985) of a single sales call -- defined as "each time a salesperson makes a face-to-face presentation to one or more buyers or prospects" (Anderson, Hair, & Bush, 1988, p. 395) was \$131.40. This cost has almost doubled in the past six years and increased over 30 percent in 1985 alone. Worth noting is that over the past decade, selling costs have generally risen faster than living costs, as represented by the Consumer Price Index. Furthermore, the cost of personal selling (in constant 1972 dollars) increased 100 percent from 1972 to 1982) and is still increasing. Sales and Marketing Management suggests that the average cost of a sales call-- for an industrial products salesperson--is over \$200.00 ("Annual Survey", 1989).

An additional expense related to a firm's salesforce is that of training. Similar to selling costs, training-related costs are also increasing; the average cost of training for an industrial salesperson is \$22,000.00. This type of professional training can involve an extended period of time; the average length of training for an industrial salesperson is over 8 months ("Annual Survey", 1989).

In addition to the ever-increasing costs related to

selling and training, an additional concern is that of salesforce turnover. The average turnover for U. S. salesforces is 19.4 percent, with some industries experiencing over 80 percent turnover ("Annual Survey", 1989). When costs and turnover are considered jointly, the issue of ensuring that a salesforce is both stable and productive becomes critical. For example, consider the scenario whereby a firm has determined its salesforce needs, and has gone through the extensive and expensive process of recruiting, selecting, and training individuals. Given that it has now fielded a salesforce, it becomes vulnerable to significant financial losses in the form of non-productivity or turnover. Therefore, it is very likely that the firm -- and more specifically, that its sales managers, would benefit from a more in-depth understanding of employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover issues in a selling environment. Such an understanding would likely include individual and situational factors that are associated with employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover; as well as an understanding of the role that both individual and situational factors play in explaining and predicting employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover.

The degree to which a firm's salesforce is capable of adapting to these many challenges will be a determinant of it's success. Critical to a firm's ability to adapt (and succeed) is the quality of sales management, the overall level

of salesforce performance, the type of individuals employed (in the salesforce and in sales management), and certain factors which are unique to the firm's (situational factors). Indeed, it has been suggested that a primary determinant of success in sales organizations is the individual performance level of salespeople and their management (Lucas, Parasuraman, Davis & Enis, 1987; Siegel and Slevin, 1974; Harvey & Smith, 1972). This critical aspect of individual performance permeates much, if not all, managerial functions (i.e., planning, organizing, staffing, leading, controlling). Sales managers have, both previously and presently, expressed concern over how to increase employee performance and how to decrease employee turnover.

The dissertation research considered these concerns and investigated salesperson performance, satisfaction and turnover in a sales environment. The research examined the role of individual factors, situational factors as well as their interaction. Additionally, the study investigated gender differences related to these factors.

Somewhat related to the above mentioned managerial concerns is the increasing complexity researchers face in studying salesforce effectiveness. Constructs which have been studied previously include individual (dispositional) variables (i.e, satisfaction with various working environment dimensions, age, experience, burnout, self-esteem, knowledge, selling skills, need for achievement, locus of control,

tenure) and situational (organizational) factors such as relationships with supervisors, compensation levels, role perceptions, and overall commitment and involvement levels. While some research has been conducted in areas of individual and situational factors related to salesperson performance, satisfaction and turnover, there has been little consensus in empirical findings.

Interest in and attempts to study employee productivity date back to the late 1800s. When individuals moved their workplace from the home to the factory, unique problems and challenges were created. Managers were suddenly faced with the need to "develop plans, correctly select the right employees, design work units, lead, motivate and to measure and control performance" (Wren, 1987, p. 1).

Throughout more recent years, managerial thought and practices have undergone a clear and distinct evolution, from the "scientific management" approach to the "human relationists" approach to what may be called a "contingency" approach. It is possible to characterize or describe each of these separate stages of development by the works of select individuals. For example, Frederick W. Taylor, the "Father of Scientific Management", displayed a distinct "task management" approach to work (Wren, 1987). Conversely, the focus of Herzberg (Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson & Capwell, 1957) was more on job-related factors; those job dimensions that would either satisfy or not satisfy employees. March and

Simon (1958) are associated with the situational approach; the idea that situations vary and the role of a manager is to bring about a fit between employee and work environment (Wren, 1987).

It is interesting to note that both sales managers and researchers in sales management continue to struggle with very similar questions of employee motivation, employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. Despite years of study, many questions remain unanswered. To summarize, a clear understanding of the nature of employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover remains interesting and provocative, but nonetheless, elusive.

Current Research in the Area of Performance and Satisfaction

Search for a meaningful relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction has continued for over 50 years. Theoretical, empirical, and practical interest in this topic has provided a rich research foundation from which to draw. Current reviews of the literature indicate, however, that much confusion still exists concerning the relationship between satisfaction and performance.

Kornhauser and Sharp (1932) completed what is considered to be the first empirical investigation of the relationship between job attitudes and productivity. Subsequent to their study, research interest escalated and several literature reviews appeared (e.g., Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell, 1957; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky,

1985; Srivastava et al., 1975; Vroom, 1964). These reviews summarize studies conducted in a variety of occupational and professional settings, employing various measures of both performance and satisfaction. In general, the findings support the notion that a positive (albeit, weak) relationship exists between satisfaction and performance.

Variability in research findings has been attributed to several factors. Two of the most often mentioned factors include variations in methodological approaches and diversity in theoretical perspectives employed in previous studies. A brief discussion of theoretical and methodological issues is presented below.

Theoretical Perspectives

There have been three major and distinct conceptualizations of the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. They are: (1) satisfaction is an antecedent of performance (this view is generally associated with the "human relationists" school of management); (2) performance is an antecedent of satisfaction (this view holds that when employees perform well, they are rewarded and those rewards subsequently determine their levels of satisfaction); and (3) the performance-satisfaction relationship is moderated by other variables. A brief review of each is presented.

Satisfaction leads to performance. This long-held theoretical position is not only intuitively appealing but has

also been favored by many researchers. These researchers (early human relationists) viewed the employee morale - employee performance relationship rather simply: they believed that improvements in employee morale would subsequently lead to improved productivity (Schwab & Cummings, 1970).

Perhaps the most widely cited proponent of this position is Frederick Herzberg. His theoretical position suggested that there are certain job-related factors (hygiene or satisfiers) which contribute to employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work as well as their ultimate performance levels. Although this theoretical position has received considerable interest and reasonable empirical investigation, it has failed to be confirmed. Researchers have been incapable of establishing a causal linkage supporting the contention that satisfaction leads to performance. Therefore, the question remains: What exactly is the nature of the relationship between satisfaction and performance?

The following thoughts by William G. Scott (1959) are somewhat indicative of researchers' sentiments during this time. He suggested that high morale was no longer considered a prerequisite of high performance. Additionally, it was the nature of the relationship between morale and productivity that was open to serious questioning: Is it direct or inverse? Could it be circular? Or is there any relationship

at all between the two; or are they totally independent variables?

Performance leads to satisfaction. Other researchers viewed the relationship between satisfaction and performance from a different stance. According to Lawler and Porter (1967) "good performance may lead to rewards, which in turn lead to satisfaction; this formulation then would say that satisfaction, rather than causing performance, as was previously assumed, is caused by it" (p. 23).

This theoretical position has been advanced, perhaps most actively, by the above mentioned researchers, whose model posits rewards (both intrinsic and extrinsic) as a moderating variable between satisfaction and performance. Most notable in their model, however, is the reverse "causal" ordering of the two variables. As an explanation for disappointing empirical results found in previous studies, these researchers suggest that the inability to establish a relationship between satisfaction and performance may be the result of rewards -- particularly extrinsic rewards -- which are seldom tied to performance.

Performance/Satisfaction relationship moderated by other variables. This position suggests that performance and satisfaction may covary, contingent upon the explicit variables and/or conditions being analyzed. From this

perspective, satisfaction and performance may be differentially related.

It has been noted in the literature that the performance-satisfaction relationship also may be affected by the type of satisfaction being investigated. According to Schwab and Cummings (1970), "performance implications may well differ depending upon the type of satisfaction under study" (p.423). Furthermore, there is some question about which specific dimensions of satisfaction are most closely tied to performance. It has even been suggested that "overall satisfaction might not be related to performance" (Fisher, 1980,p. 610). Therefore, it appears beneficial to study different dimensions of satisfaction and investigate relationships between performance and these dimensions. Additionally, it is of interest to study the relationships between individual (dispositional) and situational (environmental) factors and various dimensions of satisfaction.

Numerous constructs have been proposed and studied as possible moderating variables in the employee performance-job satisfaction relationship (see Appendix F; Table F-1). Findings of past studies however, have been somewhat inconclusive. For example, with different studies and different samples, identified research variables (such as aptitude, skill, experience, personality, self-esteem) have shown varying degrees of correlation.

To date, no studies have shown a clear causal relationship (for any of the three theoretical positions) between job satisfaction and job performance. One possible explanation (among perhaps several) for the lack of consensus found -- despite the volume of research conducted -- may lie in the type of methodological approach utilized.

An Interactionist Perspective

Another plausible approach to the study of employee performance and job satisfaction is an interactionist perspective. This is a distinct departure from attempting to establish directionality between constructs in a causal manner. It is different conceptualization of the relationships; one that stresses the importance of the individual, the situation, and the interaction of the individual and the situation. For example, according to this perspective, employee performance and job satisfaction is best viewed (separately) as a function of the interaction of an employee (a salesperson) and the prevailing (selling) situation.

Most previous research related to employee performance and job satisfaction has focused on either individual-oriented (dispositional) or situational-oriented (environmental) studies. These approaches, however, have not yielded entirely satisfactory results. They have failed to address the possibility that the interaction of an individual and

situation (or environment) may better explain the phenomena in question.

Therefore, the interactionist perspective suggests that neither individual nor situational factors (when considered alone) are capable of explaining the relationship between variables (Pervin, 1968). Rather, it is the interplay of the individual with the situation that creates a particular attitudinal or behavioral response. Therefore, proponents of this approach argue that in attempting to explain employee performance or job satisfaction, it is necessary to consider an individual salesperson, relevant factors in a selling environment, and their interaction.

Methodological Issues

Conspicuous by their absence are concise, workable construct definitions for employee performance and job satisfaction (see Appendix F; Table F-3). It appears that satisfaction and performance have, in general, come to be defined by their operationalizations. When operationalizations differ from study to study (see Appendix F; Table F-4) they become problematic. Results among studies may also vary, as a consequence.

That differing operationalizations can influence results in relationships was hypothesized in a study conducted by Sheridan and Slocum (1975). Their hypothesis, which was partially supported, was that the direction of the causal relationship between performance and satisfaction can be

influenced by disparate satisfaction operationalizations. Therefore, it would appear beneficial for researchers to arrive at a consensus regarding how constructs should be operationalized and measured.

In terms of performance, both objective and subjective measures may be utilized. For a sales setting, objective measures could include items such as dollar sales amounts, percentage of quota met, or number of sales calls made. Subjective measures typically would include performance evaluations (by supervisors, by co-workers, and/or by salespersons, themselves). A more inclusive measure of performance may be obtained by utilizing both objective and subjective measures. However, Iaffaldano and Muchinsky's (1985) meta-analysis indicated that only 7 out of 74 studies utilized both objective and subjective measures of performance. Obtaining and examining both "hard" and "soft" measures of performance appears desirable in terms of providing more complete information regarding salesforce performance. Similarly, Dubinsky and Hartley (1986) have suggested that more complete measures of performance are likely to yield improved research results.

Another methodological issue of concern is that of varying sample sizes. Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) state that much of the "variability in results obtained in previous research has been due to the use of small sample sizes" (p. 251). In their meta-analytic review of 74 empirical

studies (total sample of 12,192), sample sizes ranged from 32 to 471. The average sample size was 164.

A final methodological issue to consider is that of one's approach to a study of interest. Studies related to job satisfaction and employee performance have been approached in a number of ways (e.g., case studies, correlational studies, causal analyses). Recently (as well as in the past), it has been suggested that the interactionist approach to research may provide useful information (Day & Bedeian, 1990; Chatman, 1989; Pervin, 1989; Schneider, 1987; Wood & Bandura, 1989). This approach appears useful in that it acknowledges that behavior is a function of individual and the situational variables.

Current Research in the Area of Turnover

Employee turnover has received attention from both managers and academicians for many years. The conditions which lead to an individual's decision to leave an organization are not fully understood today, despite many years of research attention. Early research in this area can be traced to the early 1900s and was purported to be prompted by a recognition of negative consequences associated with turnover.

One of the predominant views of turnover during the early 1900s was that turnover represented a cost to an organization. Matherly (1922) suggested that costs of employee turnover

could be outlined in three areas: (1) costs to employers (i.e., "breaking in new men", costs of materials--new employees do not know how to handle goods, costs of idle time on machines, costs of accidents, etc.); (2) costs to employees (i.e., loss of wages, loss of skills, losses associated with moving, losses associated with expenses of finding new positions, loss of earnings during time they are acquiring new skills, etc.); and (3) costs to society (i.e., defective goods being manufactured by less experienced workers, reductions in labor efficiency, etc.).

Turnover is no longer considered simply in terms of costs related to manufacturing efficiencies. In today's market, other costs are recognized and considered. Currently, employers, employees, and society -- in general, remain affected by high employee turnover rates. For an employer, current costs of turnover may be related to costs of recruiting, selecting, hiring and training. Additional costs may include the potential loss of other employees who worked closely with those who quit, loss of productivity, loss of "unclosed" sales, and loss of professional "image" of a firm. For an employee, it can be speculated that losses similar to those in the early 1900s may still be experienced. And for society, in general, costs may include reductions in service levels provided and loss of continuity of service.

More recent academic research has focused on defining and measuring turnover (Abelson, 1987; Dalton, Todor &

Krackhardt, 1982; Hollenbeck & Williams, 1986; Mobley, 1982); possible causes and correlates of turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986; Mobley, Griffith, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; and Porter & Steers, 1973); consequences of turnover (Krackhardt & Porter, 1986; Mobley, 1982; Mowday, 1981); theories of turnover (Mobley, 1982; Mobley, Griffith, Hand & Meglino, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973); taxonomies of turnover (Blau & Boal, 1987; Dalton, Todor & Krackhardt, 1982; Hollenbeck & Williams, 1986) and turnover's relationship with other forms of withdrawal behavior -- such as employee tardiness and absenteeism (Clegg, 1983; Jackofsky & Peters, 1983). Predictors of turnover which have received recent research interest are: burnout (Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986; Prestholdt, Lane & Mathews, 1987); performance (McEvoy & Cascio, 1987; Jackofsky, 1984; Wells & Muchinsky, 1985); and perceived alternatives (Griffith & Hom, 1988; Steel & Griffith, 1988).

Of particular interest to the dissertation research was the reconceptualization of turnover to reflect either a "match" between a person and environment or a "mismatch" -- whereby an individual would choose to leave an organization. This is a recognition that it is not just individual nor situational factors which may lead a person to the decision of whether to remain with or leave an organization. Instead it is how an individual and situation interact -- (that is thought to bring about the decision of remaining with or

leaving an organization). This aspect of turnover will be discussed in reviewing the turnover literature presented in Chapter Two.

PERFORMANCE, SATISFACTION and TURNOVER: RECONCEPTUALIZED

In light of inconclusive findings regarding the constructs of employee performance and job satisfaction, it appears that these attitudinal and behavioral outcome variables are worthy of continued study. Despite the suggestions of some researchers that the relationship between performance and satisfaction is an "illusory correlation, a perceived relation between two variables that we logically or intuitively think should interrelate, but in fact do not" (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985, p. 270) -- one can argue that perhaps the relationship has not been proven because research attention has primarily focused on either individual or situational factors, without a consideration of how these factors interact. While it is beyond the scope of the dissertation research to causally establish linkages between the constructs of employee performance and job satisfaction, it is suggested that an improved approach to the establishment of such linkages may include a preliminary investigation into and consideration of the interaction effects between variables.

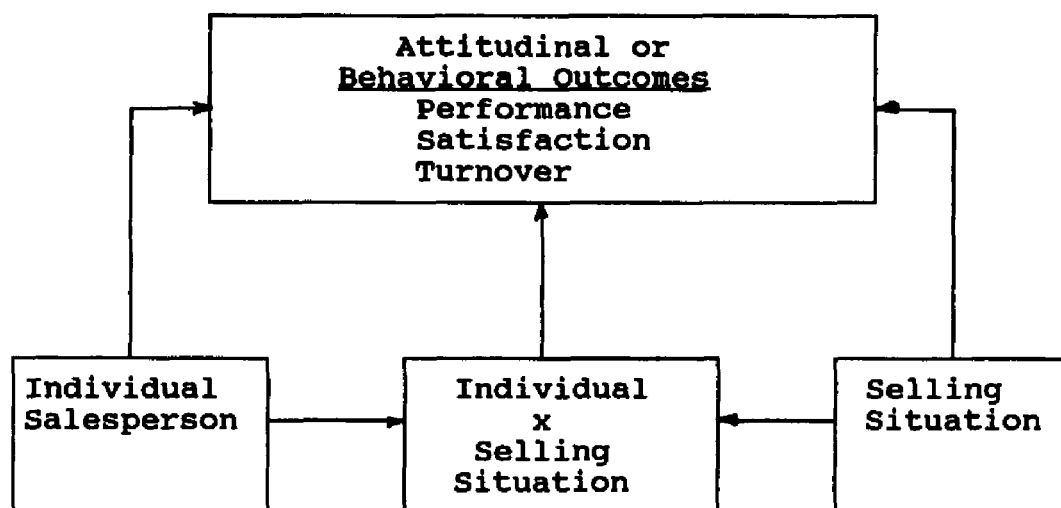
This dissertation, therefore, represented an attempt to

provide some insight into how employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover can be predicted from the interaction between an individual salesperson and selling environment. It will be argued that satisfaction, performance, and turnover can be viewed as being a function of a person, an environment and their interaction. A representation of this approach is illustrated in Figure 1-1.

In this study, performance is defined as the degree to which individuals carry out, or execute, their job in adherence with certain specified standards (adapted from Szilagyi, 1977). As will be discussed in a later section, performance will be measured with objective (quantitative) data, as well as with subjective (qualitative) data.

For the dissertation research, satisfaction was defined as "the degree to which an individual's desires, expectations, and needs are fulfilled by his employment in an organization" (Szilagyi, Sims, & Keller, 1976). Seven distinct dimensions of satisfaction were measured for the purposes of this study - satisfaction with customers, with co-workers, with pay, with company policies, with promotional opportunities, with supervision, and with the job itself.

Figure 1.1
Illustration of Relationships between Salesperson Attitudes
or Behavioral Outcomes,
the Individual and the Situation



Turnover was defined as "the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organization" (Mobley, 1982). It was measured simply as the number of employees who quit the firm between data collection periods at Time 1 and Time 2. The turnover rate was computed by the formula: (# turnover incidents/average salesforce size) x 100.

Research Questions

A number of research questions stem from an interactionist approach to investigating employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. They include the following:

- (1) Can a salesperson's satisfaction be predicted from considering the individual, the situation, and their interaction?
- (2) Can a behavioral outcome such as employee performance be predicted from investigating an individual, a situation and their interaction?
- (3) Does the inclusion of objective and subjective measures of performance contribute more to our understanding, than either objective or subjective measures utilized alone?
- (4) Will there be gender differences in terms of

individual factors, situational factors or interaction factors?

- (5) Can related streams of research in organizational psychology, management and marketing be brought together, theoretically and empirically, for the benefit of both practitioners and researchers?

THE DISSERTATION RESEARCH

The dissertation investigated salesperson performance, satisfaction, and turnover in a sales environment. The dissertation proposes an interactionist approach. This approach was utilized to investigate salesperson performance, job satisfaction and turnover which involved both situational (work-related) and individual (personal difference) variables, along with their interaction.

The empirical research process involved a regional sample of a medium-size advertising sales agency. Approximately 89 "outside" salespeople (both male and female) completed a questionnaire requesting information regarding their perceptions of role stress, work-related factors, individual difference factors and satisfaction (eight different dimensions). Performance ratings (both quantitative and qualitative) were acquired for each salesperson from their immediate supervisors (i.e., sales managers); see Appendix B,

for evaluation form.

The survey questionnaire addressed job related attitudes, utilizing Likert-type scales. All scale items have been validated, tested and used previously in empirical investigations. Satisfaction was measured with the IndSales Index (96 items) and role stress variables were measured with a 14 item scale (Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman, 1972). Both quantitative and qualitative measures of performance were utilized. Self-reported demographic information provided data regarding age, gender and tenure. Conceptual definitions and justification for inclusion of variables is provided in Chapter 2.

After receiving completed questionnaires, responses were coded and data analyses proceeded. The specific analyses which were conducted for each research hypothesis are discussed in Chapter Three. For a summary of the analyses see Tables 3.5 and 3.6.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The dissertation addressed areas of salesperson performance, satisfaction, and turnover which are in need further development. The dissertation assumed an interactionist perspective, specifying an interactional rather than a direct model. This approach is founded upon suggestions from other researchers indicating that an

interactionist approach may improve our understanding of individuals and the environments within which they perform (Day & Bedeian, 1990; Pervin, 1989; Weitz, 1981).

Relevant individual and situational variables were analyzed for their contribution to predicting employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover. Select variables include: role perceptions of stress (ambiguity and conflict)-situational variables; job tenure, and gender (individual variables); and an interaction term (role stress x tenure). These variables were selected for investigation based upon previous theoretical and empirical research which indicated their significance in understanding employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover.

Finally, differences in perceptions of male and female salespersons (and between "stayers" and "leavers") were assessed, in terms of their attitudes toward job satisfaction, their performance, and their tendency to remain with or leave the focal sales organization. It was proposed that this information would be extremely useful in understanding some of the current, complex issues related to salesforce performance, satisfaction, and turnover.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the nature of theoretical development related to employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover. Particular emphasis is devoted to a comparison of theoretical positions and the manner in which they were developed. Contributions are drawn from research conducted by both management and marketing researchers, as well as from organizational psychologists.

Many individual and situational variables have been hypothesized as either antecedents or as moderators of employee performance and job satisfaction. (See Appendix F; Table F-1). From Table F-1, certain of these variables will be presented and discussed. Likewise, individual and situational variables have been hypothesized as antecedents and moderators of employee turnover (See Appendix F, Table F-7). Selected variables from these tables will be presented and discussed.

The purpose of this chapter is to review literature relevant to the dissertation topic, identify major issues in the extant body of research, and state hypotheses which indicate in what area and by what means the research contributes to resolving these issues. The organization of Chapter Two is as follows:

- 1) Review major areas of employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover research, emphasizing conceptual and methodological issues. Present and discuss previously formulated models.
- 2) Investigate an interactionist perspective in studying employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. Discuss the manner in which this perspective will improve our understanding of employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover.
- 3) Examine selected constructs which were anticipated to contribute to an understanding of employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover. Several individual and situational variables are proposed as worthy of further investigation: role perceptions (situational), tenure and gender (individual).
- 4) Summarize the findings and issues of the literature reviewed in the chapter and identify needed research. Dissertation hypotheses are stated in this section.

REVIEW OF EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE
AND JOB SATISFACTION LITERATURE

The Relationship of Employee Performance and Job Satisfaction

Much of the behavioral research in the past century has focused on the attitudes and behaviors of employees, particularly employee performance and satisfaction. At one time an accepted tenet was that a satisfied employee was a productive employee. "Morale is not an abstraction; rather it is concrete in the sense that it directly affects the quality and quantity of an individual's output. Employee morale -- reduces turnover -- cuts down absenteeism and tardiness; lifts production" (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955).

Despite the lack of strong or consistent findings in the literature during the past half century, interest in the relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction has not abated. Perhaps this is due to the intuitively appealing notion of satisfaction being related to performance; it somehow seems to "fit" with the current value system of U.S. corporations. Another possible factor contributing to the ongoing interest in this area is that findings (while failing to display strong correlations) have generally been consistently positive. This seems to be enough "fuel" to fire the interest of consecutive generations of researchers.

It is the contention of this author that we, as researchers, cannot be too hasty in dismissing a possible

relationship between performance and satisfaction. Not only in terms of scholarly pursuit, but also in terms of managerial implications it is a topic of substantial significance. However, due to somewhat disappointing previous research results, perhaps a different approach is in order. Before causal linkages and directionality can be established between employee performance and job satisfaction, it is necessary to understand the underlying nature of these constructs. Therefore, it is being suggested that a reconsideration and a reconceptualization of employee performance and job satisfaction is in order. Such a reconceptualization may include looking at employee performance and job satisfaction from an interactionist perspective. If we accept that the goal of research in this area is to establish a knowledge base capable of explaining and predicting employee performance and job satisfaction (as well as understanding the relationships between these constructs); then perhaps a more in-depth understanding of the constructs themselves would be beneficial.

It is perhaps also desirable to consider that this research is most accurately classified as falling within the logic of discovery, rather than the logic of justification. Causality is far from being investigated or suggested. Rather, this investigation is more closely related to the concern with and discovery of basic relationships. In terms of research being conducted in the area of job satisfaction

and employee performance, this perspective may be viewed as unnecessary. However, academicians have been cautioned -- "too often, quantitative social scientists, presume that in true science, quantitative knowing replaces qualitative, commonsense knowing. That situation is in fact quite different. Rather, science depends upon qualitative, common-sense knowing even though at best, it goes beyond it (Campbell, 1979, pp. 69-70). This author would suggest that before we can arrive at "quantitative knowing" about the relationships between employee performance and job satisfaction, we must first establish a "qualitative, common-sense knowing" about the basic constructs of employee performance and job satisfaction. And then we can go "beyond".

Today, there appears to be a somewhat 'common-sense' general consensus--the tentative acceptance that relationships between employee performance and job satisfaction do exist. However, in an empirical sense, the nature and direction of those relationships remain largely unconfirmed. Therefore, it can be said that a discrepancy exists between the "quantitative knowing" and the "qualitative, commonsense knowing" in this particular area. As a consequence, additional research is not only warranted but justified.

To that end, theoretical issues relating to performance and satisfaction are presented. Based upon this theoretical foundation, a different approach to investigating the

constructs (and, hopefully, increasing our understanding of them) is presented. Individual and situational variables which are hypothesized as relating to employee performance and job satisfaction will be presented and discussed.

THEORIES OF SATISFACTION/PERFORMANCE

There is no established "theory" of job satisfaction and employee performance as evidenced by Hunt's (1983) 'textbook' definition of theory: "a theory is a systematically related set of statements, including some lawlike generalizations, that is empirically testable. The purpose of theory is to increase scientific understanding through a systematized structure capable of both explaining and predicting phenomena" (p. 4). Rather than an established theory, there are several theoretical perspectives which have been proposed in explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. These perspectives are that:

- (1) satisfaction leads to performance;
- (2) performance leads to satisfaction;
- (3) the relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction is moderated by a number of variables.

Each of these perspectives will be investigated as they contribute to our understanding of the primary constructs of employee performance and job satisfaction. From this

theoretical foundation, the dissertation research suggests an alternative conceptualization of the primary constructs.

Satisfaction leads to Performance

From an historical point of view, this is the oldest theoretical perspective dealing with the relationship between satisfaction and performance. Developed during the human relations period of management, possibly as a backlash to the perceived abuses of the scientific management era, this perspective clearly incorporated changing assumptions about people and their work.

If the scientific management era could be classified as an "efficiency, engineering" approach to employees, the human relations era would be classified as a "behavioral" approach. What became important to managers of this era was employee attitudes and involvement at work, the nature of motivation and the role of supervisors in enhancing cooperation. For many, the outcome of this approach was increased productivity.

The Hawthorne studies, perhaps the most famous of all management studies, provide a clear indication of the human relations philosophy. Because previous research had shown a relationship between improved lighting and improved performance, the original research question in the study was: "What was the effect of workplace illumination on worker productivity?" (Wren, p. 236). The results of the original

study were counterintuitive; regardless of the level of illumination, productivity was maintained or even increased. Even under conditions of insufficient lighting ("the level of moonlight"), productivity increased.

As a result of these findings, further experiments were conducted. The general conclusion was the increase in productivity could be attributed to a number of factors such as: (1) the small, cohesive group that developed; (2) the type of supervision that evolved; (3) the compensation plan; (4) the experiment itself; and (5) the attention that the participants received. According to an interim report (May, 1929), "output of the assemblers was up from 35 to 50 percent; fatigue reduction was not a factor in this increased output; payment in the small group 'was a factor of the appreciable importance in increasing output'; and the workers were more 'content' due to the 'pleasanter, freer, and happier working conditions' caused by the 'considerate supervision'" (Wren, 1987, p. 239).

It appeared that with no significant changes in the working environment, employee morale and, consequently, employee performance increased. This improvement seemed to be closely associated with the style of supervision and, as a result, "workers developed a greater zest for work and formed new personal bonds of friendship both on the job and in after hours activities" (Wren, p. 240).

An interpretation of this research as related to employee

productivity would argue that it is not a problem of engineering and technology; rather it is a social and human problem. "Whether or not a person is going to give his services whole heartedly to a group depends, in good part, on the way he feels about his job, his fellow workers, a n d supervisors ...(a person wants) ... social recognition ... tangible evidence of our social importance...the feeling of security that comes not so much from the amount of money we have in the bank as from being an accepted member of the group" (Roethlisberger, 1939, p. 15, pp. 24-25).

Following the Hawthorne studies, other researchers (Mary Follett, Chester Barnard, Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, for example) further developed the ideas that had originated therein. This "human relations" approach to work focused on the nature of human needs and on the social aspects of work and workgroups that could fulfill those needs.

Roethlisberger (1939) stated the case for this approach very well:

People at work are not so different from people in other aspects of life. They are not entirely creatures of logic. They have feelings. They like to feel important and to have their work recognized as important. Although they are interested in the size of their pay envelope, this is not a matter of their first concern. Sometimes they are more interested in having their pay reflect accurately the relative social importance to them of the different jobs they do. Sometimes even still more important to them than maintenance of socially accepted wage differentials is the way their superiors treat them... In short, employees, like most people, want to be treated as belonging to and being an integral part of some group.

The separate works of Abraham Maslow and Frederick Herzberg are closely related and noteworthy of mentioning. Both of these researchers focused on the idea that human beings have certain needs which they attempt to satisfy.

Maslow's contribution to the human relations movement was a "hierarchy of needs" -- a theory of motivation. Maslow (1943) suggested that there are five basic human needs: physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self actualization. According to Maslow, these needs are related to each and are arranged in a hierarchy of "prepotency". That is, when lower level needs are largely satisfied, the drive to fulfill them is significantly diminished. At that point, higher level needs emerge to dominate behavior.

Maslow's theory of motivation presumed that higher levels of needs would dictate employee behavior, since the U.S. economy had moved from the subsistence level (which would be associated with the fulfillment of physiological or safety needs) to a more stable level of economic existence. Maslow would accordingly argue for working environments that would specifically meet the needs of employees in areas such as friendship, self-esteem and self actualization.

The way in which a working environment could fulfill human needs was further studied by Frederick Herzberg and his associates (1957). Herzberg endeavored specifically to determine what kinds of things contributed to employees' satisfaction and happiness and conversely, their

dissatisfaction and unhappiness. Through Herzberg's research, two distinct types of needs were discovered: (1) those relating to the working environment or job context, and (2) those related to the actual work itself; or the job content.

Herzberg concluded that it was only those factors related to the work itself (termed "motivators") that could lead to positive attitudes, -- job satisfaction or motivation. Included in the category of "motivators" were factors such as achievement, challenging work, job responsibility, and opportunities for growth and development. According to Herzberg, the other factors (termed "hygiene") could only contribute to the prevention of dissatisfaction, but would never lead to satisfaction or motivation. Included in this category were factors such as physical working conditions, job security, company policies, supervision, interpersonal relations, and salaries.

Herzberg empirically tested his motivator-hygiene theory and his results have been the brunt of much criticism. While the theory may hold some intuitive appeal, it has been suggested that Herzberg's data collection techniques led to the results he reported (Wren, p. 378).

Although Herzberg's research methodology may be suspect, it is interesting that researchers and practitioners today still struggle with identical issues. That is, questions of how to satisfy and motivate employees, what type of working environment leads to greater productivity, and how to

compensate employees, etc. are very much a concern to practitioners and academicians alike.

Many questions remain regarding the purported idea that satisfaction leads to performance. However, there are other theoretical perspectives that attempt to address this issue.

Performance leads to Satisfaction

Because attempts to confirm the causal relationship of satisfaction leading to performance have failed, researchers have proposed different conceptualizations of this relationship. Indeed, some research evidence suggests that the ordering of the two constructs should be reversed; that performance leads to satisfaction. This stream of research would appear to be based upon the acknowledgement that there is a positive relationship between the two variables; and that perhaps the strength of the relationship could be increased if the ordering of the variables were changed. Instrumental to this particular research stream were the efforts of Vroom (1964). As a consequence of his literature review (23 studies), Vroom concluded that there was a positive relationship between the two constructs (+.14 median correlation). Vroom (1964) further theorized that there was no particular reason to suspect that satisfaction caused performance and suggested that job satisfaction and job

performance are actually caused by different things: "job satisfaction is closely affected by the amount of rewards that people derive from their jobs and ... level of performance is closely affected by the basis of attainment of rewards. Individuals are satisfied with their jobs to the extent to which their jobs provide them with what they desire, and they perform effectively in them to the extent that effective performance leads to the attainment of what they desire" (p. 246).

Assuming, therefore that there is some relationship between satisfaction and performance, some researchers (Behrman & Perreault, 1984; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Lawler & Porter, 1967; Walker, Churchill & Ford, 1977) reconceptualized the relationship by investigating a reverse ordering of the constructs. Underlying this theoretical perspective is the thought that rewards create satisfaction (in an individual), and that in many cases (for some employees), good performance leads to rewards. Therefore, it is possible that the relationship between satisfaction and performance is a result of the impact of rewards. According to this line of thinking, high performers may receive reinforcement for their productivity in the form of rewards, and this may lead to satisfaction.

This is a clear departure from the idea that satisfied employees will perform better; this perspective suggests that productive (high performing) employees will be more satisfied,

as a consequence of their attitudes toward rewards. This logic is evidenced in the models that follow.

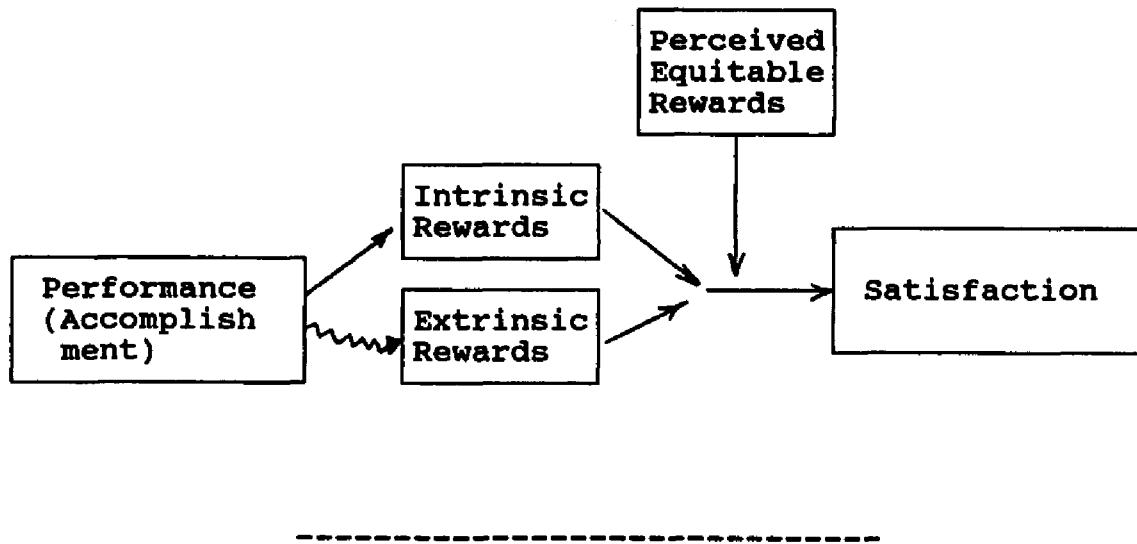
Lawler - Porter Model (1967). Lawler and Porter argue that job satisfaction is an important construct to study (aside from its previously theorized impact upon performance). These researchers suggest that job satisfaction should be studied due to (1) its influence upon absenteeism and turnover, and (2) its consistent (even if somewhat low) association with performance.

According to Lawler and Porter, there is little reason to believe that satisfaction causes performance. In support of this view, they cite Vroom's (1964) position which viewed job satisfaction as being affected by rewards and performance as being affected by attainment of rewards.

Lawler and Porter's model (shown in Figure 2-1), shows: (1) performance is an antecedent of rewards; (2) there are two types of rewards; (3) that rewards are not directly related to job satisfaction; and (4) that the relationship is mediated by expected equitable rewards.

Lawler and Porter empirically tested their model and results were found to be in general agreement with its predictions. Results appeared to support the position that satisfaction of higher order needs (for example, needs related to self-actualization, autonomy and self-esteem) would be most closely related to performance. Additionally, the data

Figure 2-1
Lawler and Porter's Theoretical Model of
Performance and Satisfaction

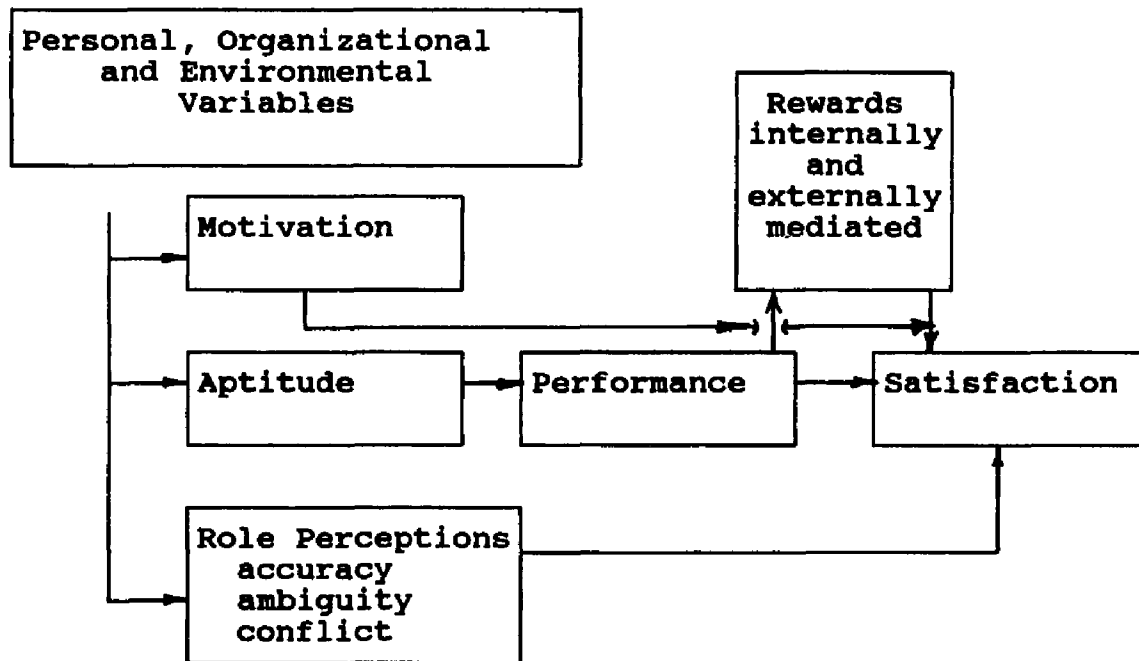


supported the theoretical position that satisfaction can be conceptualized as depending upon performance, rather than causing it.

Walker, Churchill, and Ford Model (1977). The model proposed by Walker, Churchill and Ford, as depicted in Figure 2-2, is based upon extensive theoretical and empirical effort. These researchers suggest that it is "naive to think that happy workers are invariably productive workers" (p. 323) and that the relationship between performance and satisfaction may be somewhat more complex.

In previous empirical research, Churchill, Ford and Walker (1976) found that organizational climate was "an important determinant in salesforce morale" ... more than 40 percent of the variation in total job satisfaction among salesmen is explained by (organizational) climate variables" (p. 331). Therefore, in this conceptual model, Walker et al. stress the importance of organizational variables, along with

Figure 2-2
Walker, Churchill and Ford's Model:
Determinants of Salesperson's Performance



personal and environmental factors. Additionally, the model includes motivation, aptitude, and role perceptions. The model suggests that performance is a direct function of motivation, aptitude, and role perceptions. Further, the relationship between performance and satisfaction is illustrated as being impacted by both internal and external rewards.

It is the proposed direction of the linkages between satisfaction and performance that are of interest. Walker et al. assume the same theoretical perspective as that of Lawler and Porter -- that performance leads to satisfaction -- through its influence upon both internal and external rewards.

Behrman and Perreault Model (1984). The model proposed by Behrman and Perreault (1984) is presented in Figure 2-3. It is a representation of an "integrative" approach in describing antecedents and consequences of salesforce role stress; with an emphasis upon two particular outcomes: salesforce performance and satisfaction. According to these researchers, their model includes "only variables that directly relate to a role perspective of the sales situation" (p. 10).

The specific theoretical foundation upon which the model is based is boundary-role theory. This theoretical position seeks to explain the interrelated activities and role characteristics of individuals who interact with "role

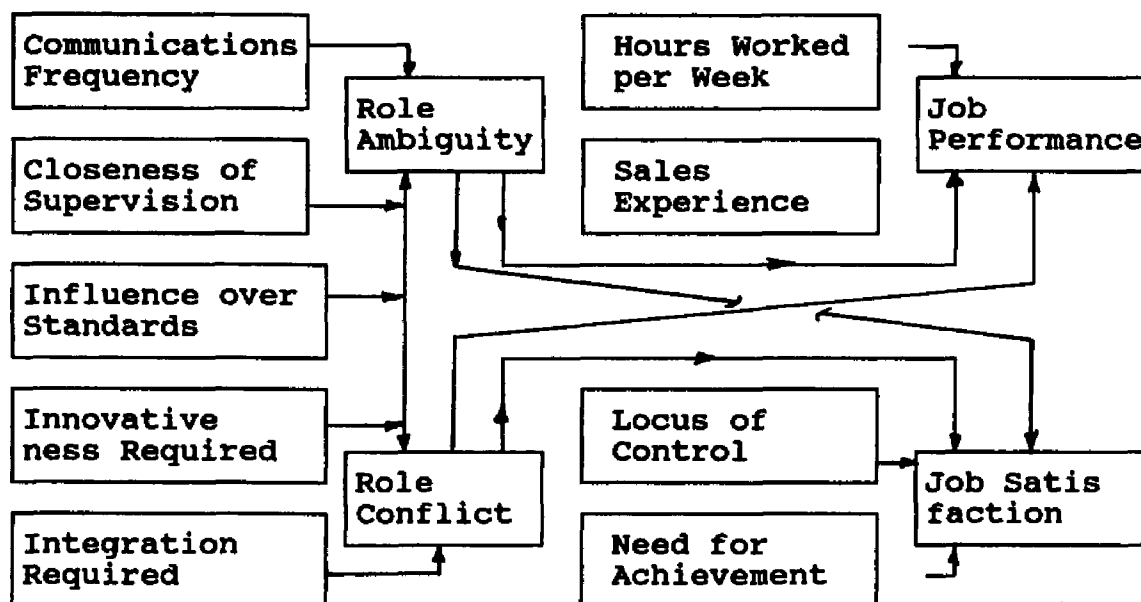
partners" beyond the formal "boundaries" of their own organization. Additionally, boundary role theory attempts to predict the manner in which boundary spanners react to their task environment (i.e., do they perceive greater role stress as a result of their boundary positions -- and will those perceptions create differences in performance?).

Behrman and Perreault tested their model by surveying 196 sales representatives. From their overall model, they identified four dependent variables and thus, four submodels: (1) the role conflict model; (2) the role ambiguity model; (3) the performance model; and (4) the satisfaction model. Results of their analysis are depicted in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1
Empirical Results: Behrman & Perreault (1984)

Model		Variance Explained
<u>Role Conflict</u>	Influence over Standards Integration Required Innovativeness Required Locus of Control	33% (p<.01)
<u>Role Ambiguity</u>	Role Conflict Communication Frequency Closeness of Supervision Influence over Standards Sales Experience	40% (p<.011)
<u>Performance</u>	Role Ambiguity Hours Worked Sales Experience	25% (p<.01)
<u>Satisfaction</u>	Performance Role Ambiguity Role Conflict Need for Achievement Locus of Control	42% (p<.01)

Figure 2-3
Behrman and Perreault's Role Stress Model of
Performance and Satisfaction in Industrial Salespersons



Behrman and Perreault state that one of the most interesting elements of their model is the performance equation. While the variance explained by this equation is lower than that of the other equations, these researchers admit that the lower R may be the result of other (not included) variables related to salesperson performance. Path coefficients for the individual predictors in the performance equation are: role ambiguity ($-.429, p < .01$); role conflict ($.189, p < .05$); hours worked ($.160, p < .05$); and sales experience ($.182, p < .01$). These results appear to indicate

that effective performance for a salesperson may include attempts to reduce ambiguity in a selling environment and attempts to develop coping mechanisms to deal with the inherent conflict in selling environments. In line with common logic, the results also indicate that salespeople who work harder (longer hours) and those with greater experience will be more effective.

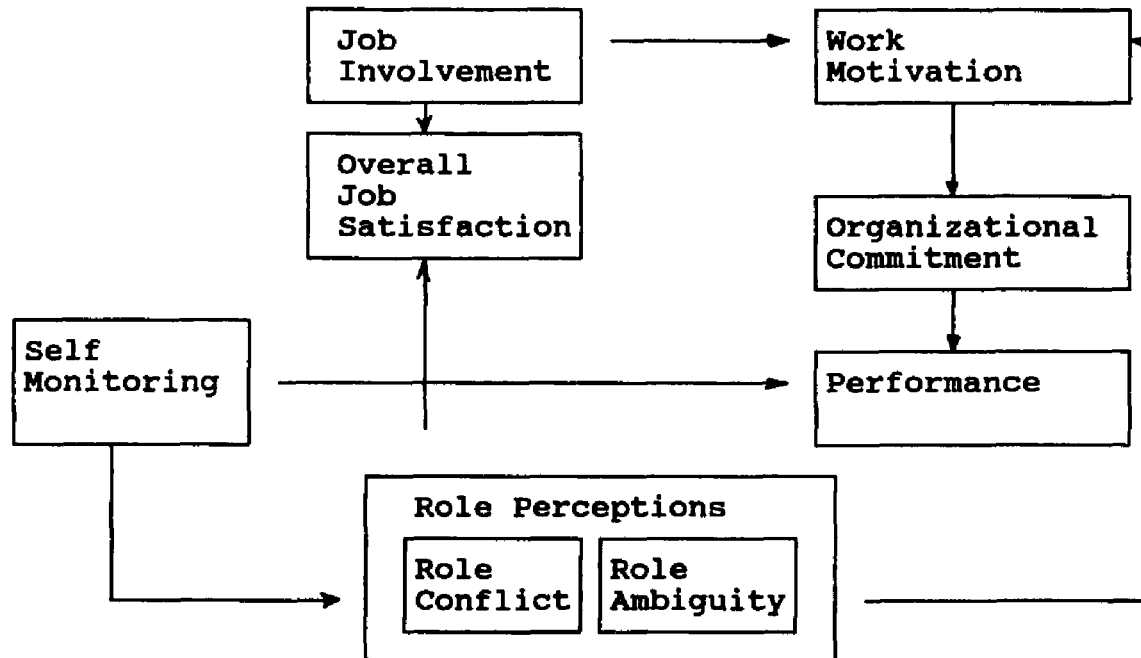
The satisfaction equation is also interesting. The equation explained 42 percent variance, utilizing predictor variables of job performance, role stress, need for achievement and locus of control. Path coefficients for these variables are: performance (.028, ns); role ambiguity (-.300, $p < .01$); role conflict (-.302, $p < .01$); need for achievement (.024, ns) and locus of control (-.197, $p < .01$).

In terms of the relationship between performance and satisfaction, Behrman and Perreault's results show a statistically significant bivariate relationship ($r = .19$, $p < .01$), when the constructs are considered in isolation. However, when role stress variables are included as part of the analysis, the "marginal affect of performance in explaining variance in sales job satisfaction is not significant" (p. 20). Behrman and Perreault suggest that this finding is of critical importance to researchers concerned with tests of theory in this area, as it "posits that models that do specify and test important antecedent effects may yield incomplete or potentially misleading results and

conclusions" (p. 20).

Dubinsky and Hartley Model (1986). The model presented by Dubinsky and Hartley (see Figure 2-4) is positioned not only as a necessary investigation of the "interrelationships among the variables in the Walker, Churchill and Ford (1979) model", but also as an extension of previous empirical work through the inclusion of three additional variables: (1) self monitoring -- or the degree

Figure 2-4
Dubinsky and Hartley's Hypothesized Model of
Salesperson Performance



to which individuals respond to others (or adapt their behavior) based upon situational cues; (2) job involvement - or the degree to which individuals identify psychologically with their jobs; and (3) organizational commitment -- operationalized as the employee's propensity to stay (or their reluctance to leave) the organization.

A test of the model developed by Dubinsky and Hartley involved data collection and analysis of responses from 120 salespeople. Path-analysis techniques were utilized. Results of the analysis failed to confirm a significant linkage between job performance and satisfaction. Likewise, no meaningful relationships were found between self monitoring and performance. However, relationships were found between performance and work motivation ($-.224, p < .05$); role conflict ($.257, p < .01$) and role ambiguity ($-.398, p < .01$).

Dubinsky and Hartley offer a plausible explanation for finding a negative relationship between performance and motivation. They suggest that salesperson performance is influenced by many factors which are not directly under the control of the individual. As a result, their performance measure (which was total earnings for the previous year), "may have been too narrow in scope....the 'true' work motivation/job performance linkage might have been masked in this investigation" (1986, p. 44).

The results related to the role stress variables are consistent with the results obtained by Behrman and Perrault

(1984). Specifically, role ambiguity had the largest path coefficient ($-.398$, $p < .01$) and role conflict had a significant positive relationship to job performance ($.257$, $p < .01$). Dubinsky and Hartley state that the findings related to role ambiguity are consistent with not only previous research but with theory, as well. As explanation for the positive relationship between role conflict and performance, they state that "role conflict is a basic and unavoidable characteristic of the selling job; effective performance depends on the salesperson's confronting and coping with that conflict" (1986, p. 43).

Summary. The models presented in this section provide some basis for increasing our understanding of the relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction. Some insight into previous research is gained through an analysis of these models. However, no clear relationship has been established between employee performance and job satisfaction as a result of studies reviewed. Therefore, an investigation of the third theoretical position -- that the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction is moderated by other variables -- is presented next.

Performance/Satisfaction Relationship Moderated by Other Variables

Much work has been undertaken to examine the relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction as moderated by other variables. For example, consider the following list of proposed moderating variables: aptitude (Churchill, Ford & Walker; Oliver, 1974); locus of control (Anderson, 1977; Avila & Fern, 1986; Behrman, Bigoness & Perreault, 1981); motivation (Bagozzi, 1980; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986; Sujan, Weitz & Sujan, 1988); role variables (Bagozzi, 1980; Behrman & Perreault, 1984; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986; Szilagyi, 1977) and self esteem (Bagozzi, 1980; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Lucas, 1985; Porac, Ferris & Fedor, 1983). See Appendix F, for additional information on reviewed moderating variables.

Models have also appeared in the literature which depict the effect of moderating variables upon the relationship between employee performance and job satisfaction. Several of these were chosen for presentation as part of the proposed dissertation literature review. The models of Triandis (1959) and Bagozzi (1978) are presented below.

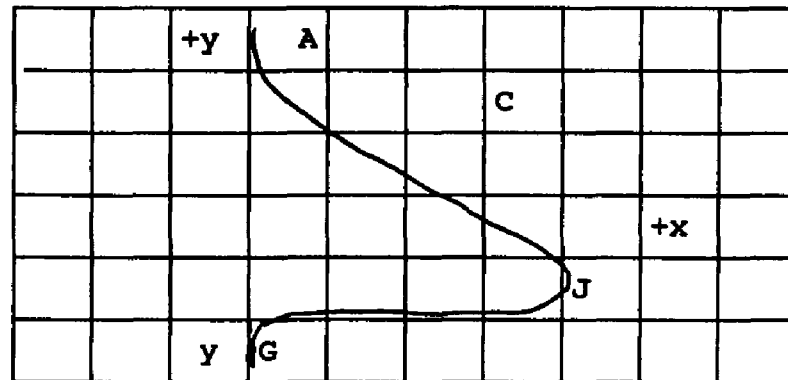
Triandis Model (1959). Triandis (1959) provided a review of the literature focusing on "morale surveys and performance" (p. 309). Studies reviewed indicate contradictory findings regarding the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction. Those finding no

relationship at all between the two constructs were Bernberg (1952), Katz, Maccoby & Morse (1950), and Kristy (1952). Studies which found a positive relationship between performance and satisfaction were Giese and Ruter (1949; $r = .19$); and Heron (1952; $r = .31$). Katz and Kahn (1951) and Halpin (1951) reportedly found a negative relationship between satisfaction and output. Triandis (like Vroom, 1964) concluded that there is no reason to believe that "satisfied workers and high output necessarily go together" (p. 309).

As a means of clarification, Triandis suggested pursuing a "logical analysis" of the relationship between performance and satisfaction and thus, presented a model depicting the "Output-Job Satisfaction Curve", see Figure 2-5. According to Triandis, a third (moderating) variable is a requisite for this type of analysis: the pressure for production.

As an abbreviated explanation for Triandis' model, Point A represents maximum employee satisfaction and minimal pressure for production -- thereby resulting in minimal output ("this is the output that would be needed for the satisfaction of activity drives or the output due to intrinsic job satisfaction", p. 310). Point C represents increased output and moderate job satisfaction, whereas Point J depicts maximum output at moderately high levels of dissatisfaction. Accordingly, Point G is the "shoot me - I don't care" point corresponding to a point of extreme pressure for production, extreme dissatisfaction and a low level of output.

Figure 2-5
Triandis' Output-Job Satisfaction Curve



Note: x is output
+y is positive job
satisfaction
-y is negative job
satisfaction

Perhaps the most significant contribution that Triandis makes is his acknowledgment that "current methods of studying the relationship between output and job satisfaction are inadequate. Positive, negative, or no findings are equally likely" (p. 311). Interestingly enough, 30 years have elapsed since the statement was made, although it could have easily been lifted off the pages of a recent journal.

From a managerial perspective, Triandis recognized that the ideal position on the curve is one wherein employees are most satisfied and their output is highest -- at the same time. The determination of that very same position on the

curve continues to challenge (as well as allude) us today. Where is the optimal point on the curve and how can we identify those employees who are thus 'located'? Further, can we bring about 'movement' of other employees who are not at that point on the curve?

Bagozzi Model (1980). Bagozzi's work endeavored to "discover the true relationship between performance and satisfaction" (p. 236) in an industrial salesforce. As justification for this study, Bagozzi stated that without an understanding of the direction of causality between the constructs of performance and satisfaction, managers cannot successfully influence the activities and experiences of their salespeople.

Based upon his review of the literature, Bagozzi hypothesized that performance would influence job satisfaction, but that satisfaction would not influence performance significantly. Three individual difference variables are presented as moderators of the performance /satisfaction relationship:

(1) achievement motivation - the idea that individuals will evaluate job outcomes differently and work toward different performance goals. These factors will subsequently influence performance and satisfaction.

(2) self-esteem - this construct is hypothesized to have a direct impact on performance and an indirect impact on

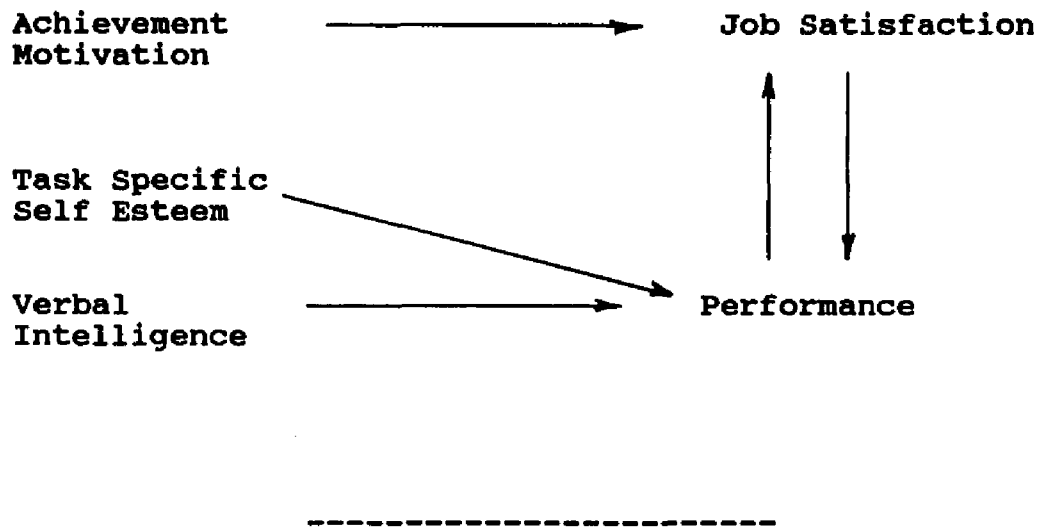
satisfaction. Bagozzi's view is that individuals will vary in their level of self-esteem with regard to particular aspects of their work. In turn, that self-esteem will impact performance and then, satisfaction. The greater an individual's level of self-esteem, the higher the expected level of performance.

(3) verbal intelligence. Bagozzi hypothesized a positive relationship between verbal intelligence and performance and defines verbal intelligence as "the cognitive ability to accurately and efficiently perceive, attend to and process information related to conversations, written instructions, and other forms of communication associated with the job" (p. 238). Figure 2-6 depicts the causal model presented by Bagozzi and shows the hypothesized relationships between constructs.

Bagozzi empirically tested four models of satisfaction and performance: (1) satisfaction causes performance, (2) performance causes satisfaction, (3) the two variables are related reciprocally and (4) the two variables are not causally related -- and any empirical association must be spurious (or the result of common antecedents). An industrial salesforce of 122 individuals comprised the sample utilized in testing the four models.

Results from the analysis indicated: (1) a positive relationship between performance and satisfaction; (2) a positive relationship between self esteem and performance;

Figure 2-6
Bagozzi's Causal Model Showing Hypothesized
Relationships and Predicting Outcomes



(3) a weak relationship between motivation and satisfaction and (4) an inconclusive relationship between verbal intelligence and performance. From his results, Bagozzi concluded that salespeople are motivated by "anticipated satisfaction that comes with performance more than they are by the performance itself" (1978, p. 241).

The bi-directionality of the relationship between performance and satisfaction was not confirmed by Bagozzi's analyses. According to Bagozzi, "perhaps the most striking finding is that job satisfaction does not necessarily lead to better performance" -- and -- "if management's primary goal is to increase the performance of the salesforce, it would

appear that resources should not be directed toward the enhancement of job satisfaction as a matter of policy" (1980, p. 242).

Performance is Unrelated to Satisfaction

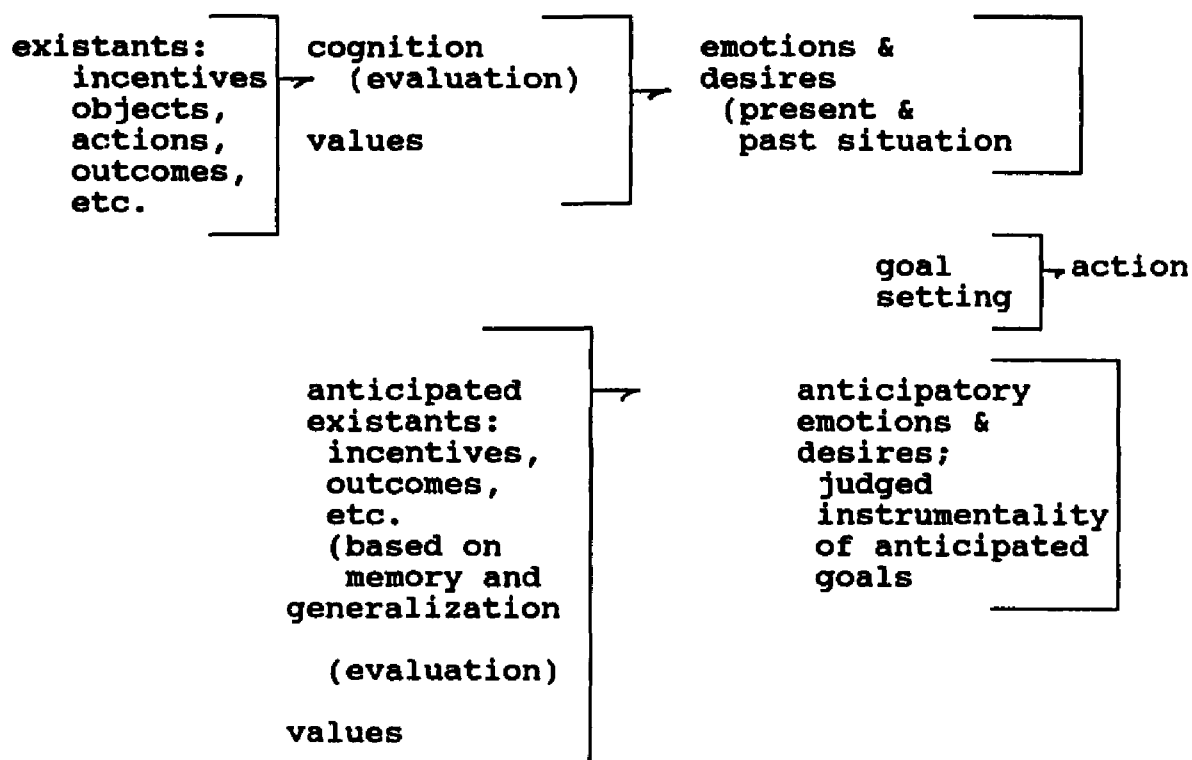
There is research found in the literature which does not specifically link the constructs of employee performance and job satisfaction. There are also many models presented in the literature which focus primarily on other major, job-related constructs such as commitment or involvement, with the relationship of job performance/job satisfaction receiving less attention. A selection of these models is presented. These were of interest to the dissertation research in that their focus is not limited to the linkages nor to the directionality hypothesized to exist between employee performance and job satisfaction.

Locke, Cartledge, and Knerr Model (1970). Locke, Cartledge and Knerr focused on the theoretical position that goals and intentions are the most significant predictors of performance (i.e., they are the most immediate motivational determinants of task performance). Their position is that "being dissatisfied with one's past performance generates the desire (and goal) to change one's performance, whereas satisfaction with one's performance produces the desire (and

goal) to repeat or maintain one's previous performance level" (p. 135). The model presented by Locke, Cartledge, and Knerr is presented in Figure 2-7.

The theoretical model presented by these researchers was tested in a series of five laboratory experiments, with a total sample of 144 respondents. Based on the results of their experiments, Locke, Cartledge, and Knerr provided confirmation for the position that "satisfaction with performance is a function of the degree to which one's performance achieves one's desired goal or is discrepant from one's value standard" (p. 152). They also concluded that "performance is a multiplicative function of anticipated satisfaction and the probability of success in attaining the desired outcome" (p. 157). Their conclusion is supportive of an interactionist perspective.

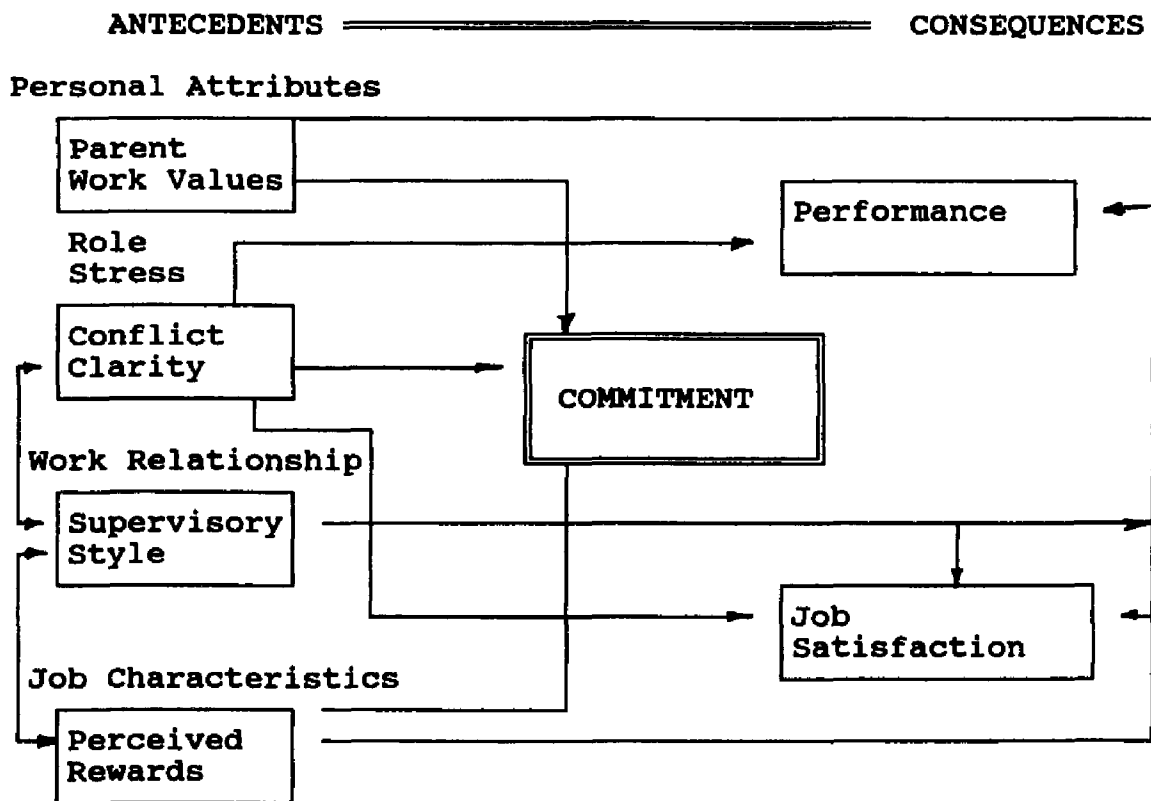
Figure 2-7
 Locke, Cartledge & Knerr's Model of
 Satisfaction, Goal-Setting and Performance



Darden, Hampton, and Howell Model (1989). The primary focus of the Darden et al. model is salesperson commitment. However, it is relevant to the dissertation research in that it examines linkages between constructs of role perceptions, satisfaction, and performance. Specifically, it delineates a positive linkage between job performance and job satisfaction (see Figure 2-8).

Darden, Hampton, and Howell studied the perceptions of retail salespeople regarding commitment, satisfaction, and performance. They state unequivocally that this study was justified and warranted, particularly on the grounds of high employee turnover and absenteeism rates. According to the researchers, for the retail industry, "turnover can range from 60-200 percent and cost up to \$1000 per employee" (p. 82).

Figure 2-8
The Commitment Model
presented by Darden, Hampton & Howell



Consequently, productivity in the retail sector has failed to keep pace with rising costs over the last 15 years, and has actually declined in many store situations.

A test of the model involved a random sample of 700 salespeople selected from 63 department stores in a midwestern chain; usable responses amounted to 261 respondents. The model was analyzed utilizing structural equation modeling techniques (LISREL VI).

Results of their analysis (which are relevant to the dissertation research) confirmed significant linkages for the following constructs: career commitment and job performance ($r=.20$, $p<.01$); role clarity and job performance ($r=.12$, $p<.01$); work values and job performance ($r=.19$, $p<.01$); organizational commitment and job performance ($r=.15$, $p<.05$); and finally, job satisfaction and job performance ($r=.27$, $p<.01$). A significant negative relationship was found between parental socioeconomic status (based on parents' income, occupation, and education) and performance of the salesperson ($r=-.14$, $p<.05$).

These results indicate the importance of both individual and situational variables in contributing to salesperson performance. These findings suggest that role variables, commitment (career and organizational), and job satisfaction are meaningful predictors of salesperson performance.

Darden et al. conclude their article by saying that they "have only scratched the surface" (p. 103) in terms of

understanding the key variables in motivating and satisfying sales employees. Clearly, additional research is warranted in order to gain a better understanding of the critical issues involved in job performance and job satisfaction of salespeople.

SUMMARY AND COMPARISON OF MODELS RELATING SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

From the models presented in this chapter, there appears to be some consensus in the view that job satisfaction and employee performance are somehow related. The general consensus appears to be that the two constructs are positively related and that the direction of the linkage is from job performance to job satisfaction. While some studies have failed to result in confirming a significant relationship between the variables, there is enough research evidence to predict an overall positive (albeit, weak) nature of the linkage between job performance and job satisfaction. In calling for additional research in the area, perhaps Organ (1977) states it best when he says that results of both conceptual and empirical research are "sufficiently equivocal to justify an open mind on the issue" (p. 52). That is precisely the position taken by this author.

This "open mind" was manifested (for purposes of the

dissertation research) in a different approach to the study of employee performance and job satisfaction. This approach, an interactionist perspective, will be discussed in a later section of this chapter.

This author agrees with other researchers, such as Darden et al. (1989), in suggesting that issues related to employee performance and job satisfaction are extremely important in the selling environment we are faced with today. At no other time in history has there been as many challenges within that environment (i.e., foreign competition, increasing buyer expertise, etc.). And at no other time in history, has there been such a focus on quality of life issues (which dictate a concern for employee satisfaction) nor has there been such a dire need for our salespeople to perform at optimum levels (in terms of the state of the U.S. economy). Therefore, the study of employee performance and job satisfaction is clearly mandated.

For related reasons, the study of employee turnover is also warranted. A considerable amount of research attention has been given to employee turnover. The next section provides a brief summary of this research. The discussion includes: costs of turnover; the relationship of performance to turnover; the relationship of satisfaction to turnover; hypothesized antecedents of turnover; and the functional/dysfunctional nature of turnover.

TURNOVER

Because of the cost it represents to an organization, turnover has been an important and frequently studied construct in academic research. Results have generally shown that there are differences between "stayers" and "leavers" in regard to both individual and organizational factors such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and intentions to leave (Carston and Spector, 1987; Cotton and Tuttle, 1986; McEvoy and Cascio, 1987; Mobley, Griffith, Hand and Meglino, 1979; Porter and Steers, 1973; Steele and Ovalle, 1984).

Because it is an organizational concern, turnover has continued to receive much attention from both academicians and practitioners. If turnover is to be understood and effectively managed, perhaps attention should be focused on examining turnover from an expanded, broadened view. Mobley (1982) has suggested that the effective management of turnover includes an understanding of: (1) the positive and negative consequences of turnover; (2) the "process" nature of turnover; (3) a proactive rather than reactive posture toward the phenomena; and (4) the development of managerial strategies based upon all available data related to the phenomena (i.e., economic and cost, employees' perceptions, and attitudinal and behavioral data). It is Mobley's position that organizations would be in a better position to diagnose and anticipate problems, assess consequences, and design and

implement strategies to deal with employee turnover, should they adopt his perspective.

Turnover costs can be inordinate; they can represent a significant portion of a firm's costs of doing business. For example, consider the following replacement costs for insurance employees (and the significant increases in a ten year period):

Table 2.2: Replacement Costs-Insurance Industry

<u>Position</u>	<u>1972</u>	<u>1982</u>
Claims investigator	\$ 6,000	\$ 12,950
Field examiner	24,000	51,800
Sales person	31,600	68,200
Sales manager	185,100	399,600

(Source: Cascio, 1982, p. 18)

The above costs are based upon three major (separate) cost categories: (1) separation costs; (2) replacement costs; and (3) training costs (Cascio, 1982). Separation costs include exit interviews, administrative functions related to termination, separation pay (if any), and unemployment tax (where applicable). Replacement costs are comprised of: communication of job availability, pre-employment administrative functions, entrance interviews, staff meetings, postemployment acquisition and dissemination of

information, and employment medical exams. Training costs may involve informational literature, instruction in a formal training program and/or instruction by employee assignment.

Another type of cost which has not been often addressed in the literature, is the demoralization of those employees who remain with an organization. These employees may view their positions as less desirable and they may question their reasons for remaining with an organization. Another possible consequence of turnover to these "stayers" is that their work load may increase to compensate for the work not being accomplished by "leavers". Therefore, turnover "may by itself trigger additional turnover by prompting a deterioration in attitudes toward the organization and making salient alternative memberships" (Staw, 1980, p. 257).

One additional "cost" of turnover that should be considered by organizations is the negative publicity -- or loss of service levels -- associated with employee turnover.

For selling organizations, in particular, unfavorable publicity may be generated when buyers must deal with losing a preferred (or at least a regular) salesperson. Disruption of service or diminished levels of service from less experienced, newly hired employees is another significant factor to be considered. It remains to be seen what level of turnover can be tolerated by buyers before they choose to purchase from another firm.

While these "costs" are significant in and of themselves,

they become even more substantial when one considers average turnover rates in selling. As noted in Chapter One, the average turnover rate for salesforces is 19.4 percent, with some industries experiencing over 80 percent turnover.

It seems reasonable to speculate that companies would benefit from incorporating strategies to reduce costly employee turnover. To develop such strategies, however, requires an awareness of certain elements of turnover. Elements to consider may be not only the costs of turnover, but the relationship of turnover to employee performance, the relationship of turnover to satisfaction, the possible antecedents of turnover and the positive, as well as negative consequences of turnover. Each of these will be discussed.

Relationship of Performance to Turnover

The specific nature of the relationship between performance and turnover remains elusive. Performance has been postulated as being an example of a variable relevant to both antecedent and consequent turnover processes (Mobley, 1982). Furthermore, despite the potential explanatory power of turnover, a limited number of studies have been conducted which examine its specific nature (Martin, 1981; Price, 1977; Porter and Steers, 1973). Results of this research has been varied; they have generally failed to either confirm or falsify any particular theoretical position (Wells and Muchinsky, 1985).

Some researchers advocate that there is a positive relationship between performance and turnover. Theoretical support for a positive relationship between performance and turnover is based on the hypothesis that high performers have greater perceived alternatives and, as a consequence, greater ease of movement (Jackofsky, 1984; Martin et. al, 1981; March and Simon, 1958). The concept of unmet expectations may also play an important role for high performing employees. High performance may lead to increased expectations of rewards, which in turn, will lead to increased turnover, if those increased expectations are not met (Steers and Mowday, 1981). However, this theoretical position has not been widely accepted nor has it garnered much empirical support (Martin, Price and Mueller, 1981).

A negative relationship between performance and turnover has also been hypothesized and empirically studied. According to this position, low performance results in a lower level of satisfaction with the job, and as a consequence, turnover increases for these employees. Additionally, this position hypothesizes that high performers receive equitable rewards and are consequently more satisfied with their positions, which results in a tendency for these employees to remain with an organization. Empirical support for a negative relationship between performance and turnover has been substantial (Dreher, 1982; Farris, 1971; Keller, 1984; Marsh & Mannari, 1977; O'Connor et al., 1984; Ross, 1986;

Sheridan, 1985; Spencer & Steers, 1981; Stumpf & Bedrosian, 1979; Stumpf & Dawley, 1981; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Wanous, Sheridan & Vredenburgh, 1979).

A meta-analysis conducted by McEvoy and Cascio (1987) provides further support for a negative relationship between performance and turnover (specifically, that turnover is lower among high performers). These researchers investigated the relationship between performance and turnover across 24 studies and 7,717 respondents. Their conclusion was that "low turnover tends to occur among good performers and high turnover tends to occur among poor performers" (p. 750). However, because the confidence interval for the correlation between performance and turnover ($r = -.28$) was large and included zero ($-.68$ to $.12$), these researchers searched for moderators of the performance/turnover relationship. Some support was found for three potential moderators:

(1) Type of turnover (i.e., voluntary versus involuntary). When the studies were grouped according to type of turnover, it was discovered that only the correlation between involuntary turnover and performance was significantly different from zero;

(2) Time span of measurement. The relationship between performance and turnover may appear only after an employee decides to leave; and

(3) Levels of unemployment. Contrary to recent studies, the present results suggested that when unemployment is high,

poor performers are more likely to leave.

Despite the low correlation between performance and turnover, McEvoy and Cascio suggest that their finding "places job performance close in explanatory power to other independent variables that have received much more attention in turnover research" (p. 760). For example, similar mean correlations have been found for job satisfaction ($r = -.28$), for organizational commitment ($r = -.38$), and for behavioral intentions ($r = .50$). As a result, these researchers posit that "there is good reason to believe that performance and turnover should be related negatively; it is the only direction of the relationship consistent with previous research and most current turnover models" (p. 758). The newer formulations of turnover models that have incorporated performance as an independent variable should improve understanding and prediction of the phenomena, according to these authors.

Although there is substantial empirical support for a negative relationship between performance and turnover, it is clear that there may be significant moderators of their relationship. Accordingly, Wells and Muchinsky (1985) suggest that it appears doubtful that any single performance-turnover relationship exists; that the relationship is likely to be moderated by organizational practices that reward performance and external market conditions that offer inducements for better performing employees to leave. In addition to

organizational factors and economic conditions, it is entirely likely that there may be other factors (individual difference factors) which impact the relationship between performance and turnover.

Relationship of Satisfaction to Turnover

The relationship of satisfaction to turnover has long been investigated by many researchers as evidenced in literature reviews published by Brayfield & Crockett (1955), Cotton & Tuttle (1986), Herzberg (1957), Mobley, Griffith, Hand & Meglino (1979), Price (1977), and Porter & Steers (1973). As early as the 1950s, researchers found evidence of a relationship between employee dissatisfaction and withdrawal behavior (i.e, turnover and absenteeism). According to a more recent review (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986), a consistently negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover has been supported.

A possible explanation for a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover is provided by Vroom (1964) who suggests that it is consistent with an expectancy theory of motivation. That is, workers who are attracted to (and satisfied with) their positions are likely to be subject to motivational forces to remain in their positions. These motivational forces, according to Vroom, will be manifested in increased tenure and higher rates of attendance.

Mobley et al. (1979) note that although reviews have

confirmed a negative relationship between overall job satisfaction and employee turnover, "the amount of variance accounted for is consistently less than 14 percent" (p. 497). They state further, that when the construct of overall job satisfaction is included in analyses such as multiple regression with other predictor variables (i.e., intentions to quit or employee commitment), the effect of overall job satisfaction may become nonsignificant.

Carsten and Spector (1987) conducted a meta-analysis to determine the relations among satisfaction, turnover, and unemployment rates at the time the studies were conducted. Studies included in the meta-analysis were conducted from 1947-1983; the total sample size was 19,828 individuals with sample sizes ranging from 42 to 5,780. The mean turnover rate was 31.9 percent, with values ranging from 6 percent to 85 percent.

Based upon their analysis, correlations among job satisfaction, turnover and unemployment rates covered a fairly wide range ($r = -.18$ to $-.52$). Carsten and Spector concluded that as the unemployment rate increased, the job satisfaction/employee turnover relation decreased. Therefore, these researchers predict that the "relation between job satisfaction and employee turnover will be strong during periods of low unemployment (economic prosperity) and weak during periods of high unemployment (economic hardship). That is, as available alternatives increase, so will the strength

of the relation between job satisfaction and employee turnover.

Certainly, the consistent and negative, although moderate, relationship of satisfaction to turnover has been confirmed. It is central to (and contributes toward) turnover in many of the turnover models.

Hypothesized Antecedents of Turnover

Cotton and Tuttle (1986) provide a meta-analysis and review of 26 variables which have been studied as antecedents or correlates of turnover. Studies reviewed cover the time period from the 1940s to 1984; a total of 131 studies are included in the meta-analysis. Classification of turnover correlates is based upon Pettman's (1973) categorization scheme: (1) external factors; (2) structural or work-related factors; and (3) personal characteristics. A brief discussion of each of these categories follows. See Table 2-3, for a complete list of the correlates reviewed in Cotton and Tuttle's meta-analysis.

All external correlates of turnover were found to be significant. A positive relationship was found for employment perceptions and accession rate. Union presence and unemployment rates were found to be negatively correlated with turnover.

Table 2-3
Correlates of Turnover
reviewed by Cotton and Tuttle

External	Work-related	Personal
Employment perceptions	Pay	Age
Unemployment rate	Job performance	Tenure
Accession rate	Role clarity	Gender
Union presence	Task repetitiveness	Biographical information
	Overall job satisfaction	Education
	Satisfaction with pay	Marital status
	Satisfaction with work	# of dependents
	Satisfaction with supervisor	Aptitude
	Satisfaction with co-workers	Ability
	Satisfaction with promotion opportunities	Intelligence
	Organizational commitment	Behavioral intentions
		Met Expectations

With the exception of task repetitiveness (displaying a positive relationship with turnover), all other work-related correlates were found to have a negative relationship with turnover. Many relationships were found to be highly significant (see Table 2 -4).

The following personal correlates of turnover were found to be negatively related: age; tenure; gender (males); marital status (married); number of dependents; and met expectations. Positive relationships were found for the following correlates: gender (women); marital status

(unmarried); intelligence; and behavioral intentions. Personal variables that demonstrated strong confidence that they were related to turnover included: age, tenure, education, number of dependents, biographical information, met expectations and behavioral intentions. See Table 2-4 for further information.

Table 2-4
Summary of Turnover Correlates by Confidence
Cotton and Tuttle, 1986

Strong Confidence ($p < .0005$)	Moderate Confidence ($.0005 < p < .005$)	Weak Confidence ($.005 < p < .01$)
Employment perceptions	Unemployment rate	Marital status
Union presence	Job performance	Aptitude/Ability
Pay	Satisfaction/co-workers	
Overall satisfaction	Satisfaction/promotions	
Satisfaction with work	Role clarity	
Satisfaction with pay		
Age		
Tenure		
Gender		
Education		
Number of dependents		
Biographical information		
Organizational commitment		
Met expectations		
Behavioral intentions		

Information reported in Cotton and Tuttle's (1986) review provides a foundation for future research in the turnover area. In order to increase our understanding of employee turnover, research should continue and should acknowledge or incorporate variables identified above. The best approach may

be an interactionist one, whereby both individual and situational variables, along with their interaction, is considered.

Functional/Dysfunctional Turnover

More recently the positive consequences associated with turnover has been discussed in the literature (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984; Dalton, 1981; Dalton & Todor, 1979; Dalton, Todor & Krackhardt, 1982; Hollenbeck & Williams, 1986). Associated research has generally served to refute the notion that turnover is an inherently negative phenomenon. Instead, turnover can be reconceptualized as either functional (i.e., poor performers leave) or dysfunctional (i.e., good performers leave). Viewing turnover as functional or dysfunctional (as opposed to the more simplistic view -- that all turnover is detrimental), may provide for a more realistic appraisal of its impact.

Clearly, the impact upon an organization becomes a function of not only the degree of turnover, but the type of turnover being experienced. Organizations presumably benefit from turnover of poor performers (functional); it provides an opportunity to replace such performers with more productive ones. Likewise, organizations definitely experience adverse consequences of dysfunctional turnover -- defined as when good performers leave.

Accordingly, it is of relevance to assess the performance

levels of employees within an organization for purposes of managing turnover. This logic applies to both types of employees -- those staying and those leaving. For example, it can be considered "functional" for top performing salespeople to remain with an organization; "dysfunctional" when poor performers remain with the organization. As Mobley (1982) states: "the organizational consequences of turnover are dependent on who leaves and who stays" (p. 42).

Of critical importance, therefore, is an organization's evaluation of its employees (both those remaining and those terminating). Several measures (based upon internal organization documents) have been proposed as valid indicators of functional/dysfunctional turnover: recommendation for rehire; quality ratings (taken from previous supervisory appraisals); productivity ratings (sales, commissions, quotas, etc.); and replaceability measures (Dalton, Todor & Krackhardt, 1982). Armed with information from such source documents, "organizations may be able to minimize dysfunctional turnover without artificially suppressing functional turnover" (Dalton, Todor & Krackhardt, p. 122).

It is apparent that a change in perspective from turnover frequency to turnover functionality necessitates an increased organizational emphasis upon employee performance evaluation. Recent theoretical developments of turnover have recognized this shift in perspective and have incorporated performance as an important variable in turnover models. These

researchers have suggested that the inclusion of the performance construct should increase the explanatory power of such models (Jackofsky, 1984; Rhodes & Doering, 1983; Steers & Mowday, 1981; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Wells & Muchinsky, 1985).

In terms of developing strategic plans for managing employee turnover, the identification of significant factors which discriminate between high and low performers (and functional/dysfunctional turnover) becomes critically important. According to Dalton, Todor and Krackhardt (1982), "it is not clear that the same antecedents, correlates or determinants are shared between individuals who are characterized as functional and those characterized as dysfunctional" (p. 122).

Summary of Turnover Literature

That employee turnover is (or should be) a major concern of companies has been established. In terms of its impact upon organizations, employee turnover has been shown to represent substantial costs -- in the form of replacement, recruiting and training expenses. Of additional concern to organizations are other potential problems turnover may create (e.g., demoralization of remaining employees, customer dissatisfaction).

A discussion has also been provided regarding the functional/dysfunctional aspects of turnover. Functional

turnover is seen as eliminating a "mismatch" between an individual and a situation; whereas dysfunctional turnover is seen as the departure of an individual who "matched" a situation. Based upon this discussion, it would appear beneficial to organizations to address not only the degree of turnover being experienced, but the type of turnover as well.

To enhance our understanding of employee turnover, additional research is necessary. This research should further address the individual and situational variables (and their interaction) that are associated with turnover. Additionally, further research should investigate the "fit" between individual salespersons and their situation (the selling environment). Investigation of this "fit" between salesperson and selling environment would also enhance our understanding of functional/dysfunctional consequences associated with turnover.

AN INTERACTIONIST PERSPECTIVE IN STUDYING SALESPERSON PERFORMANCE, SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER

Research conducted in areas of employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover have focused on explaining and predicting attitudes and behavioral outcomes. This research can be viewed from two different perspectives: the individual approach and the situational approach. Researchers identified

with the individual approach argue that an individual's attitudes and behavior can best be determined by investigating their personal characteristics (e.g., values, motives, abilities, affective responses). These researchers suggest that such individual characteristics are relatively stable over time and that they are manifested in behavior. Conversely, those researchers advocating a situational approach suggest that an individual's behavior or attitudes are best determined by investigating factors within their (work) environment (e.g., organizational climate, supervision, work pressures, involvement).

Most researchers today have recognized that both the individual and the situation can be viewed as influencing job related attitudes and behavior. The majority of studies reviewed in the dissertation research fall into this 'combination' category. For example, Behrman and Perreault (1984) investigated nine situational variables and two individual variables; Dubinsky and Hartley (1986) studied six situational variables and one individual variable; Darden, Hampton and Howell (1989) examined five situational variables and two individual variables; and Walker, Churchill and Ford's model (1977) includes both situational and individual variables. Models presented by these researchers, however, have taken the form of an "additive" or a "linear" model -- as opposed to an interactionist or multiplicative approach.

Some studies reviewed in this chapter can best be

described as falling primarily into either the individual or situational category, however. Research conducted by Bagozzi (1978) focuses primarily on individual factors (i.e., self esteem and verbal intelligence). Emphasizing primarily situational variables is the work of Herzberg (1957), Lawler and Porter (1967), Maslow (1943), Roethlisberger (1939), and Triandis (1959). All of these studies focused on various aspects related to the work environment.

It is suggested that perhaps an improved approach is that of interactional research; one which incorporates both individual factors and situational factors, as well as their interactions. This is not a new approach to conducting research as evidenced by literature dating to the 1950s. Lewin (1951) can perhaps be credited with the basic theoretical formulation of the approach. Based upon Lewin's work, Pervin (1968) stated that employee performance (a behavioral outcome) should be viewed as "a function of the interaction between the characteristics of the individual and those of the environment" (p. 56). Pervin continues this line of thought by suggesting that satisfaction (an attitudinal variable) may also profitably be studied "as resulting from the interaction between personality and environment variables rather than the result of personality variables or environmental variables alone" (p. 58).

Another organizational psychologist who has advocated the interactionist approach is Cronbach. According to Cronbach

(1957), there is a need to emphasize the joint use of individual and situational methods of research. Cronbach concluded that future research should endeavor to predict the behavior of individuals in their situations.

More recently the interactionist approach has been utilized in investigating individual and situational variables such as: Type A behavior and work climate (Day & Bedeian, 1990); individual and organizational values (Chatman, 1989); self-efficacy and organizational goals (Wood and Bandura, 1989); employee attraction, selection and attrition (Schneider, 1987); and role variables and supervisory/peer-group interaction (Bedeian, Mossholder, & Armenakis, 1983).

Results from interactionist research tend to support the notion that behavior (or job-related attitudes) is best described as a function of the interaction of both individual and situational factors. According to Day and Bedeian (1990) this approach relates to an "active" model of persons and situations, which suggests that "individuals and situations compose complex interactive systems" (p. 14). It would appear that such a model is applicable in terms of salesforce research, given the complex, volatile environment inherent in such research. This "active" approach is one whereby behavior and attitudes are viewed as processes of interaction, rather than 'passive', unidirectional approaches.

It is the position of this researcher that individual and situational factors (and their interaction) should be

considered in the investigation of employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover. It was expected that both types of variables will significantly contribute to our understanding of these constructs.

GAPS AND DEFICIENCIES IN THE LITERATURE

Performance and Satisfaction

As noted previously in Chapter Two, there is some consensus in the literature that relationships exist between the constructs of employee performance, job satisfaction and employee turnover. However, research efforts have failed to develop a model of salesperson performance, satisfaction, and turnover which is capable of fully explaining and predicting the phenomenon. Research efforts have concentrated on various sets of antecedent variables and have been conducted in various research settings. Under the circumstances, the lack of consistent, strong findings is not necessarily surprising. According to Fisher (1980) "perhaps it is time for researchers to step back for a moment and consider the nature of the relationship they are examining. A better understanding of the theoretical basis for expecting or not expecting a relationship to exist is needed" (p. 607).

The dissertation research attempted to address this issue by further examining the constructs of employee performance,

job satisfaction, and turnover. It is suggested that perhaps we have been a bit premature in attempting to causally establish directionality and linkages between employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. It may very well be that further investigation of the basic constructs is necessary before relationships can be firmly established. Therefore, an interactionist approach to examining individual and situational factors as they relate to employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover will be pursued.

Turnover

In the area of employee turnover, there has been considerable research conducted regarding the costs and negative consequences of turnover. There has also been much research focused on the antecedents of turnover. As a result, there is some consensus regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover and also for the relationship between employee performance and turnover. Additionally, the existing literature provides some evidence for the functional and dysfunctional aspects associated with employee turnover.

However, the impact of employee turnover within a salesforce or upon sales managers has not been adequately researched. With the exception of some half-dozen studies (Busch & Bush, 1978; Futrell & Parasuraman, 1984; Jackofsky & Peters, 1983; Hollenbeck & Williams, 1986; Johnston,

Parasuraman, Futrell & Black, 1990; Lucas, 1985), the majority of turnover research has been conducted in other occupational settings. For example, employee turnover has been studied extensively in the context of nursing (Blau, 1985; Griffith & Hom, 1988; Prestholdt, Lane & Mathews, 1987; Price & Mueller, 1981; Sheridan & Abelson, 1983; Terborg & Lee, 1984); and for hospital employees (Hom, Griffith, & Sellaro, 1984; Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur, 1984). Employee turnover has also been studied in the context of mental health workers (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Pond & Geyer, 1987); of military personnel (Butler, Lardent & Miner, 1983; Hom & Hulin, 1981; Miller, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Motowildo & Lawton, 1984; Youngblood, Mobley, & Meglino, 1983); of government employees (Mowday & Spencer, 1981); of fast food workers (Krackhardt & Porter, 1985, 1986); of financial institution employees -- including bank tellers (Colarelli, 1984; Dean & Wanous, 1984; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Wells & Muchinsky, 1985); of accountants (Arnold & Feldman, 1982); of engineers (Clegg, 1983); of "room attendants" (hotel maids) -- (Parsons, Herold & Leatherwood, 1985); of oil company employees (Dreher & Dougherty, 1980); and in the context of managers at an electronics firm (Campion & Mitchell, 1986).

The dissertation research attempted to increase our understanding of turnover in a sales setting by adding to the relatively small number of studies previously conducted. An

interactionist approach was adopted in the investigation of how individual and situational factors contribute to turnover.

The remainder of Chapter Two will focus on a discussion of those situational and individual factors selected as study constructs. Following this discussion, specific hypotheses for the dissertation research are stated.

OTHER CONSTRUCTS OF INTEREST: SITUATIONAL AND INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES

Situational Variables: Role Perceptions

In general, the role of situational variables has been somewhat overlooked in the salesforce literature. For example, in the meta-analysis conducted by Churchill, Ford, Hartley and Walker (1985), only 51 associations were found between performance and general organizational (or situational) factors (out of a total of 1,653 reported associations). Of additional interest, is that "on average, only 1 percent of the variation in performance is associated with variations in organizational/environmental factors" (p. 109).

This finding is interesting in light of the traditional, historical, theoretical perspective which states that the role of an organization is very important in terms of employee

productivity. This long-held position has been advocated by numerous researchers (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hall & Lawler, 1970; Herzberg et al, 1959; Hulin & Blood, 1968).

Of relevance to the dissertation research was the considerable attention which has been devoted to one specific situationally-related topic: role stress. Generally, the relevant literature indicates that dysfunctional consequences (both for an individual and an organization) can occur as a result of the two constructs included in role stress: role conflict and role ambiguity. This section of Chapter Two examines role stress and reviews literature which has examined the relationship between role stress and work related attitudes and behavior (e.g., employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover).

Considerable research effort has been expended in the investigation of role stress (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). However, despite the volume of research conducted, there is some disagreement as to what has actually been learned through previous research efforts. Fisher and Gitelson (1983), for example, concluded (after conducting a meta-analysis) that "past research has produced conflicting and unclear results with regard to the nature and strength of the relationships between role conflict and ambiguity and their hypothesized antecedents and consequences" (p. 330).

Because role stress has been found to be negatively correlated with job satisfaction and employee performance, it was of interest to the dissertation research. Indicative of this position, is the statement by Schuler et al. (1977): "In general, results suggest that role conflict and role ambiguity are valid constructs in organizational behavior research and are usually associated with negatively valued states: e.g., tension, absenteeism, low satisfaction, low job involvement, low expectancies, and task characteristics with a low motivating potential" (p. 125). This view is held by other researchers (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Johnson & Stinson, 1975; Keller, 1975; Netemeyer, Johnston & Burton, 1990; Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970).

There is some consensus in conceptual definitions of role conflict and role ambiguity. Role ambiguity has been defined as "the degree to which a sales rep is uncertain about others' expectations with respect to the job, the best way to fulfill known expectations and the consequences of role performances" (Chonko, Howell, & Bellenger, 1986, p. 37), and, "the lack of clarity or predictability one perceived in his or her work related behavior" (Szilagyi, 1977, p. 379). Rizzo, House and Lirtzman's definition (1970) appears to combine the two definitions above. Rizzo et al. defined role ambiguity as the degree to which an individual is unclear about expectations of others, as well as the uncertainty associated with one's own performance. Role clarity, the opposite of

role ambiguity, has been defined as "the extent to which information required to perform a job is communicated and understood" (Bush & Busch, 1981).

Role conflict has been defined as "the perception of conflicting demands or incompatibilities by the role incumbent" (Szilagyi, 1977), and as "the degree of incongruity or incompatibility of expectations associated with the sales role" (Miles & Perreault, 1976, p. 22). Rizzo et al.'s definition more closely matches that of Miles and Perreault - the degree to which role expectations are incompatible with role realities.

Similar to the consistency in conceptual definitions, is the general consistency in the approach of researchers to the operationalization and measurement of the two constructs. According to Jackson and Schuler (1985), "the majority of research (85%) conducted since the 1950s have used the role ambiguity and conflict scales developed by Rizzo et al (1970)" (p. 16).

Because of its extensive use, there has been some amount of research interest devoted to investigating the properties of the scale (King & King, 1990; McGee, Ferguson & Seers, 1989; Netemeyer, Johnston & Burton, 1990; Schuler, Aldag & Brief, 1977). Additionally, House, Schuler & Levanoni (1983) and Tracy & Johnson (1981) have examined the item-response characteristics (positive/negative wording and self vs. other wording) of the Rizzo et. al scale. Current research seems

to indicate that the scale meets "some established thresholds of convergent and discriminant validity" (Netemeyer et al., 1990, p. 148). However, additional efforts to better understand role stress and its measurement have been suggested.

To analyze and review the extant empirical literature on role ambiguity and role conflict, Jackson and Schuler (1985) conducted an exhaustive meta-analysis. Their review consisted of an investigation of approximately two hundred relevant articles. Specifically, they examined twenty nine correlates of role ambiguity and role conflict (i.e., ten organizational context variables, five individual characteristic variables, ten variables of affective reaction and four behavioral reaction variables: absenteeism and three measures of performance).

Of particular importance to the dissertation research was the findings of Jackson and Schuler regarding role ambiguity and role conflict as they relate to job performance and job satisfaction. Their findings in this area follow.

In terms of job performance, these researchers state: "From a cognitive perspective, performance should be hindered by role ambiguity and role conflict because with them, the individual faces either a lack of knowledge about the most affective behaviors to engage in or an almost impossible situation for doing everything expected. Therefore, regardless of the amount of effort expended, behaviors are

most likely to be ineffective, misdirected or inefficient" (p. 43). The empirical evidence for a negative correlation between role ambiguity and role conflict and performance is weak, however. Utilizing a variety of objective performance measures (such as sales volume, profits), researchers have failed to find meaningful correlations between the set of constructs. Therefore, it is Jackson and Schuler's conclusion that "there is at best a modest negative relationship between role ambiguity, role conflict and performance" (1985, p. 44).

In considering satisfaction, it is interesting to note that job satisfaction was the most frequently used "consequence" variable (it appeared in 50% of all reviewed studies). Unlike job performance, job satisfaction was found (consistently) to be negatively, significantly related to role ambiguity and role conflict. Only the strength of the relationship varied -- as a consequence of the particular dimension of job satisfaction being investigated. For example, for role ambiguity, correlations were found as follows: general satisfaction ($r = -.46$); supervision ($r = -.53$); the work itself ($r = -.52$); co-workers ($r = -.37$); pay ($r = -.26$) and advancement opportunities ($r = -.40$). For role conflict and satisfaction, correlations found were: general satisfaction ($r = -.48$); supervision ($r = -.53$); the work itself ($r = -.49$); co-workers ($r = -.42$); pay ($r = -.31$); and for advancement opportunities ($r = -.38$). All of the above correlations were found to be significant.

With Jackson and Schuler's work providing an excellent foundation, attention will next be focused on the research (related to role ambiguity and role conflict) which has been conducted in the context of selling environments. These studies were of primary interest to the dissertation research.

It has been suggested by some researchers that role ambiguity and role clarity are of critical importance as they relate to employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover in the salesforce (Bagozzi, 1978, 1980; Behrman & Perreault, 1984; Bush & Busch, 1981; Chonko, Howell & Bellenger, 1986; Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986; Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell & Black, 1990; Szylagyi, 1977; Walker, Churchill & Ford, 1977). As indicative of its importance, in the research conducted by Behrman & Perrault -- see their model of role stress in this chapter -- role ambiguity was found to represent the largest path coefficient of all variables in the model. These researchers concluded that role ambiguity most certainly has a deleterious impact on performance. Likewise, Dubinsky & Hartley (1986) found identical results; role ambiguity (consistent with theory) was found to have the largest path coefficient in the model.

Conceptually, role conflict has been hypothesized to have a negative relationship with employee performance and job satisfaction (Churchill, Ford & Walker, 1977). Additionally, empirical results have confirmed this theoretical position

(Szilagyi, 1977; Szilagyi, Sims & Keller, 1976). An interesting finding of some of the most recent research efforts, however, is that role conflict has a positive relationship to performance (Behrman & Perrault, 1984; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986). These findings directly contradict previous work. Plausible explanations of these findings consist of the following: (1) conflict may be an inherent aspect of the selling environment; (2) some degree of conflict may enhance the efforts of salespeople; and (3) salespeople may be uniquely predisposed to coping with conflict, that is, they "self-select" into selling careers.

Based on the brief review provided herein, it appears that additional research is warranted in the area of role stress and employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover in a sales setting. The dissertation research utilized the concept of role stress (role ambiguity and role conflict) and investigated relationships between role stress, employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover. This approach is consistent with previous empirical studies which have suggested that the "two aspects of stress are not independent" (Behrman & Perreault, 1984, p. 12). This research indicates that "role conflict should be viewed as contributing to higher levels of ambiguity - since the salesperson's job is simultaneously being defined by the firm, the sales manager, customers, and even competition" (Behrman & Perreault, 1984, p. 12).

Individual Variables: Gender and Job Tenure

Gender

Similar to a salesperson's age or job tenure, salesperson's gender may account for differences in job satisfaction, employee performance, or in turnover. While males have long pursued careers in selling, females are relative newcomers to the profession. It was of interest to the dissertation research to determine whether there were differences between male and female salespersons in terms of their job satisfaction, their performance, and their propensity to leave a sales organization.

That women are joining the labor force is no surprise; today over 70 percent of women between 25 and 54 years of age are gainfully employed (Jensen, Rao, & Hilton, 1989). According to these researchers, the percentage of married women in the labor force is also increasing. In 1985, 55 percent were employed; projections for 1995 are that 65 percent of married women will be employed outside the home.

Psychology Today reports that working--for women--is definitely "in" ("Women on TV," October, 1989, p. 12). This article described the portrayal of women on television and concluded that there actually was a broader representation of women working in television shows, than in real life (i.e. in 1987, 75 percent of women on television were employed, compared to 56 percent in reality). The authors' conclusion

regarding the attention given to working women is that in today's world, work is an integral part of womens' lives.

More specifically, in terms of the dissertation research, was an interest in the number of women who are choosing sales careers and the similarities or differences these women exhibit when compared to men in sales careers. Recent research has examined differences between males and females in terms of their abilities and their positions in organizations (Bigoness, 1988; Fagenson, 1990; Hyde, Fennema & Lamon, 1990; Hyde & Linn, 1988; Ragins and Sundstrom, 1989; Spencer & Drass, 1989; and Wood, Rhodes and Whelan, 1989). There also has been research attention given to the topic of women in the work force (Bigoness, 1988; Frankenhaeuser et al., 1989; Jensen, Rao & Hilton, 1989; and MacEwen & Barling, 1988). However, there have been only a few studies which specifically address women in sales careers (Busch and Bush, 1978; Comer and Jolson, 1985; Fugate, Decker & Brewer, 1988; Futrell, 1984; Gable & Reed, 1987; and Swan, Rink, Kiser & Martin, 1984).

U.S. News and World Report investigated women in selling careers and stated that it is "one of corporate America's most dramatic shifts: the birth of thousands of saleswomen in traditionally male-dominated industries" ("The Birth", Feb. 6, 1989, p. 40). This article further suggests that women may be ideally suited to a career in sales due to their "inherent female traits (such) as empathy, intuition and the ability to

nurture long-term relationships" (p. 40). Additional facilitating factors which may be leading to increased numbers of women in professional selling are: women receiving over 50 percent of bachelors' and marketing degrees; changing fertility rates; increased education; and women being more involved in broader ranges of sales and responsibilities (Fugate, Decker and Brewer, 1988, p. 34).

Given that women are entering the selling profession, what possible differences can be anticipated when compared with men in selling professions? Busch and Bush (1978) compared women and men in terms of employee performance, job satisfaction, role perceptions and intentions of leaving the organization. Their findings were generally supportive of the hypothesis of "no differences" between men and women. However, a significant difference was found in terms of role clarity; women perceived significantly less role clarity than did men. This finding received further support in a somewhat complex "biopsychosocial" study conducted by Frankenhaeuser et al. (1989). These researchers found significant differences between professional women and men in terms of their perceptions of conflict and control; women perceived greater conflict on the job and less personal control. Accordingly, women reported significantly more psychosomatic symptoms than men and were significantly less satisfied with their work than men.

Not only is it possible for women to perceive work

differently from men, but it is also entirely possible that women (and their work) are perceived differently from men. A career in sales has been desirable for many women because it provides them with an opportunity to be objectively evaluated -- they are capable of achieving "equal pay for equal work" in terms of commission sales. However, Marketing News has suggested that subjective evaluations for women may be very different from those for men ("Male Industrial Sales Reps", 1990, p.11). This article states: "Although there were no differences noted in the number of hours males and females worked, the number of months to close a sale, the average sale in dollars, or the amount of job insecurity, managers' ratings of males were higher (than females) on all the dimensions of job performance" ("Male Industrial Sales Reps", 1990, p. 11). The above results were found in research conducted by Avila and Grewal, who concluded that "leniency may prevail for males along with harshness for females" (p. 11).

Based upon this brief review of several studies, it appears reasonable that differences may exist between males and females, in terms of employee performance (objectively and subjectively measured); job satisfaction; and role perceptions. Because such differences have not been adequately studied in a sales context, these issues are worthy of further investigation.

Tenure

The relationship between tenure and employee performance/job satisfaction in a salesforce is relevant from at least two different conceptual perspectives (turnover and career stages). First, tenure is an important construct to consider when one considers the turnover situation in an average salesforce. Today, the average turnover rate in selling is over 19 percent ("Annual Survey," 1989); with some companies reporting over 80 percent average annual turnover rates. With distinctions being made between functional and dysfunctional turnover, clearly what a sales manager would hope to accomplish is the increase of tenure for productive salespersons, while simultaneously allowing for a decrease in numbers of poorer performing salespersons.

The second perspective, a career stage perspective, becomes important when one considers that salesforces are generally a combination of new, inexperienced sales representatives and older, more experienced veterans. An understanding of career stages, of how salespeople may change and develop over time, would appear to be extremely beneficial to the sales manager. Is it the rookies --the new kids on the block -- who are the top performers? Or conversely, is it the seasoned veterans -- the old hands -- who have mastered the skills necessary to perform at an optimum level? Essentially, questions include: At what level of tenure are top performers found?; and, How does tenure impact salesforce performance and

satisfaction?

These questions have received some amount of attention in the literature, as evidenced by the following brief review. Cravens, Woodruff, and Stamper (1972) and Lamont and Lundstrom (1977) found no significant relationship between tenure and performance (as measured by sales volume). Sample size was 25 salespeople for the former and 71 for the latter. Bush and Busch (1978) found a positive relationship between tenure and performance in their study of 477 pharmaceutical salespeople. Similarly, Lucas (1985) found a positive, significant relationship between tenure and performance in their study of 213 retail store executives. A curvilinear relationship was found between tenure and performance by Jolson (1974) and by Kirchner, McElwain, and Dunnette (1960). Jolson's view was that performance would change over time in a manner resembling the product life cycle curve. Somewhat similarly, Kirchner, McElwain, and Dunnette believe that performance would increase to a peak level at around age 40 and subsequently decrease thereafter.

Several studies found negative relationships between tenure and certain dimensions of job satisfaction. For example, Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1976) found that time in a sales position was negatively related to satisfaction with pay, with promotion, and with the overall job. In a later study (1979) these researchers also found that job tenure was negatively related to a salesperson's perceptions

of importance for promotion, for personal growth, and for a sense of accomplishment. Ingram and Bellinger (1983) provided support for Churchill, Ford, and Walker's findings; they found that job tenure was negatively correlated with a salesperson's valence for pay and for promotion.

Tenure may also impact performance and satisfaction indirectly through its relationship with role conflict and role ambiguity. Walker, Churchill, and Ford (1975) found a significant negative relationship between tenure and role conflict and ambiguity.

Returning to the two conceptual positions mentioned above, a brief discussion is provided regarding some specific concerns related to tenure. The first concern is that of turnover. According to Jolson, Dubinsky, and Anderson (1987), turnover in a sales force is generally viewed as having negative connotations because of its pervasive effect on an organization's customers, on an organization itself, on fellow members of a salesforce, as well as on society -- in general. They state that many are beginning to realize that salesforce turnover is "a sleeping giant" -- swallowing significant portions of both productivity and profits. With high turnover rates, a sales organization is critically affected -- in areas of recruitment, of selection, of training, of supervision, of deployment, and of budgeting. As a consequence, "a paramount concern of management of a given firm is forecasting the lifetime job tenure of sales

personnel in that firm" (p. 10).

Based on their research efforts, Jolson, Dubinsky and Anderson (1987) identified many predictors of salesperson job tenure. Of particular interest to the dissertation research was the relationship between job tenure and the following predictors: job-related stress (-); role clarity (+); opportunity for advancement (+); satisfaction with pay (+); and performance of the salesperson (+/-). Other predictors identified by Jolson et al. were: personal autonomy (+); peer group cohesion (+); opportunity for growth (+); opportunity to use skills and abilities; need for independence (-); and task routinization (-).

Jolson, Dubinsky, and Anderson (1987) operationalized tenure as the sum of past tenure with the present company (a self report) and future tenure (the salesperson's estimate of the expected duration of future employment with the present company). Their results indicate that there are significant predictors (which have been ignored by previous researchers) of a salesperson's tenure within a firm (popularity of the company's products, average unit sales size, percent of customers obtained by cold calls, and percentage of time devoted to prospecting and selling as opposed to servicing accounts).

As a result of their study, Jolson et al. provide suggestions to sales managers in terms of increasing job tenure: (1) the recruitment of veteran salespeople; and (2)

improving rewards for older salespeople (possibly through the use of cafeteria style fringe benefit plans). This reflects an interactionist perspective in that it recognizes the possibility that individuals may interact differently with the same environment at different levels of job tenure.

Cron (1984) made a contribution to the salesforce literature with his conceptual article regarding career stages. Cron identified four separate career stages: exploration (20-30 years old), establishment (30-45 years old), maintenance (starting somewhere around late thirties or mid forties) and disengagement (retirement age).

Of interest to the proposed dissertation research was Cron's model, detailing the affects of career stages on salesperson performance and satisfaction. Cron proposes that a salesperson's performance and satisfaction will be moderated by their particular career stage. Specifically, he states that: (1) satisfaction and performance are closely related during the exploration stage; (2) promotion, satisfaction and performance are closely related during establishment; and (3) satisfaction with co-workers and satisfaction with pay will be related to performance during the maintenance career stage. Propositions related to the disengagement stage are not developed by Cron; "our present understanding of this stage is fairly limited, and few people are expected to be in this situation at any single point in time" (1984, p. 46).

A framework focusing on how changing career patterns and

life concerns affect a salesperson's performance is Cron's major contribution. He calls for researchers to "begin to appreciate the nature and progression of salespeoples' career stages to more fully understand how to manage different salespeople and to increase productivity" (Cron, 1984, p. 50).

Other researchers have investigated the relationship between tenure and job performance/job satisfaction. Norris and Niebuhr (1984) believe that "an individual's relationship to the job and work organization change as a result of socialization through successive levels of organization tenure" (and) "distinct differences in an individual's attitudes toward his/her work, peers, and superiors are noted from one socialization stage to another" (Norris & Niebuhr, 1984, p. 170).

Norris and Niebuhr empirically tested their hypothesis, utilizing a sample of 116 respondents (technical employees in an engineering department within a medium size industrial company). Their findings indicated significant differences between low and high tenured employees (in terms of satisfaction with work and with supervision). No significant differences were found between the two groups in terms of satisfaction with co-workers, with pay, and with promotion.

Additionally, Norris and Niebuhr (1984) found that the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction varied significantly with different tenure levels. "More senior employees reported progressively weaker correlations

between satisfaction and performance; successful job performance may be more related to the satisfaction of low tenured employees than for higher tenured personnel" (Norris & Niebuhr, 1984, p. 176).

More recently, the relationship between job tenure, age, and job satisfaction was investigated by Bedeian, Ferris and Kacmar (1990). These researchers found that "tenure (however measured) was a more consistent and stronger predictor of job satisfaction than chronological age" -- and -- that "the functional relation between tenure and job satisfaction was found to differ for males and females" (Bedeian, Ferris & Kacmar, 1990, p. 2).

Results of this study appear to indicate that there are gender differences related to tenure and job satisfaction. For females, tenure was found to be more meaningful in predicting job satisfaction. As explanation for this finding, Bedeian et al. suggest that it may take longer for women to reach "equivalent administrative levels, resulting in increased tenure" (p. 16). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that there will be gender differences related to tenure and job satisfaction.

The results between job tenure, employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover are somewhat contradictory in nature, and thus, inconclusive. Therefore, the dissertation research examined the nature of relationships between job tenure, employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover.

SUMMARY AND HYPOTHESES

As discussed in this chapter, and as noted by many academicians, research conducted in areas of employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover has not resulted in clear, indisputable, conclusive findings. While attempts have been made to summarize the somewhat contradictory findings in this stream of research, with the exception of Churchill's work, little attempt has been made to integrate various concepts into a conceptual model. Therefore, this particular area of research is noteworthy not only because of the amount of research that has been conducted, but also because of the lack of conclusive findings. Additionally, previous research has approached such topics from a variety of positions, utilizing a variety of conceptual definitions and operationalizations.

The dissertation research attempted to address some of these issues through the utilization of an interactionist approach, incorporating relevant individual and situational variables. The study was an attempt to examine the relationship of role perceptions (situational variables), individual variables (gender and job tenure), salesperson performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. The approach incorporates major dimensions of behavior and job-related attitudes (i.e., the person, the situation, and their interaction). Additionally, the interactionist approach, for

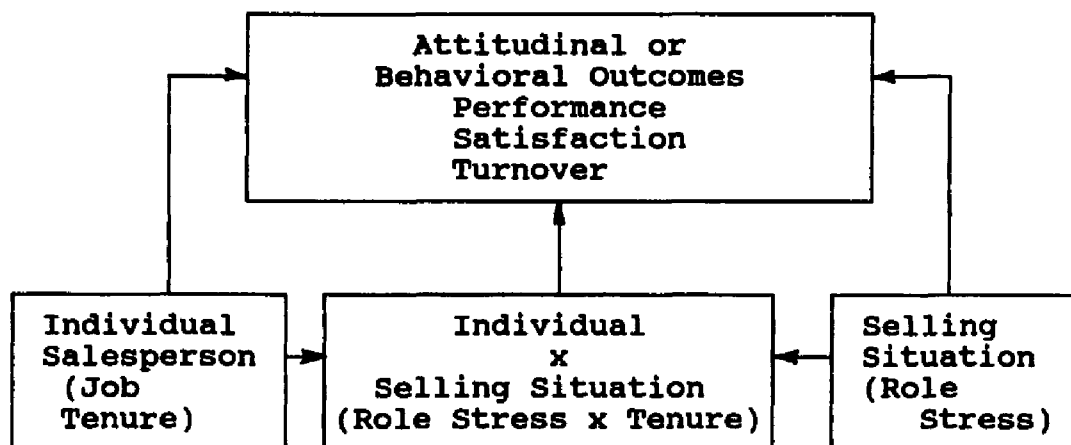
the dissertation research, specified constructs which have been shown to be insufficiently examined, but which may prove to be meaningful. In particular, the role of job-related factors has been somewhat neglected in the literature (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, & Walker, 1985).

Therefore, the dissertation research proposed to provide some contribution to our knowledge of relationships between job performance, job satisfaction, and turnover in a selling environment, through an analysis of an interactionist framework (see Figure 2.9). As discussed, additional research is warranted in order to fully explain such relationships.

Therefore, it is proposed that employee performance is related to individual (or dispositional) factors (such as gender and job tenure), situational factors (such as role stress), and their interaction. It is hypothesized that:

H1: Salesperson performance can be predicted from individual and situational variables, along with their interaction. Specifically, job tenure, role stress, and the interaction of job tenure and role stress will be significant predictors of salesperson performance.

Figure 2.9
Interactionist Framework Depicting Relationships
between Salesperson Attitudes or Behavioral Outcomes,
the Individual and the Situation



Based upon research conducted in the area of gender differences, it is hypothesized that:

H2: There will be gender differences related to employee performance. Performance variations are proposed to be a result of gender differences in terms of job tenure, role stress, and the interaction of job tenure and role stress.

It is proposed that job satisfaction is a function of individual factors, situational factors, and their interaction. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H3: Job satisfaction can be predicted from individual and situational variables, along with the interaction of those

variables. Specifically, job tenure, role stress, and the interaction of job tenure and role stress will be significant predictors of job satisfaction.

Based upon research conducted in the area of gender differences, it is hypothesized that:

H4: There will be gender differences in terms of job satisfaction. Specifically, it is proposed that these differences are a function of gender differences in terms of individual, situational and interaction variables.

Finally, based upon research conducted in the area of employee turnover, it is hypothesized that:

H5: There will be differences between "stayers" and "leavers" in terms of individual, situational, and interaction factors. Specifically, it is proposed that there will be differences in job tenure, role stress, and the interaction of job tenure x role stress.

In summary, the dissertation research utilized an interactionist approach in studying individual and situational factors presumed to be related to salesperson performance, satisfaction, and turnover. Specifically, job tenure, role stress (along with the interaction of job tenure x role stress) were proposed to be significant predictors of salesperson performance, job satisfaction and turnover.

Furthermore, the dissertation research attempted to assess potential gender differences. This information should be useful given that females are increasingly entering the work force and pursuing careers such as selling.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research questions that prompted the dissertation were stated in Chapter One and hypotheses to be tested were stated at the conclusion of Chapter Two. Chapter Three describes research methods and is divided into 3 sections:

- the design of the study;
- the survey instrument; and
- a discussion of data analyses.

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This section discusses the population, sample size, sample design, data collection procedures and analyses. These topics are covered in three sections, one describing the stages of the dissertation research, one discussing the population, and one relating to the sample.

Data Collection Procedure

Self-administered questionnaires were utilized to determine perceptions of salespeople regarding model constructs related to individual (dispositional) factors,

perceptions of role stress (situational) factors, and satisfaction. Questionnaires were distributed by regional sales managers to members of their respective salesforces. Sales representatives completed questionnaires -- at one time and on the same day for all plants -- and returned them to their sales managers. Questionnaires were then mailed, in pre-addressed, stamped envelopes to the Louisiana State University Marketing department.

Population and Sample Size

Population. Data were obtained from salespersons and salesmanagers employed by a medium-size outdoor advertising firm. The advertising company has 30 plants geographically dispersed over six regions -- primarily in the southeastern United States. States serviced by this advertising firm include Colorado, Texas, Louisiana, Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Virginia, Tennessee, Kentucky, West Virginia and Ohio. The sales divisions (or plants) are relatively small. An average of four salespeople are employed at each plant, with the range being from one to nine salespeople.

It was important to the dissertation research to obtain a company sample that would be representative of other selling firms. It is felt that the company recruited represents a

geographically dispersed selling organization and one that utilizes typical selling activities. However, research results may only be generalizable to salespeople who are employed in similar selling positions. Results may not be applicable to salespeople in different selling situations.

The salespeople who responded to the survey were not employed in any supervisory capacity. Each salesperson reports directly to the salesmanager in charge of their particular plant. Each plant manager reports to a regional salesmanager. Backgrounds of salespeople varied from plant to plant, but in general, salespeople had some degree of selling experience before being employed by the selling organization. Salespeople had been in their current positions for an average of 21 months; and in previous work positions an average of 102 months -- a total of approximately 10 years working and selling experience. Mean respondent age was 32 years. About 52% of the salespeople were college graduates. Sixty one percent of the sample was male. Salespeople are paid on a salary and commission basis, with a bonus system as an incentive.

Sample Size. Salespeople were assured by both the researcher and the company that all responses would be confidential and that no individual-level responses would be

discussed with the company. A total of 108 salespeople were surveyed. Questionnaires were administered at all plants on the same day thereby preventing the need for follow-up telephone calls. Usable questionnaires were returned by 89 salespeople for a response rate of 82 percent.

THE SURVEY INSTRUMENTS

Introduction

Constructs of interest, and their operationalizations are discussed in this section. Each variable is discussed in relation to both conceptual definitions and its measurement. Questionnaires utilized in the dissertation research are presented in Appendix A. It should be noted that the dissertation research was part of a larger, ongoing study. Information regarding the location of specific measures utilized in the dissertation research is provided in the Appendix.

Table 3.1
Sample Size and Response Rates
for Selected Performance Studies
Conducted in Sales Settings

Study	Methodology	Sample Size	Surveys Completed	Response Rate
Avila and Fern (1986)	Questionnaire mailed	244	197	81%
Beltramini and Evans (1988)	Questionnaire mailed	2000	933	47%
Berl, Powell, and Williamson (1984)	Questionnaire mailed	324	266	82%
Busch & Bush (1978)	Questionnaire Return via mail	974	477	54%
Behrman & Perreault (1984)	Questionnaire Return via mail	219	196	90%
Churchill, Ford and Walker (1976)	Questionnaire mailed	479	265	55%
Dubinsky and Skinner (1984)	Questionnaire mailed	121	116	96%
Futrell and Parasuraman (1984)	Questionnaires mailed	508	263	52%
Oliver (1974)	Questionnaire & experimental design	99	95	96%

Table 3.2
Sample Size and Response Rates for
Selected Turnover Studies
Conducted in Various Occupational Settings

Study	Methodology	Sample Size	Surveys Completed	Response Rate
Arnold, Feldman and Purbhoo (1985)	questionnaire mailed	2351	1058	45%
Campion and Mitchell (1986)	questionnaire mailed	283	174	80%
Dreher and Dougherty (1980)	questionnaire mailed	1412	692	49%
Hom and Griffith (1989)	questionnaire mailed	190	165	87%
Krackhardt and Porter (1985)	questionnaire completed at home-returned to work	76	63	83%
Lee and Mowday (1987)	questionnaires via company mail	1621	445	27%
Michaels and Spector (1982)	questionnaire	180	112	69%
Parsons, Herod and Leatherwood (1985)	questionnaire administered at work	51	51	100%
Sheridan and Abelson (1983)	questionnaire administered during work	346	346	100%

The Questionnaire

The variables analyzed in the dissertation research were measured utilizing a combination of scales developed in other settings. All the measures were based on multiple item scales, and measurement reliability was evaluated based on Cronbach's alpha. See Table 3.3 for conceptual definitions of constructs and Table 3.4 for summary information concerning measures utilized.

Tenure This measure assessed the amount of time an individual had with the selling organization (in any job capacity). Responses were obtained for length of time with the selling organization as a salesperson, as a salesmanager, as an assistant manager, as an operations manager or as a general manager. Total time with the company was also assessed.

Role Ambiguity This construct relates to the uncertainty that a salesperson experiences with regard to work related expectations of role partners (i.e., customers, salesmanagers,

Table 3.3: Conceptual Definitions

Construct	Definition
Performance	the degree to which an individual carries out his/her job in adherence with certain standards of the organization (adapted from Szilagyi, 1977)
Satisfaction	the degree to which an individual's desires and needs are fulfilled by his/her employment (adapted from Szilagyi, 1977)
Turnover	the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organization (Mobley, 1982)
Role Ambiguity	the extent to which an individual is unclear about the role expectations of others, as well as the degree of uncertainty associated with one's own role performance (Rizzo et al., 1970)
Role Conflict	the degree to which expectations of a role are incompatible or incongruent with the reality of the role (Rizzo et al., 1970)
Tenure	the length of time for which a position is held within and for a particular organization

Table 3.4: Summary of Information Concerning Measures

<u>Construct Name</u>	<u>Description of Measure</u>
Employee Performance	(1) A measure of the salesperson's overall performance based on the average of 28 (7 point) items related to personal qualities, knowledge, administration, sales ability, and overall assessments. (2) Sales volume measures.
Job Satisfaction	A measure of a salesperson's job satisfaction tapping elements of satisfaction with the job, with customers, with coworkers, with pay, with policies, with promotion, and with supervision (96 items).
Turnover	Measure of whether salesperson remained with or left the selling organization.
Role Stress	Composite measure of role ambiguity and role conflict.
Role Ambiguity	A measure of the salespersons' overall role ambiguity as measured by 6 Likert type items which indicate the uncertainty experienced regarding work related expectations (Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1972).
Role Conflict	A 8 item scale tapping various aspects of conflict experienced by salespeople. (Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman, 1972).
Tenure	A measure of the length of time a salesperson had been employed by the selling organization.

family members and/or company policies). It is measured by a 6 item scale developed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1972).

Role Conflict Likert-type items measure the overall role conflict experienced by a salesperson. Four dimensions of role conflict are measured: (1) intersender conflict; (2) intrasender conflict; (3) work overload; and (4) person-role conflict. Eight items measure this construct (Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman, 1972).

Employee Performance Two measures of employee performance were utilized in the dissertation research: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative measure was sales volume. Total sales volume (in dollars) for two--separate, 3 month periods were utilized. The second 3 month period was utilized as a validation check for the first 3 month period.

Qualitative measures of performance were obtained from supervisory evaluations. This evaluation measured on a 7 point scale (ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree") the salesperson's performance in terms of: (1) personal qualities ("this employee demonstrates self confidence"); (2) knowledge ("this employee demonstrates knowledge of customers"); (3) administration ("this employee

consistently submits required reports"); (4) sales ability ("this employee gets the customer's viewpoint"); and (5) overall performance ("this individual is one of the best employees we have working for us").

Satisfaction Consistent with previous research conducted in this area, the determination of separate aspects of job satisfaction was guided by the IndSales measure of salesperson satisfaction (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974). Seven point Likert-type items were utilized measuring 7 dimensions of job satisfaction: (1) satisfaction with customers; (2) satisfaction with co-workers; (3) satisfaction with supervision; (4) satisfaction with pay; (5) satisfaction with company policies; (6) satisfaction with promotional opportunities; and, (7) overall job satisfaction.

Data Analysis

The data analysis portion of Chapter Three is divided into two sections. The first section will present a discussion regarding reliability and validity assessments. The second section will describe the procedure to be utilized in testing research hypotheses. See Table 3.5 (the general data analysis procedure) and Table 3.6 (Research Hypotheses and Required Analysis).

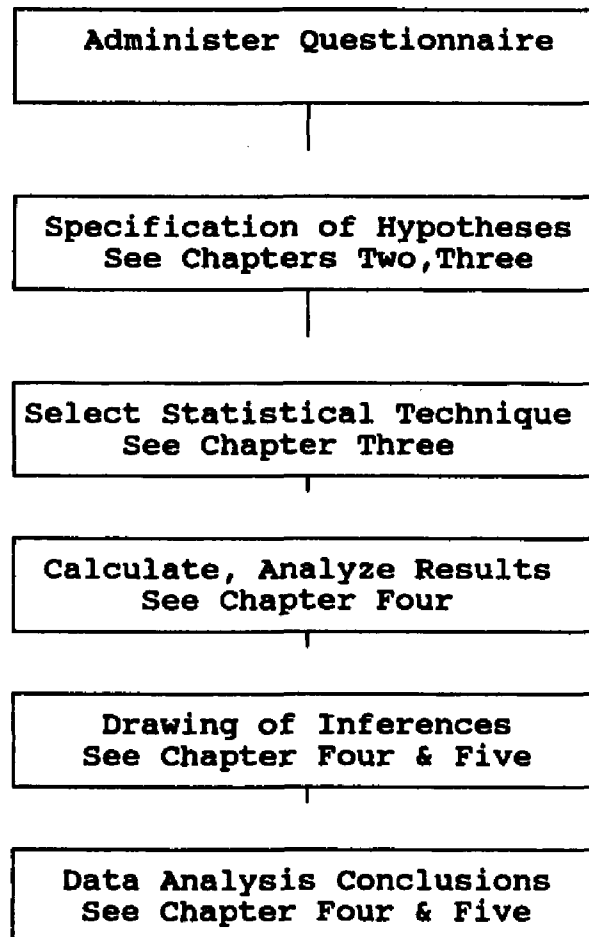
Reliability Assessment

One of the most important considerations in the selection of model constructs is the notion of reliability -- that measurements of the constructs are free from random error. Reliability of scales enhances analysis -- it allows for consistent results. There are three basic techniques for determining the reliability of a scale: (1) internal consistency; (2) test-retest; and (3) alternative forms.

Internal consistency was assessed for all scales employed in the proposed dissertation research; coefficient alpha was utilized to determine the internal consistency of measurement scales. According to Nunnally (1978), coefficient alpha generally produces an appropriate estimate of reliability since the major source of measurement error is due to content sampling.

While there is no numerical requirement for coefficient alpha, standard practice dictates acceptability. It has been suggested that .70 is an acceptable level -- in the early stages of research (Nunnally, 1978). Typical alphas for marketing research may range anywhere from .55 to .96 (Behrman and Perrault, 1984).

Table 3.5
Data Analysis Procedure Followed



The dissertation research employed guidelines established in marketing and management. That is, construct reliability coefficients should range above .70. For item analyses and scale reliabilities, see Appendix C (performance measures), Appendix D (satisfaction measures), and Appendix E (role stress measures).

Validity Assessment

The dissertation research also gave consideration to the issue of construct validity -- the degree to which scales measure the constructs which they are purported to measure. A measure can be considered valid only when differences in observed scores are indicative of true differences in the variable being measured. There are several types of validity (e.g., construct validity, content -- or face validity, criterion-related validity, nomological validity). Each type may provide additional evidence toward establishing validity.

Content (or face) validity refers to whether or not the contents of a scale appear to provide a representative set of scale items relating to the variable. Content validity is a necessary type of validity to establish, but it is not a sufficient approach to validity considerations.

Criterion validity refers to the extent to which scale scores are related to nonscale variables selected as

meaningful criteria (Peterson, 1982). This type of validity is most frequently determined through correlation coefficient analysis.

Construct validity may be the most sophisticated approach to evaluation of measurement scales. It is thought that this type of validity is a necessary condition for theory development, in that it relates to the degree of correspondence between variables and their measurements. Several researchers have proposed methods to assist in the assessing the construct validity of a scale (Campbell and Fisk, 1959; Zeller and Carmines, 1980).

The dissertation research incorporated the consideration of validity in its theoretical development of the framework and its empirical test of model relationships. It is suggested that nomological validity can be assessed through analysis of the hypothesized relationships between constructs.

Hypotheses Tests

Analysis of the dissertation research will be presented for each stated hypothesis. See Table 3.6 for research hypotheses and required analysis.

TABLE 3.6
Research Hypotheses and Required Analysis

Hypothesis	Analysis Technique	Statistical Test
H1. Salesperson performance can be predicted from individual and situational variables, along with their interaction.	Moderated Regression Analysis	F-test R-square Change in R-square Regression Coefficients
H2. There will be gender differences related to performance.	Analysis of Variance	F-test
H3. Job satisfaction can be predicted from individual and situational variables, along with their interaction.	Moderated Regression Analysis	F-test R-square Change in R-square Regression Coefficients
H4. There will be gender differences in terms of job satisfaction.	Analysis of Variance	F-test
H5. There will be differences between "stayers" and "leavers" in terms of individual, situational, and interaction factors.	Analysis of Variance	F-test

Hypotheses Tests

Research hypotheses suggesting relationships between primary constructs such as employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover and predictor variables (individual and situational factors) will be tested utilizing a series of hierarchical moderated regression analyses. Moderator variables are those which systematically modify either the form and/or strength of the relationship between a predictor and a criterion variable. This type of analyses was chosen following recommendations of researchers who have conducted studies utilizing the technique (Bearden & Woodside, 1976; Day & Bedeian, 1990; Horton, 1979; Laroche & Howard, 1980; Stone & Hollenbeck, 1989).

According to Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie (1981), "moderated regression analysis has been used very little in marketing-related studies" (p.295). However, the technique is the appropriate analysis to employ in testing for and identifying moderator variables which modify the form of a relationship.

Moderated regression analysis was applied for each dependent variable (employee performance, and job satisfaction). Separate equations were examined to determine the significance of interactions between individual factors and situational factors. The framework presented by Sharma,

Durand and Gur-Arie (1981) will be followed. For a complete illustration of this framework, see Table 3.7.

Following this approach, the individual (personal) variables will be entered first (step 1), followed by situational variables (step 2). These, in turn, will be followed by the cross-products of (individual x situational) (step 3). If regression weights for the cross-product terms are significant, then that will be taken as evidence for a significant interaction effect.

Should interaction effects prove to be significant, further analyses involve the determination of the specific type of moderating effect present. This analysis is described in Step 4 of Sharma et al.'s framework.

Table 3.7
Suggested Framework for Identifying Moderator Variables

- Step 1. Determine whether a significant interaction is present between hypothesized moderator variable and predictor variable. If a significant interaction is found, proceed to Step 2. Otherwise, go to Step 3.
- Step 2. Determine whether moderator variable is related to the criterion variable. If it is, then it can be identified as a quasi moderator variable. If not, it is a pure moderator variable. In either case, the moderator influences the form of the relationship in the classic validation model.
- Step 3. Determine whether the moderator variable is related to the criterion or predictor variable. If it is related, it is not a moderator, but an exogenous, predictor, intervening, antecedent, or a suppressor variable. If it is not related to either the predictor or criterion variable, proceed to Step 4.
- Step 4. Split the total sample into subgroups on the basis of the hypothesized moderator variable. The groups can be formed by a median, quartile, or other type of split. After segmenting the total sample into subgroups, do a test of significance for differences in predictive validity across subgroups. If significant differences are found, the moderator can be termed a homologizer variable operating through the error term. If no significant differences are found, the variable is not a moderator variable and the analysis concludes.

(Source: Sharma et al., 1981, p. 296)

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Introduction

The purpose of Chapter Three was to describe the methodology utilized in the preparation and administration of the dissertation questionnaire. Chapter Three also introduced the statistical techniques to be utilized in analyzing data collected from the questionnaire.

This chapter begins with a section assessing reliability and correlations among study constructs. Next, a discussion of the statistical techniques employed is presented. Two statistical procedures were utilized to facilitate analysis and interpretation of the data. First, hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used to determine whether or not statistically significant relationships existed between the two primary dependent variables (employee performance and job satisfaction), situational variables (role stress), individual variables (gender and tenure) and the interaction of situational and individual variables (role stress x tenure). Finally, analysis of variance was employed to determine whether there were significant gender differences related to employee performance and job satisfaction, as well as other study variables. Additionally, analysis of variance was

utilized to test for differences between "stayers" and "leavers" in terms of employee performance, job satisfaction, and other study variables. The chapter concludes with a presentation of summarized results.

Reliability Assessment

Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed for total subscales within the questionnaire. Overall, reliability estimates were found to be good, suggesting that these scales are reliable measures.

With the exception of one satisfaction subscale (satisfaction with policy), all subscales met suggested marketing guidelines for reliability (above .70). Based upon item analysis, the satisfaction with policy subscale was refined. Eight measures of satisfaction with policy were retained and alphas recomputed. After refinement, this subscale also met suggested guidelines. A summary of results is shown in Table 4.1. For more detailed analyses (item analysis), see Appendix C (performance subscales), Appendix D (satisfaction subscales), and Appendix E (role stress subscales).

Table 4.1
Scale Reliabilities

<u>Scale</u>	<u>Reliability</u>
Performance	
personal qualities(8 items)	.8706
knowledge (4 items)	.8410
administration (5 items)	.8553
sales ability (8 items)	.9348
overall ability (3 items)	.9350
Satisfaction	
with Co-workers (12 items)	.9037
with Supervision(16 items)	.9187
with Pay (11 items)	.8675
with Promotion (8 items)	.8621
with Policy (21 items)	.7850
with Customers (15 items)	.8633
with Job (13 items)	.9033
Situational Variables	
Role Ambiguity (6 items)	.8318
Role Conflict (8 items)	.6986

Correlations Among Model Constructs

Table 4.2 presents descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among study variables: performance (qualitative and quantitative); dimensions of satisfaction (e.g., with customers, co-workers, pay, policies, promotion, supervision, and the job); turnover; individual variables (gender and tenure); situational variables (role stress); and interaction variables (role stress x job tenure). A brief discussion of patterns found among study variables follows.

Reference to Table 4.2 indicates that the separate dimensions of performance (qualitative) are highly interrelated. Each dimension of (qualitative) performance appears to be significantly related to all other dimensions.

However, for the two distinct measures of performance (supervisory appraisals and sales volume), no significant correlations were exhibited. Thus, it appears that these two measures provide information regarding distinct facets of salesperson performance.

For the satisfaction subscales, it is evident that not all subscales are highly related to all other subscales. However, there are some significant intercorrelations between these subscales. For example, satisfaction with customers is significantly related to satisfaction with policies (.40, $p < .001$), and to satisfaction with the job (.46, $p < .001$). Satisfaction with co-workers is significantly related to satisfaction with supervision (.53, $p < .001$) and to

satisfaction with the job (.47, $p < .001$). A salesperson's satisfaction with company policies appears to be significantly related to satisfaction with promotion (.31, $p < .001$), satisfaction with supervision (.55, $p < .001$) and to satisfaction with the job (.48, $p < .001$). Finally, satisfaction with supervision is significantly related to a salesperson's satisfaction with the job (.35, $p < .001$).

Employee turnover was not found to be significantly related to any study variables. However, a negative relationship (although not statistically significant) was found between turnover and performance; and for four dimensions of satisfaction.

Significant relationships were found between gender and the following dimensions of satisfaction: satisfaction with customers (.32, $p < .001$); satisfaction with co-workers (.27, $p < .001$); and for satisfaction with the job (.34, $p < .001$). No significant relationships were found for the individual variable of job tenure.

Role stress exhibited a significant relationship with the following study variables: satisfaction with customers (-.42, $p < .001$); satisfaction with co-workers (-.46, $p < .001$); satisfaction with policies (-.65, $p < .001$); satisfaction with promotion (-.57, $p < .001$); satisfaction with supervision (-.52, $p < .001$); and satisfaction with the job (-.54, $p < .001$).

Finally, the interaction term, role stress x job tenure was found to be significantly related to satisfaction with

Table 4.2
Descriptive Statistics & Intercorrelations

Variables:	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
<u>Performance (Qualitative)</u>							
1. Personal	5.20	.77	1.0				
2. Knowledge	4.70	.66	.44**	1.0			
3. Administrative	4.52	.90	.76**	.52**	1.0		
4. Sales Ability	4.86	.90	.64**	.50**	.72**	1.0	
5. Overall	4.21	1.35	.86**	.51**	.73**	.68*	1.0
<u>Performance (Quantitative)</u>							
6. Sales Volume	272	312	-.11	.12	-.06	.05	-.09
<u>Satisfaction with:</u>							
7. Customers	4.79	1.08	.07	.06	-.08	.11	-.05
8. Co-workers	5.32	1.39	.08	-.04	.02	.14	-.00
9. Pay	4.35	1.41	.29	.16	.23	.25	.30
10. Policies	4.71	1.42	-.06	-.05	-.02	-.02	-.14
11. Promotion	4.83	1.51	.03	-.07	.03	-.03	-.10
12. Supervision	4.93	1.48	-.05	-.10	-.01	-.06	-.15
13. The Job	5.71	1.13	.06	-.00	.05	.15	-.00
<u>Turnover</u>							
14. Turnover			.15	-.04	.05	.12	.04
<u>Individual Variables</u>							
15. Gender			-.11	.07	-.06	-.12	-.12
16. Job Tenure	21.9	20.0	.05	.06	.04	.21	-.09
<u>Situational Variables</u>							
17. Role Stress	38.8	9.8	.11	.08	.03	-.02	.20
<u>Interaction Variables</u>							
18. Role Stress x Job Tenure	894.0	816.9	-.14	-.17	-.17	-.12	-.07
			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Note: Coefficients are reported with decimal points omitted.
Reliability estimates are reported on the diagonal.
*p<.01; **p<.001.
Sales Volume in thousands of dollars; Tenure in months

Table 4.2
Descriptive Statistics & Intercorrelations

Variables:	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Performance (Qualitative)								
1. Personal								
2. Knowledge								
3. Administrative								
4. Sales Ability								
5. Overall								
Performance (Quantitative)								
6. Sales Volume	1.0							
Satisfaction with:								
7. Customers	-.05	1.0						
8. Co-workers	.27	.25	1.0					
9. Pay	-.08	-.04	-.04	1.0				
10. Policies	.05	.40**	.44	-.17	1.0			
11. Promotion	.02	-.05	.17	.04	.31**	1.0		
12. Supervision	.07	.19	.53**	-.14	.55**	.17	1.0	
13. The Job	.20	.46**	.47**	.03	.48**	.09	.35**	1.0
Turnover								
14. Turnover	-.01	.10	.05	-.13	-.05	-.07	-.03	.23
Individual Variables								
15. Gender	.26	.32*	.27*	.00	.10	-.11	.08	.34**
16. Job Tenure	.06	-.01	.05	-.06	-.07	-.25	-.01	.20
Situational Variables								
17. Role Stress	.03	-.42**	-.46**	.20	-.65**	-.57**	-.52**	-.54**
Interaction Variables								
18. Role Stress x Job Tenure	.01	.28*	.35*	.03	-.27**	-.39**	-.17	.00
	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)

Note: Coefficients are reported with decimal points omitted.
Reliability estimates are reported on the diagonal.
*p<.01; **p<.001.

Table 4.2
Descriptive Statistics & Intercorrelations

Variables:	14	15	16	17	18
<hr/>					
Performance					
<u>(Qualitative)</u>					
1. Personal					
2. Knowledge					
3. Administrative					
4. Sales Ability					
5. Overall					
 Performance					
<u>(Quantitative)</u>					
6. Sales Volume					
 <u>Satisfaction with:</u>					
7. Customers					
8. Co-workers					
9. Pay					
10. Policies					
11. Promotion					
12. Supervision					
13. The Job					
 <u>Turnover</u>					
14. Turnover	1.0				
 <u>Individual Variables</u>					
15. Gender	.08	1.0			
16. Job Tenure	.16	.16	1.0		
 <u>Situational Variables</u>					
17. Role Stress	-.02	.21	-.07	1.0	
 <u>Interaction Variables</u>					
18. Role Stress x Job Tenure	.15	-.11	.98**	.28*	1.0
	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)

Note: Coefficients are reported with decimal points omitted.
Reliability estimates are reported on the diagonal.
*p<.01; **p<.001.

customers (.28, $p < .01$), to satisfaction with co-workers (.35, $p < .01$); to satisfaction with policies (-.27, $p < .001$); and to satisfaction with promotion (-.39, $p < .001$). Additionally, the interaction term was significantly related to job tenure (.98, $p < .001$) and to role stress (.28, $p < .01$).

Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was utilized to assess the relationship between a dependent (criterion) variable and a set of independent (predictor) variables. From inserting values for predictor variables into the regression equation, an estimate was obtained which indicated the importance of a single predictor variable. The strength of the relationship which exists between the criterion and predictor variables is indicated by 'R', the multiple correlation coefficient. The amount of variance explained for the dependent variable by the predictor variables is measured by the square of the multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 .

Much marketing related research utilizes a "classic validation model....to determine the degree of association between a predictor variable or a set of predictor variables and a criterion variable" (Sharma, Durand and Gur-Arie, 1981, p. 291). Sharma et al. suggest that while the model has proven to be satisfactory in many cases, there exists some

research results which suggest that the "model does not provide a complete understanding of the phenomena studied" (p. 291).

Therefore, as an alternative approach, some researchers advocate use of moderated regression analysis (Day & Bedeian, 1990; Saunders, 1956; Sharma, Durand and Gur-Arie, 1981). Application of the technique calls for separate regression equations to be analyzed. In terms of the dissertation research, separate (stepwise) moderated regression equations were performed as follows: (1) on Step 1, an individual variable was entered into the equation (gender); (2) next, on Step 2, job tenure (another individual variable) was entered; (3) a situational variable -- role stress -- was entered; and (4) the cross-product (role stress x job tenure) was entered last. When the interaction (or cross-product) term showed significance (for levels of $p < .01$, $.05$ and $.10$) it was accepted as an indication of a significant interaction effect.

Following Sharma et al.'s suggestions, when an interaction term was found to moderate the relationship between the term and the criterion variable, further analysis was undertaken to determine the way in which the interaction term moderated the relationship. The sample was split into two groups (low tenure and high tenure), at the median level of tenure (21.9 months). Regression plots were obtained to assess how the relationship was moderated.

According to Sharma et al., moderated regression analysis has enjoyed only limited use in marketing research. These authors cite only a few marketing studies whose results were analyzed utilizing moderated regression analysis (Bearden & Mason, 1979; Bearden & Woodside, 1976, 1978; Horton, 1979; and Laroche & Howard, 1980).

For the dissertation research, hierarchical (stepwise) moderated regression analysis was specifically chosen since it allowed for the investigation of interaction effects between predictor and criterion variables. Because research results in the area of employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover have yielded somewhat inconclusive results, it was thought that utilization of this particular technique may provide beneficial information heretofore not obtained. Additionally, the technique allowed for the determination of how the moderating variable affected the criterion variable (e.g., whether it moderated the form or the strength of the relationship).

Tests of the Research Hypotheses

As discussed in Chapter Three, research hypotheses suggesting relationships between primary constructs of employee performance, and job satisfaction, and predictor variables (individual and situational factors) were tested utilizing a series of hierarchical moderated regression

analyses. For each dependent variable (two performance variables and seven satisfaction variables), a set of regression equations were performed. Each set of regression equations included two individual variables (gender and tenure), one situational variable (role stress) and one interaction variable (role stress x tenure).

Information related to Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 3, will be presented first. These hypotheses relate to the prediction of employee performance and job satisfaction from the set of predictor variables. Both the statistical results and a discussion of the findings will be presented. Following this section will be information (results and discussion) related to Hypotheses 2, 4, and 5 (which focus on gender differences, as well as differences between stayers and leavers).

Hypothesis 1.

Salesperson performance can be predicted from individual and situational variables, along with the interaction of those variables.

Results. To test this hypothesis, it was necessary to examine relationships between both objective and subjective measures of performance and independent variables of gender, tenure, role stress, and role stress x tenure. Table 4.4 presents results of this analysis.

Table 4.4 shows results of hierarchical moderated

regression analyses for the dependent variable of employee performance (as measured by supervisory evaluations). Reference to this table indicates that four separate regression equations were performed utilizing one predictor variable for each equation. Changes in R-square were assessed to determine whether the entry of a subsequent predictor variable was significant.

The results of these analyses fail to provide support for Hypothesis 1 (when performance is measured by supervisory appraisals). No individual variables, situational variables, nor interaction variables were found to be significant in predicting employee performance.

Table 4.5(a) and Table 4.5(b) illustrate results of hierarchical moderated regression analyses with employee performance as the dependent variable, measured by sales volume. As discussed previously, two separate, quarterly time periods were investigated (November through January and February through April). For both time periods, some support for Hypothesis 1 was obtained.

Two predictor variables were found to be significant in predicting employee performance -- when measured quantitatively -- by sales volume. An individual variable, gender, and an interaction variable, role stress x tenure, were found to be significant in the regression equation.

However, while these two variables were found to be significant, model R-squares were low (ranging from .0440 to

Table 4.4
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Subjective
Measures of Performance as the Dependent Criterion Variable
Supervisory Evaluations as Dependent Variable

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0000	-.0022	.0000
2	Job Tenure	.0037	-.0618	.0037
3	Role Stress	.0132	.0988	.0094
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.0187	-.3363	.0055

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Table 4.5
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Objective
Measures of Performance as the Dependent Criterion Variable

Table 4.5(a): Sales Performance as Dependent Variable
(November, December and January)

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0430	.2073	.0430**
2	Job Tenure	.0431	.0112	.0001
3	Role Stress	.0437	-.0254	.0006
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.1170	-1.3668	.0733**

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
(Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Table 4.5
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Objective
Measures of Performance as the Dependent Criterion Variable

Table 4.5(b): Sales Performance as Dependent Variable
(February, March and April)

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0332	.1822	.0332*
2	Job Tenure	.0345	.0372	.0013
3	Role Stress	.0356	.0342	.0011
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.1187	-1.4557	.0832***

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

.1170). Therefore, the regression equation was not capable of explaining a large amount of variance in salesperson performance.

Consequently, only very limited support for Hypothesis 1 was found. In no case were situational variables (role stress) found to be significant in predicting employee performance. Only when employee performance was measured by sales volume, were an individual variable and an interaction variable found to be significant.

Discussion

Each type of predictor variable will be briefly discussed. For a summary representation of significant results, please see Table 4.9, p.

Individual Variables.

These results are not consistent with some previous research in employee performance. For example, a variety of individual variables have been found to be significant in predicting performance. Lucas (1985) reported that job tenure was found to be a significant predictor of performance (displaying a positive relationship). The present research found a negative (although statistically insignificant) relationship between job tenure and performance (as measured by supervisory appraisals). A positive relationship was found between tenure and performance (as measured by sales volume).

From these results, it appears that tenure may contribute to increased sales volume but not to improved performance evaluations. As an individual's job tenure increases, so would their experience and knowledge. It is reasonable to expect that salespeople, who have been with the company for longer periods of time, will be capable of outselling younger, less experienced salespeople.

Situational variables.

Role stress (role ambiguity and role conflict) have been given much attention in the literature. Role ambiguity has shown a consistently negative relationship with performance (Bagozzi, 1980; Behrman & Perreault, 1984; Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986; and Szilagyi, 1977). In contrast, role conflict has yielded contradictory results. A positive relationship between role conflict and performance was found by Behrman & Perreault (1984), and Dubinsky & Hartley, (1986). Others have found a negative relationship between the two constructs (Bagozzi, 1978; Szilagyi, Sims & Keller, 1976).

The dissertation research failed to confirm the significance of role stress in predicting performance (for either performance measure). Generally, negative relationships have been found previously (although not consistently) between role stress variables and performance. Dissertation results have failed to confirm either a positive or a negative relationship with performance.

Interaction Variables.

To complete the investigation into the moderating effect of interaction variables, additional analyses were conducted (as suggested by Sharma et al., 1981); see framework on page 127. A step by step procedure was followed to determine what type of moderator variable the interaction term was. As part of this procedure (Step 4), the sample was split into two subgroups (low and high tenure). These groups were comprised of those salespeople below and above the median level of tenure (21.9 months).

Results of this analysis suggests that the interaction term does not moderate the relationship -- when performance is measured by supervisory appraisals. However, when performance is measured by sales volume, results indicated that the interaction term (role stress x job tenure) is a moderator variable; a "pure" moderator variable. This type of moderator variable, according to Sharma et al. (1981), influences the form of the relationship between the moderator and the dependent variable (salesperson performance). In other words, this type of moderator variable enters "into interaction with predictor variables, while having a negligible correlation with the criterion itself" (Cohen & Cohen, 1975, p. 314). See Table 4.6 for a summary of steps undertaken to identify what type of moderator the interaction term (role stress x tenure) was.

**Table 4.6: Identification of Moderator
Variable with Dependent Measure:
Employee Performance**

	<u>Dependent Variables</u>	
	Supervisory Appraisals	Sales Volume
Step 1: Is there a significant interaction between moderator term and dependent variable? (if not-go to step 3; if yes-go to step 2)	No	Yes
Step 2: Is the moderator term related to the dependent variable?		No
Step 3: Is the moderator term related to the dependent variable? (if no, do subgroup analyses)	No	
Step 4: Split sample into subgroups - determine differences in predictive validity across groups.	*	#

* = Subgroup analysis indicates that the interaction term is not a moderator variable.

= The interaction term is considered a "pure" moderator variable.

As mentioned earlier in the dissertation, little research in marketing has focused on the examination of interaction variables. However, such variables have been found to provide some explanatory power in terms of individual behavior and attitudes. For example, when shopping behavior is considered, it is reasonable to predict that an individual's shopping behavior is a function of that individual, the shopping situation, and the interaction of the individual with the situation. Likewise, it appears reasonable to conceptualize employee performance as a function of the individual salesperson, the working environment (or situation) and the interaction of the salesperson with the situation.

Support was found for the significance of interaction variables in predicting employee performance (when measured by sales volume). The interaction of role stress x tenure was found to contribute significantly to a change in R-square ($p < .01$). Additionally, when combined with other predictor variables, approximately 12 percent of the variation in salesperson performance was explained.

Based on these findings, it appears that neither individual nor situational factors may be sufficient in and of themselves to predict employee performance. Some support has been found for the interactionist approach which suggests that it is the interaction of the individual and their

situation which is important to investigate. However, results of these particular results should be interpreted with caution, as model R-squares are low.

Hypothesis 3.

Job satisfaction can be predicted from individual and situational variables, along with the interaction of those variables.

Results. To test this hypothesis, each separate dimension of job satisfaction was used as a dependent variable (i.e., satisfaction with customers, with co-workers, with pay, with policy, with promotion, with supervision, and with the job, in general. Table 4.7 (a-h) presents results of these analyses.

Inspection of the series of tables (Table 4.7a-h) shows that individual variables were significant in predicting satisfaction with customers (gender, $p < .10$; tenure, $p < .10$); satisfaction with promotion (tenure, $p < .05$); and satisfaction with the job (gender, $p < .01$). For all dimensions of satisfaction, role stress was found to be significantly related ($p < .05$, and $p < .01$). Interaction terms were not found to be significant in predicting any dimension of job satisfaction. Each dimension will be briefly discussed.

Satisfaction with customers. Individual variables of

gender and job tenure were found to be statistically significant (both were positively related to satisfaction with customers) in predicting satisfaction with customers. Role stress was also found to exhibit a statistically significant (negative) relationship to a salesperson's satisfaction with customers. As indicated by Table 4.7(a), the model R-square was 21.7 percent.

Satisfaction with co-workers. Results for this dimension of satisfaction differed from those for satisfaction with customers. Only the situational variable, role stress, showed significance in predicting a salesperson's satisfaction with their co-workers (displaying a negative relationship). For this regression equation, model R-squares barely exceeded 20 percent.

Satisfaction with pay. Similar to satisfaction with co-workers, only the situational variable, role stress, contributed significantly to explaining a salesperson's satisfaction with pay. For this dimension of satisfaction, however, role stress exhibited a positive relation. This result should be interpreted with caution, however, as model R-squares for a salesperson's satisfaction with pay was extremely low (approximately 5 percent).

Table 4.7
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Dimensions of
Job Satisfaction as Dependent Criterion Variables

Table 4.7(a): Satisfaction with Customers

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0382	.1955	.0382*
2	Job Tenure	.0672	.1774	.0290*
3	Role Stress	.2171	-.4006	.1499***
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.2171	-.0034	.0000

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Table 4.7
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Dimensions of
Job Satisfaction as Dependent Criterion Variables

Table 4.7(b): Satisfaction with Co-workers

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0081	.0901	.0081
2	Job Tenure	.0131	-.0736	.0050
3	Role Stress	.2085	-.4607	.1954***
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.2087	.0434	.0002

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Table 4.7
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Dimensions of
Job Satisfaction as Dependent Criterion Variables

Table 4.7(c): Satisfaction with Pay

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0010	.0311	.0010
2	Job Tenure	.0048	-.0641	.0038
3	Role Stress	.0538	.2308	.0490**
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.0542	.0611	.0004

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Satisfaction with policy. Again, for this dimension of job satisfaction, results appear to indicate the importance of role stress in predicting a salesperson's satisfaction (significant at $p < .01$). Role stress was found to be negatively related to a salesperson's satisfaction with policy. Due to the significance of role stress, this regression equation was found to be capable of explaining approximately 50 percent of the variation in satisfaction with policy.

Satisfaction with promotion. Results of regression analyses indicate that this dimension of satisfaction is significantly related to an individual variable (job tenure) as well as to a situational variable (role stress). Both job tenure and role stress exhibited a negative relationship with a salesperson's satisfaction with promotion. Reference to Table 4.6(f) suggests that job tenure is capable of explaining approximately 6 percent of the variation in a salesperson's satisfaction with promotion. Role stress appears to contribute close to 40 percent toward explaining the variance in satisfaction with promotion.

Satisfaction with supervisors. This dimension of satisfaction appears to be significantly (and negatively) related only to a situational variable (role stress). Neither individual nor interaction variables were found to

Table 4.7
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Dimensions of
Job Satisfaction as Dependent Criterion Variables

Table 4.7(d): Satisfaction with Policy

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0131	-.0131	.0131
2	Job Tenure	.0028	-.0531	.0026
3	Role Stress	.4949	-.7312	.4922***
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.4950	.0213	.0000

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Table 4.7
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Dimensions of
Job Satisfaction as Dependent Criterion Variables

Table 4.7(e): Satisfaction with Promotion

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0084	-.0919	.0084
2	Job Tenure	.0620	-.2410	.0535**
3	Role Stress	.3797	-.5874	.3177***
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.3805	.0878	.0008

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

be capable of predicting satisfaction with supervisors. Role stress appears to contribute approximately 27 percent of the variance explained in a salesperson's satisfaction with their supervisors.

Satisfaction with the job. Results for this dimension of satisfaction indicate that it is related to both individual (gender) and situational variables (role stress), but not to the interaction of those variables. Results in Table 4.6(g) seem to indicate that role stress is negatively related to satisfaction with the job. The equation explained approximately 34 percent of the variance in predicting a salesperson's satisfaction with the job.

As a result of these separate analyses, only partial support was found for Hypothesis 3. Individual variables (gender and job tenure) were significant in predicting three dimensions of satisfaction: satisfaction with customers, with promotion and with the job. The situational variable (role stress) was found to be statistically significant in predicting all dimensions of satisfaction. Finally, no interaction variables were found to be significant in the prediction of salesperson job satisfaction.

Table 4.7
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Dimensions of
Job Satisfaction as Dependent Criterion Variables

Table 4.7(f): Satisfaction with Supervision

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.0053	.0730	.0053
2	Job Tenure	.0067	-.0382	.0013
3	Role Stress	.2730	-.5378	.2663***
4	Role Stress x Job Tenure	.2730	.0110	.0000

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
 Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
 (Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Table 4.7
Summary of Hierarchical Regression Using Dimensions of
Job Satisfaction as Dependent Criterion Variables

Table 4.7(g): Satisfaction with the Job

Step	Independent Variable	Model Rsquare	Regression Weights(std)	Rsquare Change
1	Gender	.1132	.3364	.1132***
2	Job Tenure	.1203	.0880	.0071
3	Role Stress	.3436	-.4925	.2233***
4	Role Stress X Job Tenure	.3440	.0624	.0004

Note Regarding Independent Variables:

Individual Variables: Gender
Job Tenure

Situational Variable: Role Stress
(Role Ambiguity + Role Conflict)

Interaction Variable: Role Stress * Job Tenure

* = $p < .10$

** = $p < .05$

*** = $p < .01$

Discussion

Each type of predictor variable will be briefly discussed. For a summary representation of analyses, see Table 4.8, p. 161.

Individual Variables.

Previous research has demonstrated the importance of various individual variables in predicting job satisfaction. As an example, the following individual variables have been found to significantly relate to satisfaction: locus of control (Behrman and Perreault, 1981); motivation (Bagozzi, 1980); self-esteem (Lucas, 1985); and self-monitoring (Dubinsky & Hartley, 1986).

The two individual variables chosen for investigation in this research were gender and job tenure. For one dimension of satisfaction, both individual variables were found to be significant (satisfaction with customers). Gender was additionally found to be significant in the prediction of salesperson satisfaction with the job (positive relationship). Tenure showed significance in predicting satisfaction with promotion -- a negative relationship. Relationships with these dimensions of satisfaction.

Gender. For the dissertation research, gender was significant in predicting satisfaction with customers and satisfaction with one's job. This result suggests that female salespeople are more satisfied with these two dimensions of satisfaction than are male salespersons.

Table 4.8
Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses

	<u>Independent Variables</u>			
	Gender	Tenure	Role Stress	Role Stress x Tenure
<u>Dependent Variables:</u>				
<u>Performance Qualitative</u>	x	x	x	x
<u>Performance Quantitative</u>	*	x	x	***
<u>Satisfaction with:</u>				
Customers	*	*	***	x
Coworkers	x	x	***	x
Pay	x	x	**	x
Policies	x	x	***	x
Promotion	x	**	***	x
Supervision	x	x	***	x
the Job	***	x	***	x

Note: x = results non-significant
 * = results significant (p<.10)
 ** = results significant (p<.05)
 *** = results significant (p<.01)

Recent research has examined gender differences in job satisfaction (Hodson, 1989; Stewart, 1989). According to these studies, there are several reasons why women may be more satisfied in their jobs than men. Suggested as possible factors (Stewart, 1989) are : "the opportunity to do something different and to be creative" ... "the feeling of accomplishment in a new and different field" ... and, "opportunities to work with men in similar jobs and to share common work responsibilities" (Stewart, 1989, p. 33).

In an empirical investigation of gender differences in satisfaction, Hodson (1989) found that: (1) women employ different personal expectations in evaluating their jobs; (2) women may arrive at a higher level of job satisfaction than men by using different comparison groups; and (3) it may be that men are more likely to verbalize dissatisfaction than women.

A career in selling does provide unique opportunities for women in terms of flexibility and autonomy. Further, success in selling is somewhat dependent upon communication skills; women may be socialized -- in some respects -- to be better listeners than men. It is plausible that women may be more satisfied -- with customers and with their jobs -- because of these unique opportunities inherent in the selling environment.

Finally, for some women, a career in sales would be a somewhat non-traditional career choice. In line with

Stewart's research, the novelty of a non-traditional occupation also contributes to greater job satisfaction.

Job Tenure. Previous research has been somewhat limited in the area of investigating the relationship between job tenure and job satisfaction. It has been suggested that job tenure may have a direct effect upon satisfaction, or an indirect effect (through its relationship to role ambiguity or role conflict).

A negative relationship between job tenure and satisfaction has been evidenced by previous research. For example, Churchill, Ford and Walker (1976) found tenure to be negatively related to satisfaction with pay, with promotion and with the job. Ingram and Bellinger (1983) found tenure to be negatively correlated with a salesperson's satisfaction with pay and with promotion.

The dissertation findings are somewhat consistent with this research. A negative relationship (although not statistically significant) was found between job tenure and satisfaction with co-workers, with pay, with company policy, and with supervision. A statistically significant (negative) relationship was found between tenure and satisfaction with promotion.

A positive (significant) relationship was found between job tenure and satisfaction with customers. Additionally, a positive (although not statistically significant) relationship

was found between tenure and overall job satisfaction.

These results indicate that there are considerable differences exhibited for individual variables such as gender and job tenure as they relate to the different dimensions of job satisfaction. It appears that gender and job tenure are capable of providing some explanation for salespersons' attitudes toward job satisfaction.

Situational Variables.

Role stress is the one situational variable which was investigated for the dissertation research. Results of regression analyses examining relationships between role stress and job satisfaction confirm previous research.

Jackson and Schuler (1985) conducted a meta-analysis which incorporated results from approximately 200 relevant studies. They found that role variables displayed a consistently negative relationship with all dimensions of satisfaction.

Previous research conducted in a sales setting is in agreement with results found by Jackson and Schuler. Negative relationships between role stress (role ambiguity and role conflict) were found by: Bagozzi (1978); Behrman & Perreault (1984); Dubinsky & Hartley (1986); Dubinsky & Skinner (1984); and Szilagyi, (1977).

Results of the dissertation findings are in agreement with previous research. The following table (Table 4.9)

Table 4.9: Comparison of Findings related to Satisfaction

	<u>Jackson and Schuler</u> <u>Meta-Analysis</u>		<u>Dissertation</u> <u>Results</u>
	<u>Role</u> <u>Ambiguity</u>	<u>Role</u> <u>Conflict</u>	<u>Role</u> <u>Stress</u>
satisfaction with co-workers	-.37	-.42	-.42
satisfaction with pay	-.26	-.31	.20(ns)
satisfaction with promotion	-.40	-.38	-.57
satisfaction with supervision	-.53	-.53	-.52
satisfaction with the job	-.52	-.49	-.54

represents a partial comparison of findings (correlations) between dissertation results and previous research. All (except for satisfaction with pay) were significant ($p < .01$).

It does appear that role variables play a particularly significant (negative) role in terms of job satisfaction. Dissertation results confirm previous work in this area.

Interaction Variables.

Following the moderated regression analyses, further analyses were conducted to identify what type of moderator variable the interaction term was. See discussion following

moderated regression analyses pertaining to salesperson performance.

Based on this additional analysis, the interaction term (role stress x job tenure) was found to: (1) not moderate the relationship between the term and satisfaction with customers, with co-workers, with pay, with policies, with promotion; and (2) be a 'homologizer' moderator for satisfaction with supervision and with the job. See Table 4.9 for a summary of these analyses.

The interaction term (role stress x tenure) was found to be an antecedent, exogenous, intervening, or suppressor variable (as opposed to a moderator variable) for the following dimensions of job satisfaction: customers, coworkers, policy and promotion. For these dimensions, the interaction term did not significantly interact with the predictor dimension of job satisfaction (based on regression analyses). However, the interaction term was significantly correlated with the predictor dimension of job satisfaction. Therefore, no sub-group analyses were performed and the interaction term was identified as an exogenous type of variable.

Table 4.10
Identification of Moderator Variable
(Role Stress x Tenure)
for Dependent Variables: Job Satisfaction

	<u>Dependent Variables</u>			
	Customers	Coworkers	Pay	Policy
<u>Step 1:</u> Is there a significant interaction between moderator term and dependent variable? (if not-go to step 3; if yes-go to step 2)	No	No	No	No
<u>Step 2:</u> Is the moderator term related to the dependent variable?				
<u>Step 3:</u> Is the moderator term related to the dependent variable? (if no, do subgroup analyses)	No	Yes	No	Yes
<u>Step 4:</u> Split sample into subgroups - determine differences in predictive validity across groups.	x	x	*	x

x = The interaction term is not a moderator variable; it is an exogenous, antecedent, intervening or suppressor variable.

* = Subgroup analysis performed; results indicate interaction term is not a moderator variable.

Table 4.10, cont.
Identification of Moderator Variable
(Role Stress x Tenure)
for Dependent Variables: Job Satisfaction

	<u>Dependent Variables</u>		
	Promotion	Supervision	the Job
<u>Step 1:</u> Is there a significant interaction between moderator term and dependent variable? (if not-go to step 3; if yes-go to step 2)	No	No	No
<u>Step 2:</u> Is the moderator term related to the dependent variable?			
<u>Step 3:</u> Is the moderator term related to the dependent variable? (if no, do subgroup analyses)	Yes	No	No
<u>Step 4:</u> Split sample into subgroups - determine differences in predictive validity across groups.	x	+	+

-
- x = The interaction term is not a moderator variable; it is an exogenous, antecedent, intervening or suppressor variable.
- + = Subgroup analysis indicates the interaction term is a "homologizer" moderator variable.

Sub-group analyses were conducted for the following dimensions of satisfaction: satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with supervision, and satisfaction with the job. No significant differences were found between sub-groups (split at the median level of job tenure - 21.9 months) for the dependent variable, satisfaction with pay. Therefore, the interaction term was not identified as a moderator variable.

For the other two dimensions of satisfaction (with supervision and with the job), sub-group analysis did indicate differences in the predictive validity between low and high tenure groups. For satisfaction with supervision, the following results were found.

Low Tenure:

R-square = .1534
Correlation = $-.3916$
Significant ($p < .01$)

High Tenure:

R-square = .0014
Correlation = $-.0368$
Nonsignificant

For satisfaction with the job, the following differences were found between low tenure (less than 21.9 months) and high tenure groups (more than 21.9 months).

Low Tenure:

R-square = .1218
Correlation = $-.3489$
Significant ($p < .01$)

High Tenure:

R-square = .0152
Correlation = .1233
Nonsignificant

Due to these differences between sub-groups, the interaction term for these two dimensions of job satisfaction was identified as a 'homologizer' moderator. That is, the interaction (role stress x tenure) was found to influence the strength of the relationship. For both of these dimensions of satisfaction, there was a significant effect found for the low tenure groups. It appears that the interaction of role stress x job tenure exhibits a stronger (negative) influence on lower tenured salespersons.

As previously discussed, little research has been conducted in the sales area investigating relationships between interaction variables and job satisfaction. The importance of interaction variables has been indicated, however, from research conducted in other disciplines. For example, Pervin (1968) reviewed several studies and concluded that "studies reviewed suggest that (job) satisfaction may be profitably studied as resulting from the interaction between personality (or individual) and environment (or situation) variables rather than the result of personality variables or environmental variables alone" (p. 58).

Empirical research conducted more recently supports Pervin's contention. General support for the significance of interaction variables has been found by Bedeian, Mossholder, & Armenakis, 1983; Chatman, 1989; Day & Bedeian, 1990; and Wood & Bandura, 1989.

However, for the dissertation research, support was not found for the significance of interaction factors in predicting dimensions of job satisfaction (based upon moderated regression analyses). This result, however, should not be interpreted to suggest that interaction factors are not significant in influencing relationships related to job attitudes, such as job satisfaction. The examination of interaction terms is a relatively recent approach to investigating salespersons' attitudes toward their jobs. Therefore, the dissertation research reflected somewhat of an exploratory study. Future research in this area is likely to result in more meaningful results.

Test for Differences: Gender and Turnover

Analysis of variance was selected as the appropriate statistical techniques to test the following hypotheses:

- H2. There will be gender differences related to salesperson performance;
- H4. There will be gender differences related to salesperson job satisfaction; and,

H5. There will be differences between "stayers" and "leavers" in terms of individual, situational, and interaction factors.

Analysis of variance was chosen since it is capable of testing for statistically significant differences between the means of a sample. For purposes of the dissertation research, differences between male and female salespersons, as well as differences between "stayers" and "leavers" were assessed.

Results of analyses utilizing analysis of variance are provided in Table 4.11 and Table 4.12. A discussion follows.

Gender Differences

Results of analysis of variance indicate that there are significant gender differences only when salesperson performance is measured by sales volume. This analysis indicates that female salespersons (for this particular firm) sell more than male salespersons. Contributing to this difference could be job tenure; female salespersons have significantly higher levels of tenure than do males.

Females also differ significantly from males -- for two dimensions of job satisfaction. Female salespersons report higher levels of satisfaction with customers and with their jobs.

Table 4.11
Gender Differences
Across Study Variables

Variable	Mean		F-Value
	Male	Female	
<u>Performance (Qualitative)</u>			
Personal	41.7	41.4	.029
Knowledge	18.6	19.5	1.534
Administrative	22.5	22.9	.100
Sales Ability	38.8	39.2	.033
Overall	39.8	37.6	.004
<u>Performance (Quantitative)</u>			
Sales Volume	212	386	3.876**
<u>Satisfaction with</u>			
Customers	70.7	74.0	2.853*
Coworkers	57.6	59.2	.713
Pay	39.6	39.8	.083
Policies	93.1	92.6	.015
Promotion	33.0	31.6	.746
Supervision	72.7	75.3	.473
Overall Job	65.4	71.9	11.068***
<u>Individual Variable</u>			
Tenure	15.0	29.5	8.682***
<u>Situational Variable</u>			
Role Stress	71.8	77.6	5.915***
<u>Interaction Variable</u>			
Role Stress x Tenure	1144	2243	8.241***

Note: p<.10 *
p<.05 **
p<.01 ***

Results based on Analysis of Variance.

Finally, female salespersons differ from males in terms of job tenure (female mean = 29.5; male mean = 15.0); role stress (female mean = 77.6; male mean = 71.8); and for the interaction term (role stress x job tenure) - (female mean = 2243; male mean = 1144).

These results are in agreement with literature discussed earlier in the dissertation. Women have been found to report higher levels of both job satisfaction and role stress. Because these women have chosen somewhat non-traditional careers, they may place greater emphasis on being successful in their sales careers. Further research on gender differences in a sales context should provide useful information.

Differences between Stayers and Leavers

For this sample, results did not reveal many significant differences between those who remained with the selling firm and those who left. Significant differences between "stayers" and "leavers" was found for only one variable -- satisfaction with the job ("stayers" mean = 66.7; "leavers" mean = 72.3). This finding is not consistent with previous research in employee turnover.

Cotton and Tuttle (1986) found satisfaction with one's job to be a "strong predictor" ($p < .005$) of an individual's propensity to remain with an organization. In explanation of the dissertation findings, turnover was measured six months

Table 4.12
Turnover Differences
Across Study Variables

Variable	Mean		Chi-Square
	Stayer	Leaver	
<u>Performance</u>			
<u>(Qualitative)</u>			
Personal	41.4	42.8	.548
Knowledge	18.9	18.5	.291
Administrative	22.7	22.2	.133
Sales Ability	38.7	40.5	.661
Overall	12.7	12.5	.018
 <u>Performance</u>			
<u>(Quantitative)</u>			
Sales Volume	237	228	.008
 <u>Satisfaction with</u>			
Customers	71.5	74.0	.941
Coworkers	57.8	58.9	.191
Pay	39.9	38.7	1.499
Policies	92.8	90.8	.190
Promotion	32.6	31.4	.371
Supervision	73.6	72.3	.081
Overall Job	66.7	72.3	4.766**
 <u>Individual Variable</u>			
Tenure	16.5	21.8	1.189
 <u>Situational Variable</u>			
Role Stress	39.6	39.1	.022
 <u>Interaction Variable</u>			
Role Stress x Tenure	673.8	881.7	.975

Note: p<.10 *
p<.05 **
p<.01 ***

after questionnaires were administered. Therefore, when dissertation questionnaires were administered, it is possible that these "leavers" were satisfied with their jobs. No data on satisfaction was obtained at the time of termination.

Summary of Analyses

Based on the results of hierarchical moderated regression analysis, dissertation hypotheses received only partial support. Each Hypothesis will be briefly discussed.

Hypothesis 1 related to predictors of employee performance was not supported in terms of individual variables nor was it supported in terms of situational variables. Only interaction variables were statistically significant in predicting employee performance.

Hypothesis 3 related to predictors of job satisfaction. For this hypothesis, situational variables provided most of the contribution in terms of prediction. However, individual variables also contributed, and for some dimensions of satisfaction, interaction variables were significant. Therefore, support was found for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 2 through Hypothesis 5 related to differences between groups (males and females for Hypothesis 2 and 4; stayers and leavers for Hypothesis 5). Partial support was found for these hypotheses, as well. Individual variables,

situational variables, and interaction variables statistically discriminated between males and females. Finally, in terms of turnover, there was one statistically significant difference found between stayers and leavers -- for satisfaction with the job.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Chapter Five consists of four sections. The first section briefly summarizes results and presents conclusions related to model constructs of the dissertation research. Next, conclusions related to the interactionist approach are presented. The third section outlines limitations of the research and the fourth section contains implications of the study and the areas that warrant further investigation.

Summary of Research

The dissertation research was based on a sample of 89 field salespersons employed by a medium-sized, outdoor advertising firm. Data related to salespersons attitudes toward job satisfaction and situational factors (role variables) was obtained from self-report questionnaires. Information related to individual variables (age and job tenure) was also obtained from this questionnaire. Two types of performance measurements were utilized: a supervisory appraisal and records of sales volume. Finally, turnover information was obtained from the company six months following the original questionnaire.

Of particular interest to the dissertation research was the interaction of an individual salesperson with their

working environment in the prediction of employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover. Therefore, the study examined individual factors (gender and job tenure), a situational factor (role stress) and their interaction.

Scales utilized in this research were evaluated for their reliability and were found to be within acceptable ranges for behavioral research. Results of data analyses partially confirmed research hypotheses. A discussion of each major area of research (employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover) follows.

Conclusions related to Model Constructs

Employee Performance

The dissertation research utilized two measures of performance: supervisory appraisals and sales volume amounts. Results indicated that gender and the interaction variable (roles stress x tenure) contributed significantly to explaining performance (when measured by sales volume). No study variables were significant in explaining salesperson performance when measured by supervisory appraisals.

Additional analyses regarding the interaction term indicated that role stress x job tenure does not act as a moderator variable for salesperson performance (measured by supervisory appraisals). However, for salesperson performance (measured by sales volume), the interaction term was found to

be a 'pure' moderator variable, influencing the form of the relationship between the moderator and the dependent (sales volume) variable.

Findings also demonstrated performance differences between male and female salespersons. Statistically significant differences were found between males and females in terms of employee performance (when measured by sales volume); the female mean = \$386 thousand; the male mean = \$211 thousand). No significant differences were found between males and females for performance (when measured by supervisory appraisals).

Job Satisfaction

Seven dimensions of job satisfaction (i.e., satisfaction with customers, with co-workers, with pay, with policies, with promotion, with supervision, and with the job) were analyzed to test dissertation hypotheses. First, regression equations were performed for each of these seven dimensions. Next, analyses were conducted to determine what type of moderating effect the interaction term displayed. Finally, analysis of variance was employed to test for differences between male and female salespersons.

Limited support was found for Hypotheses 3 and 4 (related to job satisfaction). Individual variables proved to be significant in predicting some dimensions of satisfaction (gender for satisfaction with customers and with the job; and

tenure for satisfaction with customers and promotion). Role stress (a situational factor) was found to be significant for all dimensions of satisfaction. The interaction of role stress x tenure was not found to be significant, based on regression analyses. Differences between males and females were found for two dimensions of job satisfaction: satisfaction with customers and with the job.

Turnover

Analysis of variance was employed to test for differences between "stayers" and "leavers". Results provided only weak support for Hypothesis 5. "Stayers" and "leavers" were found to be significantly different in terms of only one variable, satisfaction with the job. Those salespeople who stayed with the selling firm and those who left were not found to be different in terms of individual, situational nor interaction variables. Nor were any differences detected in their performance levels.

Conclusions related to Interactionist Approach

One premise of the dissertation research was that interaction variables would be significant in the prediction of employee performance, job satisfaction, and turnover. To test this notion, interaction variables were entered into hierarchical moderated regression equations, following the entry of individual and situational variables. If found

significant, after the entry of individual and situational variables, it was taken as evidence for interaction effects.

One interaction variable was considered: role stress x job tenure. This interaction variable was found to be significant in one regression analysis related to employee performance (measured by sales volume).

Additional analyses was conducted to determine the type of moderator variable. The interaction term (role stress x tenure) was found to be a pure moderator variable in its relationship to employee performance (measured by sales volume); moderating the form of the relationship. For satisfaction with supervision and with the job, the interaction term was found to be a homologizer moderating variable; one which moderates the strength of the relationship. For other dimensions of satisfaction and for employee performance (measured by supervisory appraisals), the interaction term was identified not as a moderator variable, but an exogenous or intervening variable.

In summary, therefore, it appears that results from separate (but related) analyses seem to provide support for further investigation of an interactionist perspective in a sales context. Research findings seem to indicate that variables such as employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover can perhaps be better understood as a function of the interaction between individual and situational factors. As Lubinski & Humphreys (1990) stated, "the concept of the

moderator variable reveals that for predictive and theoretical purposes it is desirable to segregate individuals into homogeneous subsets as a function of predictor-criterion differential validities" (p. 390). Dissertation results seem to indicate that interaction variables should be further considered in the explanation of work-related outcome variables in a sales setting.

Limitations of the Research

Several limiting factors are worth noting in considering the results of the present study. First, causality has not been suggested nor should it be inferred. It was not demonstrated that individual, situational or interaction variables cause employee performance, job satisfaction or turnover. The dissertation research was an attempt to show the significance of relationships between these variables. Future research will be necessary in the specification and testing of a model of salesperson performance, job satisfaction and turnover, utilizing study variables.

Second, a potential concern is that the dissertation study relied primarily on self-report questionnaire instruments to assess individual variables and attitudes toward situational variables and job satisfaction. As with all self report data, the possibility exists for bias. However, the study did incorporate other measures in assessing employee performance and salesperson turnover.

An additional factor which may limit the generalizeability of the study results is the nature and size of the sample. Responses were obtained from 89 salespeople employed by a medium-sized outdoor advertising firm. This is a relatively small sample size. It is possible that the size of the sample may have attenuated research findings. There is a likelihood that greater significance levels would have been found for study variables had a larger sample size been obtained. Replication of the study with larger sample sizes and in different sales settings is necessary before conclusions can be drawn regarding the nature of relationships between individual, situational and interaction variables and salesperson performance, job satisfaction and turnover.

Finally, the study considered only several possible predictor variables (individual, situational, and interactional). Other variables, not examined in this study, are also likely to affect outcome variables, as well. As mentioned above, further work in model specification would improve our understanding of study relationships.

In general, the dissertation study does provide some support for an interactionist perspective in studying salesperson performance, job satisfaction and turnover. Because this was one of the major premises of the research, study variables were not chosen to maximize variance. Rather, the intent of the study was to examine the nature of the relationships between individual, situational and interaction

variables.

In terms of managerial implications, there are several factors worth noting. Should management desire to increase sales performance, perhaps they should consider issues such as gender differences and role stress. Gender was positively related and role stress was negatively related to employee performance, as measured by sales volume. It is suggested that gender differences need to be examined further to specifically determine what attributes account for differences in performance levels. It would appear that sales managers may be able to reduce levels of role ambiguity and role conflict in the sales environment through improved communication, delegation of responsibilities, etc.

If an attempt were made to increase job satisfaction, it would appear useful to consider decreasing levels of role stress. This variable was negatively and significantly related to all satisfaction dimensions (with the exception of satisfaction with pay). Again, this type of managerial effort would likely involve improved (more clear) communication between management and the salesforce regarding issues such as managerial expectations, responsibilities, and delegation of authority.

Before any managerial attempt was undertaken to decrease employee turnover, it would be wise to determine whether turnover was functional or dysfunctional (as discussed in Chapter Two). The dissertation did not address this aspect

of employee turnover. Further, dissertation results indicated little differences between salespersons who stayed with the selling firm and those who left.

One final implication of the dissertation findings is that there are significant differences between male and female salespeople in a number of areas. In terms of effective management of a salesforce, it would appear useful to learn more about such differences. This is a timely issue, given that females are increasingly entering the work force and pursuing such careers as selling.

Implications and Directions for Future Research

Other avenues of academic research are suggested by both the dissertation findings as well as by the problems encountered through the process. The present research has shown that interaction variables are worthy of further consideration, along with individual and situational variables.

Additional areas worthy of continued investigation are differences between male and female salespersons, particularly in terms of employee performance. To what can we attribute differences found between female and male salespersons in terms of performance and job satisfaction? Additionally, females report higher levels of role stress than males. To what antecedents of role stress can such differences be attributed?

Future work could also involve extending the analysis to include other individual, situational and interaction variables. It is reasonable to expect that other sets of explanatory variables also will exhibit significance in the explanation of employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover.

The development of a salesperson model of performance, satisfaction and turnover would also be beneficial. It does appear meaningful to model salesperson performance, satisfaction and turnover as a function of individual, situational and interaction variables.

Summary

In summary, the dissertation research contributed to our understanding of employee performance, job satisfaction and turnover in a sales setting. Admittedly, there is a great deal which remains to be learned about salesperson performance, job satisfaction and turnover. Although some significant factors have been investigated within this study, there are numerous other individual, situational, and interactional factors which deserve research attention.

Based on previous work and on study results, salesforce research continues to be an area worthy of continued investigation. Further, it does appear that an interactionist perspective in this type of research represents a potentially useful approach.

Appendix A: Dissertation Questionnaire

Survey Questionnaire Measures

<u>Measure</u>	<u>Location in Questionnaire</u>
Organizational Commitment	Part A, 1-15
Job Anxiety	Part A, 16-22
Intrinsic Motivation	Part A, 23-26
Perceived Organizational Support	Part A, 27-42
Dimensions of Job Satisfaction	Part A, 43-128
1) Customers	
2) Co-Workers	
3) Job Itself	
4) Supervision	
5) Promotion	
6) Policy	
7) Pay	
8) Overall Satisfaction	
Job/Work Involvement	Part A, 139-154
Internal/External Locus of Control	Part A, 155-178
Participation in Decision Making	Part A, 179-193
Job Alternatives	Part A, 194-231
Role Stress	Part B, 1-18
1) Ambiguity	
2) Conflict	
Need for Achievement/Autonomy/Affiliation	Part B, 19-38
Relationship with Supervisor	Part B, 39-55
Work Values	Part C
Demographics	Part D
1) Age	
2) Sex	
3) Salary	
4) Job Tenure	
5) Education	
6) Previous Experience	

<u>Measure</u>	<u>Location in Questionnaire</u>
Propensity to Leave	Part D, 18
Met Expectations	Part E
Work Environment	Part F
Trait Anxiety	Part G
Impact of the Job on Home Life	Part H
Job Alternatives	Part I
Positive/Negative Affective Scales	Part J
Burnout	Part K

Note: The dissertation research was part of a larger, ongoing study. Therefore, the questionnaire includes other constructs which were not investigated as part of the dissertation research.

Name _____
 (Please print)
 Region _____
 Plant _____
 Position _____

LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY
 Sales Research Project

Part A

This section asks you questions about your feelings toward your job. You will agree with some statements and disagree with others. To help you express your opinions, you are provided seven possible answers to each statement. Circle one answer which best describes your feelings. Circle:

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

For example, if you **AGREE** to the first question then circle "A". If you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** circle "SD".

IN MY JOB I:

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 1. Am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help this organization be successful. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 2. Could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 3. Talk up my organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 4. Feel very little loyalty to this organization. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 5. Would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 6. Find that my values and the organization's values are very similar. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 7. Am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 8. Feel this organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 9. Feel it would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 10. Am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 11. Feel that often I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 12. Really care about the fate of this organization. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 13. Feel there's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 14. Feel, for me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 15. Feel deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 16. Feel my job tends to directly affect my health. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 17. Have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 18. Feel if I had a different job, my health would probably improve. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 19. Find problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 20. Often "take my job home with me" in the sense that I think about it when doing other things. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 21. Have felt nervous before attending meetings in the organization. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 22. Sometimes feel weak all over. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 23. Feel when I do work well, it gives me a feeling of accomplishment. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 24. Feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do my job well. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 25. Feel when I perform my job well, it contributes to my personal growth and development. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 26. Feel my job increases my feeling of self-esteem. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

This inventory contains a series of statements about various aspects of your job. Please read each statement carefully and decide how you feel about it.

I FEEL THAT:

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 27. The organization values my contribution to its well-being. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 28. If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 29. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 30. The organization strongly considers my goals and values. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 31. The organization would ignore any complaint from me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 32. The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 33. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 34. The organization cares about my well-being. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 35. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 36. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 37. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 38. If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 39. The organization shows very little concern for me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 40. The organization cares about my opinions. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 41. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 42. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

43. My supervisor is tactful.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
44. Management keeps us in the dark about things we ought to know.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
45. My pay is high in comparison with what others get for similar work in other companies.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
46. My supervisor is up-to-date.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
47. Management is progressive.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
48. My work is creative.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
49. My customers respect my judgment.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
50. My customers are intelligent.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
51. My customers are interested in what I have to say.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
52. The company has an unfair promotion policy.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
53. My work gives a sense of accomplishment.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
54. The people I work with get along well together.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
55. My opportunities for advancement are limited.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
56. My boss has taught me a lot about sales.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
57. My customers live up to their promises.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
58. My work is valuable.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
59. Our sales goals are set by the higher-ups without considering market conditions	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
60. My customers are trustworthy.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
61. Management really knows its job.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
62. My fellow workers are stimulating.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
63. My pay doesn't give me much incentive to increase my sales.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
64. I have plenty of freedom on the job to use my own judgment.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
65. My sales manager really tries to get our ideas about things.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
66. This company operates efficiently and smoothly.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
67. My fellow workers are selfish.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
68. My sales manager has the work well organized.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
69. My boss does a good job of helping sales representatives develop their own potential.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
70. My customers are fair.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
71. There are plenty of good jobs here for those who want to get ahead.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
72. My pay is low in comparison with what others get for similar work in other companies.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
73. My sales manager has always been fair in his dealings with me.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
74. Our home office isn't always cooperative in servicing our customers.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

- | | | | | | | | |
|---|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 75. My boss doesn't seem to try very hard to get our problems across to management. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 76. I'm satisfied with the way employee benefits are handled here. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 77. We have a real competitive advantage in selling because of the quality of our products. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 78. The people I work with help each other out when someone falls behind or gets in a tight spot. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 79. This is a dead-end job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 80. Sometimes when I learn of management's plans, I wonder if they know the territory situation at all. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 81. My fellow workers are boring. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 82. The company sales training is not carried out in a well-planned program. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 83. In my opinion the pay here is lower than in other companies. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 84. My customers expect too much from me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 85. Management is weak. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 86. My job is often dull and monotonous. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 87. I am highly paid. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 88. I have confidence in the fairness and honesty of management. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 89. My fellow workers are sociable. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 90. My job is exciting. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 91. My boss really takes the lead in stimulating sales effort. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 92. My supervisor is intelligent. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 93. My work is satisfying. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 94. I seldom know who really makes the purchase decisions in the companies I call upon. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 95. Management here is really interested in the welfare of employees. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 96. I'm really doing something worthwhile in my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 97. The company has satisfactory profit sharing. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 98. My sales manager is too interested in his own success to care about the needs of employees. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 99. Compared with other companies' employee benefits here are good. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 100. My fellow workers are pleasant. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 101. My fellow workers are obstructive. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 102. My income provides for luxuries. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 103. The people I work with are very friendly. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 104. My fellow workers are loyal. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 105. Promotion here is based on ability. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 106. I feel that the company is highly aggressive in its sales promotional efforts. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

107. My sales manager gets the sales personnel to work together as a team.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
108. My fellow workers are intelligent.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
109. My sales manager gives us credit and praise for work well done.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
110. I am unproductive in my work.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
111. My selling ability largely determines my earnings in this company.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
112. Sales representatives in this company receive good support from the home office.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
113. My customers are inaccessible.	D	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
114. My work is challenging.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
115. Regular promotions are the rule in this company.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
116. Management here sees to it that there is cooperation between departments.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
117. My sales manager lives up to his promises.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
118. My sales manager sees that we have the things we need to do our jobs.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
119. My customers are well organized.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
120. I'm paid fairly compared with other employees in this company.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
121. My customers blame me for problems that I have no control over.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
122. My job is routine.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
123. My sales manager knows very little about his job.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
124. My opportunities for advancement are reasonable.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
125. My job is useless.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
126. My customers are unreasonable.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
127. My fellow workers are responsible.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
128. My income is adequate for normal expenses.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
129. My customers are friendly.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
130. I am very much underpaid for the work that I do.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
131. I can barely live on my income.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
132. There isn't enough training for sales representatives who have been on the job for a while.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
133. Management ignores our suggestions and complaints.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
134. My customers are loyal.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
135. My customers are understanding.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
136. I have a good chance for promotion.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
137. Management fails to give clear-cut orders and instructions.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
138. My job is interesting.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
139. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
140. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
141. I am very much involved personally in my job.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA
142. I live, eat and breathe my job.	SD	MD	D	NA	A	MA	SA

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

- | | | | | | | | |
|---|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 143. Most of my interests are centered around my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 144. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 145. Usually I feel detached from my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 146. Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 147. I consider my job to be very central to my existence. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 148. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 149. The most important things that happen in life involve work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 150. Work is something people should get involved in most of the time. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 151. Work should be only a small part of one's life. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 152. Work should be considered central to life. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 153. In my view, an individual's personal life goals should be work-oriented. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 154. Life is worth living only when people are absorbed in work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 155. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 156. To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 157. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 158. When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 159. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interests from bad luck happenings. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 160. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 161. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 162. How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 163. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 164. I feel like what happens in my life is controlled by accidental happenings. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 165. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 166. Whether or not I get into a car accident is mostly a matter of luck. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 167. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 168. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 169. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

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|---|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 170. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 171. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 172. I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 173. I am usually able to protect my personal interests. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 174. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 175. I am informally encouraged to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 176. When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 177. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 178. My life is determined by my own actions. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 179. I am formally encouraged by my supervisor to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 180. It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 181. I am directly encouraged by management to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 182. In this organization the people most affected by decisions frequently participate in making the decisions. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 183. In this organization there is a great deal of opportunity to be involved in resolving problems which affect the group. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 184. I am indirectly encouraged by management to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 185. I am allowed to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 186. I am allowed a significant degree of influence in decisions regarding my work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 187. I am informally encouraged by my supervisor to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 188. My supervisor usually asks for my opinions and thoughts in decisions affecting my work. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 189. I am directly encouraged by my supervisor to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 190. Management policies encourage me to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 191. I am formally encouraged by management to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 192. This organization's culture encourages me to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

- | | | | | | | | |
|---|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 193. I am indirectly encouraged by my supervisor to participate in decisions regarding my job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 194. There are probably a number of jobs in this community that I could get. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 195. The only types of jobs I'd even consider would be one in the same field or occupation as my present job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 196. If I were to change jobs, I would probably wind up <u>worse</u> off than I am now. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 197. As they say, "it's not what you know, but who you know," and I know lots of the "right" people. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 198. There is normally a high degree of demand for people in my field or occupation. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 199. I see advertisements for jobs in my field all the time. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 200. I wish I had a better "network" of contacts so that I could find out about other job opportunities. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 201. If I looked for a job, I would probably wind up with a <u>better</u> job than the one I have now. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 202. By and large, the jobs I could get if I left here are <u>superior</u> to the job I have now. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 203. It would be easy to find a different job, if I looked for one. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 204. There simply aren't very many jobs for people like me in today's job market. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 205. Given my qualifications and experience, getting a new job would not be very hard at all. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 206. I can think of a number of organizations that would probably offer me a job if I was looking. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 207. Given the intense competition for jobs in my field, finding a new job would probably be a real pain in the neck. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 208. I've tried to develop a flexible mix of skills and work experiences so that my qualifications will allow me to be competitive for several different kinds of jobs. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 209. I have lots of contacts in other companies that might help me line up a new job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 210. I'm keeping my employment options by not getting locked too tightly into one field or profession. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 211. Most of the jobs I could get would be an <u>improvement</u> over my present circumstances. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 212. I haven't had a good lead on a new job in ages. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 213. Right now, I have a job offer "on the table" from another employer, if I choose to take it. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

SD if you **STRONGLY DISAGREE** A if you **AGREE**
 MD if you **MODERATELY DISAGREE** MA if you **MODERATELY AGREE**
 D if you **DISAGREE** SA if you **STRONGLY AGREE**
 NA if you **NEITHER AGREE OR DISAGREE**

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|----|----|---|----|---|----|----|
| 214. I have found a better alternative than my present job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 215. The chances are good that I would be able to obtain an alternative job, if I tried to find one. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 216. I tend to think in terms of the entire job market, not just the market for people in my present occupation. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 217. My work and/or social activities tend to bring me in contact with a number of people who might help me line up a new job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 218. I am constantly searching for a better alternative. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 219. My investment in my job is too great for me to consider leaving. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 220. I am unable to move to another place of residence now even if a better job came along. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 221. I am actively seeking an alternative job or role (an activity other than my present job). | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 222. I have searched for an alternative job since I joined this organization. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 223. I have spent a great deal of time searching for a better alternative. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 224. I am exerting a great deal of effort in searching for an alternative. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 225. My family and/or friends encourage me to find a better job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 226. There is nothing in my personal life (family, relatives, community) to prevent me from leaving my present job. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 227. There is nothing in my workplace to prevent me from leaving my present employer. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 228. I would be willing to move from this geographic location to accept a comparable or better job with another employer. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 229. Opportunities for transfers within Lamar are better than my job prospects elsewhere. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 230. Family and/or friends openly encourage me to pursue a career with Lamar. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |
| 231. My search for an alternative jobs seems promising. | SD | MD | D | NA | A | MA | SA |

Part B

There are times when an individual within the organization is required to perform two or more activities that are incompatible. In other other instances, the nature of one's job may be such that it cannot be defined accurately.

The responses for this section should be:

1=Never 2=Almost never 3=Seldom 4=Sometimes 5=Usually 6=Almost always 7=Always

1. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I have more obligations than I can handle during the time that is available.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My job requires me to do things against my better judgment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I have enough time to complete my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. My job has clear, planned goals and objectives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I know that I have divided my time properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Explanation of what has to be done is clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I am caught up with my obligations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I do my best work when my job assignments are fairly difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I try very hard to improve on my past performance at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I take moderate risks and stick my neck out to get ahead at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I try to avoid any added responsibilities on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I try to perform better than my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. When I have a choice, I try to work in a group instead of by myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I pay a good deal of attention to the feelings of others at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I prefer to do my own work and let others do theirs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I express my disagreements with others openly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I find myself talking to those around me about non-business related matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. In my work assignments, I try to be my own boss.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1=Never 2=Almost never 3=Seldom 4=Sometimes 5=Usually 6=Almost always 7=Always

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30. I go my own way at work, regardless of the opinions of others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. I disregard rules and regulations that hamper my personal freedom. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. I consider myself a "team player" at work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. I try my best to work alone on a job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. I seek an active role in the leadership of a group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35. I avoid trying to influence those around me to see things my way. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. I find myself organizing and directing the activities of others. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 37. I strive to gain more control over the events around me at work. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 38. I strive to be "in command" when I am working in a group. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

The following questions ask you to think about your working relationship with your immediate supervisor. All of these questions use the same scale (1=Never...7=Always) listed above.

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 39. Do you know where you stand. . .do you usually know how satisfied he/she is with what you do? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 40. Does your superior understand your job problems and needs? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 41. Does your superior recognize your potential? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 42. Given the same complex decision, can your superior count on you to make the same decision he/she would make? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 43. Do you show potential for analyzing problems the way he/she does? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 44. In an emergency situation, can he/she count on you to complete an assignment he/she started? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 45. Regardless of the amount of formal authority, would your superior "bail you out," at his/her expense? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 46. Would you characterize your working relationship with your superior as effective? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 47. Would you defend and justify his/her decisions if he/she were not present to do so. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 48. Would you say your supervisor is investing in your career? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

1=Never 2=Almost Never 3=Seldom 4=Sometimes 5=Usually 6=Almost Always 7=Always

Does your immediate supervisor...

- | | | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 49. Expose you to various aspects of other departments' functions within the company? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 50. Provide you with special information through which you can better learn company strategies? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 51. Entrust you with confidential work-related information? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 52. Give you challenging assignments? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 53. Delegate important responsibilities to you when his/her workload is heavy? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 54. Serve as confidant to you about career problems? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 55. Regardless of his/her formal authority, does your superior use that power to help you solve problems in your work? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Part C

Please read the following 24 pairs of statements and indicate with a check or X which one in each pair you feel should receive more emphasis. Some choices will probably be difficult for you, but please do the best you can. Do not leave any questions blank.

Which should receive more emphasis?

1. ☐ Taking care of all loose ends on a job or project
☐ Being impartial in dealing with others
2. ☐ Taking actions which represent your true feelings
☐ Trying to avoid hurting other people
3. ☐ Encouraging someone who is having a difficult day
☐ Considering different points of view before taking action
4. ☐ Speaking your mind even when your views may not be popular
☐ Working to meet job requirements even when your personal schedule must be rearranged
5. ☐ Making decisions which are fair to all concerned
☐ Expressing your true opinions when asked
6. ☐ Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved
☐ Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time
7. ☐ Trying to help reduce a friend's burden
☐ Admitting an error and accepting the consequences

8. ___ Being impartial in judging disagreements
 ___ Helping others on difficult jobs
9. ___ Taking on additional tasks to get ahead
 ___ Admitting to making a mistake rather than covering it up
10. ___ Offering help to others when they are having a rough time
 ___ Doing whatever work is required to advance in your career
11. ___ Always being truthful in dealing with others
 ___ Giving everyone an equal opportunity at work
12. ___ Judging people fairly based on their abilities rather than only on their
 ___ personalities
 ___ Seeking out all opportunities to learn new skills
13. ___ Trying to be helpful to a friend at work
 ___ Being sure that work assignments are fair to everyone
14. ___ Refusing to take credit for ideas of others
 ___ Maintaining the highest standard for your performance
15. ___ Being determined to be the best at your work
 ___ Trying not to hurt a friend's feelings
16. ___ Trying to bring about a fair solution to a dispute
 ___ Admitting responsibility for errors made
17. ___ Finishing each job you start, even when others do not
 ___ Making sure that rewards are given in the fairest possible way
18. ___ Refusing to tell a lie to make yourself look good
 ___ Helping those who are worried about things at work
19. ___ Trying as hard as you can to learn as much as possible about your job
 ___ Taking a stand for what you believe in
20. ___ Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their job
 ___ Always setting high performance goals for yourself
21. ___ Refusing to do something you think is wrong
 ___ Providing fair treatment for all employees
22. ___ Allowing each employee to have an equal chance to get rewards
 ___ Taking on more responsibility to get ahead in an organization
23. ___ Correcting others' errors without embarrassing them
 ___ Holding true to your convictions
24. ___ Providing fair treatment for each employee
 ___ Lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty

Part D

1. How old were you on your last birthday? _____
2. You are Male _____ Female _____
3. \$_____ is your yearly gross salary (before any deductions) without bonus.
4. \$_____ is your yearly gross salary (monthly salary plus bonus).
5. I received an additional \$_____ a month on my last salary increase.
6. Length of time with _____ as: _____ Months

Account Executive	_____
Sales Manager	_____
Assistant Manager	_____
Operations Manager	_____
General Manager	_____
Total Time with _____	_____
7. What is your level of education?

_____	high school education
_____	some college (major area of study) _____
_____	college graduate (major area of study) _____
_____	some graduate school (major area of study) _____
_____	masters graduate (major area of study) _____
_____	other--specify _____
8. How much full-time work experience did you have before starting work at _____ ?
_____ months (include full time summer work)
9. Had you held any kind of job which required travel before this job?
_____ Yes _____ No. If yes, what percentage of your time in that job did you spend traveling _____.
10. Did you have any experience in sales before taking this job? _____ Yes _____ No.
If yes, for how long? _____ months (include part-time and summer work)
16. Had you ever held a traveling sales job before taking this job? _____ Yes _____ No.
If yes, what percentage of the time in that job did you spend traveling. _____
17. What percentage of the time do you spend traveling in your position with Lamar _____.
18. The following responses should be circled in answering the next four questions.
7=Excellent 6=Very Good 5=Good 4=So-so 3=Not so Good 2=Bad 1=Terrible
How would you rate your chances of:

A.	Quitting this job in the next three months	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
B.	Quitting this job in the next six months	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
C.	Quitting this job sometime in the next year	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
D.	Quitting this job sometime in the next two years	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Part E

Think about the initial expectations you had about your job before you were hired with respect to the following list of job outcomes. Compare these expectations to your actual work experience at To what extent has your initial expectation about each of the outcomes been worse, better, or about what you expected from your job? For example, if your experience doing "interesting work" has been much worse than your initial expectation, circle "1". On the other hand, if your experience has been "much better than expected" then circle "5".

1 = Much worse than expected 2 = Worse than expected 3 = What I expected
4 = Better than expected 5 = Much better than expected

My expectations with regard to (insert phrase) have been...?

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Doing highly stressful work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. What I thought this job would be | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Expending much energy and drive to do the job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Having freedom and autonomy to do the job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Keeping lots of records | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Learning new skills and knowledge related to your job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Having a challenging job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Doing interesting work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Making full use of my skills and abilities to do the job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Feeling what I do is important | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | |
| 11. Being under a great deal of pressure from the job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Having a job which gives a feeling of accomplishment | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Working for an organization that recognizes my contributions | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Working for people I like | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Knowing you will have your job tomorrow | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Being proud to be a member of the organization you work for | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Being satisfied with your overall job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Cooperating with other people to get the job done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Knowing how well you are performing your duties | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | |
| 20. Working for an organization that cares about you as a person | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Earning good pay | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Knowing what people you work with expect of you | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Being clear about what you have to do on the job | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. Having independence in how you do your work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Doing routine work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Working flexible hours | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Working with people who are skilled and know their jobs | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Doing physically exhausting work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. Having a job that interferes with family activities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. Receiving respect from friends and relatives for being employed here | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | | | | |
| 31. Having a job which gives you pride in yourself | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. Having good fringe benefits | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Having enough authority to carry out your responsibilities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. Having a heavy workload | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. Having little opportunity for advancement | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1 = Much worse than expected 2 = Worse than expected 3 = What I expected
4 = Better than expected 5 = Much better than expected

36. Having a work schedule that interferes with your personal life	1	2	3	4	5
37. Receiving respect from superiors and co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
38. Working with people who do not care about doing good work	1	2	3	4	5
39. Receiving little appreciation from customers	1	2	3	4	5
40. Receiving performance feedback from superiors or co-workers	1	2	3	4	5
41. Having supervisors who take a personal interest in you	1	2	3	4	5
42. Having competent supervisors	1	2	3	4	5
43. Being part of an effective team	1	2	3	4	5
44. Learning skills that will contribute to your career plans	1	2	3	4	5

Part F

There are 90 statements listed below. They are statements about the place in which you work. The statements are intended to apply to all work environments. However, some words may not be quite suitable for your work environment. For example, the term supervisor is meant to refer to the boss, manager, department head, or the person or persons to whom an employee reports.

You are to decide which statements are true of your work environment and which are false.

Circle true if the statement is true or mostly true. Circle false if the statement is false or mostly false.

1. The work is really challenging.	T	F
2. People go out of their way to help a new employee feel comfortable.	T	F
3. Supervisors tend to talk down to employees.	T	F
4. Few employees have any important responsibilities.	T	F
5. People pay a lot of attention to getting work done.	T	F
6. There is constant pressure to keep working.	T	F
7. Things are sometimes pretty disorganized.	T	F
8. There's a strict emphasis on following policies and regulations.	T	F
9. Doing things in a different way is valued.	T	F
10. It sometimes gets too hot.	T	F
11. There's not much group spirit.	T	F
12. The atmosphere is somewhat impersonal.	T	F
13. Supervisors usually compliment an employee who does something well.	T	F
14. Employees have a great deal of freedom to do as they like.	T	F
15. There's a lot of time wasted because of inefficiencies.	T	F
16. There always seems to be an urgency about everything.	T	F
17. Activities are well-planned.	T	F
18. People can wear wild looking clothing while on the job if they want.	T	F
19. New and different ideas are always being tried out.	T	F
20. The lighting is extremely good.	T	F
21. A lot of people seem to be just putting in time.	T	F
22. People take a personal interest in each other.	T	F
23. Supervisors tend to discourage criticisms from employees.	T	F
24. Employees are encouraged to make their own decisions.	T	F
25. Things rarely get "put off till tomorrow".	T	F
26. People cannot afford to relax.	T	F
27. Rules and regulations are somewhat vague and ambiguous.	T	F

28. People are expected to follow set rules in doing their work.	T	F
29. This place would be one of the first to try out a new idea.	T	F
30. Work space is awfully crowded.	T	F
31. People seem to take pride in the organization.	T	F
32. Employees rarely do things together after work.	T	F
33. Supervisors usually give full credit to ideas contributed by employees.	T	F
34. People can use their own initiative to do things.	T	F
35. This is a highly efficient, work-oriented place.	T	F
36. Nobody works too hard.	T	F
37. The responsibilities of supervisors are clearly defined.	T	F
38. Supervisors keep a rather close watch on employees.	T	F
39. Variety and change are not particularly important.	T	F
40. This place has a stylish and modern appearance.	T	F
41. People put quite a lot of effort into what they do.	T	F
42. People are generally frank about how they feel.	T	F
43. Supervisors often criticize employees over minor things.	T	F
44. Supervisors encourage employees to rely on themselves when a problem arises.	T	F
45. Getting a lot of work done is important to people.	T	F
46. There is no time pressure.	T	F
47. The details of assigned jobs are generally explained to employees.	T	F
48. Rules and regulations are pretty well enforced.	T	F
49. The same methods have been used for quite a long time.	T	F
50. The place could stand some new interior decorations.	T	F
51. Few people ever volunteer.	T	F
52. Employees often eat lunch together.	T	F
53. Employees generally feel free to ask for a raise.	T	F
54. Employees generally do not try to be unique and different.	T	F
55. There's an emphasis on "work before play".	T	F
56. It is very hard to keep up with your work load.	T	F
57. Employees are often confused about exactly what they are supposed to do.	T	F
58. Supervisors are always checking on employees and supervise them very closely.	T	F
59. New approaches to things are rarely tried.	T	F
60. The colors and decorations make the place warm and cheerful to working.	T	F
61. It is quite a lively place.	T	F
62. Employees who differ greatly from the others in the organization don't get on well.	T	F
63. Supervisors expect far too much from employees.	T	F
64. Employees are encouraged to learn things even if they are not directly related to the job.	T	F
65. Employees work very hard.	T	F
66. You can take it easy and still get your work done.	T	F
67. Fringe benefits are fully explained to employees.	T	F
68. Supervisors do not often give in to employee pressure.	T	F
69. Things tend to stay just about the same.	T	F
70. It is rather drafty at times.	T	F
71. It's hard to get people to do any extra work.	T	F
72. Employees often talk to each other about their personal problems.	T	F

73. Employees discuss their personal problems with supervisors.	T	F
74. Employees function fairly independently of supervisors.	T	F
75. People seem to be quite inefficient.	T	F
76. There are always deadlines to be met.	T	F
77. Rules and policies are constantly changing.	T	F
78. Employees are expected to conform rather strictly to the rules and customs.	T	F
79. There is a fresh, novel atmosphere about the place.	T	F
80. The furniture is usually well-arranged.	T	F
81. The work is usually very interesting.	T	F
82. Often people make trouble by talking behind other's backs.	T	F
83. Supervisors really stand up for their people.	T	F
84. Supervisors meet with employees regularly to discuss their future work goals.	T	F
85. There's a tendency for people to come to work late.	T	F
86. People often have to work overtime to get their work done.	T	F
87. Supervisors encourage employees to be neat and orderly.	T	F
88. If an employee comes in late, he can make it up by staying late.	T	F
89. Things always seem to be changing.	T	F
90. The rooms are well ventilated.	T	F
91. I usually feel "burned out".	T	F

Part G

Read each statement and circle the appropriate answer to the right of the statement to indicate how you generally feel, using the following:

1 = Almost never 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often 4 = Almost always

1. I feel pleasant				
2. I feel nervous and restless	1	2	3	4
3. I feel satisfied with myself	1	2	3	4
4. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be	1	2	3	4
5. I feel like a failure	1	2	3	4
6. I feel rested	1	2	3	4
7. I am "calm, cool, and collected"	1	2	3	4
8. I feel that difficulties are piling up so that I cannot overcome them	1	2	3	4
9. I worry too much over something that really doesn't matter	1	2	3	4
10. I am happy	1	2	3	4
11. I have disturbing thoughts	1	2	3	4
12. I lack self-confidence	1	2	3	4
13. I feel secure	1	2	3	4
14. I make decisions easily	1	2	3	4
15. I feel inadequate	1	2	3	4
16. I am content	1	2	3	4
17. Some unimportant thought runs through my head and bothers me	1	2	3	4
18. I take disappointments so keenly that I can't put them out of my mind	1	2	3	4
19. I am a steady person	1	2	3	4
20. I get in a state of tension or turmoil as I think over my recent concerns and interests	1	2	3	4

Part H

The following items ask you about the impact of your current job demands on your personal and/or home/family life. Indicate how you see your present job as affecting different areas of your life by circling the appropriate number for each student.

1=Strong negative impact 2=Negative impact 3=No impact
4=Positive impact 5=Strong positive impact

The impact your current job has on (insert phrase) is ...?

1. Personal relationships with friends	1	2	3	4	5
2. Your mental and physical state at home	1	2	3	4	5
3. Your participation in home activities	1	2	3	4	5
4. Your weekend, vacation time, and social life	1	2	3	4	5
5. Concern for your health or safety	1	2	3	4	5
6. Your personal development	1	2	3	4	5
7. Pressure for model behavior in the community	1	2	3	4	5
8. Requirement to relocate for sake of career	1	2	3	4	5

Answer items 9-12 only if you are currently married

9. Your relationship with spouse	1	2	3	4	5
10. Social life you have with spouse	1	2	3	4	5
11. Time available for your spouse	1	2	3	4	5
12. Your marriage as a whole	1	2	3	4	5

Answer items 13-16 if you have children under 18 years of age

13. Your relationship with your child(ren)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Leisure pursuits with child(ren)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Time available for your child(ren)	1	2	3	4	5
16. Overall well-being of your child(ren)	1	2	3	4	5

Part I

Section 1:

The items in this questionnaire deal with your views about employment alternatives. Use the following rating scale to respond to the first 7 items in this Section of the questionnaire.

0 = None 1 = One 2 = Two 3 = Three to Five 4 = Six or more

1. Not counting your present field of employment, <u>how many other</u> occupations would you seriously consider entering if a job were available?	0	1	2	3	4
2. How many employers can you think of in your present community that might offer you a job?	0	1	2	3	4
3. How many people in your field do you know that might help you line up a new job?	0	1	2	3	4
4. Within the past year, how many actual job offers have you had from other potential employers?	0	1	2	3	4
5. Within the past year, how many actual job offers have you had from other potential employers?	0	1	2	3	4
6. In your opinion, how many jobs open to you would be relatively easy to get?	0	1	2	3	4
7. How many companies can you think of that would be likely to offer you a <u>better</u> job than the one you have now.	0	1	2	3	4

8. If these alternatives are more desirable than you present job, how attractive are they? (Circle one)

- (1) The desirable alternatives are much more attractive than my job.
- (2) The desirable alternatives are more attractive than my job.
- (3) Both my job and the desirable alternatives are equally attractive.
- (4) My job is more attractive than these desirable alternatives.
- (5) My job is much more attractive than these desirable alternatives.

Please indicate your response for questions 9-12 using the following:

1 = No Chance 2 = 25% chance 3 = 50% chance 4 = 75% chance 5 = 100% chance

9. Generally, what are the chances that you can receive an offer from an alternative job that is better than your present job, if that were your goal? 0 1 2 3 4
10. What are the chances that you can find this better alternative job. 0 1 2 3 4
11. What are the chances that you will search for an alternative job within a year? 0 1 2 3 4
12. What are the chances that you can remain in your present job if that were your goal? 0 1 2 3 4

Part J

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then circle the appropriate answer to the right of that word. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on the average. Use the following scale to record your answers.

1	2	3	4	5
very slightly or not at all	a little	moderately	quite a bit	extremely

I generally feel...

proud	1	2	3	4	5	irritable	1	2	3	4	5
distressed	1	2	3	4	5	alert	1	2	3	4	5
excited	1	2	3	4	5	ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
upset	1	2	3	4	5	inspired	1	2	3	4	5
strong	1	2	3	4	5	nervous	1	2	3	4	5
guilty	1	2	3	4	5	determined	1	2	3	4	5
scared	1	2	3	4	5	attentive	1	2	3	4	5
hostile	1	2	3	4	5	jittery	1	2	3	4	5
enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	active	1	2	3	4	5
interested	1	2	3	4	5	afraid	1	2	3	4	5

Part K

Listed below are 22 statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, circle a "0". If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by circling the number from 1 to 6 that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a Week	A few times a week	Every Day
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
4. I can easily understand how my customers feel about things.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
5. I feel I treat some customers as if they were impersonal objects.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
6. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
7. I deal very effectively with the problems of my customers.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
8. I feel burned out from my work.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
9. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
12. I feel very energetic.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
13. I feel frustrated by my job.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
15. I don't really care what happens to some customers.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my customers.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my customers.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	
22. I feel customers blame me for some of their problems.					0 1 2 3 4 5 6	

In the space provided below please feel free to make any additional comments regarding your job as a customer. These comments can be related to any topic including those not covered in the questionnaire (please continue on the back if you need more space).

THANK-YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION IN COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. IF YOU HAVE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT THE SURVEY PLEASE CONTACT ME AT LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY.

Dr. Joe F. Hair, Jr. PH. (504) 388-8685
 Department of Marketing, 3127 CERA
 Louisiana State University
 Baton Rouge, LA 70803-6314

Appendix B: Task Performance Evaluation

TASK PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

You have been identified as the immediate supervisor of _____.
Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements regarding this individual's performance by circling the appropriate response according to the following scale.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1) <u>Personal Qualities</u> - This employee demonstrates...							
Self-Confidence					1	2	3
Initiative					1	2	3
Dependability					1	2	3
Professional Appearance					1	2	3
Ambition to Succeed					1	2	3
Enthusiasm					1	2	3
Persistence					1	2	3
Business Ethics					1	2	3
2) <u>Knowledge</u> - This employee demonstrates knowledge of...							
Outdoor and Its Use					1	2	3
Customers					1	2	3
Sales Policies and Practices					1	2	3
Competitive Activities					1	2	3
3) <u>Administration</u> - Does this employee consistently...							
Submit Required Reports					1	2	3
Organize Time and Efforts Effectively					1	2	3
Plan Calls In Advance					1	2	3
Work Territory Efficiently					1	2	3
Cooperate with TLC					1	2	3
4) <u>Sales Ability</u> - Does this employee...							
Have Acceptance by the Customer					1	2	3
Stress Outdoor Benefits					1	2	3
Get the Customers Viewpoint					1	2	3
Meet Objections Effectively					1	2	3
Create Desire					1	2	3
Get Contract Out Early					1	2	3
Try for Close and Keep Trying					1	2	3
Cover and Service Entire Territory					1	2	3
5) <u>Overall</u>							
This individual is one of the best employees we have working for us.					1	2	3
The quality of this individual's work is excellent.					1	2	3
This employee is one of the most productive.					1	2	3

Return to: Dr. Joe F. Hair, Jr. PH. (504) 388-8685
Department of Marketing, 3127 CEBA
Louisiana State University
Baton Rouge, LA 70803-6314

**Appendix C: Performance Measures
Item Analysis**

**Appendix C:
Employee Performance Item Analysis
Task Performance Evaluations**

Personal Qualities Subscale	Standard		Item-Total	Alpha if
	Mean	Deviation	Correlation	Deleted
This employee demonstrates...				
Self-Confidence	5.79	1.0679	.6788	.8520
Initiative	5.71	1.0985	.7439	.8448
Dependability	5.97	1.2458	.7090	.8478
Professional Appearance	6.21	1.1043	.3960	.8805
Ambition to Succeed	5.83	1.1402	.6399	.8558
Enthusiasm	5.82	1.0970	.7291	.8464
Persistence	5.71	1.2399	.7817	.8389
Business Ethics	6.18	1.0479	.3676	.8821
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha:	.8706			

Appendix C: Task Performance Evaluations, cont.

Knowledge Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
This employee demonstrates knowledge of...				
Outdoor and Its' Use	5.94	.8636	.7077	.7881
Customers	5.90	.9540	.5392	.8491
Sales Policies and Practices	5.66	1.1310	.7053	.7822
Competitive Activities	5.45	1.1186	.7648	.7519
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha:		.8410		

Appendix C: Task Performance Evaluations, cont.

Administration Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Does this employee consistently...				
Submit Required Reports	5.40	1.3254	.6785	.8303
Organize Time and Efforts Effectively	5.31	1.3353	.8422	.7835
Plan Calls in Advance	5.40	1.2192	.7212	.8190
Work Territory Efficiently	5.31	1.2300	.7120	.8212
Cooperate with the Company	6.00	1.0654	.4385	.8822
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha:		.8553		

Appendix C: Task Performance Evaluations, cont.

<u>Sales Ability</u> <u>Subscale</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard</u> <u>Deviation</u>	<u>Item-Total</u> <u>Correlation</u>	<u>Alpha if</u> <u>Deleted</u>
Does this employee...				
Have Acceptance by the Customer	5.95	.9784	.6445	.9331
Stress Outdoor Benefits	5.84	.9529	.7293	.9285
Get the Customers' Viewpoint	5.39	1.2009	.7325	.9271
Meet Objections Effectively	5.21	1.2787	.8170	.9209
Create Desire	5.37	1.2093	.8773	.9166
Get Contract Out Early	5.22	1.4009	.7805	.9243
Try for Close and Keep Trying	5.34	1.4473	.8340	.9200
Cover and Service Entire Territory	5.47	1.2699	.7659	.9248
<hr/>				
<u>Standardized Item Alpha:</u>	<u>.9348</u>			

Appendix C: Task Performance Evaluations, cont.

Overall Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
This individual is one of the best employees we have working for us.	5.49	1.4107	.8778	.8960
The quality of this individual's work is excellent.	5.42	1.3893	.8535	.9152
This employee is one of the most productive.	5.39	1.4063	.8660	.9053
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha:	.9350			

**Appendix D: Satisfaction Measures
Item Analysis**

Appendix D:
Job Satisfaction Scale: Item Analysis

Customer Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
My customers respect my judgement.	5.90	.9473	.5236	.8439
My customers are intelligent.	5.27	.9926	.5568	.8421
My customers are interested in what I have to say.	5.65	.9877	.5457	.8426
My customers live up to their promises.	4.50	1.1920	.3674	.8528
My customers are trustworthy.	4.92	1.0312	.5277	.8433
My customers are fair.	4.91	.9186	.5736	.8418
My customers expect too much of me.	5.24	1.0206	.4627	.8467
I seldom know who really makes the purchase decisions in the companies I call on.	5.91	1.1803	.5653	.8409
My customers are inaccessible.	5.41	1.0637	.3470	.8527
My customers are well organized.	4.38	1.1378	.4268	.8488
My customers blame me for problems I have no control over.	4.04	1.5401	.3772	.8563
My customers are unreasonable.	5.20	1.2686	.5299	.8431
My customers are friendly.	5.29	.8626	.6160	.8405
My customers are loyal.	4.78	1.1637	.5401	.8424

Satisfaction with Customers, cont.

My customers are understanding.	4.94	.8863	.5419	.8066
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Standardized Item Alpha:	.8633
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Appendix D, Satisfaction Scale, cont.

Coworker Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
The people I work with get along well.	5.45	1.3991	.6650	.8823
My fellow workers are stimulating.	5.03	1.2551	.5175	.8904
My fellow workers are selfish.	4.76	1.4351	.5444	.8902
The people I work with help each other out when someone falls behind or gets in a tight spot.	5.01	1.4433	.5394	.8906
My fellow workers are boring.	5.74	1.0208	.6417	.8841
My fellow workers are sociable.	5.55	.9788	.6884	.8823
My fellow workers are pleasant.	5.59	.9014	.8062	.8782
My fellow workers are obstructive.	5.23	1.0371	.5393	.8895
The people I work with are very friendly.	5.58	1.0453	.7145	.8805
My fellow workers are loyal.	5.11	1.2479	.7003	.8801
My fellow workers are intelligent.	5.47	.7988	.6249	.8866
My fellow workers are responsible.	5.26	1.1042	.5056	.8904
Standardized Item Alpha:				.9037

Appendix D: Satisfaction Scale, cont.

<u>Pay Subscale</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>	<u>Item-Total Correlation</u>	<u>Alpha if Deleted</u>
My pay is high in comparison with what others get for similar work in other companies.	3.29	1.3366	.5830	.8525
My pay doesn't give me much incentive to increase my sales.	5.10	1.5533	.4903	.8597
My pay is low in comparison with what others get for similar work in other companies.	3.99	1.4141	.7011	.8437
In my opinion, the pay here is lower than in other companies.	4.29	1.3678	.6901	.8449
I am highly paid.	3.21	1.3679	.6494	.8478
My income provides for luxuries.	3.76	1.5208	.6566	.8466
My selling ability largely determines my earnings in this company.	5.45	1.4902	.1390	.8841
I'm paid fairly compared with other employees in this company.	4.52	1.3781	.5213	.8567
My income is adequate for normal expenses.	4.69	1.2795	.5105	.8574
I am very much underpaid for the work that I do.	4.61	1.4144	.7193	.8423
I can barely live on my income.	4.99	1.4583	.5868	.8521
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha:	.8675			

Appendix D: Satisfaction Scale, cont.

Policies Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
Management really knows its' job.	4.90	1.3812	.5333	.7577
This company operates efficiently and smoothly.	4.03	1.6806	.5354	.7572
I'm satisfied with the way employee benefits are handled here.	4.99	1.2894	.3783	.7805
We have a real competitive advantage in selling because of the quality of our products.	4.66	1.4292	.4723	.7671
Management is weak.	4.60	1.4292	.6573	.7342
Management here is really interested in the welfare of employees.	4.74	1.5055	.7337	.7216
The company has satisfactory profit sharing.	4.37	1.5635	.2853	.7988
Sales representatives in this company receive good support from the home office.	5.38	1.0592	.3662	.7818
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha: .7850				

Appendix D, Satisfaction Scale, cont.

Promotion Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
The company has an unfair promotion policy.	4.49	1.5496	.6059	.8447
My opportunities for advancement are limited.	4.39	1.7825	.6768	.8366
There are plenty of good jobs here for those who want to get ahead.	4.84	1.4000	.6604	.8392
This is a dead-end job.	5.70	1.4317	.5672	.8490
Promotion here is based on ability.	4.75	1.5687	.5958	.8460
Regular promotions are the rule in this company.	3.78	1.4513	.4016	.8664
My opportunities for advancement are reasonable.	4.72	1.3644	.7005	.8353
I have a good chance for promotion.	4.55	1.5223	.6781	.8363

Standardized Item Alpha: .8621

Appendix D: Satisfaction Scale, cont.

Supervision Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
My supervisor is tactful.	4.61	1.8696	.5697	.9131
My supervisor is up-to-date.	5.08	1.4401	.5640	.9122
My boss has taught me a lot about sales.	4.49	1.8532	.5284	.9145
My sales manager really tries to get our ideas about things.	4.98	1.4772	.6315	.9102
My sales manager has the work well organized.	4.83	1.4086	.7400	.9072
My boss does a good job of helping sales reps develop their own potential.	4.62	1.6398	.6742	.9088
My sales manager has always been fair in his dealings with me.	4.99	1.5211	.5729	.9120
My boss doesn't seem to try very hard to get our problems across to management.	4.93	1.3968	.5735	.9120
My boss really takes the lead in stimulating sales effort.	4.61	1.7148	.5782	.9122
My supervisor is intelligent.	5.55	1.1656	.5386	.9131
My sales manager is too interested in his own success to care about the needs of employees.	5.00	1.5187	.7313	.9071
My sales manager gets the personnel to work together as a team.	4.81	1.3646	.6197	.9107

Appendix D: Satisfaction Scale, cont.

Supervision Subscale		Standard Mean Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
My sales manager gives us credit and praise for work well done.	5.25	1.3294	.6917	.9088
My sales manager lives up to his promises.	4.70	1.4719	.7437	.9069
My sales manager sees that we have the things we need to do our jobs.	5.04	1.1830	.5677	.9123
My sales manager knows very little about his job.	5.44	1.2958	.5112	.9136
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha:		.9187		

Appendix D: Satisfaction Scale, cont.

Job Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
My work is creative.	5.63	1.0373	.5044	.8990
My work gives a sense of accomplishment.	5.88	1.0668	.6517	.8929
My work is valuable.	5.83	.9921	.6535	.8931
I have plenty of freedom on the job to use my own judgement.	5.54	1.1515	.5279	.8983
My job is often dull and monotonous.	5.53	1.2822	.6747	.8916
My job is exciting.	5.49	1.0906	.7541	.8883
My work is satisfying.	5.45	1.1924	.6805	.8913
I'm really doing something worthwhile in my job.	5.49	1.1521	.6767	.8915
I am unproductive in my work.	6.19	1.1037	.4784	.9003
My work is challenging.	5.75	1.1556	.5134	.8990
My job is routine.	5.44	1.3129	.5716	.8970
My job is useless.	6.29	1.1201	.5172	.8987
My job is interesting.	5.71	1.0317	.7621	.8884
<hr/>				
Standardized Item Alpha:		.9033		

**Appendix E: Role Variables
Item Analysis**

Appendix E: Role Perceptions Scale

<u>Role Ambiguity Subscale</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>	<u>Item-Total Correlation</u>	<u>Alpha if Deleted</u>
My job has clear, planned goals and objectives.	5.46	1.1585	.6748	.7795
I know that I have divided my time properly.	5.28	.9884	.6034	.7968
I know what my responsibilities are.	6.27	.8497	.5752	.8050
I know exactly what is expected of me.	5.89	1.1123	.6312	.7895
I feel certain about how much authority I have.	5.48	1.2533	.6629	.7821
Explanation of what has to be done is clear.	5.19	1.2870	.4671	.8292

Standardized Item Alpha: .8318

Appendix E: Role Perceptions Scale, cont.

Role Conflict Subscale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Deleted
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	5.44	1.0221	.3751	.6061
I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	4.68	1.5843	.4783	.5663
I work on unnecessary things.	5.25	1.0628	.4712	.5837
I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	5.54	1.1867	.6021	.5440
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	5.33	1.2738	.6697	.5178
I have to do things that should be done differently.	4.63	1.1901	.5846	.5485
I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	4.81	1.3306	.5441	.5520
I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	3.18	1.5919	.4795	.8279

Standardized Item Alpha: .6986

**Appendix F: Information Related to Constructs
(Correlates, Definitions and Operationalizations)**

Table F-1
Proposed Moderating Variables
which impact Performance

For individual (dispositional) factors

Variable	Cite	Finding
Age	Lucas (1985)	$B = -.258 (s@.05)$
Ability	Heneman & Schwab (1970)	non- empirical
	Locke, Mento & Katcher (1978)	$corr = .91 (s@.01)$ $= .73 (s@.01)$
Absenteeism	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	$corr = -.33 (s@.05)$
Aptitude	Oliver (1974)	$corr = .065$ (ns)
	Churchill, Ford & Walker (1985)	weighted mean $corr = .138$; <2% variation
	Walker, Churchill & Ford (1977)	non empirical
Attribution	Teas & McElroy (1986)	-non empirical
Autonomy	Sims & Szilagyi (1976)	$corr = .06 (ns)$ $corr = .23 (ns)$
	Dubinsky & Skinner (1984)	$.162 (s@.05)$
	Tyagi (1985)	$B = .38 (s@.01)$

Burnout	Jackson, Schuler, & Schwab (1986)	F=5.38(s@.05)
Dependence	Miner (1962)	t=1.91(s@.05)
Deviance	Miner (1962)	t=1.14 (NS)
Expectations	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=-.13(ns)
Expectancy Attitudes	Lawler JAP (1968)	crosslag corr. dynamic corr.
	Heneman & Schwab (1970)	non-empirical
Experience	Cravens & Woodruff (1973)	explains major portion of variance in territorial perf.
	McDaniel, Hunter & Schmidt (1988)	pop. coeff: all samples: .32 0-2.99yrs: .49 3-5.99yrs: .32 6-8.99yrs: .25 9-11.99yrs: .19 12+: .15
General Attitude	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.42(s@.01)
Goal Setting	Locke (1970)	conceptual
	Locke, Cartledge & Knerr (1973)	concluded that goals= determinants of perf.
	Meyer & Gellatly (1988)	corr=.62(s)
Happiness	Miner (1962)	t=2.25(s@.05)

Independent Thought & Action	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.17(s@.05)
Knowledge	Sujan, Sujan & Bettman	cross-sect and longitudinal
Knowledge Structures	Szymanski (1988)	non-empirical
Locus of Control	Pruden & Reese (1972)	good discriminator between hi/low performers
	Szilagyi, Sims & Keller (1976)	corr=-.10(s@.05)
	Anderson (1977)	crosslag corr. dynamic corr.
	Behrman, Bigoness & Perreault (1981)	found medium LOC =hi performance
	Avila & Fern (1986)	B=.27(s@.01) B=-.36(s@.01)
Low Aggression	Miner JAP (1962)	t=2.28 (s@.05)
Luck	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr = .01 (ns)
Measurement Issues	Vance, MacCallum, Coovert & Hedge	LISREL
Mood	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.16 (ns)
Motivation	Oliver (1974)	corr=.262(s@.01)
	Walker, Churchill & Ford (1977)	non empirical conceptual

Motivation	Bagozzi (1980)	found to be positively related to performance
	Churchill, Ford, Hartley & Walker (1985)	corr=.184 >3% variance
Motivation	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=-.126(ns) path coef=-.224 (s@.05)
	Sujan (1986)	LISREL
	Sujan, Weitz & Sujan (1988)	non empirical
	Beltramini & Evans (1988)	corr=.21(s@.01)
Motivational Type of Individual	Landy (1971)	corr=.50(s@.05)
Need for Clarity	Behrman, Bigoness & Perreault (1981)	found to NFC related to higher levels of performance
Over- Conformity	Miner (1965)	t=.77 (NS)
Perceived Competence	Arnold (1985)	corr=.31(s@.05) perceived comp corr=-.44(s@.01) external attr
Personal Factors	Churchill, Ford Hartley & Walker (1985)	corr=.161 <2% of variance
	Lamont & Lundstrom (1977)	Personal variables: t=-1.58 Age t= 2.36* Height t=- .46 Weight t=-1.74 Formal education t= .00 Outside t= .04 Civic/Prof. Org.

Personal Growth	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.07 (NS)
Personal Life	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.02 (ns)
Personality	Lamont & Lundstrom (1977)	Personality: t= 1.63* Endurance .74 Social Recognition -1.44 Dominance - .70 Empathy .58 Ego Strength
Planfulness	Avila & Fern (1986)	B=.45(s@.01)-lg. computer B=-.10(ns)-small computer
Pride	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.64(s@.05)
Propensity to Leave	Donnelly & Etzel (1977)	sign differences- lower prop. to leave for lower performance
Tenacity	Avila & Fern (1986)	B=.01(ns)for lg. B=.17(s@.05)for small
Self Actualization	Donnelly & Etzel (1977)	self act. higher for lo volume outlets
Self Confidence	Miner (1962)	t=1.82(s@.05)
Self Esteem	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=-.04 (NS)
	Bagozzi (1978)	B=.38; .14
	Bagozzi (1980)	found pos. relation btwn SE & Perf

Self Esteem	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.29(s@.05)
	Lucas (1985)	B=.14(s@.10)
Self Monitoring	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=.062(ns) pc=.033(ns)
Shame	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=-.45 (s@.05)
Skill	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.33(s@.05)
Skill	Churchill, Ford Hartley & Walker (1985)	corr=.268 <7% of variance
Sociophilia	Miner (1965)	t=1.53 (NS)"wish to be w/others"
Sociophobia	Miner (1965)	t=-1.58(NS) "maximizing distance btwn self & others"
Stress	Donnelly & Etzel (1977)	stress lower for lower performing stores
	Motowidlo, Manning, & Packard JAP (1986)	7 performance variables: 6 found to be significant
	Latack (1986)	-rel. btwn stress & perf. mediated by coping
Stress (Psycho- logical)	Lazarus, Deese, & Osler (1952)	n o n - e m p i r i c a l
Strong Superego	Miner (1962)	t=-2.20(s@.05)

Tenure	Lucas (1985)	$B = .148$ ($se .05$) locus of control
Verbal Intelligence	Bagozzi (1978)	$B = -.22; -.19$
	Bagozzi (1980)	inconclusive results for impact of VI on Perf.

Table F-1
Proposed Moderating Variables
which impact Performance

For situational (environmental) factors

Advancement Opportunity	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.19 (NS)
Attitude toward Company	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.18 (NS)
Benefits	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.07(NS)
Boss	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.02(ns)
Communica-tions	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.15 (NS)
Company Experience	Jon Parsons & Abeele (1981)	sales response function
Compensation	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.17 (NS)
	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=-.11 (NS)
	Pritchard (1973)	corr=.33(s@.05) hourly .29(s@.05) incentive
Coworkers	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.28(s@.05)
Customer Expectations	Sujan, Bettman & Sujan (1986)	n=134 students
Customer Orientation	Saxe & Weitz (1982)	corr=.40(s)

Dealing with Others	Sims & Szilagyi (1976)	.35/.14(s@.05)
Development of Close Friendships	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=-.14(s@.05)
Evaluation	Adkins (1979)	non-empirical
Evaluation	Murphy, Herr, Lockhart & Maguire (1986)	meta-analysis differences found between "paper" & observations
Feedback	Sims & Szilagyi (1976)	.07/.13(ns)
	Tyagi	B=.35(s@.01)
Feelings of Worthwhile Accomplishment	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.11 (NS)
Fellow Employees	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.18 (NS)
Friendship	Sims & Szilagyi (1976)	.43/.13(s@.01)
Hours Worked	Bagozzi (1978)	variable didn't enter stepwise regression
	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	.014(s@.05)
Involvement	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.11 (NS)

Job Difficulty	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.13 (ns)
Leadership	Podsakoff, Todor & Skov (1982)	moderated reg.
	Tyagi (1985)	B=.21(s@.05)trust B=.11 (ns)goal emphasis B=.32(s@.01)interaction B=.24(s@.05)psych.infl B=.33(s@.01)hierarch.infl
Liking for Job	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr= .15 (ns)
Marketing Effort	Jon Parsons & Abeele	sales response function
Organizational & Environmental Factors	Churchill, Ford Hartley & Walker (1985)	corr=.104 1% of variance
Participation in Job related Decisions	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.07 (NS)
Prestige of Job w/n Co.	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=-.03 (NS)
Promotion	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.03 (NS)
Respect/Fair Treatment from Boss	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.15(s@.05)
Role Ambiguity	Szilagyi, Sims & (1976)	corr= -.03(ns)
	Walker, Churchill & Ford (1977)	non empirical conceptual

Role Ambiguity	Szilagyi (1977)	- .32(s@.05)admin . - .34(s@.01)prof. - .19(s@.05)service
	Bagozzi (1978)	-didn't enter stepwise regression, although correlated significantly
	Bagozzi (1980)	-found to be negatively related to performance
	Behrman, Bigoness, & Perrault (1981)	B=-.19(s@.05)mgr. B=.01(NS)company B=-.16(s@.05)cust B= .17(s@.05)family expecations
	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	-.582(s@.01) represents largest path coeff. in model
	Dubinsky & Skinner (1984)	-.134(s@.05)
	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=-.288(s@.01) pc=-.398(s@.01)
Role Conflict	Szilagyi, Sims & Keller (1976)	corr=-.14(s@.001)
	Walker, Churchill & Ford (1977)	non empirical conceptual 37 propositions
	Szilagyi (1977)	corr= .01(ns) admin. - .37(s@.001)prof - .03(ns) service
	Bagozzi (1978)	B=-.25; -.23 "job tension"-2samples
	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	.256(s@.05)
	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=.127(ns) pc=.257(s@.01)

Role Perceptions	Walker, Churchill & Ford (1977)	non empirical conceptual	
	Churchill, Ford Hartley & Walker (1985)	corr=.294 <9% variance	
Sales Experience	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	.148(s@.01)	
Satisfaction	Triandis (1959)	non-empirical	
	Lawler & Porter (1967)	corr=.32(s@.01)	overall
		.21(s@.01)	security
		.23(s@.01)	social
		.24(s@.01)	esteem
		.18(s@.05)	autonomy
		.30(s@.01)	self act
	Carlson (1969)	corr=.17(s@.05)	blue collar
		.13(s@.05)	white collar
	Doll & Gunderson (1969)	corr=.34(s@.01)	Job Morale
		corr=.39(s@.01)	Job Impt.
	Slocum (1970)	corr=.138(s@.05)	security
		.209(s@.01)	social
		.172(s@.01)	esteem
		.226(s@.01)	autonomy
		.303(s@.01)	self act
	Schwab (1970)	conceptual	
	Cherrington, Reitz, & Scott (1971)	For "appropriately reinforced"	
		.56(s@.001)	gen'l affect
		.42(s@.01)	gen'l arousal
		.54(s@.001)	personal compt.
		.46(s@.01)	pay
		.15 (NS)	equity w/pay
		.39(s@.01)	adequacy-pay
		.33(s@.05)	attract(cowkr)
		.21 (NS)	attract(task)

Satisfaction, cont.

For "inappropriately reinforced"

-.32(s@.05)gen'l affect
 -.15 (NS)gen'l arousal
 -.01 (NS)persn'l compt.
 -.29 (NS)pay
 -.44(s@.01)equityw/pay
 -.31(s@.05)adequacy-pay
 .13 (NS)attract/co wkrs
 -.08 (NS)attract/task

Hackman &
 Lawler
 (1971)

corr=.16(s@.05)

Siegel &
 Bowen
 (1971)

data supports view that
 sat is dependent upon
 performance

Nathanson &
 Becker
 (1973)

pos. rel (s) when perf. is
 hi priority & when rewarded
 relationship conditional

Greene
 (1973)

satisfaction found to be
 an effect - not cause -
 of performance

London &
 Klimoski
 (1975)

self esteem does not
 moderate perf/sat rel.
 *job complexity does

Sheridan
 & Slocum
 (1975)

Measure utilized
 resulted in different
 causal relationships

Organ
 (1976)

non-empirical
 argues for further
 investigation of satisf.

Satisfaction, cont.

Jacobs &
Soloman
(1977)

moderating variable:
perceived reward
.28(s@.05)sat w/work
.26(s@.05)sat w/pay
.26(s@.05)sat w/promo
.26(s@.05)sat w/supvsn
.29(s@.05)sat w/co-wkr
.26(s@.05) faces scale

moderating variable:
self esteem
.25(s@.05)sat w/work
.23(s@.05)sat w/pay
.26(s@.05)sat w/promo
.27(s@.05)sat w/supvsn
.37(s@.05)sat w/cowkrs
.23 (NS)faces scale

Donnelly &
Etzel
(1977)

satisfaction greater
in lo volume stores vs. hi
volume

Ivancevich
(1978)

performance causes
intrinsic satisf. &
extrinsic satisf.
causes perf.

Ivancevich
(1979)

no correct way to
state the perf/sat
relationship

Abdel-Halim
(1980)

moderating variable: higher
order need
.27(s@.05)sat w/work
.23(s@.05)sat w/supvsr
.29(s@.05)sat w/co-wkrs
.19(s@.05)sat w/pay
.20(s@.05)sat w/promo

Fisher
(1980)

non-empirical
relationship between sat
and perf has some
intrinsic appeal

Bhagat
(1981)

found sat. is an effect
(not cause) of earlier
performance

Bhagat
(1982)

corr=.35

Satisfaction, cont.

	Lopez (1982)	found that self esteem moderates perf/sat rel.
	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.72(s@.05)
	Lucas (1985)	B=-.018(ns)-int.satisf.
	Hafer & McCuen (1985)	corr=-.02(ns)
	Berl, Powell, & Williamson (1984)	found perf not related to satisfaction
	Bagozzi (1980)	-found perf. impacts satisfaction
	Bagozzi (1978)	.45(s@.01) .30(s@.01)-2 samples
Security	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.09 (NS)
Skill Variety	Tyagi (1985)	B=.39(s@.01
Structural Relationships	Brass (1981)	no sig. rel. found between perf. and org. structural relationships
Supervision	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.29 (s@.05)
	Hackman & Lawler (1971)	corr=.10
Supervisory Consideration	Lucas (1985)	B=.198(s@.01)
Task Identity	Sims & Szilagyi (1976)	moderating variable: hon strength .34/.06 (s@.01) lo vs hi

Task Identity, cont.

	Tyagi (1985)	B=.06(ns)
Task Significance	Tyagi (1985)	B=.20(s@.05)
Tension (Job)	Bagozzi (1980)	found negatively related to performance
Territory Potential	Bagozzi (1978)	B=.24;.40
Training	Kircher (1965)	corr=.22 (NS)
Turnover	Martin, Price, & Mueller (1981)	found employees who leave are higher performers
	Jackofsky (1984)	non-empirical
Understanding of Customer Decision Making	Weitz (1978)	20% of variance explained by 2 variables: accuracy of perf. beliefs & strategy formulation
	Sujan, Weitz & Sujan (1988)	non empirical
Usual Work Pace	Porac, Ferris & Fedor (1983)	intercorr=.30(s@.05)
Variety	Sims & Szilagyi (1976)	moderator variable= non strength -.07/.24(s@.01) -lo vs. hi .22/.22(ns)ext. vs int.

Table F-2
Proposed Moderating Variables
which Impact Satisfaction

For individual (dispositional) factors

Education	Lucas (1985)	B=-.052(NS) B= .019(NS)
Income	Lucas (1985)	B=.148 (s@.05)
Locus of Control	Behrman, Bigoness & Perreault (1981)	found ext. LOC assoc.w/ lo perf; int. LOC w/hi perf.
	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	-.021(s@.01)
Need for Clarity	Behrman, Bigoness & Perreault (1981)	found unrelated to sat (no support)
Motivation	Bagozzi (1980)	-found weak relationship betw. mot. and sat.
	Bagozzi (1980)	-found positive relationship w/sat.
	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=.073(ns)
Need for Achievement	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	.006(ns)
Performance	Bagozzi (1978)	B=.23; .11
	Bagozzi (1980)	perf has infl. on sat

Performance	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	rc=.015(ns)
	Dubinsky & Skinner (1984)	no relationship found
	Iaffaldano & Muchinsky (1985)	true pop corr=.17
	Lucas (1985)	B=.063 (NS) ext. sat.
	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=.170(s@.05) pc=.056(ns)
Self Esteem	Bagozzi (1978)	self esteem did not enter equation
	Lucas (1985)	B=.635(s@.01)
Self Monitoring	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=-.176(s@.05)

For situational (environmental) variables

Commitment	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=.22(s@.01) pc=.221(s@.05)
Involvement	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=.196(s@.05) pc=.196(s@.05)
Propensity to Leave	Futrell & Parasuraman (1984)	R2=.27(s@.001)-total R2=.18(s@.001)- hi R2=.37(s@.001)-low performers

Role Ambiguity	Walker, Churchill & Ford (1977)	non empirical 37 proposition
Role Ambiguity	Szilagyi (1977)	$r=.35(s@.05)$ admin. $-.24(s@.05)$ prof. $-.17(ns)$ service workers
	Bagozzi (1978)	variable did not enter regression equation
	Bagozzi (1980)	found negatively related to satisfaction
	Behrman, Bigoness, & Perreault (1981)	$B=-.35(s@.05)$ -manager expectations only sig. predictor of ambiguity
	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	$rc=-.225(s@.01)$
	Dubinsky & Skinner (1984)	$-.213(s@.01)$ path coeff
	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	$corr=-.427(s@.01)$ $pc=-.404(s@.01)$
Role Conflict	Walker, Churchill & Ford (1977)	non empirical
	Szilagyi (1977)	$r=-.23(ns)$ admin. $-.36(s@.001)$ prof. $-.34(s@.001)$ service
	Bagozzi (1978)	$B=-.45;-.46$
	Behrman & Perreault (1984)	$-.227(s@.01)$
	Dubinsky & Skinner (1984)	$-.408(s@.01)$ -path coeff

Role Conflict, cont.

	Dubinsky & Hartley (1986)	corr=-.172(s@.05) pc=-.077(ns)
Supervisory Consideration	Lucas (1985)	B=.118(s@.05)-intr.sat.
Task Identity	Dubinsky & Skinner (1984)	-.137(s@.05)path coeff
Tension	Bagozzi (1980)	found to be negatively related to satisfaction
Working Conditions	Kirchner (1965)	corr=.30 (s@.05)

Table F-3
Definitions of Performance

1959	"quantity of work" (Triandis)
?	"motivation to produce" (March & Simon)
1967	"how hard manager worked"; "how well he performed" (Lawler & Porter)
1970	"productivity" (Schwab & Cummings)
1976	"the degree to which an individual carries out or executes his job in adherence with certain specified standards of the organization" (Szilagyi, Sims, and Keller)
1977	"the degree to which an individual carries out, or executes, his or her job in adherence with certain specified standards of the organization" (Szilagyi)
	Performance = f(motivation x aptitude x role perceptions) (Walker, Churchill & Ford)
1981	"the degree in which 'preferred solutions' of salespeople are realized across customer interactions" (effectiveness) (Weitz)
1988	"competent performance" (effectiveness) (Sujan, Sujan & Bettman)
	"selling effectiveness" (Szymanski)

No Explicit Definition of Performance Provided

1952	Lazarus, Deese and Osler
1959	Triandis
1962	Miner

1965	Kirchner
1967	Lawler & Porter
1968	Lawler
1969	Carlson Doll & Gunderson
1970	Heneman & Schwab Locke Locke, Cartledge & Knerr Slocum
1971	Cherrington, Reitz & Scott Hackman & Lawler Landy Siegal & Bowen
1972	Pruden & Reese
1973	Cravens & Woodruff Greene Nathanson & Becker Pritchard
1975	London & Klimoski Sheridan & Slocum
1976	Organ
1977	Anderson Donnelly & Etzel Jacobs & Solomon
1978	Bagozzi Ivancevich Locke, Mento & Katcher Weitz
1979	Ivancevich
1980	Abdel-Halim Bagozzi Bhagat Fisher
1981	Brass Martin, Price & Mueller

- 1982 Bhagat
 Lopez
- 1983 Porac, Ferris, Fedor
- 1985 Hafer & McCuen
 Tyagi
- 1986 Murphy, Herr, Lockhart & Maguire
- 1988 Meyer & Gellatly
 Vance, MacCullum, Hedge & Coovert

DEFINITIONS OF SATISFACTION

- 1976 "the degree to which an individual's desires,
 expectations, and needs are fulfilled by his
 employment in an organization"
 (Szilagyi, Sims & Keller)
- 1977 "the degree to which an individual's desires,
 expectations and needs are fulfilled by his or her
 employment in an organization"
 (Szilagyi)

Situational Factors

Role Conflict:

- 1976 &
1977 "the perception of conflicting demands, or
 incompatibilities by the role incumbent"
 (Szilagyi)

Role Ambiguity:

- 1976 &
1977 "the lack of clarity or predictability one perceives
 in his or her work related behavior" (Szilagyi)

Table F-4
Measures Utilized In Previous Research

	PERFORMANCE	SATISFACTION
1962	sales -gasoline, motor oil, & tires/batteries, etc. (Miner)	not measured
1965	total sales activity points (Kirchner)	100 items related to general attitude supervision attitude twd company supervision compensation chance for advancement training fellow employees benefits communications working conditions
1967	supervisory rating of: -how hard manager worked -how well he performed (Lawler & Porter)	Porter's 13 item scale (5 needs/Maslow)
1968	supervisory/peer rating: -four items (one of which was quality) (Lawler)	Need satisfaction: -pay, promo, prestige, security, autonomy & opportunity to use skill and abilities
1969	supervisory rating of: -alternation -quality(as compared to others) -consider for promotion -consider for pay raise -adjustment ("settled down") (Carlson)	Hoppock's Job Satisfaction - (4 items)
	station leader rating: -industriousness -motivation -proficiency (Doll & Gunderson)	"job morale"/5 items "job import" /5 items

1970	supervisory/peer ratings -technical knowledge -functional knowledge -drive/aggressiveness -reliability -cooperation -organizing ability	Porter's 12 item scale (5 types of needs)
	laboratory experiment: depressing wall switch (Locke, Cartledge & Knerr)	sat w/performance -3 item scale
1971	laboratory experiment: # scored correctly (Cherrington, Reitz & Scott)	8 Satisfaction indices affective tone gen'l affect tone gen'l arousal personal competence genr'l sat w/pay equity of pay adequacy of pay attractive/cowkrs attractive/task
	Coworker ratings- 6 scales: -problem weighting -communication of results -use of personal resources -personal ethics -problem analysis -valuable results (Landy)	Satisfaction Inventory developed by Elbert (1966) 5 factors: -advancement -ethical principles -creativity -pay -working conditions
	Supervisory ratings: -quantity of work -quality of work -overall performance (Hackman & Lawler)	12 items: -feelings/self esteem -opportunity/growth -prestige -amount of supervision -opportunity for: ind.thought/action participation dev. of friendships promotion -feeling of security -pay -feelings/accomplish. -respect/fair treat.

1971, cont.

"short 5-7 pg. lit. review
paper @ 3 week intervals"
Siegel & Bowen

Zander group eval.
2 items assessing
satisfaction w/group
& w/self

1972

Self rating scale adapted
from Pym and Auld (1965)
(Pruden & Reese)

Self rating index
developed Tausky
1963; Tausky/Dubin
(1965)

1973

Peer evaluations based on:
-medical skills
-attitude/rel w/patients
-attitude/rel w/staff
(Nathanson & Becker)

9 item scale:
-rel w/patients
-opp./learning
-rel w/physicians
-rel w/staff
-access to facilities
-ability to work
independently
-physical layout of
clinic
-patient improvement
-sufficient time for
patients

Laboratory experiment:
task units completed
(Pritchard)

Minnesota Satisfaction
Questionnaire & JDI

Peer rating:
-quality
-quantity
(Greene)

Scale dev./Bullock
(1952)- 10 items -
summed

Supervisory rating:
-overall reputation
-relationship w/customers
-relationship within company
-sales results(profitability)
-coverage of market
-problem solving effectiveness
-quota performance
-sales development effort
(Cravens & Woodruff)

not measured

- 1975 Supervisory evaluation: Porter's PNDQ scale
 -technical knowledge 13 job facets related
 -company knowledge to 5 need categories
 -drive/aggressiveness security, social,
 -reliability esteem, autonomy,
 -cooperation self actualization
 -organization ability
 (Sheridan & Slocum)
 Self-supervsr-peer ratings Job Description Index
 on 19-20 point scales of
 effectiveness
 (London & Klimoski)
- 1976 Supervisory evaluation: Job Description Index
 -quantity of work
 -quality of work
 -dependability
 -ability to get along w/others
 -attendance/punctuality
 -knowledge of work
 -planning ability
 -initiative on job
 -effort
 -overall performance
 (Szilagyi, Sims & Keller)
- Supervisory rating: Job Description Index
 -quantity of work
 -quality of work
 -dependability
 -ability to get along w/others
 -attendance/punctuality
 -knowledge of work
 -planning ability
 -initiative on job
 -overall performance
 (Sims & Szilagyi)
- 1977 supervisory rating(1-5): Job Description Index
 -quantity of work dimensions: work
 -quality of work pay
 -dependability supervision
 -ability to get along with others promotion
 -attendance co-workers
 -punctuality
 -knowledge of work
 -planning ability
 -initiative on the job
 -effort
 -overall performance
 (Szilagyi)

1977, cont.

sales volume of store (Donnelly & Etzel)	modification:Porter's (19 items)
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Supervisory rating: -overall performance (Jacobs & Solomon)	Job Description Index Faces Scale
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Credit rating from bureau Return to former economic position as prior to flood (Anderson)	not measured
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1978	-# items completed correctly (laboratory experiment) (Locke et al)	not measured
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supervisory rating (1-10): -evaluation of performance objective measures: -total sales -total sales/quota -total division sales -division sales/quota (Weitz)	not measured
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-\$ volume of sales (Bagozzi)	8 item Likert scale (1st 4r: Pruden/Reese) (last four-Bagozzi)
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proportion dies produced compared to expected level of output (Ivancevich)	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire - short form (20 items)
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1979	supervisory rating: -technical competenc -dependability -job knowledge -planning ability -cooperative activities (Ivancevich)	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-20 items
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- 1980 -\$ volume of sales 8 item Likert scale
 (Bagozzi)
- Supervisory rating Job Description Index
 -quality of work performance
 -amount of effort expended
 -productivity on job
 -speed on job
 -overall work performance
 (Abdel-Halim)
- 1981 supervisory rating: not measured
 -meeting psychosocial needs
 of patients
 -meeting physical needs
 of patients
 -communications
 -fulfilling responsibilities
 Slater Nursing Competence Scale
 84 items
 (Martin, Price & Mueller)
- Supervisory rating: 6 items taken from JDS
 -effort 3 related to general
 -quality of work satis.& 3 related to
 -quantity of work satis. w/supervisor
 (Brass)
- medical problems associated Job Descriptive Index
 with medical school curriculum
 (Bhagat)
- 1982 supervisory rating: Job Descriptive Index
 -doing more than is required
 -setting high goals
 -attaining goals
 -effectiveness of time usage
 (Podsakoff, Todor, Skov)

1982, cont.

supervisory rating	Job Descriptive Index
-technical knowhow	(short form)
-organizing/delegating functions	
-communication effectiveness	
-amount of work performed	
-effectiveness in working w/peers	
-profitability of sales	
-effectiveness in handling budgets	
-accomplishing sales targets	
-completion of work on schedule	
-effectiveness in handling customer complaints	
-departmental coverage	
(Bhagat)	
-total sales volume;	not measured
supervisory ranking of	
overall value to	
organization	
-total earnings/# vehicles sold	
(motor vehicle salespeople)	
-\$ volume of orders/% of quota attained	
(Saxe & Weitz)	
52 items:	Minnesota Satisfaction
-3 for quantity of work	Questionnaire (short
-4 for quality of work	Job Description Index
-5 for job knowledge	
-4 for judgment	
-3 for decision making	
-4 for planning of work	
-3 for organization of work	
Additional measures (leach):	
-conflict resolution	
-company representation	
-interpersonal relationships	
-attendance	
-punctuality	
-adaptability to change	
-dependability	
-cooperation	
-initiative	
-creativity	
-self development efforts	
-compiling, presenting information	
-ability to handle job pressure	
-communications	
-use of authority	
-critical effectiveness	

cont.

- organizational influence
- drive for achievement
- harmony w/needs of company
- tolerance of uncertainty
- inner work standards
- self objectivity
- realism of expectations
- social objectivity
- risk taking
- stress tolerance

(Lopez)

- | | | |
|------|--|--|
| 1983 | Self rating:
in your opinion
how well did you perform
today?
(Porac, Ferris, Fedor) | Self rating of
satisfaction with
performance |
| 1984 | supervisory rating:
-willingness to work hard
-current general attitude
-current sales ability
-planning ability
-activity reporting
-current overall job performance
-territorial coverage
-improvement in total job
performance in last year
-human relations ability
-product knowledge
(Futrell & Parasuraman) | Job Descriptive Index
(72 items) |
| 1985 | self report method:
-attainment of goals
(Tyagi) | not measured |
| | -\$ volume of sales
(Hafer & McCuen) | 8 item scale - see
Bagozzi(1978) |
| 1986 | -read performance vignettes
-observation via videotape
(Murphy, Herr, Lockhart &
Maguire) | not measured |

- 1987 performance not measured Job Dimensions Scale
 (Lucas, Parasuraman, Davis, -measure of intrinsic/
 Enis) extrinsic sat.
- 1988 average # nouns generated not measured
 per adjective in each trial
 block (experimental design)
 (Meyer & Gellatly)
- supervisory rating (1-5): not measured
 -26 to 32 task descriptions
 of job activities
 (Vance, MacCallum, Coover, Hedge)
- ,
- prospecting performance
 -sales call performance
 -sales presentation performance
 -closing performance
 (Szymanski)

Table F-7
Summary of Turnover Research

TURNOVER CORRELATES	DIRECTION OF RELATIONSHIP	STRENGTH OF RELATIONSHIP
<u>EXTERNAL</u>		
Employment Perceptions	Positive	Strong
Unemployment Rate	Negative	Moderate
Promotion Rate	Positive	Weak
Union Presence	Negative	Strong
<u>SITUATION-RELATED</u>		
Pay	Negative	Strong
Performance		
Involuntary Turnover	Negative	Strong
Voluntary Turnover	Positive	Weak
Role Clarity	Negative	Moderate
Task Repetitiveness	Positive	Weak
Overall Satisfaction	Negative	Strong
Satisfaction with Pay	Negative	Strong
Satisfaction with Work	Negative	Strong
Satisfaction with Supervision	Negative	Strong
Satisfaction with Co-Workers	Negative	Moderate
Satisfaction with Promotion	Negative	Moderate
Organizational Commitment	Negative	Strong
<u>PERSONAL</u>		
Age	Negative	Strong
Tenure	Negative	Strong
Gender	Women:pos.	Strong
Education	Positive	Strong
Marital Status	Married:Neg	Weak
Number of Dependents	Negative	Strong
Aptitude and Ability	Inconclusive	Weak
Intelligence	Positive	Weak
Behavioral Intentions	Positive	Strong
Met Expectations	Negative	Strong

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"Organizational Demography: The Differential Effects of
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Academy of Management Journal, 32(2), 353-376.

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Page 2

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REFEREED PUBLICATIONS

"Usage and Perceived Effectiveness of High Technology Approaches to Sales Training" with Joseph F. Hair and Randy Russ, Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, (Spring, 1989), 46-54.

"Scientific Inquiry: A Consumer Behavior Perspective" (1988) Presentation, Southwest Marketing Conference, San Antonio, Texas.

"Salesforce Resistance to Computer Technology: Directions for Research", with Randy Russ, Southern Marketing Association, 1988 Conference, (November).

"Using Means-End Analysis to Develop Services Images: A Cross Cultural Comparison", with Daniel Sherrell and Jim Boles, in 1987 Proceedings: Cultural and Subcultural Influences - II Conference, DePaul University, Chicago, IL.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

"Interactive Computer Exercises and Lotus Applications for Sales Management", (1989) with Randy Russ, Joe F. Hair, and Rolph Anderson, McGraw-Hill, New York, to accompany Professional Sales Management.

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Page 3

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"Murray Business Products Recruitment Policies" (1988) in Professional Sales Management, Rolph E. Anderson, Joseph F. Hair, and Alan J. Bush, McGraw-Hill, New York, pp. 212-215.

"Vita Soup Company: The Need for Sales Planning" (1988) in Professional Sales Management, Rolph E. Anderson, Joseph F. Hair, and Alan J. Bush, McGraw-Hill, New York, pp. 107-109.

"McKee's Car Care Center" (1989), in Effective Selling, Joseph F. Hair, Jr. and Frank Notturmo, Southwestern Publishing Company.

Instructors' Manual for Professional Sales Management (1988) with Rolph Anderson, Joseph F. Hair and Alan J. Bush, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Test Bank for Professional Sales Management (1988) with Rolph Anderson, Joseph F. Hair and Alan J. Bush, McGraw-Hill, New York.

Instructors' Manual for Effective Selling (1989) with Joseph F. Hair and Frank Notturmo, Southwestern Publishing Company.

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Research in Progress

"An Assessment of Planning, Implementation, and Evaluation in Sales Training" with Joseph F. Hair and Randy Russ, to be submitted to Training and Development Journal.

"Personal, Cognitive and Affective Determinants of Functional and Dysfunctional Turnover: A Two Sample Exploratory Investigation" with Mark Johnston, Rodger Griffith, and Mitch Griffin, to be submitted to Journal of Applied Psychology.

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Principles of Marketing
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Page 4

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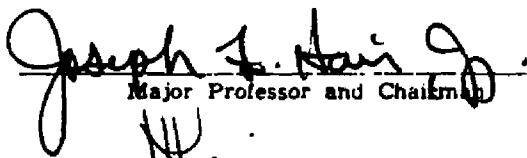
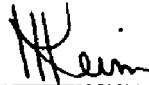
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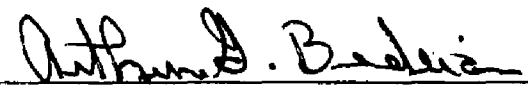
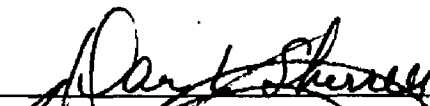
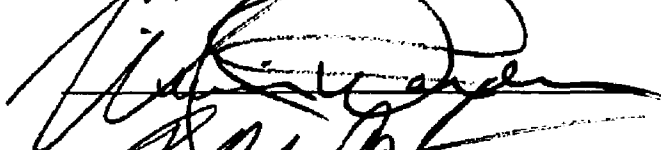
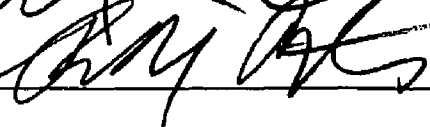
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