

THE EFFECT OF ROLE STRESSORS, WORK
ATTITUDES, SELF-ESTEEM, AND
ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL ON
INTENT TO LEAVE

By

LINDA K. GOOD

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Bachelor of Science in Home Economics
Kansas State University
Manhattan, Kansas
1972

Master of Science
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma
1974

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Thesis Approved:

Brocklyn Sisler

Thesis Adviser

Laura D. Jolly

James W. Gentry

David Fournier

Norman N. Durham

Dean of the Graduate College

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Employee turnover is expensive, costing American industry billions each year. It strikes operations of all sizes and is no less devastating in the public sector than it is in the private sector (Laser, 1980). People are the most important natural resource in a retail business. Never before has America's workforce been more mobile, better educated, and more heterogeneous than it is today. Human resource development and retention are major concerns of retailers across the nation. While people are the most valuable resource, they are also one of the most costly resources, and company principals want to protect that resource once they have invested in it.

Background

Psychologists have been studying the interaction between work and workers for nearly three-quarters of a century. Münsterberg's (1913) textbook, Psychology and Industrial Efficiency, serves as the landmark which indicates concern with work behavior. This and other early work focused on personnel selection and placement techniques and upon the physical aspects of the work environment.

By the late 1930's, however, attitudinal researchers were investigating employee attitudes and their relation to employee behavior. The strongest stimulant for this research vein was provided by the Hawthorne studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). In the early 1940's, job satisfaction and the importance of work factors were popular research topics. The industrialization of America had plateaued and industrial psychologists were increasingly interested in studying the attitudes of American workers toward their work.

The quest for establishing or determining the relationship between work-related variables has proceeded throughout the years at an astounding pace. By the mid-fifties, Brayfield & Crockett (1955) cited more than 20 studies concerned with the relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson, & Capwell (1957) identified several hundred studies of workers' job attitudes. Since then, the studies have continued, investigating new variables and methodologies.

Significance

While relationships between work-related variables have long been investigated in industrial and corporate settings, there has been a paucity of research conducted in the retail sector of the workplace. Furthermore, salesclerks have been the primary target for the bulk of that research (Lucas, 1985). Only four studies have been conducted with retail

managers to measure variables that may lead to voluntary turnover, leaving the magnitude of retail executive turnover relatively undetermined. Cohen and Schwartz (1980) reported retail turnover to be 30 percent per year. More expressly, Gable and Hollen (1984) reported a 54 percent turnover rate among department store management trainees. Porter, Crampon, and Smith (1976) observed a 24 percent turnover rate for management trainees in a large merchandising company, and Gable, Hollen, and Dangelo (1984) reported a 49.1 percent turnover rate for retail management trainees.

Retail management positions are by nature, boundary-spanning positions; therefore, turnover is a likely problem. Boundary-spanning positions are those which require a great deal of interaction beyond their own department or company. High levels of role conflict and ambiguity are likely to exist in boundary-spanning positions (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964). Retail executives have a number of contacts outside their individual offices or units such as vendors, media executives, supervisors, corporate executives, customers, and sales personnel.

Employers are interested in what causes an employee to decide to leave the company. Role stress is linked with dissatisfaction and lack of commitment to the organization. Likewise, organizational commitment is linked with the intent to leave or actual turnover.

One variable which may moderate the work environment relationships includes employee self-esteem. The employee's

self-esteem is an individual variable which affects or may be affected by the work situation. Understanding the type of moderating effects self-esteem level contributes may help match employees to certain types of jobs and may guide training programs. The level of position an employee holds within the company may also moderate work-related relationships. Since managers are in a considerably different psychological environment than that of salespersons, the same kinds of relationships that exist at the salesperson level may not transcend to managerial levels.

Research which adds new knowledge to work environment literature will aid both practitioners and employees or organizations by improving the job search process, aiding in job redesign, and understanding the psychological processes which are operative in employee-organization linkages.

Theoretical Rationale

Understanding the workplace environment and its impact on individuals in the organization is important when studying the outcomes of organizational behavior. The outcome of primary interest to practitioners is employee turnover. To contemplate the impacts of the environment on individuals requires a systematic method of viewing the environment. The life of any individual is seen as a variety of roles he plays in a particular set of organizations and groups to which he belongs (Kahn et al., 1964). Those parts of the groups or organizations which affect the individual directly

make up his objective environment. The physical and emotional state of an individual is affected by organizational characteristics which, in turn, are major determinants of the individual's behavior. Role theory has served as a valuable conceptual framework for understanding an individual in relation to the other variables in the work environment. It attempts to explain how social structure influences behavior.

The Concept of Role

Roles have been viewed as the boundary between individuals and the organization, consisting of expectations at the individual and organizational level (Kahn et al., 1964). Thus considered, each individual's role in the organization consists of a part in the total pattern of activity. Of key importance to an individual is his role set, which refers to behavioral expectations of a group of individuals within the organization (Katz & Kahn, 1978). The more expectations, the more complex is the role set. In an organization, an individual's role set consists of those who are adjacent to him in the work-flow structure or in the company hierarchy. Usually included in the role set are the immediate supervisor, subordinates, and members of the same or closely-related departments.

All members of an individual's role set depend upon his performance to some degree; they are rewarded by it, or they require it in order to perform their own tasks (Kahn et al.,

1964). Because they have a stake in the focal person's role, the role set forms beliefs and attitudes about what the focal person should or should not do as a part of his role. These proscriptions are designated as role expectations. By nature of the individual differences existing in a role set, role expectations will also vary as a result of that context.

Retail executives have an especially large role set. Because of the dynamic nature of retailing consumer fashion products, classical organization theory is followed rather loosely. The buyer position has a particularly large role set. Not only must the buyer respond to role expectations of several supervisors (divisional manager, store manager, accounting and control, operations, advertising), he is also accountable to role expectations of numerous subordinates such as branch department managers, merchandising staff, and merchandise analysts.

Roles have been viewed as functional for both the organization and individual, as well as dysfunctional (Kahn et al., 1964). Role conflict and role ambiguity often emerge from the organizational environment as stressors. Work-family conflicts emerge when work and family expectations are incompatible or unreasonable in terms of time constraints.

Role Conflict and Ambiguity

The conception of organizational roles acknowledges the fact that various members of the role set may hold quite different expectations of the focal person. At any given time members of the role set may impose pressures on him toward different behavioral requirements. To the extent that this causes psychological stress, the focal person experiences role conflict. Several types of role conflict have been identified (Kahn et al., 1964).

Intra-sender conflict occurs when a single member of the role set communicates more than one incompatible request of the focal person. Inter-sender role conflict is operational when pressures from one role sender are incompatible with pressures from one or more other role senders. When role requirements violate the basic values, attitudes, and needs of an employee, then person-role conflict occurs. Inter-role conflict can result from facing multiple roles. It occurs because individuals simultaneously perform many roles, some of which have conflicting expectations. Most researchers define work-family conflict as a type of inter-sender conflict. Finally, role overload which can be regarded as a kind of inter- or intra-sender conflict, exists when different individuals define a role according to different expectations, making it impossible for the person occupying the role to satisfy all of them.

Role theory indicates that role ambiguity is a direct function of the discrepancy between the information

available to the focal person and that which is needed to perform the role adequately. Lack of information can result from many causes. Sometimes the required information simply does not exist. Conversely, the required information exists but it is not available to the person who needs it. The latter is often simply a failure of one member of the role set to communicate with another member.

Similarly, employees are often unclear about the scope of their responsibilities (Katz & Kahn, 1978). They simply do not know what they are "supposed" to do. These uncertainties may arise because role expectations are themselves vague and inconsistent. Employees may also be uncertain as to whose expectations they are required to meet. While some amount of ambiguity is present in all work environments, there are individual differences in the tendency to respond negatively to ambiguity. Those individuals who have a high need for structure will most likely experience role ambiguity.

Classical Organization Theory

Chain of command and unity of command and direction are two components of classical organization theory. Both principles have implications for role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) described the chain of command principle as a hierarchical organizational structure. There is a direct and single flow of authority from the top down. Theoretically, the

structure provides more defined roles and expectations as well as more effective control and coordination. According to the principle of unity of command, for any one task, there should be only one plan, one leader, and an employee should only receive instructions from one supervisor. Therefore, an employee is protected from receiving incompatible orders and expectations from more than one supervisor.

Role theory indicates that when inconsistent behaviors are expected (role conflict), individuals will experience stress, become dissatisfied, and perform less effectively than if expectations are not conflicting. Both of the principles of classical organization theory are violated when role conflict occurs, causing decreased individual satisfaction and decreased organizational effectiveness.

Both classical organization theory and role theory deal with role ambiguity. Rizzo et al. (1970) described the classical theory approach.

...every position in a formal organizational structure should have a specified set of tasks or position responsibilities. Such specification ...is intended to allow management to hold subordinates accountable for specific performance and to provide guidance and direction for subordinates (p. 151).

Role theory likewise suggests that role ambiguity will result in coping behavior by the focal person which may take the form of using defense mechanisms which distort the reality of the situation (Kahn et al., 1964). Thus, according to role theory, ambiguity should increase the probability of

dissatisfaction, anxiety, distortion of reality, and ineffective performance (Rizzo et al., 1970).

The presence of role ambiguity, role conflict, and work-family conflict in the work environment has the potential to generate varying amounts of organizational stress. The impact of these role stressors on the affective and behavioral outcomes is of interest to organizational managers. Role theory provides a basis from which to establish relationships with the consequences of role stress.

Statement of the Problem

Turnover research has primarily sought to identify variables which contribute to an employee's decision to leave the organization. The list of variables is endless. Research has established that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are negatively related to turnover. Job stress is a familiar term to researchers and practitioners who are concerned about the impact of organizational processes and environments on both personal and organizational outcomes. Role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict have been shown to be negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Research also indicates that an employee's level of self-esteem may moderate the relationships among variables leading to employee turnover. While studies probing the antecedents of turnover have been plentiful, few have established causal

relationships between the variables and even fewer have investigated relationships at the various managerial levels in retail organizations.

The need for information that will add to the knowledge of the factors leading toward voluntary turnover is evidenced by the plethora of studies pursuing such an end. The scarcity of research probing the work environment variables for retail managers points to a particular need for further research. Due to the high costs of turnover, both to the individual and the organization, human resource managers and company executives are especially interested in retaining quality employees. Findings which can guide managers in designing jobs, hiring new employees, and altering work atmospheres are of particular interest. The current study was an attempt to test the Wunder, Dougherty, and Welsh (1982) model and to extend the knowledge of variable relationships for a sample of retail executives at three different levels of the organization.

Purposes of the Study

The researcher examined the temporal relationships between employee role conflict, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and the intent to leave the organization according to the Wunder et al. (1982) model (Figure 1). Self-esteem of the employee was examined as a moderating variable. Since retail organizations traditionally consist of three levels of management

(entry, middle, top), a second purpose of this study was to determine if the relationships between the variables differed across management levels. Insights concerning the variables which lead to turnover will aid retailers in the pursuit of higher retention rates of qualified employees.

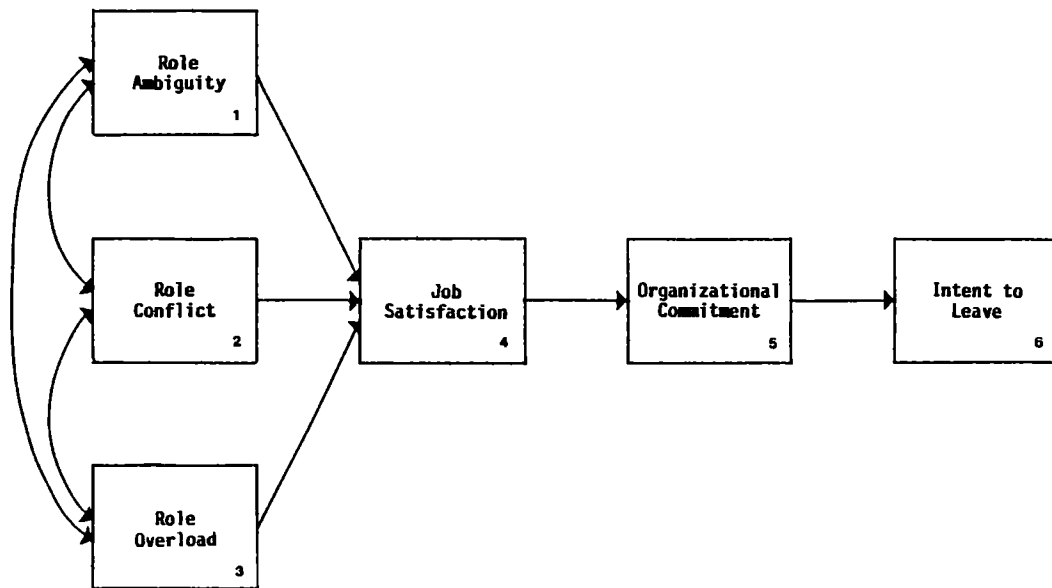


Figure 1. Path Diagram for the Model

Objectives

The following were objectives of the study.

1. To examine bivariate relationships among the variables of age, education, income, tenure, self-esteem, managerial level, role stressors, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave.

2. To determine whether the path analytic relationships among role stressors, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave as established in the Wunder et al. (1982) study are supported utilizing a retail executive sample.

3. To assess whether level of employee self-esteem is related to any of the variables in the Wunder et al. (1982) model.

4. To determine whether the path analytic results vary as a function of managerial level within the organization.

Conceptual Definitions

Dysfunctional Turnover - "The individual wants to leave the organization but the organization prefers to retain the individual" (Dalton, Krackhardt, & Porter, 1981, p. 716).

Functional Turnover - "The individual wants to leave the organization, but the organization is unconcerned. The organization has a negative evaluation of the individual" (Dalton et al., 1981, p. 716).

Intent to Leave - "One's behavioral intention to withdraw, as distinguished from an 'attitude' (e.g., satisfaction)" (Wunder et al., 1982, p. 297).

Job Satisfaction - "Job satisfaction is the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969, p. 316).

Organizational Level - Organizational level refers to the position one holds within the company. Retail organizations classify job titles as upper, middle, and lower managers.

Organizational Commitment - Organizational commitment refers to the nature of an individual's relationship to an organization, such that a highly committed person will indicate a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization, a willingness to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organization, and a definite belief in, and acceptance of, the values and goals of the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Role Ambiguity - Role ambiguity results when the nature of the expected role behavior is uncertain (Oliver & Brief, 1977-78).

Role Conflict - Role conflict is experienced when an employee believes that the expectations and demands of two or more role partners are incompatible and that he cannot simultaneously satisfy all the demands being made of him (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976).

Self-Esteem - Self-esteem is the extent to which an individual perceives himself to be a competent, need-satisfying person (Korman, 1970, 1976).

Work-Family Conflict - "...a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Work-family conflict was measured in

place of role overload in the present study. Often the two role stressors are used interchangeably.

Organization of the Chapters

This chapter has described the significance of the problem, the theoretical framework which guided the study, and the objectives of the study. Chapter II presents a review of pertinent literature relating to each of the research variables. Chapter III describes the specific research methodology including sampling, instrumentation, procedures, and operational hypotheses. Chapter IV discusses the findings as they relate to the specific hypotheses of the study. Chapter V summarizes the study in addition to making recommendations for further study and drawing conclusions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The quality of the relationships between employees and their organizations has been a research priority of organizational behaviorists, applied psychologists, and industrial psychologists since the early Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) studies. Practitioners in corporate, industrial, business, and educational organizations have supported and encouraged employee-organizational research in an effort to enhance the quality of work life of employees, which in turn creates in the employee, a feeling of attachment to the organization.

Retention of quality employees is a managerial goal in organizations. Preventing the turnover of these valued employees involves investigating a variety of variables which include personal, attitudinal, and behavioral variates as they relate to the organization. The literature review is organized into six sections relating to the variables identified in this study. An overview of turnover is explored in the first section, followed by a presentation of conceptual models which attempt to explain the turnover process. Next, the precursors of turnover, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave, are

discussed and research findings reported. The fourth section explores organizational role stressors as dysfunctional organizational concerns. The moderating effects of employee self-esteem and managerial level of the employee are investigated in the fifth and sixth sections. Support for the choice of the study variables emerges in the review of pertinent literature.

An Overview of Employee Turnover

People leaving organizations - employee turnover - is a major organizational phenomenon. Thus, turnover is integrated into many definitions of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1977). Research exploring turnover suggests that it is a pervasive phenomenon, cutting across type and size of organization, location, and time.

Turnover Defined

Turnover may be defined from several perspectives which include job turnover, career turnover, and organizational turnover. Since job turnover is an expected event in the progression of one's career, few research studies address it as a problem. Career turnover, while more prevalent in recent years, has also rarely been examined in the literature. Organizational turnover, however, has been the main thrust of research and theorization over the last two decades.

Price (1977, p. 10) defined turnover in its broadest sense: "Turnover is the degree of individual movement across the membership boundary of a social system." Professional associations, churches, trade unions, etc., because they are voluntary social systems, would be encompassed by this definition. Employee turnover is defined more precisely by Mobley (1982a, p. 10) to be "...the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation by the organization." This definition focuses directly on employees, those who are paid by the organization, as a condition of membership. While turnover is an important and interesting concept in situations other than the employee-organization linkage, research has primarily been conducted in profit-oriented organizational settings due to the costs incurred when valued employees leave the company.

Given the Mobley (1982a) definition of turnover, it is necessary to distinguish among the various types of cessations. Basically, turnover is codified as voluntary or involuntary. When an individual leaves the organization on his or her own volition, that is voluntary turnover. Involuntary turnover exists when the organization initiates the cessation. In addition, mandatory retirement and death are considered involuntary turnover. All of the studies reported in this review have dealt with voluntary turnover which is comprehensible because management has less actual control over the voluntary decision to leave an organization.

Perhaps the interest in voluntary turnover also stems from the fact that even the most satisfied, committed employees may leave an organization because of various family-related, career, or personal reasons. (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Determinants and Correlates of Turnover

Causes of turnover, as reported in the literature, are inconsistent and subject to question due to the lack of longitudinal research designs and causal statistical analyses. Of the voluminous amount of literature on employee turnover, the bulk of the research has focused on the correlates of turnover. Knowing why people choose to leave an organization provides data for prescriptive actions which can assist the personnel manager in dealing with the problem. Meyer (1979) reported that the level of executive mobility is higher than ever before. In an effort to determine why and understand the motivation perpetuating this trend, Meyer (1979) studied middle and top level managers who changed employers during a three-year period. Four key factors and a fifth minor area emerged as underlying motivations for organizational turnover as outlined below.

<u>% Responding</u>	<u>Reason for Turnover</u>
41.9%	Greater long-range career opportunities
22.8%	Improved status (responsibility, title)
16.4%	Dissatisfaction with the organization
8.9%	Financial enhancement
10.0%	Family commitment, health, climate, recreational pursuits, forthcoming retirement, philanthropy

Meyer's (1979) study illustrates that determinants of turnover are not always due to negative employee organizational linkages. Nearly two-thirds of the executives changed companies for what they perceived to be career opportunities.

In a recent meta-analysis of employee turnover research, Cotton and Tuttle (1986) categorized variables into external correlates, work-related correlates, and personal correlates. External correlates include employment perceptions, unemployment rate, cessation rate, and union presence. The external correlates are mentioned for continuity in the discussion, however they are beyond the scope of this review.

Pay, as a work-related correlate, has been found to have a negative relationship with turnover (Kerr, 1974; Michaels and Spector, 1982). Pay was measured by self-report of salary by respondents and correlated with actual turnover of the employees. Job performance (Marsh & Mannari, 1977) and role clarity (Lyons, 1971) have also shown negative relationships with turnover. Highly significant negative correlations have emerged for overall job satisfaction (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Clegg, 1983; Koch & Steers, 1978), satisfaction with pay and the work itself (Koch & Steers, 1978), satisfaction with supervision (Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Krackhardt, McKenna, Porter, & Steers, 1981; Parasuraman, 1982), and organizational commitment (Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur, 1984; Parasuraman, 1982;

Stumpf & Hartman, 1984). Although at a slightly lower level, satisfaction with co-workers (Koch & Steers, 1978) and satisfaction with promotion (Koch & Steers, 1978; Parasuraman, 1982) have shown a negative relationship with turnover.

Personal characteristics which have been positively correlated with turnover include education level (Mowday et al., 1979; Parasuraman, 1982; Taylor & Weiss, 1972) and intentions to leave the organization (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Mitchel, 1981). Age (Clegg, 1983; Hom & Hulin, 1979; Mowday et al., 1979), tenure (Michaels & Spector, 1982; Taylor & Weiss, 1972), and number of dependents (Arnold & Feldman, 1982) have been negatively related to turnover. Employees whose expectations of the organization and work situation are met, are less likely to leave (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984).

The variables cited in the preceding paragraphs in no way constitute a comprehensive list of the determinants and correlates of turnover. Alpander (1982) suggested a slightly different, yet well-organized outline of the variables shown to be related to turnover.

Organizational Factors

Perceived roadblocks in personal and professional growth within the present organization.
Perceived limits on personal and professional growth within the present organization.
Dissatisfaction with the location of the organization (for personal or family reasons).
Lack of job security.

Job Factors

Uninteresting nature of the job.
 Dissatisfaction with pay.
 Dissatisfaction with policies concerning salary increases, promotions, career development transfers, and other related personnel matters.
 Dissatisfaction with conditions surrounding the job.
 Dissatisfaction with supervisors, peers, and /or subordinates.
 Lack of autonomy in performing the job.

Competitive Factors

Better-paying offer.
 New job perceived to be more satisfactory in some aspect (other than pay) when compared to present job.

Personal Factors

Reasons for working no longer exist (retirement from full-time employment).
 Working no longer attractive when opportunity costs are considered (p. 115-116).

From a practitioner's point-of-view, Laser (1980) presented three determinants of turnover. The first determinant was improper personnel selection techniques. Hiring from a limited resource pool, unsystematic hiring, and failure to communicate organization expectations relate to high turnover rates. The research dealing with met expectations indicates that this is indeed a problem contributing to turnover.

Another problem cited by Laser (1980) was inadequate employee orientation and training. He suggested that the more prevalent on-the-job training approach is not adequate to orient the employee to company policies and work behaviors. As a result, the employees leave.

Additionally, inconsistent management contributes to the turnover dilemma. Poor supervision has been established as a contributor to employee turnover. One or two inadequate supervisors can be responsible for an employee's decision to leave. Likewise, if the supervisor inconsistently manages pay and benefits, workers become restless and may seek employment elsewhere.

Consequences of Turnover

While the greatest volume of research has addressed determinants and correlates of turnover, the consequences of turnover are a neglected research vein. Turnover yields consequences for both the individual and the organization and can be classified as positive (functional) or negative (dysfunctional). The loss of effective employees is dysfunctional for an organization. The loss of ineffective employees, however, is viewed as functional to the company's overall performance (Powell & Feinberg, 1984). Dalton et al. (1981) for example, found that 42 percent of the voluntary leavers in a sample of bank employees were classified as poor performers and thus, from an organizational perspective, as "functional" turnover.

Mobley (1982a,b) and Mowday et al. (1982) have both proposed taxonomies for some possible positive and negative individual and organizational consequences of employee turnover. A summary of suggested consequences appears in Figure 2. Mobley (1982b) argued to

Organization	Individual (Leavers)	Individual (Stayers)
<u>Possible Negative Consequences</u>		
Costs (recruiting, hiring, assimilation, training)	Loss of seniority and related prerequisites	Disruption of social and communication patterns
Replacement costs	Loss of nonvested benefits	Loss of functionally valued co-workers
Out-processing costs	Disruption of family and social support systems	Decreased satisfaction
Disruption of social and communication structures	"Grass is greener" phenomenon and subsequent disillusionment	Increased work load during and immediately after search for replacement
Productivity loss (during replacement search and retraining)	Inflation related costs (e.g., mortgage cost)	Decreased cohesion
Loss of high performers	Transition related stress	Decreased commitment
Decreased satisfaction among stayers	Disruption of spouse's career path	
Stimulate "undifferentiated" turnover control strategies	Career path regression	
Negative PR from leavers		
<u>Possible Positive Consequences</u>		
Displacement of poor performers	Increased earnings	Increased internal mobility opportunity
Infusion of new knowledge/technology via replacements	Career advancement	Stimulation, cross-fertilization from new co-workers
Stimulate changes in policy and practice	Better "person-organization fit," thus (for example) less stress, better use of skills, interests	Increased satisfaction
Increased internal mobility opportunities	Renewed stimulation in new environment	Increased cohesion
Increased structural flexibility	Attainment of nonwork values	Increased commitment
Increased satisfaction among stayers	Enhanced self-efficacy perceptions	
Decrease in other "withdrawal" behaviors		
Opportunities for cost reduction, consolidation		

Figure 2. Consequences of Employee Turnover

...expand the study of turnover to conceptual and empirical analysis of the consequences, the determinants of these consequences, and the interrelationships among antecedents and consequences (p. 113).

The utility of turnover is an important variable to study in terms of management or practitioner implications. Knowing the consequences may provide support for policy decisions which address the determinants or antecedents of turnover.

Conceptual Models of Employee Turnover

Recently, in an attempt to organize the variables which lead to turnover behavior in organizations, researchers have published several models of turnover. Although the models differ in their content, the unifying factor is that they are all seeking to identify some subset of variables which affect voluntary turnover.

The Price Model

Price (1977) developed a model of the turnover process (Figure 3) and published an extensive review and codification of the turnover literature. He described five primary determinants of turnover. Pay level, integration (participation in primary relationships), communication with regard to role performance (instrumental), and officially transmitted formal communication are all negatively related to turnover. The degree of centralization of the organization is considered positively related to turnover. Job

satisfaction and opportunity are specified as intervening variables between the determinants and turnover. The fundamental hypothesis of the model is that "dissatisfaction results in turnover only when opportunity is relatively high" (Price, 1977, p. 83). This suggestion of an opportunity x satisfaction interaction is precipitated by the dissatisfied employee who does not leave the organization due to a reduced opportunity structure.

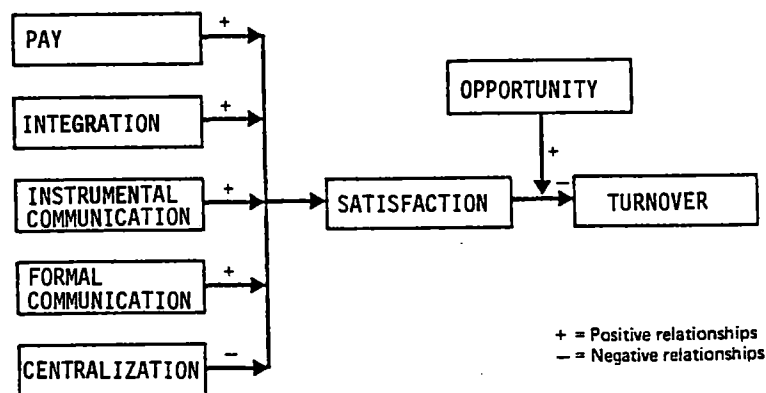


Figure 3. Price's Turnover Model

Empirical tests of the Price model have been conducted by Bluedorn (1979), Dickson (1977), Martin (1979), Price and Bluedorn (1980), and Price and Mueller (1979). Results of the five tests were uniform in that they all rejected the hypothesized job satisfaction x opportunity interaction. However, all five studies supported the hypothesis that

opportunities affect turnover indirectly through job satisfaction. Thus, opportunities would be positioned causally prior to satisfaction in the model as a result of the tests. A second consistent finding in the five studies (Bluedorn, 1982) was that the model did not eliminate the independent effects of demographic variables such as age and tenure. Certain demographic variables are particularly important as determinants in the turnover process.

The Mobley Model

The turnover model which has perhaps received the most attention in the organizational literature was conceptualized by Mobley (1977). This model (Figure 4) is referred to as an intermediate linkages model because it details numerous linkages between job satisfaction and turnover. Mobley argued for the need to move beyond the simplistic satisfaction/turnover relationship and explore the cognitive decisions which are a result of the employee's affective orientation and lead to the behavioral outcome.

In accord with research which has found that intentions to quit are among the strongest predictors of turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Mowday et al., 1984; Porter & Steers, 1973), Mobley (1977) identified that variable as immediately preceding turnover. This model is less concerned with the determinants of job attitudes and more concerned with the consequences of the turnover decision process.

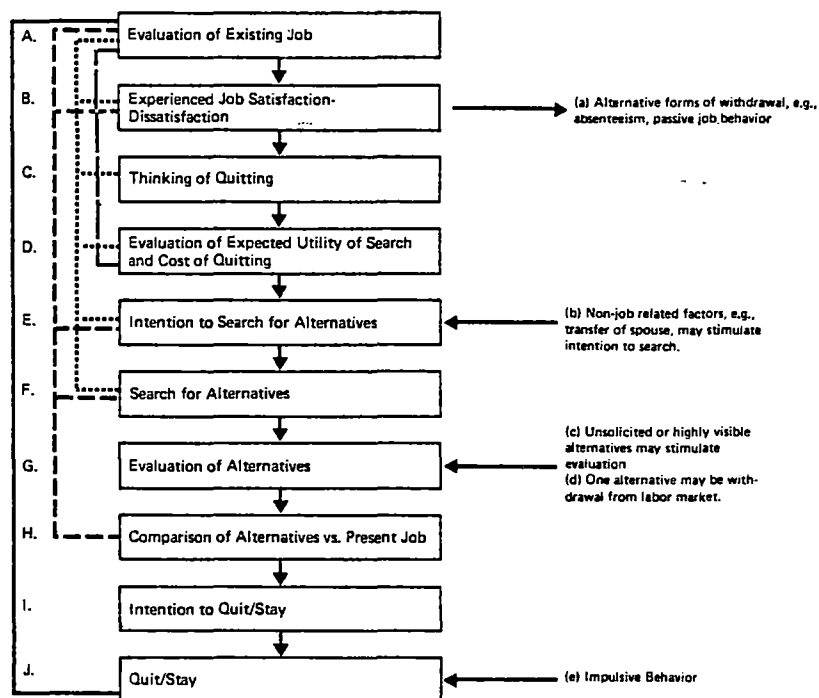


Figure 4. Mobley's Intermediate Linkages Model

Several empirical tests of the Mobley model have been conducted. A simplified version was tested by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978). Job satisfaction was hypothesized to have a negative relationship with thoughts of quitting. Thoughts of quitting would influence intent to search which in turn, would influence intent to quit. Further, the probability of finding an acceptable alternative would affect intentions to search and quit. Mobley et al. (1978) found validity for the abbreviated model. Since that study, Miller, Katerberg, and Hulin (1979) and Mowday et al. (1984) have found additional support for the reduced model.

The only complete test of the Mobley model was conducted by Hom, Griffeth, and Sellaro (1984). In an effort to improve model validity, the researchers measured thoughts of quitting, intent to search, and intent to quit with multiple items rather than the less reliable one-item measures used previously. In general, each construct was accurately predicted by combinations of their theoretical causal antecedents. In the majority of instances, the best predictor of a model construct was the construct's immediate causal antecedent.

Mobley et al. (1979) proposed a more comprehensive employee turnover model (Figure 5) which encompasses organizational, individual, and economic-labor market determinants of the turnover decision process. "Given the complexity of the model, it is unlikely that any one study will adequately evaluate the model" (Mobley, 1982a, p. 132). Michaels and Spector (1982) utilized multivariate techniques to estimate the strength of the relationships between several variables from the Mobley et al. (1979) model. Although the study focused less on the turnover decision process, the additional variable of organizational commitment was added as a further explanatory variable. As a result, organizational commitment improved the predictability of intent to quit beyond that of satisfaction alone; however, satisfaction was the stronger predictor of intent to leave. Results also indicated that intent to quit was the most direct predictor of turnover (Michaels & Spector, 1982).

While no other tests of the expanded model were found in the literature, the global nature of the model lends itself to be tested in part and in various situations. Williams and Hazer (1986) suggested the inclusion of organizational commitment to the model and testing of the satisfaction/commitment relationship.

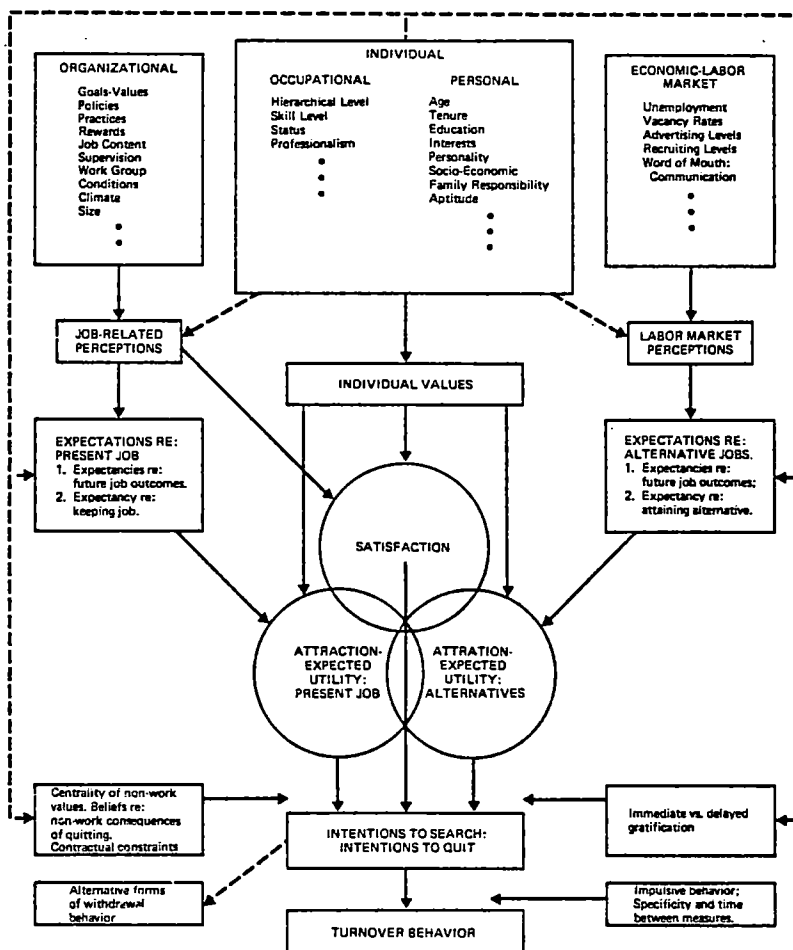


Figure 5. Mobley et al. Expanded Model

Turnover models abound in the organizational behavior literature. The models presented represent the more widely used models and, from a theoretical perspective, have contributed to the integration of the voluminous turnover literature. Common to all of the models is the recognition of multiple determinants of turnover and the temporal process orientation of the phenomenon.

Precursors of Turnover

Over the last 20 to 30 years of research investigating the critical factors in the decision to leave an organization, both affective responses and behavioral intentions have been identified as predictors of turnover. The three variates studied as possible turnover precursors include the affective variables of job satisfaction and organizational commitment and the behavioral intention to leave the organization. No one predictor has unequivocally been established as the best predictor; however, the following discussion delineates research utilizing each variable as the criterion.

Job Satisfaction

The earliest studies of employee turnover posited that job satisfaction was the most important variable in determining which employees would leave the company. In extensive literature reviews, Brayfield and Crockett (1955) and Herzberg et al. (1957) reported empirical evidence of a strong relationship with dissatisfaction and turnover.

Vroom (1964) in another review, again reported a consistent negative relationship between job satisfaction and the propensity to leave the company.

"Stayers" and "leavers" in an organization could be distinguished by knowledge of an employee's degree of satisfaction (Hulin, 1966). The degree of satisfaction was most strongly linked with pay and promotion facets of job satisfaction. As a result of the study, the company management instituted new pay policies and promotional opportunities. One and one-half years later, Hulin (1968) replicated the earlier study. Again, termination decisions were significantly related to job satisfaction. Additionally, job satisfaction rose significantly between the two studies indicating the effectiveness of policy changes. Subjects in both studies were clerical workers.

More recently, Taylor and Weiss (1972) hypothesized that both satisfaction and biographical data would be strong predictors of turnover. The longitudinal research design utilized employees working for a discount store chain. Data were collected at the beginning of the study and one year later. The turnover rate was 20 percent and the "leavers" were significantly less satisfied than the "stayers." Discriminant analysis was used to predict "stayers" and "leavers." Satisfaction level, as compared to biographical characteristics, was the best predictor of a "leaver."

It is relevant to mention that in all of the studies reviewed, satisfaction was examined as the last link before

actual turnover behavior. These studies did not include organizational commitment or intent to leave as precursors of the turnover decision. It is also salient to realize that the most recent study implying a direct satisfaction/turnover linkage was conducted in 1972. In the fourteen years hence, more rigorous methodologies and a greater variety of variables have been investigated in the turnover literature.

Organizational Commitment

Recent findings indicate that organizational commitment is often a better predictor of turnover than is job satisfaction (Koch & Steers, 1978; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Job satisfaction is less stable over time since employees react more immediately to specific aspects of the work situation.

This evidence suggests that commitment may be a more global and stable evaluative linkage between the employee and the organization that includes job satisfaction as a component. In addition, the commitment attitude develops slowly and consistently over time. Porter et al. (1976) emphasized that when an employee voluntarily leaves, ties with the organization are severed; however, the employee may assume the same type of job with another organization.

In order to counter criticisms of weak measurement instruments, Mowday et al. (1979) developed and validated the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Convergent,

discriminant, and predictive validity were established as well as scale reliability. In the validation study, commitment correlated as well or better with turnover than did job satisfaction.

Another methodological procedure prevalent in turnover and commitment studies which attenuates the findings, is reliance on cross-sectional data to predict these constructs. Rigorous, longitudinal studies in which turnover is actually measured yield more accurate results concerning the relationships between the predictor and criterion variables. Porter et al. (1976) examined retail manager trainees in a large merchandising company by measuring organizational attitudes eight times over a 15-month period. At the conclusion of the study, 23.7 percent had voluntarily left the organization during the 15 months. Voluntary turnovers showed a significant decline in commitment to the organization prior to leaving. Having established the importance of commitment to turnover in a longitudinal study, the researchers urged further investigation of organizational commitment antecedents.

Steers (1977), in an effort to guide future research, proposed a commitment model consisting of antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. The proposed antecedents included personal characteristics (age, education, need for achievement), job characteristics (job challenge, feedback), and work experiences (group attitudes, organizational dependability, personal import). Desire and

intent to remain with the organization, attendance, and actual turnover were posited as behavioral outcomes of organizational commitment. Findings supported all three sets of antecedents as significantly related to commitment, with work experiences having the highest association. Commitment was significantly and positively related to desire and intent to remain and negatively related to actual turnover.

Actual turnover was measured by Koch and Steers (1978) in a study of non-managerial entry level employees. Job attachment (commitment) was found to be a better predictor of turnover than overall satisfaction or any facet of satisfaction. It should be noted that job, rather than organizational, commitment was being measured. Consequently, generalizations must be so directed. The results also indicated that the individual difference variables of age and education were more important in job attachment attitudes than job characteristics (autonomy, variety, and responsibility).

A more recent empirical investigation (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984b) responding to the results of previous commitment research, measured organizational commitment as a surrogate for turnover. The sample consisted of the sales staff of a department store chain. Twenty-six percent of the variation was explained by the direct effect of satisfaction on organizational commitment. While the explained variation was typically low, job satisfaction provided the

only direct effects, supporting the view that job satisfaction is a critical component in the development of organizational commitment (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984b).

A further examination of the satisfaction-commitment relationship was undertaken by Williams and Hazer (1986) when they reanalyzed data from two previous path analytic turnover studies. Evidence, while inconclusive, indicated that organizational commitment had a more important effect on intent to leave than did job satisfaction. However, the hypothesized direct linkage between satisfaction and commitment was supported.

The studies reviewed suggest that when organizational commitment is the last link in the turnover prediction model, it becomes the strongest predictor. Nevertheless, explained variation remains low, indicating that turnover is a complex construct that includes many other predictors.

Intent to Leave

The criterion variable most prevalently researched in the current literature is intent or propensity to leave the organization. The perennial issue in the social sciences is whether an individual's attitudes predict subsequent behavior. Since job satisfaction and organizational commitment are affective evaluations, researchers are looking for a more reliable behavioral predictor of turnover. Intent to leave, while not an actual behavior, is at least a behavioral intention or cognition.

To minimize the generalizability limitation of a homogeneous sample, Weiner and Vardi (1980) sampled insurance sales agents and industrial staff professionals holding a variety of positions in the firm. Intent to leave was measured by an attachment to the organization instrument. Items such as "There is a very strong chance that I'll stay (75-95 %)" were used to measure attachment. The weakness in this approach is that the statements are more affective than behavioral, so they parallel organizational commitment rather than intent to leave. Nevertheless, as would be expected, organizational commitment was the best predictor of attachment. A further weakness of the research is that actual turnover was not measured, so nothing is known about intent to leave as a predictor of turnover.

The primary hypothesis in a study of life insurance field managers (Mitchel, 1981) was that intent to leave would be the most important predictor of turnover, followed by tenure and then by personal and organizational (size of unit, number of employees per unit, etc.) variables. Actual turnover was measured three years after the initial data collection, and was found to be 24.6 percent for the three-year period.

Results yielded only two significant contributors to the multiple regression equation. Intent to leave was the strongest predictor, followed by tenure with the organization. It should be noted that the affective measures of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were not

included in the study. Previous research reviewed suggests that the tenure/turnover predictive relationship may be spurious since affective variables were not measured.

Actual turnover, as well as intent to leave, were measured in a study of plant workers (Parasuraman, 1982) to confirm the intent to leave/turnover relationship. A facet satisfaction measure was the precursor to intent to leave. Turnover data were collected one year from the initial collection. None of the satisfaction facets directly influenced turnover; however, satisfaction with promotion opportunities was significantly related to the propensity to leave the company. The fact that satisfaction measures influence propensity to leave but not actual turnover suggests that satisfaction influences voluntary termination only indirectly through the effect on behavioral intent. This finding supports intent to leave as a critical intervening variable between satisfaction and turnover. Organizational commitment was not measured in this study. Consequently, important conclusions concerning the job satisfaction, commitment, and intent to leave relationships were not investigated. The weak linkage between satisfaction and intent to leave implicates the presence of another important variable, possibly organizational commitment.

Hospital employees and clerical workers formed two separate samples in an actual turnover study conducted by Mowday et al. (1984). Turnover data were collected one year following the administration of the questionnaire. Intent

to leave was the strongest predictor of turnover in both samples. Adding organizational commitment to the prediction equation did not significantly increase explained variation. Job satisfaction was not measured, but Mowday et al. (1984) suggested that the influence of organizational commitment on turnover appears to be indirect, similar to the Parasuraman (1982) conclusions concerning job satisfaction. In a cross-validation of the data, organizational commitment was the only variable to cross-validate both within and between samples. This finding implies the importance of including commitment in turnover models. While commitment may not be the strongest turnover predictor, it may be important in predicting intent to leave.

Further investigation of the sequencing of job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover (Dougherty, Bluedorn, & Keon, 1985) utilized four diverse samples; clerical insurance personnel, university faculty, university clerical staff, and food service managers and dieticians. Two models were tested. The first proposed the satisfaction→organizational commitment→intent to leave→turnover sequence. The second model delineated the sequence of a joint satisfaction/commitment relationship→intent to leave→turnover. In all but one sample, intent to leave served as a surrogate for actual turnover. Ten months after a second questionnaire administration, actual turnover data were collected for the insurance company clerical workers. Path analysis failed to support the first model which placed

commitment as an intermediate construct. The second model, which positioned job satisfaction and organizational commitment as exogenous variables leading directly to intent to leave was the most parsimonious model. These findings support satisfaction and commitment as related, yet distinguishable attitudes.

If we accept the results of empirical investigations that intent to leave is indeed the strongest predictor of turnover, then it is important to further understand what leads to the behavioral intent. Parasuraman and Futrell (1983) found that for pharmaceutical salesmen, seven facets of job satisfaction were highly related to propensity to leave the company, even when demographic variables were controlled for. A study of retail chain store managers also yielded strong negative linear relationships between job satisfaction and the propensity to leave (Lucas, 1985).

Intent to leave was found to be the direct result of both organizational commitment and job satisfaction by Stumpf and Hartman (1984). Data were collected from a sample of business graduates two to three months before organizational entry for career exploration data, two to three months after organizational entry for organizational socialization data, and eight to nine months after organizational entry for withdrawal behavior data. While both satisfaction and commitment were important in predicting intent to leave, organizational commitment was the stronger predictor. In addition, path analytic studies

by Bluedorn (1982) and Wunder et al. (1982) provided further support for the satisfaction→commitment→intention sequencing of variables.

Peters, Bhagat, and O'Connor (1981) explored independent and joint effects of job satisfaction and organizational commitment on intent to leave with a diverse sample of students holding full-time jobs. When satisfaction and commitment were simultaneously entered into a hierarchical regression equation, organizational commitment entered first and explained 38 percent of the variance in intent to leave. Also of interest, a commitment x satisfaction interaction was detected. For the dissatisfied, as organizational commitment level increased, intent to leave decreased. This interaction supports the view that dissatisfaction does not always lead to turnover.

The most recent study which examined job satisfaction and organizational commitment as precursors of intent to leave yielded weak results (Lachman & Aranya, 1986). In a sample of certified public accountants, job satisfaction was correlated moderately with intent to leave but its direct effect on it, controlling for organizational commitment, was relatively small. The combined direct and indirect effects of organizational commitment on intent to leave were higher than that of job satisfaction, but still, not very high ($r = -.19$ to $-.24$). Hence these findings are not fully congruent with previous research.

Organizational Role Stressors

Role theory has been suggested as the conceptual framework in which to relate or join the organizational environment and the individual. Katz and Kahn (1978) suggested that role concepts are

...the major means for linking the individual and organizational levels of research and theory; it is at once the building block of social systems and the summation of the requirements with which such systems confront their members as individuals (p. 219).

Two major concepts from role theory, role ambiguity and role conflict, and a third concept, work-family conflict, are examined in this section.

When conflict and ambiguity are present and perceived as such, stress is the result. Beehr and Newman (1978) offered this general definition of job stress:

Job stress refers to a situation wherein job-related factors interact with a worker to change (i.e., disrupt or enhance) his or her psychological and/or physiological condition such that the person (i.e., mind-body) is forced to deviate from normal functioning (p. 669-670).

In the majority of cases, role conflict and ambiguity have been studied together. Therefore the same antecedents and consequences have been investigated for each role stressor. Conversely, work-family conflicts have been examined separately from the other role stressors. Due to the nature of the way the variables have been studied, this section addresses first antecedents, then consequences of role conflict and ambiguity. Finally, literature relating to work-family conflicts are discussed.

In recent years, empirical studies of job-related stress have proliferated the literature. The interest in stress may be tied to the negative consequences which result from job-related stress (Jamal, 1984). Traditionally, a moderate amount of stress has been postulated to be optimal for job performance. At the moderate level an individual is both motivated and able to expend his energies toward job performance. Stress becomes dysfunctional, however, when stress levels result in dissatisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover, not to mention the less researched physical outcomes of stress.

Antecedents of Role Conflict and Ambiguity

A plethora of studies in the literature examine role conflict and ambiguity. In a recent meta-analysis of the research, Jackson and Schuler (1985) stated that approximately 200 such studies exist. Because of the volume of the literature and the large number of variables hypothesized to be precursors of role conflict and ambiguity, organization of the literature is, at best, a huge task. The antecedents investigated in this review will be divided into organization-related and individual-related variables.

Numerous researchers have examined the relationships of job characteristics with role conflict and ambiguity. Primarily, the Hackman and Oldham (1975) task dimensions instrument has been used to measure the dimensions of skill

variety, autonomy, feedback from others and from the task, and task identity.

Task/Skill Variety. This concept refers to the amount of variety or interest present in the job and the variety of skills needed to perform a job. The results are inconsistent for task/skill variety and Jackson and Schuler (1985) suggested that research relating to task characteristics and role stressors has not been theory driven. A study which consisted of six different samples (Schuler, Aldag, & Brief, 1977) indicated no significance in the relationship between variety and role conflict and ambiguity. Conversely, Moorhead (1981) found a significant negative correlation ($r=-.48$) between role conflict and task variety, and a significantly positive correlation ($r=.28$) between role ambiguity and task variety.

Autonomy. Autonomy refers to the extent to which employees have a major say in work-related decisions. Findings from Schuler et al. (1977) indicated that higher levels of conflict and ambiguity led to lower levels of autonomy. The relationship with ambiguity was the strongest. Teas, Wacker, and Hughes (1979) found a significant negative effect between role conflict and autonomy. Role ambiguity was not measured. Retail salespeople with lower levels of role conflict and role ambiguity had higher levels of autonomy than those with higher levels of stress (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984a).

Autonomy provides retail salespeople discretion in their job. Thus, job latitude appears to allow sales personnel to resolve role ambiguity partially through the power they have in the job.

Feedback From Others and From the Task. Feedback is the degree to which employees receive information as they are working which indicates how well they are performing on the job. Schuler et al. (1977) reported both types of feedback to be negatively correlated with role ambiguity. While the feedback/role conflict correlations were negative, they were much weaker. A negative role conflict/feedback relationship was also found by Dubinsky and Skinner (1984a) and Oliver and Brief (1977-78). Since it is primarily through feedback that roles are learned, the results could be expected. However, the feedback/conflict results are conceptually inconsistent. Several researchers (Miles, 1976; Miles & Perreault, 1976) found that feedback can be expected to heighten role conflict for employees in boundary-spanning positions.

Task Identity. Task identity refers to the extent to which employees do an entire or whole piece of work and can clearly identify the results of their efforts. Similar to other task characteristics, task identity tends to be negatively correlated with role conflict and ambiguity (Schuler et al., 1977).

Organizational Level. No significant relationships were found between organizational level and role conflict and role ambiguity (Mossholder, Bedeian, & Armenakis, 1981; Rizzo et al., 1970). These results are contrary to the Kahn et al. (1964) findings that higher level employees experienced more role ambiguity. The suggestion that lower level employees would experience more role conflict and less ambiguity was also implied.

Individual characteristics form another group of antecedents to role conflict and ambiguity. While extensive research has not been conducted in this area, it is believed that individual differences are instrumental in determining how employees will react to role stressors.

Locus of Control. Individuals are classified as "internals" or "externals" depending on their perception of causality. "Internals" perceive that they are in control of what happens to them while "externals" perceive that what happens to them is beyond their control. No relationship was found between locus of control and role ambiguity for industrial salespeople (Behrman, Bigoness, & Perreault, 1981). There have been no conceptual justifications for predicting a relationship between role ambiguity and conflict and locus of control except by Organ and Greene (1974). They explained that because "internals" tend to be better informed about their occupations than "externals," they should experience less role ambiguity.

Education and Tenure. Role conflict and ambiguity have been found to be weakly and positively related to education (Kelly, Gable, & Hise, 1981); however, no theoretical explanations have been offered. Job tenure, on the other hand, tends to be slightly negatively related to role ambiguity and unrelated to role conflict (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Walker, Churchill, and Ford (1975) found that tenure was the only predictor that had a statistically significant impact on role conflict and ambiguity. Both decreased with length of service. These results suggest that the longer one is in a job, the more information he or she obtains.

Clearly, there are gaps in the literature regarding the antecedents of role stressors. One explanation for the inconsistent findings emanates from individual differences of employees. Individuals and the way they perceive organizational situations have an effect on the way they relate to their role and how they react to role stress.

Consequences of Role Conflict and Ambiguity

The consequences of role stressors have been studied far more consistently than the antecedents. Consequences are easier to measure and organizations are impacted most directly by them. Results are more supportive of hypothesized relationships for those who investigate role consequences.

Affective reactions are the most prevalently studied outcomes of role conflict and ambiguity. Reliable

instruments exist to measure most of the constructs. Thus, the results are more uniform than when a variety of instruments are used across studies to measure the same construct (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). In addition, causal models have been proposed, tested, and supported concerning the sequencing of the role variables and the outcomes.

Job Satisfaction. The most frequently studied consequence variable in role studies is job satisfaction which appears in approximately 50 percent of the studies in Jackson and Schuler's (1985) meta-analysis. Several studies have found significant negative correlations between both role ambiguity and role conflict with job satisfaction. Churchill et al. (1976) found such a relationship; however, role ambiguity was only related to satisfaction with company policies, co-workers, and customers. Role ambiguity and satisfaction with supervision was not significantly correlated. However, role conflict was significantly related to satisfaction with supervisors, company policies, and customers but not related to co-workers.

Job satisfaction was significantly negatively related to both role ambiguity and conflict in a study conducted by Oliver and Brief (1977-78), but it was not related to the antecedents of the role stressors. Therefore, role antecedents do not seem to affect satisfaction directly but do so through the role stressors. Bedeian and Armenakis (1981) found that the strength of the role stressor/job

satisfaction relationship was through the path of tension as an intervening variable rather than a direct relationship.

Ford and Jackofsky (1978) found the job satisfaction relationship to be significant only for role ambiguity. Conversely, Johnson and Stinson (1975) found a stronger negative relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction indices. Therefore, the Ford and Jackofsky (1978) findings are more in agreement with Rizzo et al. (1970), who reported a clear tendency for a stronger correlation between role ambiguity and satisfaction than role conflict and satisfaction.

Lending support to the role ambiguity/job satisfaction relationship are several studies which investigated only role ambiguity and consistently found a significant negative correlation (Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975; Kohli, 1985; Miles, 1975; Lyons, 1971; Schuler et al., 1977). In view of the uniform findings, Miles (1975) suggested that role ambiguity may be more pervasive than role conflict in its effect on personal outcomes.

Role ambiguity is the most frequently explored variable in relation to job satisfaction. However, the standard deviations across studies appear to vary more than role conflict standard deviations (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). While relationships between satisfaction and role conflict are weaker, results are more consistent across studies. Findings indicate that role stressors have at least an indirect and possibly a direct effect on job satisfaction.

Causal models and longitudinal studies needed to examine these relationships are scarce in the literature.

Tension/Anxiety. The role literature indicates that conflict and ambiguity should increase the probability that individuals will experience job-induced tension (Beehr & Newman, 1978). In a variety of samples from nurses to attorneys, to salespeople, to store managers, results consistently yielded a significantly positive relationship with role ambiguity (Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975; Dougherty & Pritchard, 1985; Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1974; Lyons, 1971; Rizzo et al., 1970) and with role conflict (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Dougherty & Pritchard, 1985).

In a path analytic study, Bedeian and Armenakis (1981) predicted and found the positive relationship of role conflict and role ambiguity with tension. The role conflict/tension path coefficient was larger than the role ambiguity path. These results support the meta-analysis (Jackson & Schuler, 1985) findings that the overall tension/ambiguity correlation was ($r=.43$) and the conflict correlation was ($r=.47$).

Organizational Commitment. Meta-analysis evidence indicates that organizational commitment is correlated with both role ambiguity ($r=-.41$) and role conflict ($r=-.36$) (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). Role relationships are purported by Mowday et al. (1982) as one of four major determinants of organizational commitment. An investigation of

retail salespeople found that role conflict and ambiguity had indirect effects on organizational commitment through their direct effect on job satisfaction (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984a). Corroborative results were yielded in a study with retail department managers (Oliver & Brief, 1977-78).

Organizational commitment moderated the relationship between role stressors and outcome variables such as absenteeism, intent to leave, and turnover in a sample of hospital employees. Individuals with high levels of commitment were less affected by the adverse consequences of role stress than were individuals with lower levels of organizational commitment (Jamal, 1984). Contrary to the hypothesized relationship, organizational commitment did not vary as a function of perceived role conflict in a sample of nurses and a sample of secondary school teachers (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).

The inability to explain the effects of role conflict and role ambiguity on commitment may occur because the effect may be indirect rather than direct. If satisfaction and tension are direct antecedents of commitment, perhaps they are directly determined by role conflict and ambiguity. Unfortunately, none of the organizational commitment studies explore this exact causal sequence (Jackson & Schuler, 1985).

Intention to Leave. Turnover is hypothesized to be one of the major long-range negative consequences of role stress. As discussed in a previous section, intention to

leave the organization is usually used as the surrogate for turnover. One empirical investigation did actually measure turnover and test for a role ambiguity/turnover relationship (Lyons, 1971). A significant positive relationship was found between role ambiguity and turnover. When need for clarity was considered as a moderator variable, the significant relationship remained only for those with a high need for clarity.

House and Rizzo (1972) and Rizzo et al. (1970) found that role ambiguity but not role conflict operated as an intervening variable linking formal organizational practices and leadership behavior to organizational effectiveness, satisfaction, anxiety, and the propensity to leave. Donnelly and Ivancevich (1975) also found a positive relationship between role ambiguity and propensity to leave. However, neither of the role stressors was significantly related to the intent to leave in the Dougherty and Pritchard (1985) study.

Although role ambiguity and role conflict had significant zero-order correlations with propensity to leave, Bedeian and Armenakis (1981) found that direct effects on propensity to leave were negligible after accounting for the variation attributable to satisfaction. The most inclusive causal analysis proposed a model which suggested the path from role stressors → job satisfaction → organizational commitment → intent to leave → turnover (Wunder et al., 1982). The path model supported the hypothesized indirect

effect of role stressors through satisfaction and organizational commitment on intent to leave and actual turnover.

The inconclusive results evident in this review are perhaps due to various reasons. First, the largest proportion of studies were cross-sectional. This clearly limits the generalizability of the results and conclusions. In addition, instrumentation from study to study was inconsistent. Where the same instruments were used, results were more conclusive. Finally, a variety of methodologies and samples have been utilized and conflicting results may be a function of the method or sample used.

Several consistencies did emerge across the studies reviewed. Several of the organizational context variables and role conflict and ambiguity are substantially correlated. Conversely, individual characteristics are not strongly correlated with the role stressors. The affective reaction variable of job satisfaction yields the most consistent results and seems to be a direct result of role conflict and ambiguity. Also, role conflict and ambiguity are not always associated with the same variables, whether individual or organizational. Finally, many complex interrelationships complicate the research on role conflict and ambiguity. While models are developed to conceptualize these interrelationships, rarely are comprehensive studies conducted to test the models (Miles & Perreault, 1976).

Work-Family Conflict

"Adults play a variety of roles in enacting the routine of everyday living" (Yogev & Brett, 1985, p. 754). The changing demographics of the work force resulting from more working women with children have prompted an expanding body of literature concerning the intersection of work and family roles. A large body of empirical evidence indicates that role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload constitute stress-inducing circumstances across a variety of samples in work organizations (VanSell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981).

Role overload is described by Lang and Markowitz (1986) as an individual's perception of too many things to do in the time available in any area(s) of life. The Kahn et al. (1964) definition posits that role overload is a complex type of conflict combining aspects of inter-sender and person-role conflicts. As an inter-sender conflict, various role senders have expectations that may be impossible for the focal person to complete within the time constraints. He may experience role overload as a conflict of priorities. If the focal person cannot deny any of the pressures and becomes overextended beyond the limits of his abilities, person-role conflict is operative.

From a different perspective, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defended the concept that work-family conflict is an interrole type of conflict. When sets of opposing pressures arise from participation in different roles, interrole

conflict prevails. Kahn et al. (1964) described a specific instance of interrole conflict in the following excerpt.

In such cases of interrole conflict, the role pressures associated with membership in one organization are in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in other groups. Demands from role senders on the job for overtime or take-home work may conflict with pressures from one's wife to give attention to family affairs during evening hours. The conflict arises between the role of the focal person as worker and his role as husband and father (p. 20).

Based on the preceding discussion, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) offered a definition of work-family conflict as "...a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p. 77). While role conflict includes work-family conflict as a particular type, role conflict is usually interpreted as conflict which occurs within the work role. On the other hand, work-family conflict warrants being studied as a separate type of conflict due to the interactional nature of the concept.

Dual-career families are especially susceptible to work-family conflict. Besides experiencing lack of time to effectively handle role responsibilities, dual-career families experience strains that are attributable to societal norms concerning the relation between family and work responsibility (Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969). In a study of dual-career families, Pleck, Staines, and Lang (1980) found that 25 percent of the respondents experienced moderate and 19 percent experienced severe conflict between work and family roles.

Conceptualizations in the area of work-family conflict address the manifestation of the source of conflict. The intercorrelation of life and work has been portrayed in terms of two general hypothesized processes (Near, Rice, & Hunt, 1980). The compensatory process infers an inverse association between what occurs at work and what occurs in nonwork roles. Disappointments in one sphere of life tend to be made up for in another sphere. The spillover process asserts a fundamental similarity between what occurs in the work environment and what transpires elsewhere. Attitudes or behaviors from one domain generalize ripplelike to others.

Staines (1980) indicated that work experiences of employed people affect their family lives more than the reverse. Fournier, Juhnke, and Engelbrecht (1981) found that survey respondents thought work-related responsibilities impacted family more frequently than family responsibilities or problems impacted job performance. Especially for women, family life has a significant influence on work behavior. Family life may make demands on work which the work role must accommodate just as work may require adjustments in family life (Kanter, 1977; Nickols & Fournier, 1981). The mutual influence of the two roles is clearly implicated in the literature.

When investigating role strain in two-income families, Keith and Schafer (1980) found that neither men nor women perceived family obligations as interfering with job

performance. However, work-family strain was present in the sample with women feeling significantly more role strain than men. (See also Bird & Ford, 1985; Keith & Schafer, 1980; Pleck et al., 1980). Work-family role conflict was also higher for younger couples with children at home than for older couples with few or no children at home. Reilly (1982) hypothesized and found that to the extent that children were present in the home, time and energy demands of the wife's role increased.

Strain was related to time and energy overload, lack of leisure time, family versus job demands, and role conflicts (Heckman, Bryson, & Bryson, 1977). Both males and females indicated they did not have enough time or energy to do everything that needed to be done and that fulfilling obligations in one area meant neglecting obligations in another area.

Work-family role conflict studies have also researched the effects of family support on the workers. Less strain occurred when families were supportive. No relationship was found between role strain (pressure) and family supportiveness among a sample of managers (Buck, 1972).

Self-Esteem as a Moderating Variable

Self-esteem has most frequently been examined for its relationship with job satisfaction and job performance (Dipboye, 1977; Dipboye, Zultowski, Dewhirst, & Arvey, 1979; Lopez, 1982). One study was found that looked at the

relationship between role stressors and self-esteem (Mossholder et al., 1981). Although performance is not a variable of interest in the present research, rarely do empirical studies consider satisfaction without measuring performance. Recently, researchers (Chacko, 1983; Champoux, 1981) have suggested that an individual's level of self-esteem affects the relationship between work and nonwork.

Self-Consistency Theory

The consistency approach to work motivation has its roots in the theory of cognitive dissonance and provides a theoretical framework which guides in predicting the conditions under which people are motivated to achieve (Korman, 1977). Simply stated, cognitive dissonance occurs as a negative motivational state when cognition A does not follow from cognition B. Individuals eliminate this dissonant motivational state by changing their cognitions and the behavior leading to cognitions so that they are consonant. In essence, if a person is used to performing poorly and then performs well on a task, cognitive dissonance may occur. To reduce the dissonant state, the individual may try to change his behavior on the task to match his expectancy which is based on self-competence. Thus, consistency is an important motivating influence in organizational behavior.

Self-consistency theory places heavy emphasis on self-evaluation and self-perception. According to Korman (1970,

p. 32), "all other things being equal, individuals will engage in and find satisfying those behavioral roles which will maximize their sense of cognitive balance or consistency." Thus, self-esteem becomes a potential moderating variable in the work environment. Korman (1977) stated that work environments with a hierarchical authority structure, routinization of activities, and specialization of job tasks will encourage the growth of low self-esteem. Conversely, democratic work environments, not specialized or routinized, will allow self-esteem to increase. The democratic environment is less likely to produce differences in behavior for low self-esteem individuals.

Dimensions of Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is defined by Korman (1970) as the extent to which an individual sees himself as a competent, need-satisfying individual. Coopersmith (1967) further elaborated on the definition as

...the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to the self. It expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval, and indicates the extent to which the individual believes the self to be capable, significant, successful and worthy (p. 4-5).

Self-esteem is differentiated from self-concept, the latter referring to the conscious perceptions an individual has of himself, rather than the evaluation of such perceptions (Tharenou, 1979).

Three dimensions of self-esteem help define it as a potential moderating variable in work-context studies.

Chronic self-esteem is one's enduring self-evaluation (Lopez, 1982). It is a relatively persistent personality dimension which occurs across various situations. Task-specific self-esteem is one's self-perceived competence concerning a particular task or job. Social self-esteem is a self-evaluation resulting from the expectations and evaluations of a person by others. Korman (1970) explained:

These variables, when presented as relative to the level at which the individual is currently working, will tend to operate in a manner designed to increase the individual's sense of self-competence in the given work situation; and hence, hypothetically, increase the level of work motivation so that it is congruent with the increasingly valued self-image (p. 34).

Lopez (1982) tested the self-consistency theory utilizing self-esteem as a potential moderating variable in the satisfaction/performance relationship. The finding supported Korman's prediction that the job performance/job satisfaction correlations were significantly stronger for high self-esteem persons than for low self-esteem persons. Results indicated that the manner in which self-esteem moderated depended on the subject's sex, the facet of job satisfaction measures, and the dimension of self-esteem measured. Chronic self-esteem did not moderate the relationship. Task-specific self-esteem was the strongest moderator for males in overall satisfaction. Social self-esteem was the strongest moderator for females in overall job satisfaction.

The relationship between role stressors and self-esteem was examined by Mossholder et al. (1981). High self-esteem

individuals (as opposed to those with low self-esteem) tend to rely less on their job environments and more on their own self-perceptions to guide their work behavior (Tharenou, 1979). Since by definition, role conflict and ambiguity are generated largely by environmental events or actions external to an individual, high self-esteem employees would be expected to be less vulnerable and low self-esteem employees, more vulnerable to the negative effects induced by role stressors. Results of the Mossholder et al. (1981) research confirmed that high self-esteem attenuated the adverse impact of role ambiguity, but not conflict, on job satisfaction. High self-esteem mitigated the role conflict/job performance relationship.

The debate on which type of self-esteem to measure perpetuates. Task-specific self-esteem is generally the measurement of choice since other work- or job-related behaviors are hypothesized to be related to or moderated by self-esteem. Stake (1979) found the task-specific measure to be more sensitive than a global measure. McIntyre and Levine (1984) found the correlations between the two measures to be significant, but low ($r=.42$). Lopez (1982) found a correlation of ($r=.28$) for chronic and task-specific self-esteem, and Ryckman, Robbins, Thornton, and Cantrell (1982) found a correlation of ($r=.32$). Contrarily, Greenhaus and Badin (1974) found no correlation ($r=-.03$). Thus, the two types of self-esteem seem to be independent.

Popular emphasis on enhancement of the individual self-concept provides a basis for continuing the investigation of self-esteem as a moderating variable. "Job satisfaction and self-esteem are conceptually distinguishable concepts but psychometrically related" (Tharenou, 1979, p. 338). Persons who differ in chronic global self-esteem may also exhibit differences in job satisfaction and levels of role stress. Lopez (1982) encouraged further research which studies the manner in which the variables may fit together in a model which explains and predicts job-related relationships with greater precision and certainty.

Career Stage as a Moderating Variable

The relationship of individual career stages or organizational level with affective and behavioral work-related variables has become a frequent focus of organizational behavior research. The career stage literature indicates that career stage affects role stressors, job satisfaction, and job performance. Studies on organizational career stages and socialization processes indicate that individuals progress through distinct stages in their organizational careers, with each stage including specific developmental needs for the individual (Hall & Nougaim, 1968). However, little is known about the implications of career stages or organizational levels in human resource management. Perhaps knowledge of the operative career levels and how they vary in relation to employee behaviors

and attitudes can be an aid in further explaining the organizational outcome variables such as intent to leave or turnover.

Description of Career Stages
and Organizational Levels

Hall and Nougaim (1968) proposed three career stages which have produced support and consistent results. These three stages are time- rather than age-linked, with the establishment stage less than or equal to two years in the occupation, the advancement stage from two to ten years, and the maintenance stage greater than 10 years (Mount, 1984).

The establishment stage primarily fosters organization and peer acceptance, develops confidence, and builds skills (Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Schein, 1978). Pay is important in the establishment stage but it becomes less important at each ascending management level (Belcher, 1974). Thus, during the establishment stage, the most salient needs appear to be related to the work itself, acceptance of peers and the organization, and pay.

During the advancement stage, employees are most concerned with establishing their independence, mastering the job, achievement, and moving upward in the organization (Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Schein, 1978). The greatest promotion opportunities are available during the advancement stage and this goal is given high priority. As a result,

satisfaction with pay, the work itself, and peer relationships become less important.

The maintenance stage is characterized by a leveling off in opportunities for promotion, and pay may become important as a validation of an individual's self-worth (Gould & Hawkins, 1978). Organizational ties are strengthened as a result of less competition during the maintenance stage. It is during this stage that employees become concerned for peer professional development and they may participate as mentors in mentoring relationships (Hall & Nougaim, 1968; Schein, 1978).

Retail organizations have a very clearly specified hierarchy of organizational career levels, namely entry, middle, and upper level executives. While an employee may have been with the company for 15 years, his position could be a middle management position; classification by career stage places the employee in the maintenance stage. Thus, career stage and organizational level do not necessarily progress simultaneously. Career stages, being time-linked, differ from organizational levels, which are responsibility- or accomplishment-linked. Because position titles in retail organizations are indicative of the management level and turnover between companies during one's career is frequent, organizational level seems the variable of most interest. On the other hand, it is very common to find "career" sales managers or "career" buyers in retail organizations. These people would remain at the same management level as they

progressed through the various career stages. Perhaps then, career stage would be more prudent to explore so the work environment could be evaluated from that perspective.

Career Stage/Organizational Level Research

Stumpf and Rabinowitz (1981) explored the moderating effect of career stage on relationships of performance with facets of job satisfaction and role perceptions of full-time faculty members. Satisfaction with promotion was significantly stronger in the advancement stage than in the establishment or maintenance stages. Satisfaction with pay and co-workers was stronger and more positive in the maintenance stage than in the advancement stage. However, the hypothesized relationship for satisfaction with co-workers in the establishment stage was not supported. The role ambiguity relationship was strong and negative in the establishment stage, weak in the advancement stage, and strong and positive in the maintenance stage.

Again, career stage was found to be a moderating variable of job satisfaction in a study of managers in a multinational corporation (Mount, 1984). Satisfaction was assessed in relation to the factors of supervision, pay, company practices, work, and career development. The five factors explained 48 percent of the variance in job satisfaction. Managers in the establishment stage were significantly more satisfied than managers in the advancement and maintenance stage on all factors except the work factor.

Data from a national sample of industrial salespeople were examined to determine the influence of career stages on job attitudes, work perceptions and performance (Cron & Slocum, 1986). Salespeople in the establishment stage exhibited the least satisfaction with work, supervisor, and promotion. The advancement and maintenance stages were similar in job satisfaction level.

When managerial levels were examined, upper level marketers were significantly more committed to the organization than either the middle or lower level marketers (Hunt, Chonko, & Wood, 1985). In addition, upper level marketers perceived more autonomy, variety, job identity, and job feedback than lower and middle marketers. Implications from these findings provide input for job design whereby the type of jobs needed to optimize career development at each level may be identified (Brousseau, 1983). Utilizing a sample of 2046 bank employees, Beehr and Drexler (1986) investigated whether three variables (social support, autonomy, and hierarchical level) moderated the relationships between role stressors and employee outcomes. Moderator effects were present but not statistically significant. Nevertheless, Beehr and Drexler (1986) concluded that social support, autonomy, and hierarchical level, as well as role stressors, were directly related to job satisfaction and job search intent, regardless of the absence of moderating effects.

Ivancevich and Donnelly (1974) studied the relationship of role ambiguity with job satisfaction facets, physical stress and job tension for salesmen, supervisors, and operating employees. Differences in the three organizational levels emerged. To salesmen, the highest correlation was between role ambiguity and autonomy satisfaction ($r=.61$). Role ambiguity was highly correlated with physical stress ($r=-.71$) for supervisors and with job tension ($r=-.78$) for operating employees.

The literature provides support for the use of career stage or organizational level as moderating variables in work environment relationships. Researchers identified the need for additional research in order to compare results across different occupations (Gould & Hawkins, 1978; Mount, 1984). The effect of career stage or hierarchical level was suggested as a moderating effect for work-family conflict (Bhagat, 1983; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). No studies have been conducted investigating the hypothesized relationships in retail management environments. The dynamic nature of retailing indicates the supposition that knowledge of the different needs at different stages or levels may be helpful in the retention of quality employees.

The literature reviewed yielded no unequivocal conclusion that either career stage or hierarchical level was the superior classification method. The stages described by career models depict employees as having different work-related needs and values at different points in time.

The managerial level models indicate that employees' work-related needs vary as a function of their level of achievement and job demands in the organization.

Summary

Recent studies of employee turnover have examined organizational commitment and behavioral intentions as critical factors in the decision to leave a company. These two constructs have produced consistently stronger relationships to turnover than job satisfaction. Moreover, most models view behavioral intentions as primary determinants of turnover behavior with job attitudes, especially job satisfaction, as salient precursors of behavioral intentions (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1979).

The inconsistent and inconclusive results from study to study and sample to sample and the high percentage of unexplained variation still present in theoretical models predicated the continuation of this research vein. Understanding the relationships between variable sets and identifying new variables which augment the explanatory power of the models will contribute to the manager's development of preventive strategies which increase employee retention.

Organizational role stressors and their antecedents and consequences have been widely studied. The results of this review indicates that there are more numerous antecedents than consequences of role stressors. This is further complicated by the impact of individual differences on the

perception of role variables. Consequences of role stressors, on the other hand, are fewer in number and have been more consistently investigated. Furthermore, causal analyses have been conducted in an attempt to explain the sequencing of variables resulting from role stress.

While the research reviewed suggests that work and nonwork are empirically related to one another, the nature of the relationship is not at all clear. The correlational nature of the research to date precludes clear assignment of causality. Continued research is necessary to develop a theoretical base. At that point, research will have new meaning and direction and more rigorous studies will be undertaken.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

The purpose of the study was to examine the sequential relationships among employee self-esteem, role conflict, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, job commitment, and intent to leave the organization. A second purpose was to determine whether the relationships between the variables differed across organizational level (upper, middle, entry). A review of the current literature supported the existence of significant relationships among these variables. The majority of studies exploring these relationships have queried industrial salesmen, clerical help, or hospital workers. Few investigations have included retail personnel, especially retail managers. The dynamic nature of the retail executive's position lends credence to this pursuit.

Intent to leave the organization served as the surrogate for turnover and was the dependent variable in the study. Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict were the independent variables. Self-esteem and management level were viewed as moderator variables of the relationships among the independent variables. Other independent

variables included age, education, tenure, income, and marital status.

The first section of this chapter describes the research design used for the study. The second section describes the population and sample selected for the study. Next, methods of data collection are described, followed by a discussion of the research instrument. Measures of reliability are discussed for each sub-scale on the instrument. The fourth section contains a statement of the operational hypotheses and the final section addresses the statistical procedures appropriate to test the hypotheses.

Description of the Research Design

The research design used for this study was the sample survey.

A survey is a method of collecting information about a human population in which direct contact is made with the units of the study (individuals, organizations, communities) through such systematic means as questionnaires and interview schedules. (Warwick & Lininger, 1975, p. 2)

A sample survey then, consists of surveying a portion of the population chosen to represent the whole population.

The survey is an appropriate and efficient means of data collection when quantitative data are sought. Also, when the respondents are familiar with the information sought, and when the researcher has prior knowledge of the particular problems and the range of responses likely to emerge, the survey is a suitable research design (Warwick & Lininger, 1975).

Survey research designs are often limited to descriptive results; however, correlational findings can be reported when questions which are intervally scaled are used. In addition, causal inferences can be made from data collected through the survey if previously-researched, a priori relationships are arranged temporally. Since this study is cross-sectional rather than longitudinal, causal relationships may only be suggested, not supported.

Population and Sample

The population for the study included executives employed by major, multi-unit retail department stores located in the South Central United States. Those states included in the population were Texas, Kansas, Missouri, Oklahoma, Arkansas, Louisiana, Arizona, and New Mexico. These states were included in the study because of a high concentration of multi-unit retailers and the convenient proximity to the research institution. In addition, the researcher was aware, from previous work experience, that large department stores in that area of the country consider voluntary turnover of managers a dysfunctional problem.

A volunteer sample was deemed appropriate to fulfill the objectives of the study. Three retail companies from different national corporations were selected by the researcher. Initially, the Vice-President of Personnel in each of the three companies was contacted via telephone to explain the purpose and nature of the study. When favorable

response was obtained from all three companies, a packet of information was mailed to each for final approval (Appendix A). Included in the packet were 1) a cover letter to the Vice-President explaining the scope of the study and a request for names of executives; 2) the proposed cover letter from the researcher to the executives; 3) a proposed letter from the company Vice-President of Personnel which would accompany the researcher letter in the questionnaire mail-out; 4) a brief justification of the research problem; 5) objectives of the study; 6) the empirical model being tested; and 7) a rough draft of the research instrument.

The initial letter also indicated that the researcher would telephone the Vice-President approximately 10 days later to answer questions and obtain approval to conduct the study. When the follow-up contacts were made, one company, while interested in the study, declined to participate because the corporate office at the company was going to conduct a similar survey within a year. The other two companies agreed to participate and send rosters of executives, as requested. To maintain the anonymity of the participating companies, they are hereafter referred to as Company 1 and Company 2. Four divisions of Company 1, having stores in Arkansas, Oklahoma, Texas, Louisiana, and New Mexico participated in the study. Company 2 stores were located in Texas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona.

Methods of Data Collection

After names and store addresses were secured for sample units from both companies, questionnaires were printed. Company 1 questionnaires were printed on ivory paper while Company 2 questionnaires were printed on blue paper so that responses from the two companies were easily distinguishable for data entry. Each Vice-President of Personnel prepared a letter to his/her executives and mailed it to the researcher for duplicating.

Data collection began in late June and was completed in early September. Each questionnaire was assigned a five-digit code number for followup purposes. Questionnaires were mailed to 698 executives from Company 1 and 464 executives from Company 2, for a total of 1162 executives from the two companies. Included in each envelope was a cover letter from the researcher, a letter from the Vice-President of Personnel, a questionnaire, and a self-addressed stamped return envelope (Appendix B). Responses were to be returned directly to the researcher rather than to the company to prevent possible bias of the responses.

The company executives were given two weeks to return the questionnaire. Those not responding after the third week were mailed a second group of identical materials. The only difference between the two mailings was the addition of an insert in the second mailing. The insert was printed on contrasting-colored paper and inserted so that the executive would see it first as the material was unfolded after

opening the envelope (Appendix B). Again, the executives were given a two-week period to return the questionnaires. The third week was designated as the cut-off point for data collection.

Instrumentation

A consideration of the study purposes and the sample desired guided an intensive search of the literature for suitable measurement instruments. The review yielded previously tested, reliable and valid instruments with which to measure self-esteem, role conflict, role ambiguity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave.

Reliability of instruments is of particular importance in social science research since much of the data are collected via survey methods. Synonyms for reliability are dependability, stability, consistency, predictability, and accuracy. It is possible to approach the definition of reliability by asking the question: If we measure the same set of objects again and again with the same or a comparable measuring instrument, will we get the same or similar results? This question implies the most prevailing definition of reliability in stability, dependability, and predictability terms (Kerlinger, 1973).

A second approach to defining reliability is capsulized by the question: Are measures obtained from a measuring instrument the "true" measures of the construct measured?

This is an accuracy definition. The third approach to the definition of reliability asks the question: How much error of measurement is there in a measuring instrument? Since the source of unreliability is measurement error (Peter, 1979), it is imperative to consider this perspective of the reliability definition. To the extent that errors of measurement are present in a measuring instrument, the instrument is unreliable. In short, reliability can be defined as the relative absence of errors of measurement in a measuring instrument.

Reliability is expressed in terms of reliability coefficients. Richardson & Kuder (1939, p. 68) stated that "...the reliability coefficient is defined as the coefficient of correlation between one experimental form of a test and a hypothetically equivalent form." They earlier expressed that "...reliability is the characteristic of a test possessed by virtue of the positive intercorrelations of the items composing it" (Kuder & Richardson, 1937, p. 159).

Numerous instruments existed to measure each construct of interest in the study. Following is a description of the selected instruments and a report of reliability coefficients for each measure.

Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity. As the literature review emphasized, role conflict is comprised of various types of conflict including intra-sender, inter-sender, person-role, inter-role, and role-overload (Kahn et al., 1964). Role ambiguity consists of the predictability of the

outcomes and the existence or clarity of behavioral requirements (Rizzo et al., 1970). The role conflict/ambiguity instrument developed by Rizzo et al. (1970) was chosen as the appropriate measure of the constructs. The initial scale consisting of 15 conflict items and 14 ambiguity items was developed to measure role ambiguity and all types of role conflict. Kuder-Richardson internal consistency reliabilities were .816 to .820 for role conflict and .780 to .808 for role ambiguity. Schuler et al. (1977) examined the measure and found that the scales demonstrated internal consistency reliability exceeding .70 as well as concurrent validity. The 29 items from the instrument are listed in Appendix C. Executives responded on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "very false" (1) to "very true" (7).

Work-Family Conflict. The desire to isolate work-family conflicts from other conflicts prompted a search for an acceptable measure. Fournier (1981) developed an instrument (PROFILES) to measure family life and employment stressors. Scale reliabilities, as calculated by Cronbach's alpha, were reported from .57 to .79 for subscales of the instrument (Engelbrecht, 1983). Because work-family conflict was important, but not one of the major variables of interest, and due to the length of the PROFILES questionnaire, 13 questions from the instrument (Appendix C) were adapted to measure work-family conflict in the present

study. Responses varied from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (4).

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured by the Job Description Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). The JDI (Appendix C) measures satisfaction with five facets of the job: the work itself (18 items), pay (9 items), promotions (9 items), supervision (18 items), and co-workers (18 items). The items in each of the subscales were summed to yield five facet scores. An overall job satisfaction score was obtained by summing all 72 items in the measure. Scores could range from a low of 72 to a high of 360. The response format for the original JDI was Yes/?/ No (Smith et al., 1969). Johnson, Smith, and Tucker (1982) conducted a comparison test of the original response format and a five-point Likert-type format ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). Coefficients alpha for the Yes/?/No format ranged from .81 to .89. The Likert-type format produced coefficients alpha of .81 to .92. No real advantage of one response format over the other in terms of internal consistency, stability, and independence over time was evidenced. Thus, the Likert-type format was used for this study because it was consistent with other scales on the questionnaire. Not only is the JDI the most commonly used measure of job satisfaction (O'Connor, Peters, & Gordon, 1978) but it is also "...the most commonly used measure of satisfaction in research that compares the

relative strength of relationships between turnover and both commitment and satisfaction" (p.191).

Organizational Commitment. Mowday et al. (1979) developed the 15-item measure of organizational commitment used in the study (Appendix C). Subjects responded to a seven-point Likert-type scale with anchors labeled "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). Again, responses were summed for the 15 items to provide an organizational commitment score. Coefficients alpha have been consistently high for the instrument, ranging from .82 to .93 over a broad difference in research samples.

Intent to Leave. Four questions developed by Mitchell (1981) formed the intent to leave index (Appendix C). The coefficient alpha reliability was .64 in the initial study. The subjects responded to a five-point Likert-type scale with anchors ranging from "not accurate at all" (1) to "extremely accurate" (5). The present study used a seven-point response format with different anchors (strongly disagree to strongly agree). This decision was made because of the desire to disguise the intent to leave questions. Intent to leave items were interspersed with the organizational commitment items.

Self-Esteem. A short, general index of self-esteem was designed by Rosenberg (1965). The 10-item measure (Appendix C) has a response format with four choices ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The reliability

estimate for the scale, using the Guttman procedure, was .92. A global measure of self-esteem was chosen for the present study because the researcher was interested in determining if self-esteem moderated not only the work environment, but work-family conflict as well.

Organizational Level. Participants in the study were presorted by job title into entry, middle, and upper managers as defined by the two companies. Entry level positions included executive trainee, assistant buyer, area sales manager, and senior assistant buyer. Middle management positions included such positions as buyer, department manager, divisional trainer, and merchandise analyst. Upper level management positions included divisional merchandise manager, store manager, vice-president, personnel director.

Demographic Variables. Information was also collected for total years of retail management experience, tenure with present company, tenure in present position, age, education, marital status, sex, and income (optional).

Operational Hypotheses

Specific hypotheses were developed from the research objectives outlined in Chapter I. The following operational hypotheses, stated in the null form, pertain to the relationships between intent to leave the organization and the study variables of role conflict, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, and organizational

commitment. Self-esteem and organizational level were also investigated as moderators of the relationships.

I. There will be no significant correlation between the dependent variable intent to leave and the following independent variables: role conflict, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, self-esteem, organizational level, age, education, tenure, income, or marital status.

II. There will be no significant difference in the path analytic model of the current study and the Wunder, et al. (1982) model (see Figure 1, p. 10)..

III. There will be no significant difference by a) organizational level and b) level of self-esteem in the means of the following dependent variables: intent to leave, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict.

IV. There will be no difference in the path model of the current study when analyzed by a) each organizational level (entry, middle, or upper) and b) each level of self-esteem (high or low).

Statistical Analysis of the Data

The demographic data were summarized by using descriptive statistics and measures of central tendency. This summary pertained to age, education, sex, income, tenure, organizational level, spouses' work status, and marital status.

Correlational Analyses. In order to investigate bivariate relationships between the independent and dependent variables (Hypothesis I), correlational analyses were used. Correlations describe the degree to which variables relate to each other; they measure the strength of the association between two variables. The Pearson's correlation coefficient, a parametric technique, requires continuous data and was used to measure the association between intent to leave and role stressors, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Because Pearson's product-moment correlation technique is robust to violations of assumptions, it was also used to determine the relationship between intent to leave and age, education, sex, income, tenure, marital status, organizational level, and self-esteem (Baker, Hardyck, & Petrinovich, 1966).

Analysis of Variance (AOV). When investigating differences between two or more groups, analysis of variance, an inferential statistic, is an appropriate statistical procedure. Analysis of variance seeks to determine if the means of the groups are different enough to be attributed to other than sampling error. One assumption of AOV is that interval data are obtained from the measuring instrument. The data collected from the Likert-type scale format were treated as interval data.

Since three organizational levels were represented by the respondents, organizational level was treated as the independent variable and one-way AOV's were performed for

each of the dependent variables of role conflict, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, organizational level, and intent to leave (Hypothesis III). The procedure was repeated, with self-esteem level serving as the independent variable (Hypothesis III). If significant differences existed, Tukey's HSD post hoc test was used to determine where the differences actually occurred.

Path Analyses. Since the major purpose of the study was to test the Wunder et al. (1982) model, path analysis was the appropriate procedure to employ (Hypothesis II). Multiple regression analyses were run initially to obtain the beta weights which were necessary to complete the equation for the path diagram.

Path analysis is designed to test a theoretical (causal) model. The objective of path analysis is not to prove the causal relationships but to establish support or non-support for the a priori model (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973). Relying on the results of past research and current theory, the researcher designs a causal model which is written as a set of predictive structural equations which represent the causal processes assumed to operate among the variables being examined. In addition, a path diagram is drawn to graphically indicate the a priori relationships. In short, the path model or diagram makes explicit the researcher's best judgment about the causal structure by which the variables are interconnected.

The outcome of the empirical testing process is either the support or reformulation of the causal model. "The inadequacies of the model should precipitate a reconstruction of the substantive theory that generated the causal model at the outset" (Land, 1969, p. 4).

A geneticist, Sewall Wright, developed the method of path analysis (or path coefficients) and described it as

...a method of measuring the direct influence along each separate path in such a system and thus finding the degree to which variations of a given effect is determined by each particular cause. The method depends on the combination of knowledge of the degree of correlation among the variables in a system with such knowledge as may be possessed of the causal relations. In cases where causal relations are uncertain, the method can be used to find the logical consequences of any particular hypothesis in regard to them (Wright, 1921, p. 557).

Separate path analyses were conducted for each of the three organizational levels and compared to see if differences existed between them and in relation to the empirical model (Hypothesis IV). For self-esteem, subjects were dichotomized into high and low self-esteem levels and separate path analyses were performed for each level to identify differences that may exist (Hypothesis IV).

The SPSSX statistical program at the Oklahoma State University Computer Center was used to analyze the data pertaining to specific hypotheses. In addition to the procedures described in the preceding paragraphs, factor analyses were applied to each scale from the questionnaire to determine the dimensional stability of the items comprising the scale. Reliability for each scale was

established by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients, measures of internal consistency. Knowledge of reliability coefficients for the instruments provides support for further use of the instruments in organizational research and future directions for scale development.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of the study was to examine the temporal relationships among employee role conflict, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave the organization as presented in the Wunder et al. (1982) path analytic model. The intent was to determine whether the relationships reported for the model were sustained with a different sample. A second purpose of the study was to assess whether the relationships varied across three levels of retail executives (entry, middle, upper). Self-esteem was examined as a moderating variable.

Response Rate

The data reported for the study came from a self-administered questionnaire mailed to 1162 retail executives from two companies. This represented a purposive convenience sample consisting of executives from entry, middle, and upper organizational levels.

The initial mailing of 1162 questionnaires resulted in 460 responses, representing a 39.6 percent response rate. Seven hundred two follow-up questionnaires were mailed three

weeks after the initial mailing and elicited 135 additional responses, yielding a total response rate of 51.2 percent. This included 383 of 698 (54.9%) executives from Company 1 and 212 of 464 (45.7%) executives from Company 2. The response rate was deemed acceptable and close to the 54 percent response rate achieved in the Wunder, et al. (1982) research. Response rates for entry, middle, and upper levels were 49.5, 49.8, and 65.8 percents, respectively.

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 595 retail executives from two national, multi-unit retailers. Table I presents a summary of selected background characteristics of the retail executives that comprised the sample. Entry level executives comprised 61.8 percent of the sample, totalling 368. One-fourth of the sample was classified as middle level managers (150), and 77 employees (13%) were classified as upper level executives. The distribution of the sample was consistent with the pyramid structure of most companies.

Approximately three-fourths of the respondents were female (413 females compared to 180 males) with two persons declining to report their sex. Table I illustrates that when viewed by organizational level, women were the largest segments in the entry and middle levels. Conversely, males comprised the highest percentage of representation in the upper level of management.

TABLE I
SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

Variable	Managerial Level						Total	
	Entry		Middle		Upper			
	f ^a	%	f ^a	%	f ^a	%	f ^a	%
Organizational Level (N=595)	368	61.9	150	25.2	77	12.9	595	100.0
Sex (N=593)								
Female	291	79.3	103	68.7	19	25.0	413	69.6
Male	76	20.7	47	31.3	57	75.0	180	30.4
Age (N=593)								
20-29	229	62.6	64	42.7	9	11.7	302	50.9
30-39	75	20.5	58	38.7	40	51.9	173	29.2
40-49	25	6.8	15	10.0	18	23.4	58	9.8
50-59	28	7.7	11	7.3	10	13.0	49	8.3
Over 60	9	2.5	2	1.3	-	-	11	1.9
Education (N=590)								
Some high school	4	1.1	1	.7	-	-	5	.8
High school diploma	43	11.8	4	2.7	-	-	47	8.0
Some business/technical school	19	5.2	6	4.0	3	4.0	28	4.7
Some college	68	18.6	20	13.3	9	12.0	97	16.4
Business/technical degree	14	3.8	1	.7	4	5.3	19	3.2
College degree	203	55.6	109	72.7	52	69.3	364	61.7
Masters or higher	14	3.8	9	6.0	7	9.3	30	5.1
Income (N=551)								
Below \$15,000	10	2.9	-	-	-	-	10	1.8
\$15,001-\$20,000	242	69.9	3	2.2	-	-	245	44.5
\$20,001-\$30,000	89	25.7	66	47.5	2	3.0	157	28.5
\$30,001-\$40,000	4	1.2	44	31.7	21	31.8	69	12.5
\$40,001-\$50,000	-	-	20	14.4	24	36.4	44	8.0
\$50,001-\$60,000	1	1.0	5	3.6	10	15.2	16	2.9
\$60,001-\$70,000	-	-	1	.7	5	7.6	6	1.1
Over \$70,000	-	-	-	-	4	6.1	4	.7
Marital Status (N=594)								
Married	188	51.2	101	67.3	57	74.0	346	58.2
Single	143	39.0	36	24.0	10	13.0	189	31.8
Divorced	33	9.0	11	7.3	10	13.0	54	9.1
Widowed	3	.8	2	1.3	-	-	5	.8
Spouses Work Status (N=362)								
Not working	21	10.4	16	15.5	22	38.6	59	16.3
Career	153	75.7	79	76.7	28	49.1	260	71.8
Just-a job	28	13.9	8	7.8	7	12.3	43	11.9
Total Retail Experience (N=594)								
< 2 years	80	21.8	2	1.3	1	1.3	83	13.9
2-5 years	142	38.7	44	29.3	8	10.4	194	32.7
6-10 years	97	26.4	57	38.0	26	33.8	180	30.3
> 10 years	48	13.1	47	31.3	42	54.5	137	23.0
Total Years This Company (N=595)								
< 2 years	162	44.0	24	16.0	12	15.6	198	33.3
2-5 years	163	44.3	63	42.0	24	31.2	250	42.0
6-10 years	27	7.3	43	28.7	36	46.8	106	17.8
> 10 years	16	4.3	20	13.3	5	6.5	41	6.9
Years This Position (N=594)								
< 2 years	246	67.0	86	57.3	35	45.5	367	61.8
2-5 years	99	27.0	46	30.7	27	35.1	172	29.0
6-10 years	17	4.6	10	6.7	12	15.6	39	6.6
> 10 years	5	1.4	8	5.3	3	3.9	16	2.7

^af is the frequency of responses.

In general, the sample was young, with over half of the respondents representing the 20 to 29 age bracket. Over 80 percent of the respondents were under 40 years of age. In addition, the sample was well-educated. Almost all of the respondents had finished high school, with 64.9 percent having completed college, business/technical school, or an advanced college degree. Only five respondents had not completed high school.

The question relating to income was designated as optional on the questionnaire; however, only 44 (7.4%) respondents declined to indicate their income range. The greatest proportion of salaries (44.5%) were in the \$15,001-\$20,000 range which was expected due to the greater proportion of entry level executives in the study. Nearly 80 percent of the middle level executives were making \$20,001-\$40,000, while over 80 percent of the upper level executives were making \$30,001-\$60,000.

Concerning marital status, over half (58.2%) of the sample were married with the remainder being single (31.8%), divorced (9.1%), or widowed (.8%). Seventy-two percent of the married respondents had spouses with careers. Sixteen percent indicated that their spouse was not employed and only 11.9 percent reported that their spouse was employed at "just a job." Entry and middle managers reported the highest percentages of spouses with careers and upper level executives reported the highest proportion of spouses who did not work and spouses with "just a job."

Retail experience was examined by three dimensions: total years, years with the present company, and years in the present position. The sample represented in the study was considered experienced in total years of retailing. The largest segments had from two to five years of experience (32.7%) or six to ten years of experience (30.3%). Nearly one-fourth had accumulated over 10 years of retail experience. In terms of years with the present company, 75.3 percent had less than six years experience and only seven percent had greater than 10 years experience, indicating that many of the executives were probably hired from other companies. Finally, by far the greatest percentage of executives had been in their present position for less than two years (61.8%). Only 29 percent of the executives had been in their position for two to five years. These figures imply that turnover is operative in executive positions within the two companies.

Reliability and Validity of Instruments

Because previously tested, reliable, and valid instruments were utilized in the study, it was necessary to provide reliability and validity estimations in order to contribute to the expanding information in the literature for each measure. Reliability coefficients were computed using Cronbach's alpha internal consistency technique. Construct validity was addressed by employing factor

analysis to the various instruments to determine dimensional stability.

Reliability Estimates

A regular assessment of reliability is important to the continued development and analysis of scales used in social science research. "Not only is reliability a necessity for establishing validity, but unreliable measures attenuate (lessen) the correlation between measures" (Peter, 1979, p. 6). Thus, when low correlation exists between measures of two constructs, and reliability has not been assessed, the researcher has no way of knowing whether the measures were unreliable or there was just very little relationship between the two constructs.

The Cronbach alpha procedure was used to estimate the internal consistency reliability for instruments used in the study. To overcome problems associated with the split-half reliability estimate, Cronbach alpha calculates the mean reliability coefficient for all possible ways of splitting a set of items in half. Therefore, Cronbach alpha is an estimate of the correlation expected between two scales drawn at random from a pool of items like the items in the scale actually administered (Cronbach, 1951). Churchill (1979, p. 68) stated that "coefficient alpha absolutely should be the first measure one calculates to assess the quality of the instrument."

The reliability coefficients for the constructs and subscales used in the study are summarized in Table II along with a description of other instrument characteristics such as mean and standard deviation. Coefficient alpha's ranged from a low of .80 on the satisfaction with work and self-esteem scales to a high of .95 for the overall job satisfaction scale (JDI). Recent criticism of the Rizzo et al. (1970) role conflict and role ambiguity measures has addressed the wording of some items in the scale and has resulted in an alternative measure of role conflict and role ambiguity (Tracy & Johnson, 1981). Perhaps the object of the criticism was a factor in the lower reliability estimates (.82 and .84) for those scales in the present study.

Standards of reliability vary according to the use of the instrument. For predictive studies which use measurement results to make sensitive decisions, Nunnally (1978) suggested a minimum of .90 reliability, with .95 being the desirable standard. However, for more basic research, such as the present study, reliabilities of .70 or higher are acceptable. In fact, Nunnally (1978) argued that increasing reliabilities beyond .80 is often wasteful. Increasing reliability involves adding items and reducing measurement error in other ways, a very time-consuming proposition.

All of the instruments used in the study are reliable enough to identify attitudinal trends and behavioral intentions and can be applied with confidence for the research purposes. The reliability coefficients also yielded new

TABLE II
INSTRUMENT CHARACTERISTICS

Scales	Number of Items	Possible Range	Mean	SD	Coefficient Alpha
Intent to Leave	4	7-28	19.01	5.49	.81
Organizational Commitment	15	15-105	78.20	14.56	.91
Overall Job Satisfaction	72	72-360	247.83	30.92	.95
Satisfaction with Work	18	18-90	59.81	7.59	.80
Satisfaction with Pay	9	9-45	26.30	6.46	.86
Satisfaction with Promotion	9	9-45	31.08	7.07	.92
Satisfaction with Coworkers	18	18-90	65.72	9.11	.91
Satisfaction with Supervisor	18	18-90	64.84	11.31	.91
Role Conflict	15	15-105	62.65	11.19	.82
Role Ambiguity	14	14-98	65.97	10.66	.84
Work-Family Conflict	14	14-56	43.36	6.34	.84
Self-Esteem	10	10-40	34.92	3.81	.80

data for the literature since the scales were used for a sample different from those used in previous studies. Continued use of the instruments with diverse samples will lead to further confidence in the scales or measure revision.

Construct Validity of Measures

A comprehensive technique which aids in determining dimensional stability or the presence of underlying dimensions within a larger set of items is factor analysis. Because the instruments used in the study have each been analyzed and purported to measure the appropriate construct with various samples, it was necessary to verify the structural stability of the measures with yet a different sample. Factor analysis, using the Principal Components technique with varimax rotation, was used to extract factors of each test. First, scale items were intercorrelated, resulting in a factor matrix which is simply a table of coefficients which expresses the relationships between the tests or items and the underlying factors (Kerlinger, 1973). The factor matrix is then examined for consistent conceptual or theoretical themes for which the factor may be named.

It is wise to examine the unrotated factor matrix to determine the presence of a generalized dimension of the construct. If the items load heavily on the first factor, the amount of variance explained by that first, unrotated factor should be high. Then, if the hypothesized dimensions are independent, the varimax rotation procedure, which makes

the factor structure more apparent, generates another factor matrix. At this point, factors are carefully scrutinized for dimensional stability and names are assigned to each factor. Construct validity is established when the factors explain the construct of interest as expected.

Job Descriptive Index (JDI). The JDI scale was factor analyzed in order to confirm the presence of the five theoretical factors. The analysis first extracted 14 factors from the 72 items on the JDI measure with the first factor accounting for 21 percent of the variance. However, the scree plot showed a sudden drop after five factors. Therefore, a subsequent factor analysis was run, specifying that only five factors were to be extracted. Results of the analysis appear in Table III. The five factors explained 44.2 percent of the variation in the data. The table also shows the percentage of common variation, which is the percent of the total explained variation for each factor. Communalities (h^2) estimates provided on the table indicate the amount of variation explained by the factors for each variable. Communalities are the sums of squares of the factor loadings of a variable.

The first factor was Satisfaction with Supervision which explained 10.9 percent of the total variation and about one-fourth of the common variation. Only one item from the JDI scale designated to measure supervision, "leaves me on my own," did not load on Factor I or any other factor. Further use of the scale should examine that item;

TABLE III
FACTOR ANALYSIS OF JDI^a

Item	Factor 1 Supervision	Factor 2 Co-Workers	Factor 3 Pay	Factor 4 Promotion	Factor 5 Work	h ²
Bad (R)	.73					.61
Up-to-date	.72					.57
Intelligent	.69					.52
Tactful	.66					.53
Praises good work	.65					.54
Knows job well	.64					.49
Annoying (R)	.64					.54
Influential	.62					.45
Impolite (R)	.62					.53
Tells me where I stand	.61					.45
Around when needed	.58					.43
Lazy (R)	.58					.38
Asks my advice	.55					.41
Hard to please (R)	.50					.36
Doesn't supervise enough (R)	.47					.29
Stubborn (R)	.46					.38
Quick tempered (R)	.44					.27
Lazy (R)		.75				.59
Smart		.73				.57
Slow (R)		.69				.50
Intelligent		.68				.53
Responsible		.68				.50
Boring (R)		.67				.52
Stupid (R)		.65				.49
Fast		.65				.47
Stimulating		.62				.47
Active		.62				.49
Unpleasant (R)		.61				.43
Ambitious		.61				.45
Narrow interests (R)		.57				.43
Talk too much (R)		.54				.37
Loyal		.47				.33
Easy to make enemies (R)		.43				.27
Hard to meet (R)		.43				.21
No privacy (R)		.33				.26
Underpaid (R)			.72			.54
Bad (R)			.66			.55
Barely live on income (R)			.66			.49
Income adequate for expenses			.66			.48
Highly paid			.64			.43
Income provides luxuries			.64			.43
Less than I deserve (R)			.61			.40
Insecure (R)			.61			.35
Satisfactory profit sharing			.40			.19
Good opportunity for advancement				.81		.77
Good chance for promotion				.80		.76
Regular promotions				.76		.66
Fairly good chance for promotion				.74		.66
Opportunity somewhat limited (R)				.67		.53
Infrequent promotion (R)				.67		.52
Dead-end job (R)				.63		.59
Promotion on ability				.61		.54
Unfair promotion policy (R)				.50		.47

TABLE III (Continued)

Item	Factor 1 Supervision	Factor 2 Co-Workers	Factor 3 Pay	Factor 4 Promotion	Factor 5 Work	h^2
Satisfying					.68	.61
Fascinating					.68	.51
Creative					.67	.53
Gives sense of accomplishment					.65	.61
Challenging					.64	.53
Boring (R)					.63	.46
Good					.56	.51
Useful					.55	.39
Routine (R)					.49	.28
Respected					.42	.39
Pleasant					.41	.47
Percent total explained variation	10.9	10.4	8.2	7.4	7.3	44.2
Percent common explained variation	24.7	23.5	18.6	16.7	16.5	

^aVarimax rotation was used to extract the factors.

Note: (R) indicates a reverse coded item.

h^2 indicates the communality estimate.

revision of the wording or deletion may be necessary.

Factor II added 10.4 percent explanation and all items from the Co-workers scale loaded on Factor II. The item "no privacy" loaded the weakest and also loaded on the third factor almost equally. Again, care should be taken to examine that item in subsequent studies.

Factor III explained an additional 8.2 percent variation and was named Satisfaction with Pay. All items from the JDI pay scale loaded on this factor. Satisfaction with Promotion emerged as Factor IV with all JDI promotion items loading on it. The "unfair promotion policy" loaded also on Factor I (.28) and Factor III (.27); however, the highest loading was on Factor IV. Finally, Satisfaction with Work was extracted as the fifth factor and only added 7.3 percent to the explained variation. In addition, it was the least dimensionally stable factor. Only 11 of the 18 items loaded above .35 on the factor. Three items, "hot," "on your feet," and "simple" failed to load on any factor. The item "healthful" loaded on both Factor V and Factor III, but very weakly. "Tiresome," "frustrating," and "endless" all loaded on Factor III rather than on Factor V.

While the factor analysis pointed to some potentially weak scale items, the results, in general, supported the five facet scale as developed by Smith, et al. (1969). The Satisfaction with Work scale proved to be the weakest scale in terms of both the factor analysis and the Cronbach alpha reliability estimate.

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment is a fairly unidimensional scale. Table IV indicates that two factors were extracted; however, 33.9 of the 55 percent total variation explained was derived from the first factor. Factor II basically contained items that pertained to the behavioral intention to leave the company. Factor I contained statements which indicated the strength of the relationship between the organization and the executive. Other researchers who have used the Mowday et al. (1979) scale have criticized the intent to leave statements and have chosen to use the scale without those items (Stumpf & Hartman, 1984). Several items loaded on both factors and were designated with parentheses.

Intent to Leave. Only one factor was extracted from the four-item Intent to Leave scale, and this factor explained 64.4 percent of the total variation (Table V). The unidimensionality of the scale suggests that the measure has construct validity and that it indeed does measure an individual's intent to leave the organization.

Role Conflict. The Role Conflict scale as developed by Rizzo et al. (1970), measured four dimensions of role conflict: 1) conflict between the focal person's internal standards or values and the defined role behavior (person-role); 2) conflict between the time, resources, or capabilities of the focal person and the defined role behavior; 3) conflict between several roles for the same person which

TABLE IV
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT^a

Item	Factor 1 Organizational Commitment	Factor 2 Intent to Leave	h ²
I am proud to tell others I am a part of this organization	.79		.69
Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part (R)	.74		.60
I really care about the fate of this organization	.73		.58
I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others that I was considering	.72		.61
I talk up this organization to my friends	.70	(.43)	.67
I find that my values and the organization's are very similar	.67		.55
I am willing to put in effort beyond that normally expected to help this organization be successful	.67		.46
This organization really inspires the best in me	.62	(.54)	.67
For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work	.58	(.55)	.64
I feel very little loyalty to this organization (R)	.55		.34
I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization		.54	.30
I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the work was similar (R)		.69	.51
It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization (R)	(.49)	.53	.52
There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely (R)		.71	.64
Often I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important employee matters (R)		.65	.48
Percent total explained variation	33.9	21.1	55.0
Percent common explained variation	61.6	38.4	

^aVarimax rotation was used to extract the factors. Loadings in parentheses indicate items which loaded substantially on more than one factor.

Note: (R) indicates a reverse coded item.

h² indicates the communality estimate.

TABLE V
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF INTENT TO LEAVE^a

Item	Factor 1 Intent to Leave	h ²
I plan to be with the company five years from now (R)	.88	.77
I plan to be with this company for awhile (R)	.85	.73
Sometimes I get so irritated I think about changing jobs	.75	.57
I would turn down an offer from another retailer if it came tomorrow (R)	.72	.51
Total percent explained variation	64.4	
Total common explained variation	100.0	

^aVarimax rotation was used to extract the factors.

Note: (R) indicates a reverse coded item.

h² indicates the communality estimate.

require different or incompatible behaviors; and 4) conflicting expectations or requests and incompatible standards of evaluation. Table VI shows the factor analysis results for the role conflict scale items. In general, the analysis supported the four-dimension construct of role conflict. The statement "I work under incompatible policies and guidelines" loaded on all four factors indicating that the item may pervade across all types of role conflict. The scale, as a whole, explained 54.6 percent of the variation in role conflict, with Factors I and II contributing 30.2 percent to the common variation explained.

Role Ambiguity. The factor analysis for Role Ambiguity appears in Table VII. Rizzo et al. (1970) defined two dimensions of role ambiguity present in the instrument: 1) the predictability of the outcomes or responses to behavior and 2) the existence or clarity of behavioral requirements. Two factors did emerge in the analysis, explaining 45.7 percent of the variation in role ambiguity; however, the first factor explained 64.8 percent of that amount. The only factor which did not load on Factor I in the unrotated matrix was "I am corrected or rewarded when I really do not expect it." Many of the items load on both factors, suggesting that role ambiguity may be more unidimensional than previously thought. Behavioral requirements and outcome predictability are very closely tied. Thus, the less stable second factor can be expected.

TABLE VI
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ROLE CONFLICT^a

Item	Factor 1 Conflicting Requests	Factor 2 Resource Conflict	Factor 3 Person-Role Conflict	Factor 4 Inter-Role Conflict	h^2
I work with two or more groups who operate differently	.72				.54
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people	.68				.57
I do things that are apt to be accepted one person and not accepted by others	.65				.48
I have to break a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment	.59				.47
I work under incompatible policies and guidelines	.45	(.26)	(.35)	(.30)	.47
I have enough time to complete my work (R)		.83			.71
I have just the right amount of work to do (R)		.76			.62
I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it		.64			.57
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it		.56	(.43)		.55
I perform many tasks that are too easy or boring			.81		.69
I have to do things that should be done differently			.55		.47
I work on unnecessary things			.53		.43
I receive assignments that are within my training and capability (R)				.75	.62
I perform work that suits my values (R)				.66	.62
I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with (R)				.54	.37
Percent total explained variation	16.5	16.4	11.7	10.1	54.6
Percent common explained variation	30.2	30.0	21.4	18.5	

^a Varimax rotation was used to extract the factors. Loadings in parentheses indicate items which loaded substantially on more than one factor.

Note: (R) indicates a reverse coded item.

h^2 indicates the communality estimate.

TABLE VII
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF ROLE AMBIGUITY^a

Item	Factor 1 Clarity of Behavioral Requirements	Factor 2 Predictability of Outcomes	h^2
I know what my responsibilities are (R)	.69		.51
I feel certain about how much authority I have (R)	.67		.49
I know exactly what is expected of me (R)	.66	(.43)	.63
I have to "feel my way" in performing duties	.65		.45
I do not know if my work will be acceptable to my supervisor	.65		.46
I have to work under vague directive or orders	.64	(.40)	.56
There is a lack of policies and guidelines to help me	.58		.36
There are clear planned goals and objectives for my job (R)	.53	(.44)	.48
I am uncertain as to how my job is linked to others	.52		.29
Explanation is clear as to what has to be done (R)	(.46)	.54	.51
I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion (R)	(.41)	.58	.51
I know that I have divided my time properly (R)	.34		.12
I am corrected or rewarded when I really do not expect it		-.68	.54
I am told how well I am doing my job (R)		.67	.51
Percent total explained variation	29.6	16.1	45.7
Percent common explained variation	64.8	35.2	

^aVarimax rotation was used to extract the factors. Loadings in parentheses indicate items which loaded substantially on more than one factor.

Note: (R) indicates a reverse coded item.

h^2 indicates the communality estimate.

Work-Family Conflict. One of the better scales in terms of variation explained by the scale items was the work-family conflict scale. The three factors which were extracted explain 58.3 percent of the variance in this type of conflict. The three factors were fairly independent factors and are shown in Table VIII. The first factor relates to family-related symptoms of conflict, while the third factor indicates work-related symptoms of conflict. The second factor seems to imply family contentedness with the work-family interaction. The items "I am too tired or not physically ready when I go to work" and "My spouse's job or career conflicts with mine" were the only items that loaded on two factors to any degree. The statements do have ambiguous wordings which may cause them to be related to both work and family outcomes. Since the items on this scale were selected from a much larger pool of items (Fournier, 1981), the factor analysis confirmed that these were, at least, pertinent items to measure the construct of work-family conflict.

Self-Esteem. Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale yielded two factors (Table IX) which explained 51.5 percent of the variation in self-esteem. Factor I included inner-directed self-esteem statements and explained 30.2 percent of the variation, while Factor II contained items which referred to other-directed self-esteem. Only two items, "on the whole, I am satisfied with myself" and "I take a posi-

TABLE VIII
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT^a

Item	Factor 1 Family-Related Symptoms	Factor 2 Work-Family Contentedness	Factor 3 Related-Work Symptoms	h^2
Because of my job, my family is neglected and not as close as it could be	.92			.68
There is tension created because both my spouse and I work	.75			.62
I am nervous, tense, or frustrated when I get home from work	.73			.55
My spouse and I argue about my being over-involved in my job	.72			.54
My spouse's job or career conflicts with mine	.57		(.49)	.57
The salary and benefits of my job create problems at home	.57			.46
My spouse supports and approves of my job (R)	.49			.37
I am too tired or not physically ready when I go to work	.49		(.34)	.35
I am content with my spouse's work status (R)		.92		.85
My spouse is content with his/her work status (R)		.92		.86
My family has the resources to meet our desired lifestyle (R)		.55		.41
Family problems cause loss of time at work for me			.81	.67
Personal concerns reduce my productivity at work			.79	.66
Percent total explained variation	27.4	16.4	14.5	58.3
Percent common explained variation	47.0	28.1	24.9	

^aVarimax rotation was used to extract the factors. Loadings in parentheses indicate items which loaded substantially on more than one factor.

Note: (R) indicates a reverse coded item.

h^2 indicates the communality estimate.

TABLE IX
 FACTOR ANALYSIS OF SELF-ESTEEM^a

Item	Factor 1 Inner-Directed Self-esteem	Factor 2 Other-Directed Self-esteem	h^2
I feel that I have a number of good qualities		.70	.50
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others		.72	.52
I am able to do things as well as most other people		.74	.55
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself	.56	(.51)	.57
I feel I do not have much to be proud of (R)	.58		.34
At times I think I am no good at all (R)	.78		.62
I wish I could have more respect for myself (R)	.72		.54
I certainly feel useless at times (R)	.75		.57
All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure (R)	.60		.40
I take a positive attitude toward myself	.55	(.48)	.54
Percent total explained variation	30.2	21.3	51.5
Percent common explained variation	58.6	41.4	

^aVarimax rotation was used to extract the factors. Loadings in parentheses indicated items which loaded substantially on more than one factor.

Note: (R) indicates a reverse coded item.

² h indicates the communality estimate.

tive attitude toward myself" loaded on both factors which is logical as they are more global statements of attitude.

The reported coefficient alphas of the scales used in the study and subsequent factor analysis of the scales indicate confidence in both the reliability and construct validity of the measures. Since the present sample is unique from other studies, these findings provide additional support for the continued use of the instruments and suggest specific items to monitor for deletion or revision in future research.

Testing of the Hypotheses

Four hypotheses were tested according to the procedures delineated in Chapter III. The results are reported in the following section. A discussion of the analytical results is presented with each hypothesis.

Bivariate Relationships

Hypothesis I was that there were no significant bivariate relationships between the dependent variable, intent to leave, and the independent variables of role conflict, role ambiguity, work-family conflict, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, self-esteem, organizational level, age, sex, education, tenure, income, or marital status.

The correlation matrix of the continuous variables was reproduced in Table X. Because intent to leave was the dependent variable of interest, it was set apart from the

TABLE X
PEARSON CORRELATIONS AMONG STUDY VARIABLES^a

Variables	OC	OJS	JSW	JSM	JSP	JSC	JSS	RA	RC	WF	IL ^b
<u>Work Attitudes</u>											
Organizational Commitment (OC)	-										-.82
Overall Job Satisfaction (OJS)	.75	-									-.64
Job Satisfaction-Work (JSW)	.72	.77	-								-.66
Job Satisfaction-Pay (JSM)	.51	.64	.49	-							-.47
Job Satisfaction-Promotion (JSP)	.63	.73	.52	.40	-						-.51
Job Satisfaction-Co-Workers (JSC)	.35	.70	.40	.28	.36	-					-.28
Job Satisfaction-Supervisor (JSS)	.60	.83	.54	.40	.55	.49	-				-.52
<u>Role Stressors</u>											
Role Ambiguity (RA)	-.57	-.67	-.55	-.44	-.43	-.39	-.65	-			.51
Role Conflict (RC)	-.60	-.66	-.62	-.46	-.46	-.38	-.56	.70	-		.54
Work-Family Conflict (WF)	-.41	-.48	-.54	-.44	-.23	-.29	-.33	.50	.50	-	.44
Employee Self-Esteem (SE)	.21	.28	.33	.13	.18	.15	.22	-.31	-.19	-.46	-.22

^aAll correlations were significant ($p < .01$)

^bIL = Intent to Leave

remainder of the matrix. All correlations were significant ($p < .01$). An examination of the work attitudes correlations with intent to leave indicated that all were negatively related to intent to leave. Organizational commitment produced the highest correlation ($-.82$) while satisfaction with co-workers produced the lowest ($-.28$). All work attitude variables were positively correlated with each other, as expected. The three role stressors were positively correlated with each other and negatively correlated with work attitudes, indicating that as role stress increased, positive work attitudes decreased. The relationships between role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict, and intent to leave were positive, which meant that as role stress increased, so did the intent to leave the company.

The lowest correlation coefficients were exhibited by self-esteem. Self-esteem was negatively related to intent to leave and the role stressors. Work-family conflict was the variable most highly correlated with self-esteem ($-.46$). The work attitudes were positively related to self-esteem, however, to a lesser degree than with other variables.

To test the bivariate relationships between the discrete variables and intent to leave, chi square analyses were performed. Intent to leave was reconstructed to form a discrete variable; a median split divided the executives into one group that was more likely to leave and one that was less likely to leave the company.

As executives were promoted up the hierarchical organizational structure, they became less likely to leave the company. Seventy-three percent of the upper level managers had low intent to leave, whereas over half of the entry level executives were more likely to leave the company. The lower the education attained, the less likely the employees were to leave. However, with some college or business school background, the intent to leave relationship was no longer affected by educational level.

Tenure with the organization was negatively related to intent to leave. Those executives who had been with the company over 10 years were the least likely to leave the company. Likewise, as age increased, intent to leave decreased, with the over 40-year old executives being the least likely to leave and the 20 to 29 year-old executives, the most likely to leave.

A negative association was found for income and intent to leave. The most likely to leave were making less than \$20,000, while the least likely to leave were making \$30,000 to \$70,000. Single executives were more likely to leave than either married or divorced executives. Sex did not show a significant relationship with intent to leave.

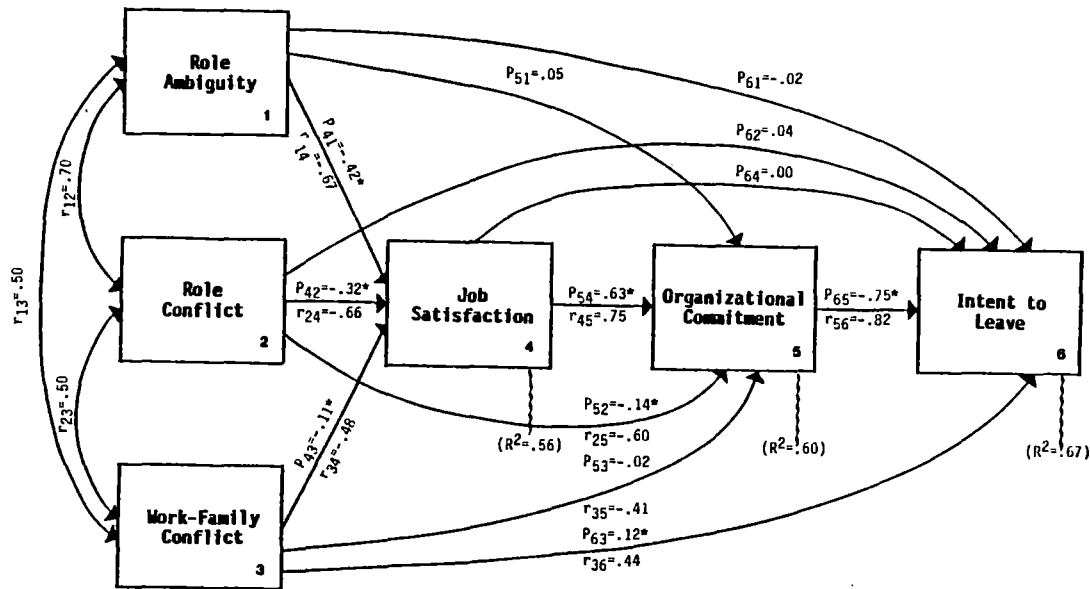
Correlations must be interpreted with great care because sample size affects the size of the correlation necessary for significance. With a sample size of 595, a significant correlation ($p < .05$) must only be .07 (Arkin & Colton, 1963). The primary purpose of assessing the

correlations in this study was to determine whether the data were relating similarly to other studies reviewed in the literature and to look for unusual relationships which were not expected. A further reason for correlational analyses of the continuous variables was to assess the existence of multicollinearity. For these data, multicollinearity did exist and was considered when performing multiple regression analyses.

The Complete Path Model

The second hypothesis indicated that there were no significant differences between the Wunder et al. (1982) model and the current study. Path analysis was employed to test the hypothesis. A path model was constructed from both endogenous and exogenous variables. Exogenous variables are not causally dependent on any other variables in the model, while endogenous variables are dependent on at least one other variable in the model. Referring to Figure 6, role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict were the exogenous variables, while job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave were the endogenous variables. The unidirectional arrows refer to postulated causal relations among the variables and extend from the determining variable to the variable dependent on it. The path model is a recursive diagram, in that no feedback loops were conceptualized. The curved arrows on the left side of the

model refer to postulated non-causal relations between the exogenous variables in the system.



* Denotes significant ($p < .01$) path coefficients

Figure 6. Full Path Model

The quantities entered on the arrows refer to two different coefficients. The r is the zero-order correlation between the two variables. This association was unanalyzed with respect to causation. Since multicollinearity was present among the variables, it is pertinent to note that to the extent that multicollinearity is present, the predictability does not improve with multiple regression. The P refers to the path coefficient with the first subscript

indicating the dependent variable and the second subscript, the independent variable. The path coefficients are actually calculated standardized regression beta weights and they measure the influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable while controlling for the other variables. The R^2 refers to the percentage of variation which was explained by the independent variables. Table XI presents a summary of the regression results which are depicted on the path diagram in Figure 6. This model was presented in order to determine whether the hypothesized model containing only the direct effect of organizational commitment and the indirect effects of role stressors and job satisfaction was the appropriate model with which to proceed.

Deletion of paths from a complex model may be approached from several perspectives. The primary guideline for path deletion is on the basis of theory and past research. Another approach is to delete those paths which do not reach statistical significance. Yet another solution is to delete paths with coefficients less than .05 (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973, p. 318).

Examination of Table XI and the full path model (Figure 6) displayed that the strongest path coefficients were indeed the hypothesized indirect effects, with the final direct linkage between organizational commitment and intent to leave which produced a strong negative path coefficient ($P=-.67$). The R^2 indicated that 67 percent of the variation

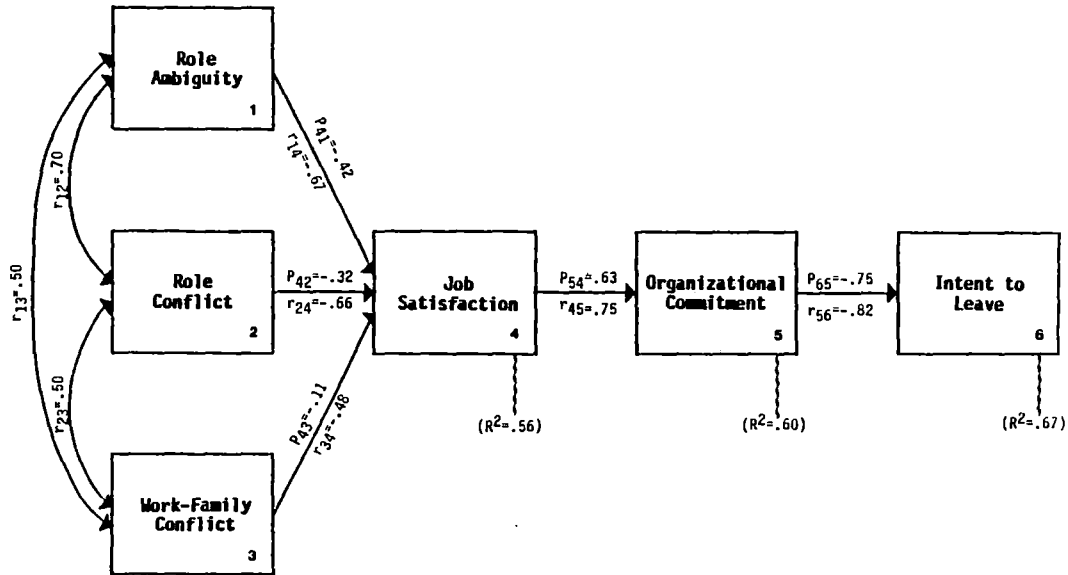
TABLE XI

MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS FOR PATH VARIABLES

Dependent Variable	Predictor Variable	Standardized Regression Coefficients	Significance Level	R ²
Intent to Leave	Organizational Commitment	-.75	.001	.67
	Job Satisfaction	-.01	NS	
	Role Ambiguity	-.02	NS	
	Role Conflict	.04	NS	
	Work-Family Conflict	.12	.001	
Organizational Commitment	Job Satisfaction	.63	.001	.60
	Role Ambiguity	-.05	NS	
	Role Conflict	-.14	.01	
	Work-Family Conflict	-.01	NS	
Job Satisfaction	Role Ambiguity	-.42	.001	.56
	Role Conflict	-.32	.001	
	Work-Family Conflict	-.11	.01	

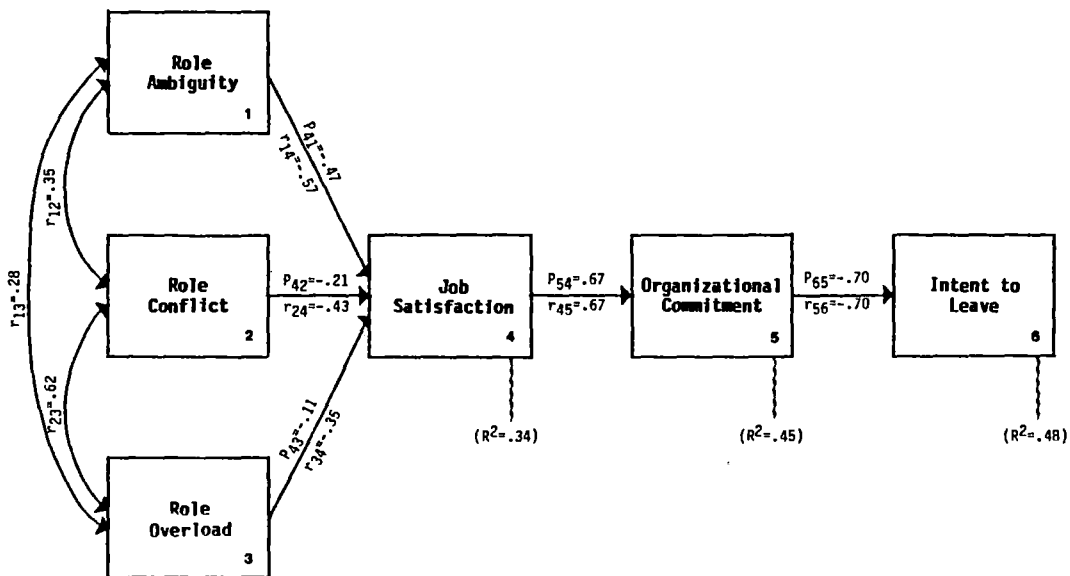
in intent to leave was explained by the individual predictor variables in the path diagram. All hypothesized paths were significant ($p < .01$). Furthermore, two of the unhypothesized direct path coefficients were significant. These direct paths were denoted by the curved, directional lines on the path diagram. Work-family conflict was positively related ($P = .12$) to intent to leave, indicating that potential leavers may also experience a dysfunctional amount of work-family conflict. Role conflict was negatively related to organizational commitment ($P = -.14$), suggesting that greater amounts of role conflict could produce weaker commitments to the organization. While the two direct path coefficients were statistically significant, beta weights were low enough to support the use of the more parsimonious, reduced path model as was used in the Wunder et al. (1982) study. Both the hypothesized reduced path model (Figure 7) and the Wunder et al. model (Figure 8) are presented.

Original correlations between the path variables were higher in the present model than in the tested model. The beta weights for the organizational commitment/intent to leave linkage and the job satisfaction/organizational commitment linkage were very similar. Even though the original correlations between role stressors and satisfaction were stronger in the present model, the beta weights for the role stressors in both models were ordinally consistent with the role ambiguity/job satisfaction linkage being the strongest.



Note: All paths are significant ($p < .01$).

Figure 7. Reduced Path Model



Note: All paths are significant ($p < .01$).

Figure 8. Wunder et al. (1982) Model

For the total sample, job satisfaction was more a function of role ambiguity than of the other role stressors. The current study yielded substantially greater explained variation results denoting that for the sample of retail executives, the hypothesized model accounted for 67 percent of the variation compared to 48 percent of the variation for the industrial managers.

When the models were further examined, explanation for some of the differences in the role stressor relationships could be presumed. The original role ambiguity/role conflict correlation was much stronger ($r=.70$) in the present model than in the Wunder model ($r=.35$). Role overload, a more general stressor dealing predominantly with time constraints, was replaced in the current study by a more specific work-family conflict variable, which may account for some of the correlational differences. Kahn et al. (1964) defined role overload as a type of role conflict which helps to explain the higher correlation in the Wunder model. The role ambiguity/job satisfaction path coefficient was weaker in the present model but the role conflict/job satisfaction relationship was stronger than in the tested model.

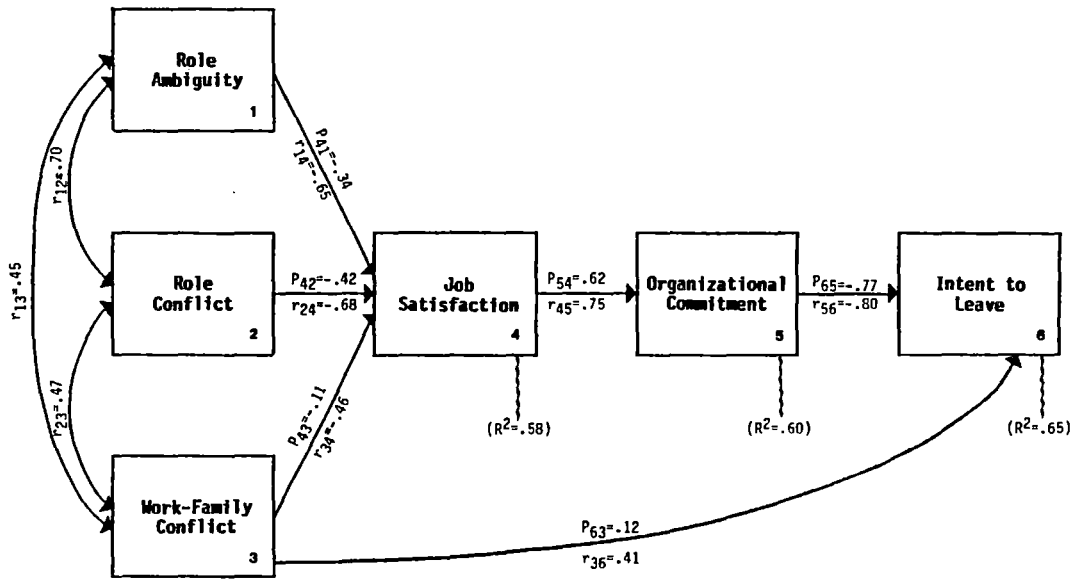
Due to the near duplication of direct relationships among the variables, the second hypothesis was supported in that there were minimal differences between the two path analytic models. The magnitude of the path coefficients may be interpreted as support for the hypothesized indirect

effect of the role stressors through job satisfaction and organizational commitment upon intent to leave. The greater amount of explained variation in the present model indicated that the model fit the retail executive data much more closely than it fit the industrial manager data.

Comparison of Path Models

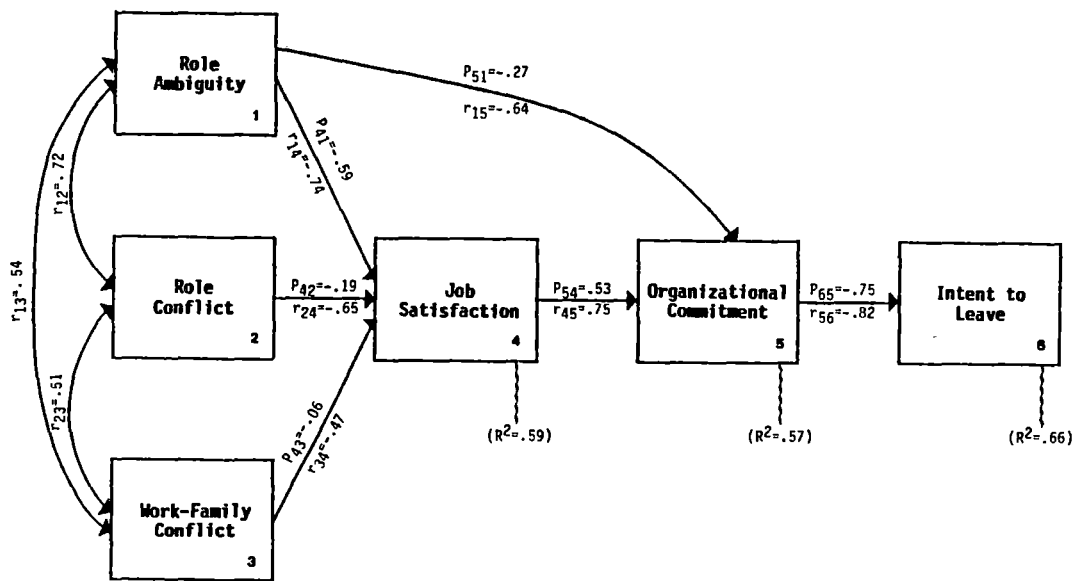
The third hypothesis asserted that there would be no difference in the path model of the current study when analyzed by a) each organizational level (entry, middle, or upper) and b) each level of self-esteem (high or low). Separate path models were constructed for each organizational level and each self-esteem level.

Figures 9, 10, and 11 depict the path diagrams for each level of executive. The entry level executives provided the highest negative beta weight ($P = -.77$) for the direct organizational commitment/intent to leave link; however, the upper level executives, with the lowest path coefficient ($P = -.62$), yielded a substantially larger R^2 . The increase in R^2 exhibited with the upper level executives resulted from three significant direct effects on intent to leave. The role ambiguity/intent to leave and the work-family conflict/intent to leave relationships were significant ($p < .05$), whereas the role conflict/intent to leave coefficient was significant to a greater degree ($p < .01$). In addition, the role conflict/organizational commitment direct path was significant ($p < .05$).



Note: All paths are significant ($p, .01$).

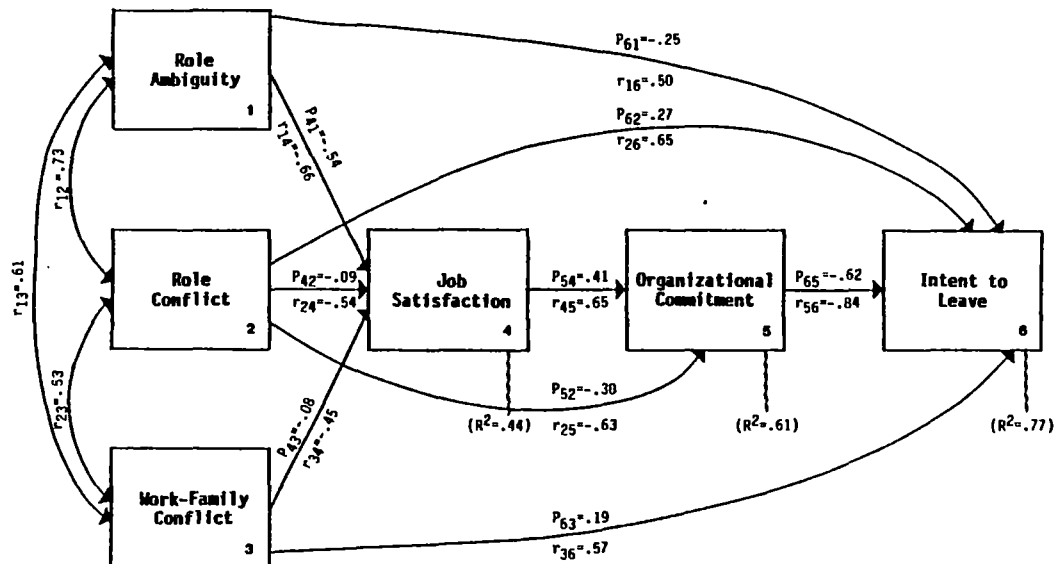
Figure 9. Path Model for Entry Level Executives



Note: All paths are significant ($p < .01$).

Figure 10. Path Model for Middle Level Executives

For the upper level managers, the role conflict/job satisfaction relationship was nearly non-existent due to the direct path effects. While the organizational commitment/intent to leave path for upper level executives remained the strongest link, the role stressors of role conflict and work-family conflict were more directly related to intent to leave than the hypothesized relationship of job satisfaction. The lower R^2 of .44 for job satisfaction was a result of those relationships. Role ambiguity was the only role stressor related directly to job satisfaction.



Note: All paths are significant ($p < .01$)

Figure 11. Path Model for Upper Level Executives

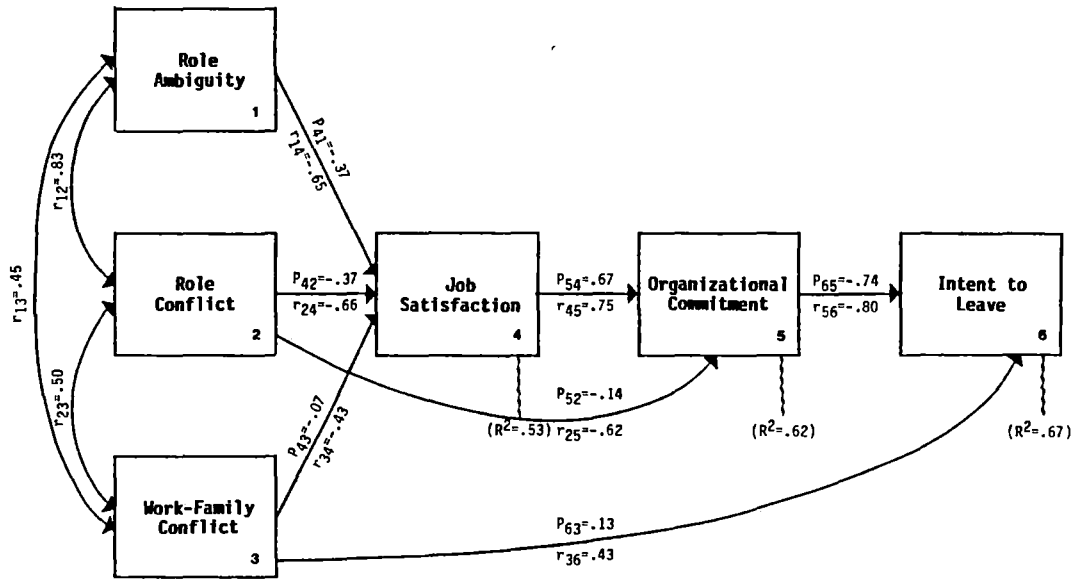
Other differences viewed in the models appeared to be minor; however, they are worthy of mention as contributors to differences between organizational levels. The explained variations for entry and middle level executives were very similar. The middle level executives exhibited a direct effect from role ambiguity to organizational commitment ($p < .01$) indicating that role ambiguity does not necessarily work through job satisfaction for this group. Like the upper managers, the role conflict and work-family conflict/job satisfaction relationships were not significant. Differing from both middle and upper managers, role conflict was most strongly related to job satisfaction for entry level executives. Similar to upper level executives, the path diagram for entry level employees contained a significant ($p < .05$) direct path from work-family conflict to intent to leave. Not all work-family conflict was mediated through satisfaction and commitment. Additional observation of the three models indicated that the original correlation among the role stressor variables increased as organizational level increased. As organizational level increased, the direct linkages between job satisfaction/organizational commitment and organizational commitment/intent to leave decreased in magnitude.

Work-family conflict had very little to do with job satisfaction except as a path to organizational commitment and intent to leave. The only substantive difference in the three models was found for the upper level executives. The

R^2 was enough larger to indicate that upper executives were directly affected by more than organizational commitment. All three role stressors contained enough direct effects on intent to leave to warrant examination in further studies.

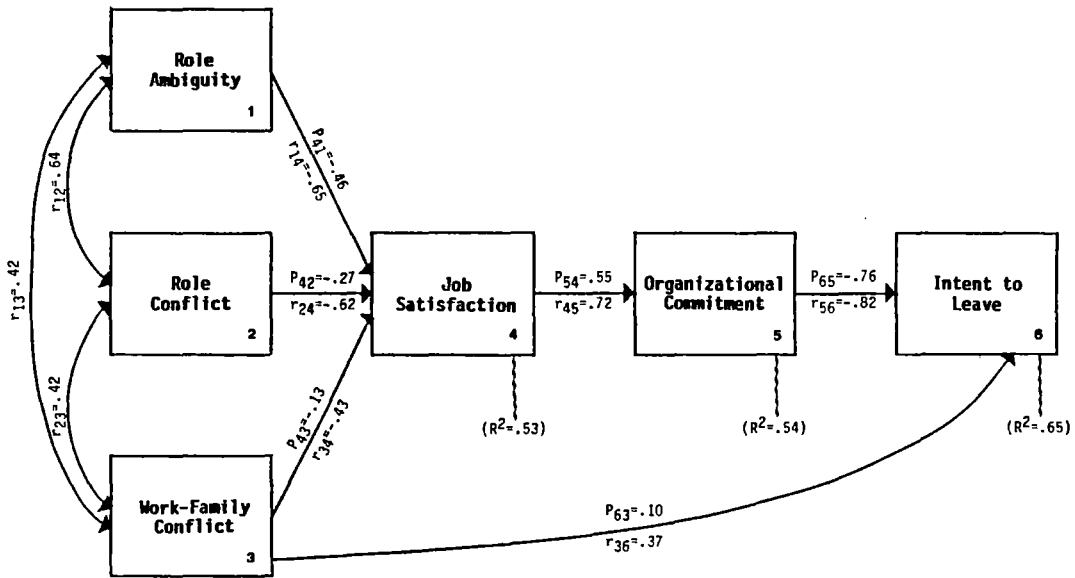
For the sake of analysis and discussion, the self-esteem variable was dichotomized into high and low groups by executing a median split within the range of possible scores. The scores on self-esteem were distributed so closely to the high end of the scale, it is pertinent to emphasize that the "lower" group would not literally be considered as lacking self-esteem; they just had less self-esteem than the "high" group. Table II delineated the high mean score for the scale and the small degree of standard deviation.

The path models for the two groups appear in Figures 12 and 13. Both models were similar to the reduced model in terms of explained variation. The path coefficients for high self-esteem were very close to the reduced model for the total sample. Two additional direct effects were operative in the higher self-esteem group. Work-family conflict was directly related to intent to leave ($p < .01$) and role conflict was directly related to organizational commitment ($p < .05$). These two relationships were also present in the upper level executive model which indicates that the higher self-esteem executives could also be upper level executives.



Note: All paths are significant ($p < .01$).

Figure 12. Path Model for High Self-Esteem Executives



Note: All paths are significant ($p < .01$).

Figure 13. Path Model for Lower Self-Esteem Executives

Role conflict and ambiguity were equally important in their relationships with job satisfaction. For the lower self-esteem group, the role stressor/job satisfaction relationships were different. Role ambiguity and work-family conflict had higher path coefficients in the lower esteem group, while the role conflict relationship was stronger in the higher self-esteem group. The original correlations between role stressors were higher for the high self-esteem group, especially the role ambiguity/role conflict correlation which explains the similar relationship with job satisfaction. Other than these minor differences, the two self-esteem models were very similar.

Several similarities among all the path models were noteworthy. All models except the middle level executive model indicated a significant direct effect from work-family conflict to intent to leave. This may indicate that work-family conflict works separately from the other role stressors and is not necessarily mediated through job satisfaction and organizational commitment; work-family conflict could cause an executive to leave the company even though he were satisfied and committed to the organization. In addition, both upper level and higher self-esteem executives had a direct effect from role conflict to organizational commitment, indicating that role conflict debilitated the organizational commitment of an executive in those categories.

Role ambiguity had the greatest direct effect on job satisfaction in all models except for high self-esteem

executives where role conflict and role ambiguity were equally important and for entry level executives where role conflict was the greatest direct effect on job satisfaction. The job satisfaction/organizational commitment direct effect was strongest for high self-esteem and entry level executives. The organizational commitment/intent to leave linkage was similar for all models except upper level executives, where the direct relationship was somewhat weaker.

Individual Variable Differences by
Organizational and Self-Esteem Level

One-way analysis of variance (AOV) was used to test the fourth hypothesis which indicated that there would be no significant difference in any of the dependent variables by organizational level or self-esteem level. Since organizational level consisted of three groups, when significant associations were determined, the Tukey, post hoc comparisons technique was performed to indicate where the significance actually was. Tukey is a conservative multiple comparison procedure which indicates that two means are significantly different only when means are far apart (Huck, Cormier, & Bounds, 1974).

Results of the separate AOV procedures, testing each variable by organizational level appear in Table XII. The table presents the means for each group with brackets pointing to the means which were statistically different as

TABLE XII
 WORK ATTITUDES, ROLE STRESSORS, AND SELF-ESTEEM
 BY OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL

Scale	Group	Mean ^a	F
Intent to Leave	Entry	17.03	10.09**
	Middle	16.22	
	Upper	13.25	
Organizational Commitment	Entry	25.61	9.62**
	Middle	26.09	
	Upper	28.22	
Overall Job Satisfaction	Entry	16.84	18.78**
	Middle	17.45	
	Upper	18.44	
Satisfaction with Work	Entry	16.34	17.60**
	Middle	16.96	
	Upper	17.87	
Satisfaction with Pay	Entry	13.84	34.46**
	Middle	15.15	
	Upper	17.28	
Satisfaction with Promotion	Entry	16.90	10.01**
	Middle	17.16	
	Upper	19.08	
Satisfaction with Co-Workers	Entry	17.98	4.69*
	Middle	18.52	
	Upper	18.82	
Satisfaction with Supervision	Entry	17.65	6.44*
	Middle	18.34	
	Upper	18.95	
Role Conflict	Entry	18.99	7.94**
	Middle	19.46	
	Upper	17.16	
Role Ambiguity	Entry	16.35	4.05*
	Middle	15.68	
	Upper	14.86	
Work-Family Conflict	Entry	10.66	6.36*
	Middle	10.47	
	Upper	9.58	
Self-Esteem	Entry	17.12	3.98
	Middle	17.43	
	Upper	17.74	

^aThe brackets point to the significantly different pairs of means (Tukey, HSD).

*p < .01

**p < .001

calculated by the Tukey test. The variable with the highest F value was satisfaction with pay. All three executive levels were different from each other with the upper level being most satisfied, followed by the middle and lower levels. Examination of frequencies by organizational level in Table I indicated this to be an expected finding. Other variables which determined the three groups to be different were overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with work. Again, satisfaction means ranked in descending order for the executive levels.

Several results indicated significant differences between entry and upper executives and middle and upper executives but not between entry and middle levels. Included in this group were intent to leave, organizational commitment, satisfaction with promotion, role conflict and work-family conflict. The upper level executives were less likely to leave the company and experience role conflict and work-family conflict, but exhibited stronger organizational commitment and satisfaction with promotion. The remaining significant relationships were between entry and upper executives only. Upper level managers expressed greater satisfaction with co-workers and supervision and felt less role ambiguity in their position. Self-esteem yielded no significant differences by organizational level as expected from the skewed distribution to the higher levels of self-esteem.

The AOV results indicated that the three managerial levels were significantly different on 11 of the 12 dependent variables. The group with the most significant relationships was the upper level executive group.

The second set of one-way AOV's (Table XIII) yielded significant relationships for all 11 of the variables by self-esteem level. The lower self-esteem group showed greater intent to leave the company, role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict. Higher self-esteem executives were more committed to the company, and more satisfied with the job and the facets of work, pay, and promotion, supervision, and co-workers.

For the fourth hypothesis, analysis of variance resulted in not supporting 22 of the 23 hypothesized relationships. Even though the retail executives possessed higher levels of self-esteem as a whole, differences still emerged when divided into two self-esteem groups. This finding supports the idea that self-esteem may moderate relationships with some degree of sensitivity.

Managerial level differences resulted in information of importance to company personnel directors. Entry level managers were the group most likely to leave and they had not built the bond of organizational commitment that upper level managers had. Training programs should address those attitudes which were weaker with the entry level executives.

TABLE XIII
 WORK ATTITUDES AND ROLE STRESSORS BY SELF-ESTEEM LEVEL

Scale	Group	Mean	F
Intent to Leave	High	15.27	17.63**
	Low	17.61	
Organizational Commitment	High	26.90	21.90**
	Low	25.08	
Overall Job Satisfaction	High	17.67	33.89**
	Low	16.63	
Satisfaction with Work	High	17.26	49.69**
	Low	16.02	
Satisfaction with Pay	High	14.94	6.05*
	Low	14.23	
Satisfaction with Promotion	High	17.86	17.17**
	Low	16.53	
Satisfaction with Co-Workers	High	18.49	7.62*
	Low	17.91	
Satisfaction with Supervision	High	18.52	19.76**
	Low	17.36	
Role Conflict	High	18.23	16.40**
	Low	19.63	
Role Ambiguity	High	14.95	40.37**
	Low	17.21	
Work-Family Conflict	High	9.71	82.25**
	Low	11.43	

*p < .01

**p < .001

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

There has been a paucity of research conducted in the retail sector of the workplace. When such research was conducted, retail sales clerks were usually the targeted sample. As turnover rates among retail management trainees have been reported to be anywhere from 24 percent to 54 percent, the magnitude of retail executive turnover is relatively undetermined. Corporate personnel managers or directors are vitally interested in the retention of high quality, productive employees, especially at managerial levels.

Retail management positions are considered boundary-spanning in that they require a great deal of interaction beyond their own department or company. The literature identified role stressors such as role conflict and role ambiguity as typical attitudes for boundary-spanning positions. Role stressors have been linked with job dissatisfaction and lack of commitment to the organization. Recently, another role stressor, known as work-family conflict or role overload, has been purported to be operative in workplace behaviors and attitudes.

The variable which has been traditionally linked to turnover, both empirically and conceptually, is job satisfaction. More recent research has indicated that job satisfaction may indirectly affect turnover, but as a linkage through organizational commitment. Employees may choose to leave a company because of financial, relocation, or other reasons regardless of their satisfaction on the job. The most prevalent theoretical link in current organizational turnover models is organizational commitment, which implies an enduring relationship and loyalty to a company.

Longitudinal studies measuring actual turnover rarely exist in the literature. More likely, cross-sectional research designs have utilized intent to leave as a surrogate for actual turnover. Correlations have been significant between intent and actual behavior; however, the relationship between organizational commitment and intent to leave is much stronger. Managerial level, especially in the retail sector, has rarely been examined with regard to work attitudes, role stressors, and behavioral outcomes. The literature suggests that among managers in general, there are differences between levels in terms of job attitudes, interactions, and behaviors. Employee self-esteem has also been considered as a moderator of organizational relationships. Knowing how self-esteem level impacts work variables may provide useful information for personnel trainers.

The current study was an attempt to test an empirical path analytic model which linked three role stressors to job

satisfaction, organizational commitment, and finally to intent to leave. The intent was to extend the knowledge of relationships among selected variables for a sample of retail executives at three organizational levels.

The objectives of the study were 1) to examine the bivariate relationships between the dependent variable, intent to leave, and the following independent variables: age, education, income, tenure, self-esteem, managerial level, role stressors, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment; 2) to determine whether the path analytic relationships from the Wunder, et al., (1982) study were supported utilizing a retail executive sample; 3) to assess whether path models vary as a function of managerial level or self-esteem level; 4) to determine whether there were differences by organizational level and level of self-esteem on the following dependent variables: intent to leave, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict.

Summary of Procedures

Two major, multi-unit national retail department stores participated in the study and supplied the researcher with a list of retail executives at entry, middle, and upper levels of management. The two companies have stores located in the south central and south western regions of the United States and were chosen for the study because of their size,

convenience to the research institution, and number of executives as potential sample units.

Initial contact was made and approval to conduct the study was received from the Vice-President of Personnel at each company. The company official wrote a letter, addressed to the executives, encouraging participation in the study and assuring confidentiality. The letter accompanied the cover letter from the researcher when the questionnaires were mailed. A total of 1162 questionnaires were mailed; 698 executives were from Company 1 and 464 were from Company 2. The executives were given two weeks to respond. A follow-up questionnaire was mailed three weeks later. Response rate for the first mailing was 39.6 percent. The responses from the second mailing increased the response rate to 51.2 percent. A total of 595 usable questionnaires were received.

Instruments were chosen to measure each of the variables following an extensive search of the literature. Previously tested, reliable, and valid instruments were examined and included in the survey for the study. Reliability and construct validity were assessed for each instrument based on the retail executive sample in order to contribute to the growing support for each scale.

Pearson correlations and chi square statistics were used to measure the bivariate relationships. Analysis of variance assessed the differences in means by organizational level and self-esteem level. Multiple regression analysis

provided the beta weights necessary to construct the diagrams for the path analyses.

Summary of Findings and Conclusions

Frequency analysis of the data indicated that the sample was predominantly (75 percent) female, young (over half were 20-29), and highly educated. Entry level executives comprised nearly two-thirds of the sample, one-fourth were middle level executives, and the remainder were upper level executives. Almost all of the respondents had finished high school and 65 percent had completed college or business/technical school.

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to estimate scale reliabilities. For the scales used in the study, reliabilities ranged from .80 to .94, all within the acceptable range. Construct validity was assessed through factor analysis. Each scale was factor analyzed to determine the dimensional stability of the instrument. In general, each scale exhibited construct validity with the items measuring what they were intended to measure. However, the analyses did direct attention to several potentially weak items which should be addressed in future research.

The first hypothesis explored the bivariate relationships among the independent variables and intent to leave. All correlations were significant ($p < .01$). Work attitudes were negatively correlated with intent to leave while role stressors were positively related. Organizational

commitment was the most highly related variable with intent to leave. Self-esteem was significantly correlated with intent to leave but with a much lower negative coefficient than the other variables.

Chi square analyses indicated that the higher the organizational level, the less intent to leave. Likewise, tenure with the organization was negatively associated with leaving the company. Age and income also had negative associations with intent to leave. Education level was associated with intent to leave only for those with less than a college education. The less education, the less likely the intent to leave. No differences were found by sex.

The second and third hypotheses employed multiple regression analyses in order to construct path analytic models to explain the data. The data in the study are cross-sectional. Because the measurements were taken at the same point in time, the sequential relationships among the variables cannot be determined unambiguously. This limitation of the study dictates that the results should be interpreted only as a test of the a priori theoretical scheme of the models. Path analysis helps a researcher determine whether the data are consistent with the hypothesized model. Path analysis does not provide proof of the causal relationships; rather it lends either support or non support of the a priori causal relationships (Kerlinger & Pedhazur, 1973, p. 307).

The path model constructed for the retail executive sample was nearly identical to that of the tested model but the explained variation in the present sample was much greater than in the original sample. Examination of the path model indicated some differences by managerial level and self-esteem level. Upper level managers yielded the most unique model. Direct effects of role conflict, role ambiguity, and work-family conflict on intent to leave provided a very high (.77) explained variation for the model. A consistent direct effect present in all the models except for middle level executives was from work-family conflict to intent to leave. Upper level managers showed a significant direct effect from role conflict to organizational commitment.

As organizational level increased, the direct relationship between each independent variable and the dependent variable preceding it decreased. The direct relationships of the role stressors with job satisfaction varied by organizational level. The role ambiguity/satisfaction relationship was much higher for middle and upper level executives than it was for entry level executives. However, the role conflict and work-family conflict/satisfaction relationship was greatly attenuated for the middle and upper level executives but provided the strongest relationship for entry level executives.

The high and lower self-esteem models were very similar to the reduced model, which was expected due to the

homogeneity of the sample on the self-esteem scale. Both groups had the additional significant direct effect of work-family conflict on intent to leave. Nonetheless, a few differences were present. The link between job satisfaction and organizational commitment was weaker for lower self-esteem executives and role ambiguity was the strongest link to job satisfaction for these same executives. Like upper level managers, the high self-esteem group exhibited a direct link between role conflict and organizational commitment.

The fourth hypothesis yielded 22 of 23 significant differences in one-way AOV. All of the work attitudes and role stressors were significantly different by organizational level; however, self-esteem was not. When examined by level of self-esteem, both work attitudes and role stressors were found to be significantly different. It should again be noted that all respondents possessed healthy self-esteem levels. However, the differences found between the dichotomized groups indicated self-esteem was a sensitive variable and could have moderated work attitudes and role stressors.

The findings from this study do provide further evidence to the theoretically and empirically defined variable relationships. One major result from these findings is that the Wunder et al. (1982) model was replicated with another very different sample. In addition, managerial level differences were present in the current research sample.

Organizational theory recognizes this fact but organizational personnel do not always address those differences when making company policy and training new executives. The retail executive sample was very homogeneous with respect to self-esteem level; there were no executives with low self-esteem. However, differences did emerge which have implications for training and development.

Another conclusion is that while role ambiguity and role conflict are important variables to monitor, their relationship with intent to leave is indirect, through job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Work-family conflict, on the other hand, did exhibit significant direct effects on intent to leave. Similarly, job satisfaction seems to be only indirectly related to intent to leave through organizational commitment. The results of the current study emphasize the need for additional research using multivariate analytical techniques in developing a more complete model of voluntary turnover as a behavioral response to negative organizational experiences.

Implications

The results of this study provide implications for retail personnel divisions. Since training of company employees is usually under the jurisdiction of the personnel division, it is the most likely group to effect changes in employee training and development. A recent study queried personnel managers concerning the important training and

development topics for the future (Bures & Banks, 1985). Ranked first was communication skills. Developing management skills for new managers and leadership were ranked second and third, respectively. The three role stressors measured in the present study are tied very closely to all three of the priority personnel training topics.

For the role ambiguity scale, the items that troubled employees the most were the lack of performance feedback and the lack of direction in performing duties. Distressing items from the role conflict scale were the excessive amount of work, working with more than two groups who operate differently, doing things that should be done differently, and receiving assignments without the manpower to complete them. The most stressful work-family conflict items included inadequate resources for the desired lifestyle, neglecting the family because of the job, arguing about the over-involvement of one spouse with the job, and being nervous, tense, and frustrated when returning home from work.

For entry level executives, role conflict was the stressor most related to job satisfaction. Evidently, working with groups that operate differently and having too much work to do were more distressing than the lack of performance feedback and lack of direction regarding duties. Improving skills in the three priority topic areas would help to alleviate the stress resulting from role conflict and ambiguity. The company's personnel executives should make some effort to find out the specifics of these

deficiencies. Do the problems exist only in certain departments or divisions? If so, training and development can be targeted to those individuals. Streamlining the channels of communication will aid in reducing role conflict. Equitable delegation of responsibility will help reduce the feeling of having too much to do.

Job satisfaction of middle and upper managers was most influenced by role ambiguity. Therefore, recommendations are in order for reducing role ambiguity. The lack of performance feedback should be the concern of the immediate supervisor. Regular performance reviews with substantive employee/supervisor interaction are effective in providing general feedback. Task-specific feedback skills should be developed in supervisory training; development of management skills creates an awareness of employee needs for performance feedback. Memos, policy and procedure manuals, computer printouts, as well as better verbal instructions may provide continuity and direction for task performance.

Another implication from the results of this study is that selection methods for new employees may reduce voluntary turnover. If the interviewer articulates job performance expectations and realistic information concerning the working conditions and atmosphere, role stressors are less likely to become dysfunctional. Once selected by the company, new employees should be formally oriented and trained for the job requirements, again reducing stress and creating confidence in the company. Mentor relationships may be

instrumental at this early stage. Longer-tenure executives should not be ignored for employee development programs. The direct effects of the role stressors on the upper level executive's intent to leave in the present study indicate a need for keeping communication skills well-honed.

The importance of the direct organizational commitment/intent to leave linkage points to the long-term benefit of developing company loyalty through employee relationships, employee benefit packages, demonstrated company integrity, employee training and development, and equitable wage plans. Finally, the direct effect of work-family conflict on intent to leave indicates an especially challenging problem to companies. Efforts to provide flexible scheduling, psychological counselling, and day care opportunities would be indications that the company is willing to work with employees to reduce work-family stress.

Recommendations

The findings from the present study provided a basis from which the researcher proposes the following recommendations for further research.

1. The work-family conflict variable is fairly new to organizational research. The direct effect it had on intent to leave was statistically significant but the substantive significance is worthy of further study. Specific ideas are suggested below.

- a. Explore the current data set for relationships which might emerge with further analyses.
 - b. Conduct a follow-up study, utilizing the current sample listing, with the PROFILES instrument. Mail questionnaires to only the married executives. Analyze with the current data set to expand the knowledge of work-family relationships.
2. Develop the current study into a longitudinal research problem. Collect actual turnover data every six-months and track the differences in relationships between stayers and leavers.
 3. Further explore the role stress variables in the context of met expectations. Develop a questionnaire for college seniors interviewing for management training positions. Query them concerning what they expect in the job and the company. Collect longitudinal data and track the responses to discover if the expectations match the actual position requirements.
 4. Further analyze the data from this study, comparing managers across the two retail companies as well as managers from other types of retail organizations to determine whether the model is stable over a diverse range of samples.
 5. Since the intent to leave/actual turnover relationship is not as high as would be necessary for predictive models, investigate other variables that may

moderate the relationship such as intent to search, job alternatives, and search behavior.

6. Examine antecedents to role stressors. Leadership styles may be a variable of interest as well as coping strategies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INITIAL CORRESPONDENCE WITH COMPANIES
(INFORMATION PACKET)

April 16, 1986

(NAME)
Personnel Division
(Company 1)
(Street)
(City, State, Zip)

Dear (Name),

It was a pleasure visiting with you on the phone last week and I hope that we will be able to work together in conjunction with my doctoral research. We have enclosed a brief justification of the research problem, the objectives of the study, the model being tested, and a rough draft of the instrument.

All costs of the research will be covered by a research fellowship so we are asking only for informational assistance and of course, approval from (Company 1) to conduct the study with company executives. Responses to the questionnaire will be returned directly to us and the executives will be assured confidentiality. Subsequent data analysis, results and implications for (Company 1) will be provided to you. Also, if you would like for us to have a personal conference with the Personnel division, we would be more than agreeable.

Specifically, pending approval, I need names of company executives at entry, middle, and upper levels of management. The other request is for a letter from you (or the appropriate executive) explaining (Company 1) support of the study, insuring confidentiality, reinforcing the voluntary nature of the request, and encouraging participation. An example of such a letter is enclosed.

Thank you for your consideration in making it possible for me to collect data from (Company 1) executives. If you have any questions, please feel free to call me at (405) 624-7469. Otherwise, I will phone you on April 24 or 25 to further discuss plans for the study.

Sincerely,

Linda K. Good
Research Associate

Dr. Lynn Sisler
Major Adviser

EXAMPLE

Letter from (Company 1) to
accompany researcher's letter

Dear fellow executive,

The accompanying letter from Oklahoma State University explains a research project dealing with employee attitudes toward the company and the work situation. (Company 1), as you know, is committed to maximizing the quality of employee relationships. The information from this study will aid in identifying ways to improve the work context within the company.

Your response to the questionnaire is, of course, voluntary and your responses will be confidential to both the company and the researcher. The questionnaire will be mailed directly to the researcher. In order that the results are reliable and representative of this company, your response is encouraged.

We appreciate your assistance and cooperation in completing the questionnaire.

Best regards,

EXAMPLE

Cover letter from Researcher

Dear (Company 1) Executive,

Oklahoma State University has taken an active interest in identifying aspects of the work situation which can be refined or altered in order to provide a **more positive and productive work environment**. Retailing is a unique profession which includes role stressors not always found in other professions.

Job satisfaction and commitment of employees has been of tremendous interest nationwide. However, retail executives have rarely been studied. There is a considerable need to identify those factors of the work situation which are important in forming **your satisfaction with a company**.

The (Company 1) Personnel division is cooperating with us in conducting this research. However, no one in the company will see the forms that you fill out. As with all University projects, we guarantee that your responses are confidential and it is not necessary to have your name on the questionnaire.

Your assistance and cooperation are greatly appreciated. The results we obtain from this research project will provide a basis for discussion with Personnel to explore strategies or activities which **reduce stress on the job and increase your satisfaction** with your position.

Please return the questionnaire in the enclosed stamped, self-addressed envelope by (date).

Sincerely,

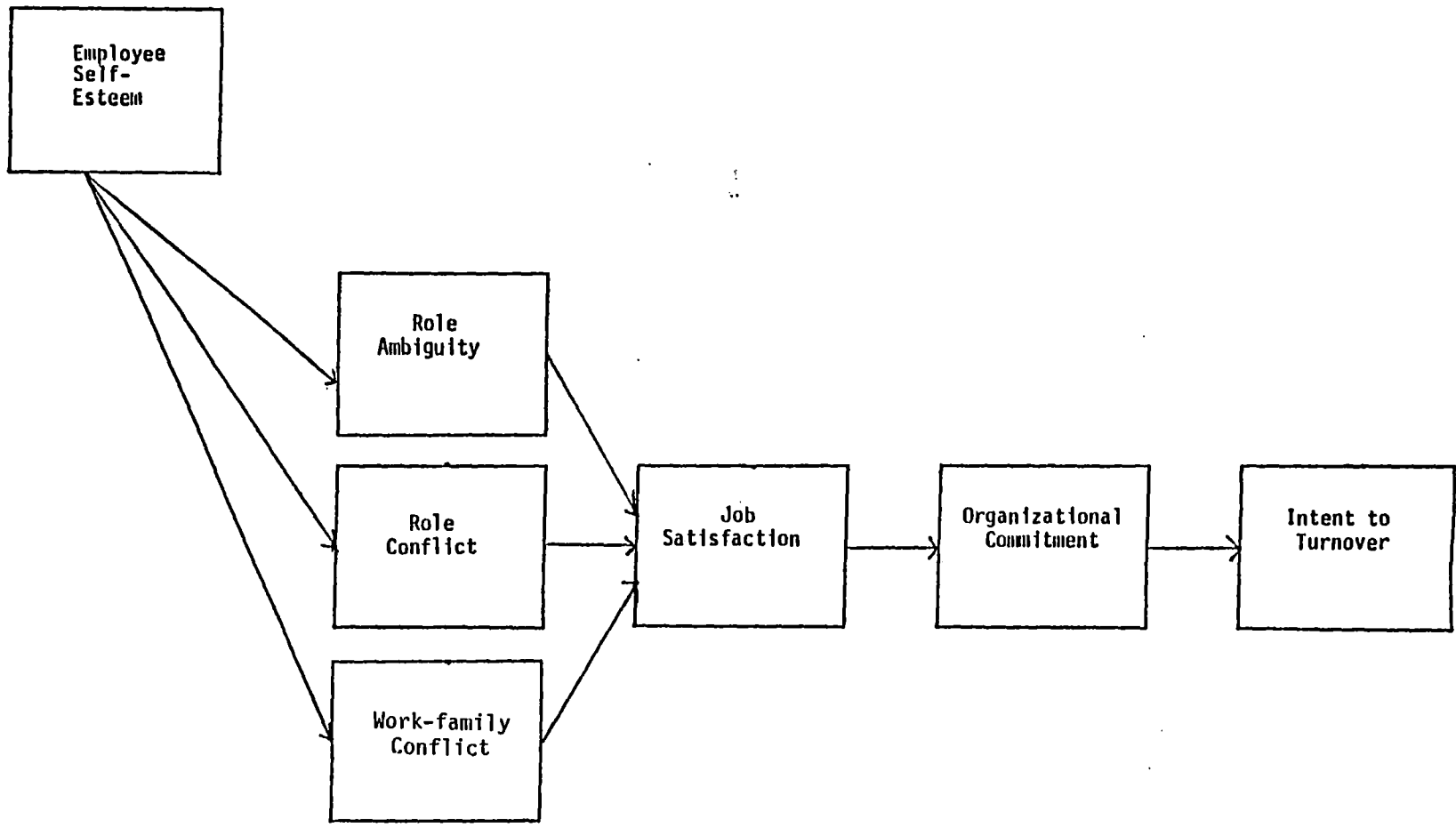
Linda K. Good
Research Associate

Dr. Lynn Sisler
Major Adviser

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Research has established that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are negatively related to turnover. Role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload are negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Research also indicates that an employee's level of self-esteem may moderate the relationships between variables leading to employee turnover.

While studies probing the antecedents of turnover have been plentiful, few have established causal relationships between the variables and even fewer have investigated relationships at the managerial level in retail organizations. This study will examine the relationships between employee self-esteem, role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, job satisfaction, job commitment, and the intent to leave the organization. Since retail organizations traditionally consist of three levels of management (entry, middle, top), a second purpose of this study is to determine if the relationships between the variables differ across management levels. Insights concerning the variables which lead to turnover will aid retailers in the pursuit of high retention rates of qualified employees.



Turnover Model

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTERS AND QUESTIONNAIRE
MAILED TO EXECUTIVES

(Company 1 Letter)

June 6, 1986

Dear Fellow Executive:

The accompanying letter from Oklahoma State University explains a research project dealing with employee attitudes toward the company and the work situation. (Company 1) has agreed to assist Ms. Linda K. Good in her doctoral studies, by letting her survey our management executives.

Your response to the questionnaire is, of course, voluntary and your response will be confidential to both the company and the researcher. The questionnaire will be mailed directly to the researcher. In order that the results are reliable and representative of this company, your response is encouraged.

We appreciate your assistance and cooperation in completing the questionnaire.

Sincerely,

Director of Personnel
(Company 1)

Cover letter from Researcher

Dear (Company 1) Executive,

Oklahoma State University has taken an active interest in identifying aspects of the work situation which can be refined or altered in order to provide a **more positive and productive work environment**. Retailing is a unique profession which includes role stressors not always found in other professions.

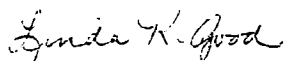
Job satisfaction and commitment of employees has been of tremendous interest nationwide. However, retail executives have rarely been studied. There is a considerable need to identify those factors of the work situation which are important in forming **your satisfaction with a company**.

The (Company 1) Personnel division is cooperating with us in conducting this research. However, no one in the company will see the forms that you fill out. As with all University projects, we guarantee that your responses are confidential and it is not necessary to have your name on the questionnaire.

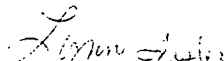
Your assistance and cooperation are greatly appreciated. The results we obtain from this research project will provide a basis for discussion with Personnel to explore strategies or activities which **reduce stress on the job and increase your satisfaction** with your position.

Please return the questionnaire in the enclosed stamped, self-addressed envelope by (date).

Sincerely,



Linda K. Good
Research Associate



Dr. Lynn Sisler
Major Adviser

Retail Manager Survey

Please check (✓) your response.

1. How many **total years** of retail management experience do you have?

- less than 2 years
 2-5 years
 6-10 years
 11-20 years
 over 20 years

2. How many years of retail management experience do you have with **this company**?

- less than 2 years
 2-5 years
 6-10 years
 11-20 years
 over 20 years

3. How many years have you been in your **current position**?

- less than 2 years
 2-5 years
 6-10 years
 11-20 years
 over 20 years

4. What is your spouse's work status?

- not working working-just a job
 working-career

5. What is your job title?

Please circle the response to the far right of the statement indicating the degree of agreement or disagreement with respect to your own feelings about your company.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I plan to be with this company for awhile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Sometimes I get so irritated I think about changing jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others that I was considering at the time I joined the company.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I plan to be with this company five years from now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I would turn down an offer from another retailer if it came tomorrow.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I really care about the fate of this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please circle the response to the far right of the statement that best describes your answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<u>WORK</u>						<u>CO-WORKERS</u>					
25. Fascinating	1	2	3	4	5	1. Stimulating	1	2	3	4	5
26. Routine	1	2	3	4	5	2. Boring	1	2	3	4	5
27. Satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	3. Slow	1	2	3	4	5
28. Boring	1	2	3	4	5	4. Ambitious	1	2	3	4	5
29. Good	1	2	3	4	5	5. Stupid	1	2	3	4	5
30. Creative	1	2	3	4	5	6. Responsible	1	2	3	4	5
31. Respected	1	2	3	4	5	7. Fast	1	2	3	4	5
32. Hot	1	2	3	4	5	8. Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
33. Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	9. Easy to make enemies	1	2	3	4	5
34. Useful	1	2	3	4	5	10. Talk too much	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tiresome	1	2	3	4	5	11. Smart	1	2	3	4	5
36. Healthful	1	2	3	4	5	12. Lazy	1	2	3	4	5
37. Challenging	1	2	3	4	5	13. Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5
38. On your feet	1	2	3	4	5	14. No privacy	1	2	3	4	5
39. Frustrating	1	2	3	4	5	15. Active	1	2	3	4	5
40. Simple	1	2	3	4	5	16. Narrow interests	1	2	3	4	5
41. Endless	1	2	3	4	5	17. Loyal	1	2	3	4	5
42. Gives sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	18. Hard to meet	1	2	3	4	5
<u>PAY</u>						<u>SUPERVISION</u>					
43. Income adequate for expenses	1	2	3	4	5	19. Asks my advice	1	2	3	4	5
44. Satisfactory profit sharing	1	2	3	4	5	20. Hard to please	1	2	3	4	5
45. Barely live on income	1	2	3	4	5	21. Impolite	1	2	3	4	5
46. Bad	1	2	3	4	5	22. Praises good work	1	2	3	4	5
47. Income provides luxuries	1	2	3	4	5	23. Tactful	1	2	3	4	5
48. Insecure	1	2	3	4	5	24. Influential	1	2	3	4	5
49. Less than I deserve	1	2	3	4	5	25. Up-to-date	1	2	3	4	5
50. Highly paid	1	2	3	4	5	26. Doesn't supervise enough	1	2	3	4	5
51. Underpaid	1	2	3	4	5	27. Quick tempered	1	2	3	4	5
<u>PROMOTIONS</u>						28. Tells me where I stand	1	2	3	4	5
52. Good opportunity for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	29. Annoying	1	2	3	4	5
53. Opportunity somewhat limited	1	2	3	4	5	30. Stubborn	1	2	3	4	5
54. Promotion on ability	1	2	3	4	5	31. Knows job well	1	2	3	4	5
55. Dead-end job	1	2	3	4	5	32. Bad	1	2	3	4	5
56. Good chance for promotion	1	2	3	4	5	33. Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5
57. Unfair promotion policy	1	2	3	4	5	34. Leaves me on my own	1	2	3	4	5
58. Infrequent promotions	1	2	3	4	5	35. Lazy	1	2	3	4	5
59. Fairly good chance for promotion	1	2	3	4	5	36. Around when needed	1	2	3	4	5
60. Regular promotions	1	2	3	4	5						

Please circle the response to the far right of the statement indicating the degree to which the condition exists for you in your job.

	Very false	false	Slightly false	Neutral	Slightly True	True	Very True
37. I have enough time to complete my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. I feel certain about how much authority I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I perform many tasks that are too easy or boring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. I have to do things that should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. There is a lack of policies and guidelines to help me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. I am corrected or rewarded when I really do not expect it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. I know that I have divided my time properly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. I know what my responsibilities are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. I have to "feel my way" in performing duties.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. I have just the right amount of work to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. I know exactly what is expected of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. I am uncertain as to how my job is linked to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. I am told how well I am doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. Explanation is clear as to what has to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. I work on unnecessary things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. I have to work under vague directives or orders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. I perform work that suits my values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. I do not know if my work will be acceptable to my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please circle the response to the far right of the statement that best describes your answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Not Applicable
1. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am too tired or not physically ready when I go to work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4	5
4. The salary and benefits of my job create problems at home.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My spouse supports and approves of my job.	1	2	3	4	5
6. At times I think I am no good at all.	1	2	3	4	5
7. My spouse and I argue about my being over-involved in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Because of my job, my family is neglected and not as close as it could be.	1	2	3	4	5
10. There is tension created because both my spouse and I work.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I wish I could have more respect for myself.	1	2	3	4	5

Please circle the response to the far right of the statement that best describes your answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly	Not Applicable
12. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Personal concerns reduce my productivity at work.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My family has the resources to meet our desired lifestyle.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My spouse's job or career conflicts with mine.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I certainly feel useless at times.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Family problems cause loss of time at work for me.	1	2	3	4	5
18. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I am nervous, tense, or frustrated when I get home from work.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4	5
21. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4	5
22. My spouse is content with his/her work status.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I am content with my spouse's work status.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I am content with the city in which I live.	1	2	3	4	5

Please check (✓) your response.

25. How long have you lived in this city?

- 1-2 years 7-10 years
 3-6 years over 10 years

28. Please indicate the number of children you have.

- no children
 1-2 children
 3-5 children
 6 or more children

26. Please indicate highest education level attained.

- grade school
 some high school
 high school diploma
 some business college or technical school
 some college (other than technical school)
 business college or technical school degree
 college degree
 Master's or higher degree

29. Please indicate your age range.

- under 20 40-49
 20-29 50-59
 30-39 60 and over

30. Please indicate your sex.

- female male

31. Did you complete an executive training program?

- yes no

27. What is your current marital status?

- married divorced
 single widowed

OPTIONAL:

32. Please check your salary range.

- below \$15,000 \$40,001-\$50,000
 \$15,001-\$20,000 \$50,001-\$60,000
 \$20,001-\$30,000 \$60,001-\$70,000
 \$30,001-\$40,000 over \$70,000

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!!!

Please return survey in the enclosed envelope to:

Center for Apparel Marketing and Merchandising
HEW 306
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK 74078-0337

_____ This number is for follow-up purposes only.

We Value Your Response!

WITHIN THE LAST SEVERAL WEEKS YOU SHOULD HAVE RECEIVED
A RETAIL MANAGER SURVEY. IF YOU HAVE FILLED OUT AND RETURNED
IT TO US, THANK YOU !! IF YOU HAVE MISPLACED THE SURVEY,
WE HAVE ENCLOSED ANOTHER ONE FOR YOU TO COMPLETE AND RETURN.

YOUR PARTICIPATION IS APPRECIATED.

APPENDIX C

INDIVIDUAL INSTRUMENT ITEMS

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE
Mowday, Steers, & Porter (1979)
(15 Items)

1. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
2. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
3. I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
4. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
5. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.(R)
6. I feel very little loyalty to this organization.(R)
7. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
8. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
9. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar.(R)
10. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization.(R)
11. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others that I was considering at the time I joined the company.
12. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.(R)
13. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.(R)
14. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.
15. I really care about the fate of this organization.

INTENT TO LEAVE SCALE
Mitchel (1981)
(4 Items)

1. I plan to be with this company for awhile.(R)
2. Sometimes I get so irritated I think about changing jobs.
3. I plan to be with this company five years from now.(R)
4. I would turn down an offer from another retailer if it came tomorrow.(R)

Response format: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Slightly Disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Slightly Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree

* Items designated (R) have been reverse coded for analysis. Higher scores reflect stronger organizational commitment and greater intent to leave.

JOB SATISFACTION SCALE
Smith, Kendall, & Halen (1969)
(72 Items)

WORK

1. Fascinating
2. Routine (R)
3. Satisfying
4. Boring (R)
5. Good
6. Creative
7. Respected
8. Hot
9. Pleasant
10. Useful
11. Tiresome (R)
12. Healthful
13. Challenging
14. On your feet (R)
15. Frustrating (R)
16. Simple
17. Endless (R)
18. Gives sense of accomplishment

PAY

19. Income adequate for expenses
20. Satisfactory profit sharing
21. Barely live on income (R)
22. Bad (R)
23. Income provides luxuries
24. Insecure (R)
25. Less than I deserve (R)
26. Highly paid
27. Underpaid (R)

PROMOTIONS

28. Good opportunity for advancement
29. Opportunity somewhat limited (R)
30. Promotion on ability
31. Dead-end job (R)
32. Good chance for promotion
33. Unfair promotion policy (R)
34. Infrequent promotions (R)
35. Fairly good chance for promotion
36. Regular promotions

CO-WORKERS

37. Stimulating
38. Boring (R)
39. Slow (R)
40. Ambitious
41. Stupid (R)
42. Responsible
43. Fast
44. Intelligent
45. Easy to make enemies (R)
46. Talk too much (R)
47. Smart
48. Lazy (R)
49. Unpleasant (R)
50. No privacy (R)
51. Active
52. Narrow interests (R)
53. Loyal
54. Hard to meet (R)

SUPERVISION

55. Asks my advice
56. Hard to please (R)
57. Impolite (R)
58. Praises good work
59. Tactful
60. Influential
61. Up-to-date
62. Doesn't supervise enough (R).
63. Quick tempered (R)
64. Tells me where I stand
65. Annoying (R)
66. Stubborn (R)
67. Knows job well
68. Bad (R)
69. Intelligent
70. Leaves me on my own
71. Lazy (R)
72. Around when needed

Response format: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Slightly Disagree;
4=Neutral; 5=Slightly Agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly Agree

* Items designated (R) have been reverse coded for analysis. Higher scores reflect stronger job satisfaction.

ROLE AMBIGUITY SCALE
Rizzo, House, Lirtzman (1970)
(14 Items)

1. I feel certain about how much authority I have.(R)
2. There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.(R)
3. There is a lack of policies and guidelines to help me.
4. I am corrected or rewarded when I really do not expect it.
5. I know that I have divided my time properly.(R)
6. I know what my responsibilities are.(R)
7. I have to "feel my way" in performing duties.
8. I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.(R)
9. I know exactly what is expected of me.(R)
10. I am uncertain as to how my job is linked to others.
11. I am told how well I am doing my job.(R)
12. Explanation is clear as to what has to be done.(R)
13. I have to work under vague directives or orders.
14. I do not know if my work will be acceptable to my supervisor.

ROLE CONFLICT SCALE
Rizzo, House, Lirtzman (1970)
(15 Items)

1. I have enough time to complete my work.(R)
2. I perform many tasks that are too easy or boring.
3. I have to do things that should be done differently.
4. I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with. (R)
5. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
6. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.
7. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.
8. I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.(R)
9. I have just the right amount of work to do.(R)
10. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
11. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
12. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
13. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.
14. I work on unnecessary things.
15. I perform work that suits my values.(R)

Response format: 1=Very False; 2=False; 3=Slightly False; 4=Neutral;
5=Slightly True; 6=True; 7=Very True

* Items designated (R) have been reverse coded for analysis. Higher scores reflect greater role ambiguity and role conflict.

WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT
Fournier (1981)
(13 Items)

1. I am too tired or not physically ready when I go to work.
2. The salary and benefits of my job create problems at home.
3. My spouse supports and approves of my job.(R)
4. My spouse and I argue about my being over-involved in my job.
5. Because of my job, my family is neglected and not as close as it could be.
6. There is tension created because both my spouse and I work.
7. Personal concerns reduce my productivity at work.
8. My family has the resources to meet our desired lifestyle.(R)
9. My spouse's job or career conflicts with mine.
10. Family problems cause loss of time at work for me.
11. I am nervous, tense, or frustrated when I get home from work.
12. My spouse is content with his/her work status.(R)
13. I am content with my spouse's work status.(R)

SELF-ESTEEM
Rosenberg (1965)
(10 Items)

1. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
2. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. (R)
3. At times I think I am no good at all. (R)
4. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
5. I wish I could have more respect for myself. (R)
6. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
7. I certainly feel useless at times. (R)
8. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. (R)
9. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
10. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.

Response format: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Agree; 4=Agree Strongly; 5=Not Applicable

* Items designated (R) have been reverse coded for analysis. Higher scores for work-family conflict reflect greater conflict. Higher scores for self-esteem reflect greater self-esteem.

7
VITA

Linda K. Good

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: THE EFFECT OF ROLE STRESSORS, WORK ATTITUDES, SELF-ESTEEM, AND ORGANIZATIONAL LEVEL ON INTENT TO LEAVE

Major Field: Home Economics - Clothing, Textiles, and Merchandising

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Manhattan, Kansas, July 3, 1950, daughter of Don L. and Jane L. Good.

Education: Graduated from Manhattan High School, Manhattan, Kansas, 1968; received Bachelor of Science degree in Home Economics Education from Kansas State University in 1972; received the Master of Science degree in Clothing, Textiles and Merchandising from Oklahoma State University in 1974; completed requirements for Doctor of Philosophy degree in Home Economics at Oklahoma State University, December, 1986.

Professional Experience: Graduate Teaching Assistant, Clothing, Textiles, and Merchandising, Oklahoma State University, 1973-74; Instructor (4 years), Assistant Professor (1 year), Department of Home Economics, Northeast Louisiana University, Monroe, 1974-79; Assistant Buyer and Department Manager, Sanger Harris, Dallas, Texas, 1979-81; Buyer/Manager, Windmill Western, Inc., Lawton, Oklahoma, 1981-84; Graduate Teaching Associate, Clothing, Textiles, and Merchandising, Research Associate, Center for Apparel Marketing and Merchandising, Oklahoma State University, 1984-86.

Professional Affiliations: Phi Upsilon Omicron, Kappa Omicron Phi, Omicron Nu, home economics honorary societies; American Home Economics Association; Association of College Professors of Textiles and Clothing; National Retail Merchants Association.