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**The relationship between psychological climate and work
motivation in a retail setting**

Woodard, Ginger Anne, Ph.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1992

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE
AND WORK MOTIVATION IN A RETAIL SETTING

by

Ginger Anne Woodard

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

May 1992

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APPROVAL PAGE

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated in honor of my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Herbert Woodard, whose love, encouragement, and guidance have been an inspiration throughout my doctoral studies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Appreciation is gratefully expressed to Dr. Nancy Cassill, Assistant Professor of Clothing and Textiles, for her guidance and support of this research. Gratitude is also extended to Dr. David Herr, Dr. Mary Morgan, and Dr. Barbara Clawson for their time and valuable assistance as members of my committee.

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WOODARD, GINGER ANNE, PH.D. The Relationship Between Psychological Climate and Work Motivation In A Retail Setting. (1992) Directed by Dr. Nancy Cassill and Dr. Mary Morgan. 171 pp.

The purpose of this study was to examine relationships among work motivation and the components of psychological climate in the retail environment. The sample consisted of 295 management employees of a major southeastern retailer with management employees divided into three groups.

The survey research method was used. The self-administered questionnaire included three sections: Work Motivation, Psychological Climate, and Demographics. Data analysis procedures used were coefficients of correlation, regression analysis, analysis of variance and analysis of covariance. In testing the relationship between the 13 subscales of psychological climate and work motivation (Hypotheses 1), results indicated that Job Importance, Organizational Identification, and Leader Goal Emphasis were significantly positively related to work motivation.

The effect of the management group structure on work motivation (Hypothesis 2) and the 13 subscales of psychological climate (Hypotheses 3) was tested. Results provided no evidence that the degree of structure of management groups affects work motivation. Six of the 13 psychological climate subscales produced significant results: Role Clarity, Leader Goal Emphasis, Organizational Identification, Leader Interaction, Leader Trust and

Support, and Psychological Influence.

Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the effect of the 13 subscales of psychological climate in the presence of demographic variables on work motivation (Hypotheses 4). Job Importance, Organizational Identification, and Leader Goal Emphasis were found to have a significant effect on work motivation in the presence of age and management group.

Results from this study confirm that an employee's psychological climate beliefs have a significant effect on work motivation within the retail industry. Results can benefit both retail management and educators.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The environment has long been recognized as a potent source of influence on human behavior. One specific environment, an organization's psychological environment, has an influence on the behavior of people in organizations. Psychological or organizational climate deals with the perceived characteristics (by the employee) found in the work environment that affect employee's work behavior (Steers & Porter, 1979). It is important to note that psychological climate is a perception by the employee, not necessarily what really exists. Vroom (1964) points out that people tend to act based on the way they see and understand the environment and not necessarily how it really is or how management means for it to be.

An individual's job attitudes are influenced by organizational characteristics such as 1) job and role characteristics, 2) leader behavior, 3) the relationship to others they work with, and 4) the overall organizational structure (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; James & James, 1989; Jones & James, 1979). These four composites constitute the psychological climate or work environment, which are the determining characteristics that distinguish one organization's working environment from another as

perceived by employees, and are believed to be measurable. It has been assumed (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970; Frederiksen, 1966; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; and Vroom, 1964) that organizational climate interacts with individual difference variables as needs or values in influencing behavior.

The traditional model of motivation viewed humans as being lazy, aimless, and greedy. In order to motivate individuals to work it was believed employees had to be paid a decent wage, given repetitive and simple tasks, and provided a bonus if they surpassed their quota. This model was soon found to be inadequate for motivating people. The new model, known as the Human Relations Model, (Steers & Porter, 1979) incorporated a strong social emphasis suggesting that management had a responsibility to make people feel useful and important on the job, to provide recognition, and to promote the satisfaction of workers' social needs, thus enhancing the psychological climate. However, the basic assumption remained the same, that employees comply with managerial authority.

The Human Resources models view humans as being motivated by a complex set of interrelated factors such as money, desire for meaningful work, and achievement (Steers & Porter, 1979). Different employees seek different goals in a job and have different talents. It is management's responsibility to learn how best to tap into their human

resources and to enable employees to achieve personal goals as well as organizational goals. Many organizations believe that by providing employees with increased task variety, job autonomy, decision-making authority, new opportunities, and a sense of accomplishment so as to enhance their jobs, the employees' reactions to their jobs will improve.

Among the antecedents of motivation, organizational climate has been regarded as one of the most significant contributors to an individual's motivation (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Steers & Porter, 1979). The nature of the organizational environment is an important variable affecting the work motivation process. Because organizational climate consists of organizational and social variables in an employees' job environment, it has an immediate influence on their beliefs about rewards and opportunities available within the organization. Such beliefs, in turn, contribute significantly to employees' job motivation (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976; James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Lawler, 1973; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Vroom, 1964).

Limited research exists regarding the psychological climate and work motivation within the retail industry. This is particularly surprising given the fact that "the retailing business is widely regarded as a people-oriented enterprise" (Lucas, 1985, p. 36). Effective management of human resources in retailing is critically important since

"the human resource cost of a typical retail store represents approximately 70% of the store's total expense dollars" (Teas, 1982, p. 4).

Today's competitive retail environment is facing many challenges, including the effective and efficient utilization of their most valuable asset--personnel. Retailing offers exciting challenges and nearly unlimited opportunities and rewards to those highly motivated individuals who understand and can meet the demands of a retail career and who have the special skills needed to be successful. The resolution of retailing's problems rests in top management's ability to restore employee confidence, select and retain the best people, secure their commitment, and motivate them to win increasingly competitive battles. Proper training and motivation of retail management is a necessary additional component in the quest for competitive superiority (Easterling, Leslie, & Henthorne, 1989).

Majors in retailing are offered in approximately 40% of the home economics programs in the United States (Garner & Buckley, 1988). With the growth in retail careers and in clothing and textiles subject matter content, preparation for success in the occupational field of apparel retailing by educators is critical since career development has been found to be related to educational background (Kunz, 1986). Preparation from educational programs should increase the number of qualified graduates available to retailers.

Retailing needs to select the best people, provide them with opportunities which enhance motivation, and offer rewards sufficient to maintain their commitment to giving their best in long-term employment. Unfortunately for the companies that lose them, the best people too often move on to greater challenges and opportunities, leaving behind people who contribute less to the well-being of the business than have those who departed (Women's Wear Daily, 1990). The American retail industry is "running out of people to work in its stores" and, in general, would rather "keep people and then promote people who know the company" (Chain Store Age Executive, 1988, p. 19). The shortage in the labor market will challenge most retailers' efforts to find and retain qualified employees. It is a challenge most retailers cannot afford to ignore any longer (Little & Myers, 1989).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine relationships among work motivation and the components of psychological climate in the retail environment.

More specifically, the main purposes of the study are:

1. To determine if the 13 subscales of psychological climate have an effect on work motivation.
2. To determine if the organizational structure by management group has an effect on work motivation.
3. To determine if the organizational structure by

management group has an effect on the 13 subscales of psychological climate.

4. To determine if the 13 subscales of psychological climate have an effect on work motivation in the presence of demographic variables.
5. To specify implications for educational purposes.

Significance of the Study

This study is important to educators as well as practitioners. Attitudes toward education are deeply ingrained in the retail environment. The emphasis on educational accountability requires that students pursuing retailing careers be prepared through related coursework. Retailing educators need to discern differences that may exist between what is being taught in the classroom and the needs of employers (Anderson, Parker, & Stanley, 1989). Curriculum design can be enhanced by encouraging input from retailers. Understanding the areas of importance within psychological climate and work motivation can contribute to an increased comprehension of the nature of managerial performance and tenure and improve curriculum decisions made by those who are preparing students for professional careers. Industry will benefit by gaining qualified persons who better fit their needs.

Results from this study will aid educators in structuring course content to assist students in developing a professional perspective. Both academics and

practitioners are concerned with the professional development of well-qualified, enthusiastic, college graduates as future employees of business firms including the retail industry (Anderson, Parker, & Stanley, 1989).

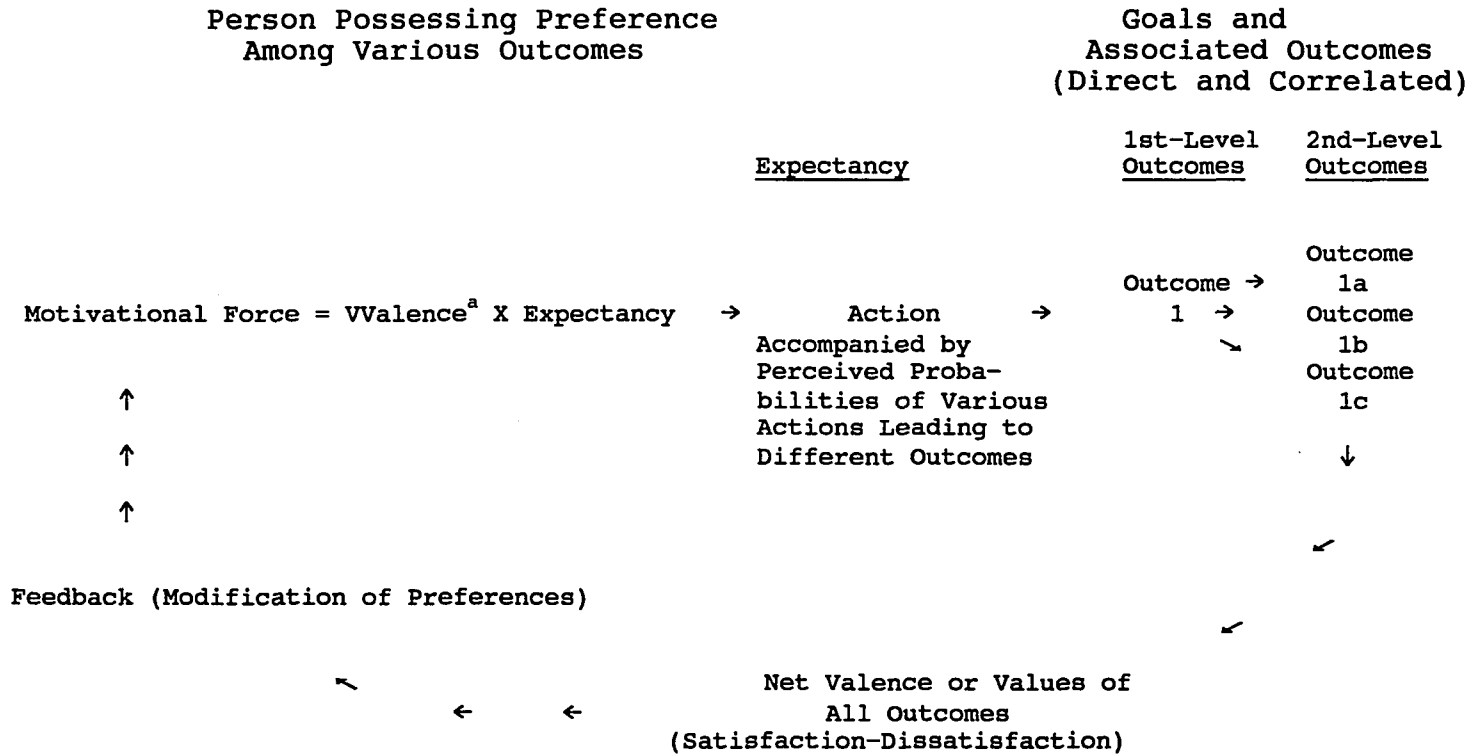
Investigation of psychological climate perceptions and work motivation of retail store management is important because the management position is a crucial one for the retailing organization (Kelly, Gable, & Hise, 1981). Individuals in a retail management position interact with all levels of their retail organization (e.g., immediate supervisor, buyers, salespersons, and customers) as well as contacts beyond their own department and/or company. Understanding the environment and motivating forces that drive these individuals will enable the retail organization to more effectively respond to their needs. If the retail organization strongly believes in the development and growth of their management personnel, the effects will be visible in psychological and motivational measures (Good & Sisler, 1987).

Conceptual Model

The Vroom Expectancy Theory (VIE) of Work Motivation was used as the conceptual model in this study (Figure 1). The Vroom model was selected for the following reasons:

- a) The Vroom theory recognizes the complexities of work motivation (LuThans, 1973),
- b) Vroom (1964) is commonly regarded as the original

Figure 1. The Vroom Expectancy Model of Motivation



^a $V_{\text{valence}} = \sum \text{valence} \times \text{instrumentality}$

Source: Dunnette, M.D., "The Motives of Industrial Managers," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance (May 1967). p. 178.
Adapted from Vroom, V.H., Work and Motivation. 1964.

researcher to use expectancy as the basis for a cognitive theory of work motivation (Pinder, 1984; Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976),

- c) The Vroom theory (1964), as the most widely researched theory of motivation in the behavioral sciences (Pinder, 1984), was designed specifically for the purpose of dealing with motivation in the work environment (Lawler, 1973), and
- d) The Vroom theory was designed as a within-persons model to measure the work motivation of individuals.

Vroom Expectancy Theory of Work Motivation

The basic assumption of the Vroom Model is that "the choices made by a person among alternative courses of action are lawfully related to psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behavior" (Vroom, 1982, pp. 14-15). Three concepts serve as the key building blocks of the theory: Valence, Instrumentality, and Expectancy. These three concepts are what instigate and direct behavior. Vroom theorizes that the force motivating a person to exert effort or perform an act in a job situation depends on the interaction between what that individual wants in a job (valence) and the degree to which he/she believes that the company will reward effort exerted (expectancy) on that job with the things he/she wants. Individuals believe that if they behave in a certain way (instrumentality), they will

receive certain things (Vroom, 1982). For example, if a person wants a pay raise (valence), believes that good job performance will lead to a pay raise (instrumentality), and believes that effort on their part will lead to good job performance (expectancy), then that individual will have a strong motivational force to perform.

Valence

Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy (VIE) theory maintains that people desire or hold preferences among various outcomes. Valence refers to the strength of an individual's preference for a particular outcome (Lawler, 1973) or specific job features such as a pay raise. In other words, valences represent how much value or worth each job feature holds for a specific individual.

Valences are represented in the model as Second-Level Outcomes. Each outcome will have different valences for different individuals because valences result from individual needs and perceptions, which differ because they in turn reflect other factors in the individual's life (Steers & Porter, 1979). An individual's valence for a work-related outcome refers to the level of satisfaction the person expects to receive from them, not from the real value the person actually derives from them (Pinder, 1984).

People attribute either positive or negative preferences to outcomes according to the satisfaction or dissatisfaction they expect to receive from them. An

outcome is positively valent for an individual if he/she prefers attaining it (e.g., receiving a pay raise). An outcome has a valence of zero when the person is indifferent to attaining or not attaining it. A negatively valent outcome for an individual occurs when the individual prefers to avoid the outcome (Vroom, 1982).

Instrumentality

Instrumentality refers to the degree of belief that behaving in a certain way (first-level outcome, i.e., performance level) will lead to a desired job feature (second-level outcome, e.g., pay raise) (Lawler, 1973). Instrumentality is an outcome-outcome association in which a value of positive one means that the first-level outcome (e.g., performance level) is believed to be a necessary condition for the attainment of the second-level outcome (e.g., pay raise) (Vroom, 1982). A value of zero indicates that there is no relationship between the attainment of the first outcome and the attainment of the second outcome. A negative value means that the attainment of the second outcome is certain without the first outcome and that it is impossible with it (e.g., a pay raise without high performance level) (Vroom, 1982).

VValence (\sum Valence X Instrumentality)

Valence now takes on a new meaning and will be termed VValence. Because of the relationship between valence (second-level outcome) and instrumentality (first-level

outcome), V valence as represented in Figure 1, is \sum valence \times instrumentality. For example, if an employee believes that a high level of performance (first-level outcome) will be instrumental in acquiring outcomes that he/she expects will be gratifying (valence, second-level outcome, e.g., a pay raise), then that employee will place a high V valence (\sum valence \times instrumentality) upon performing the job well (Steers & Porter, 1979).

Expectancy

Expectancy is an action-outcome association (Vroom, 1982) and is the relationship between effort and first-level outcomes (i.e., performance) (Lawler, 1973). It is the extent that an individual believes a certain action will result in a particular outcome. In other words, expectancy is the likelihood that effort (e.g., working hard) will lead to a particular first-level outcome (i.e., good job performance). This represents an individual's perception of the probability of successful achievement of a behavior (Steers & Porter, 1979). Expectancy beliefs are probability values ranging from zero (which indicates no subjective probability that an act will be followed by an outcome) to one (indicating certainty that an act will be followed by an outcome) (Vroom, 1982).

Motivational Force

Motivational force is the concept used by Vroom to be equivalent to motivation or the strength of the motivation

to perform a certain act. Vroom suggests that a person's beliefs about valences, where VValence (\sum valence X instrumentality), and expectancies interact psychologically to create a motivational force to act in those ways that seem most likely to bring pleasure or to avoid pain (Pinder, 1984). Motivational force is the "algebraic sum of the products of valences multiplied by expectancies" (LuThans, 1973, p. 490) where VValence is the sum of valence X instrumentality.

Motivational Force = VValence X Expectancy (where VValence = \sum valence X instrumentality) or symbolically:

$$M = [\sum_{k=1}^n (V_k \times I_k) \times E]$$

M = the individual management motivation

k = the outcome

n = total number of outcomes

E = the management employee's probability of achieving good job performance based on his/her effort

I_k = the probability that good job performance will result in outcome k

V_k = the valence of second-level outcome k

The multiplicative feature of the theory is important because unless both VValence (\sum valence X instrumentality) and expectancy are present to some degree, there will be no

motivational force. An individual will be motivated to perform well in a situation only if performing well has the highest $V_{\text{Valence}} \times \text{Expectancy}$ force in that particular situation (Lawler, 1973).

While the theory stresses the individual differences in work motivation, it does not attempt to describe what the differences are or to provide specific suggestions on what motivates humans in organizations. Because there are individual differences in work motivation, everyone has a unique combination of valences and expectancies (LuThans, 1973). However, the Vroom model is designed to help management analyze the worker's motivation and identify some of the relevant variables (LuThans, 1973).

Nominal Definitions

Department Store--A large scale retailing institution which sells a wide variety of goods where related products are grouped together for the purposes of promotion, service, and control (Ostrow & Smith, 1985).

Expectancy--A belief that a certain action will result in a particular outcome (Vroom, 1982).

Human Resources--Division of an organization that manages employees.

Instrumentality--A probability belief that good job performance leads to a particular outcome or job feature (Vroom, 1982).

Management--Individuals who supervise personnel, purchasing of merchandise, store maintenance, and/or operations (Morgenstein & Strongin, 1987).

Motivational Force--Motivation or the strength of the motivation to perform a certain act (Vroom, 1982).

Psychological Climate--Psychological climate refers to an individual's perception of organizational conditions and interrelationships among organizational conditions and a cognitive representation in terms of their psychological meaning and significance to the individual (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976; James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; James & James, 1989; Jones & James, 1979).

Retail Industry--All retail organizations associated with the distribution of goods and services to consumers which involves being aware of the wants and needs of the consumer (Cohen, 1989).

Retailer--An individual or firm that sells goods and services directly to the ultimate consumer (Morgenstein & Strongin, 1987).

Valence--The strength of an individual's preference for a particular outcome or job feature (Vroom, 1982).

VValence--The sum of valence times instrumentality (\sum valence X instrumentality).

Work Motivation--A set of forces from within and surrounding an individual, that initiate work-related

behavior and determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration (Pinder, 1984).

Assumptions

1. A relationship exists between the components of psychological climate and work motivation.
2. Respondents will feel free to respond honestly to the questionnaire without fear of being identified and jeopardizing their position.

Limitations

1. The survey is limited to one company, which is privately held and located in the southeastern United States; therefore, the results cannot be generalized to the retail industry population.
2. Other psychological climate and work motivation components not measured by this study may further explain this relationship.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature will be presented for the following: (1) psychological climate, (2) work motivation, (3) research studies which relate psychological climate and work motivation, (4) the retail industry, and (5) demographics found to have an influence on psychological climate and work motivation.

Psychological Climate

The psychological atmosphere of an organization is generally referred to as organizational climate (Pritchard & Karasick, 1973). There has been discussion on whether psychological climate and organizational climate are addressing the same issues. Researchers concerned with individual perceptions of the work environment focus on psychological climate (Jones & James, 1979), whereas organizational climate is investigated when organizational traits are of interest. James (1982) maintained that the variables of interest in climate measurement are intrinsically psychological and it is evident that the unit of theory be the individual. Glick (1985) suggests that there is a relationship between individuals and organizations that is multidimensional. Therefore, organizational and psychological climate should be retained

as useful categories of variables for multidimensional assessments of individual-organizational relationships and are used interchangeably.

Neither the individual nor the environment alone determines behavior. Individuals have past experiences, unique sets of needs, and expectations about how organizations will treat them. Each of these will affect how an individual will respond to the work environment. The work environment provides structures (e.g., pay, supervisor) that will influence behavior of the individuals (Steers & Porter, 1979).

A definition of organizational climate includes a quality of an organization's internal environment distinguishing it from other organizations which results from the behavior and policies of members of the organization, especially top management, and is perceived by members of the organization (Litwin & Stringer, 1966; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973). Organizational climate influences behavior. Organizational climate has been understood to refer to a broad class of organizational and perceptual variables that reflect individual-organizational interactions and affect individuals' behavior in organizations (Glick, 1985).

Individual differences must not be ignored when considering climate. An interaction between organizational climate and individual differences variables as needs and

values in influencing behavior have been assumed to exist (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970; Fredericksen, 1966; Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Vroom, 1960). James, Hartman, Stebbins, and Jones (1977) incorporated this concept into their definition of psychological climate as follows:

Psychological climate refers to the individual's internalized representations of organizational conditions and interrelationships among organizational conditions, and reflects a cognitive structuring of perceived situational influences in the situation (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977, p. 230).

Efforts to measure organizational climate have resulted in classifications of organizational climate through factor analysis methods. Organizational climate variables might include the physical work environment, communication systems, training programs, supervision, and work schedules (Anderson, 1986). Each of these may affect employee responses to the job design-job satisfaction relationship. According to James (1982), psychological climate variables were designed to assess work environments as they are cognitively represented in terms of their psychological meaning and significance to the individual (James & James, 1989). Classes of variables that have been found to impact on an individual's expectancy perception and be predictors of instrumentality perceptions include (a) job and role characteristics such as variety, challenge, job pressures,

and role ambiguity; (b) leadership behaviors such as support, goal emphasis, and initiation of structure; (c) workgroup and social environment characteristics such as friendliness and cooperation; and (d) subunit and organizational characteristics with relatively direct ties to individual experience such as management awareness of employee needs, and fairness of the reward system (Jones & James, 1979).

Jones and James (1979) have questioned whether the number of classifications are too few; however, in a study of navy ship personnel Jones and James (1979) concluded that individual perceptions of work area conditions could be summarized in a few dimensions that describe a wide range of environments. The following are climate dimensions that have been found and labeled in the literature.

James and James (1989) derived four psychological climate factors by factor analyses. Role Stress and Lack of Harmony consisted of role ambiguity, conflict, overload, and management concern and awareness. Job Challenge and Autonomy included job autonomy, job importance, and job challenge and variety. Leadership Facilitation and Support incorporated hierarchical influence, leader trust and support, leader interaction facilitation, and leader goal emphasis and facilitation. Finally, Workgroup Cooperation, Warmth, and Friendliness was comprised of workgroup

cooperation, responsibility for effectiveness, and workgroup warmth and friendliness.

The main objective was to test the hypothesis that a general factor underlies psychological climate perceptions. People respond to work environments in terms of how they perceive these environments. An important concern in perception is the degree to which individuals perceive themselves as being personally benefitted as opposed to being personally hindered by their environment (James & James, 1989).

Job and Role Characteristics

Job and role characteristics have been found to include role ambiguity, role conflict, job autonomy, job variety and challenge, job importance or task significance, and job pressure or role overload (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Jones & James, 1979). Role ambiguity is the result when the nature of the expected role behaviors is uncertain (Oliver & Brief, 1977-78). When a worker perceives his/her role as being ambiguous there is either a nonexistence of information needed to do the job effectively, or a lack of adequate information (Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975).

Role conflict may result for an employee when incompatible job expectations or requests are received or inconsistent behaviors are expected by an individual from the employee (Kelly, Gable, & Hise, 1981; Oliver & Brief,

1977-78). High job autonomy may reduce role conflict. A high degree of job autonomy allows the employee freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and in determining the processes to be used in carrying out the job (Teas, 1982).

Job challenge and variety involves the extent to which individuals are able to use their skills and abilities and are able to engage in a wide range of behaviors on the job (Jones & James, 1979). Job challenge may lead to a greater feeling of job importance. Job importance, also labeled as task significance, is the degree to which the individuals feel their job is making a meaningful contribution to the organization (Jones & James, 1979).

A final job and role characteristic has been labeled as both role overload and job pressure. Role overload or job pressure is the extent to which there is insufficient time, training, and resources to perform an assigned task (Jones & James, 1979).

Significant job and role characteristics in the psychological climate have been identified by several researchers including Jones and James (1979), James, Hartman, Stebbins, and Jones (1977), and Hackman and Oldham (1975) who developed the Job Diagnostic Survey. This survey measures five job dimensions including skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Steers & Porter, 1979). A psychological

component labeled "Job Challenge, Importance, and Variety" was found by Jones and James (1979) in a sample of United States Navy enlisted male personnel. A similar breakdown of job characteristics included job variety and autonomy, job pressure and conflict, and job importance and challenge (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977).

The characteristics of role conflict and role ambiguity have been investigated by researchers in relation to job satisfaction with retail managers, administrative medical staff, and industrial salesmen (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976; Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Good & Sisler, 1987; Oliver & Brief, 1977-78). Each has been found to be negatively related to job satisfaction. When high levels of both role conflict and role ambiguity were present, job dissatisfaction was more likely (Good & Sisler, 1987) and lowered job performance and motivation (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984). A low level of role stress leads to job satisfaction, which leads to organizational commitment, therefore a lowered intention to leave a company. Oliver and Brief (1977-78) found that by increasing the retail manager's job autonomy over his job, the organization could reduce role conflict. Role ambiguity was reduced by providing more frequent and precise performance feedback.

It has been found that by increasing an individual's job autonomy, role conflict can be reduced (Oliver & Brief,

1977-78) and job performance is higher (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984). Employees who have rated the job dimension of autonomy high have generally considered these positions to be enriched jobs with high motivational potential (Teas, 1982). Hackman and Lawler (1971) studied the relationship of several job dimensions on absenteeism. Job autonomy and task identity were found to be strongly and inversely related to absenteeism (Porter & Steers, 1973) and significantly related to job satisfaction (Anderson, 1984). Job autonomy was the job dimension found to be primarily related to motivating aspects of the job (Anderson, 1984).

Job characteristics were among the factors felt to have a potential influence on instrumentality beliefs according to Teas (1982). Task variety and significance were found to be significantly related to the instrumentality variable while task autonomy had no significant relationship to instrumentality (Teas, 1982). Tyagi (1982) also examined the influence of climate dimensions on salesperson motivation. Climate variables included in the results were job challenge and variety, job importance, and role overload which did not have a significant influence on the expectancy component of motivation (Tyagi, 1982).

Leadership Behavior

Leadership behavior or supervisory consideration includes leader support and trust, goal emphasis, work facilitation, and leader interaction facilitation (Jones &

James, 1979). According to Sims, Szilagyi, and McKemey (1976) leader behavior involves the role of clarifying expectations, and guiding, supporting, and rewarding subordinates. Teas (1982) and Lucas (1985) referred to this variable as supervisory consideration. This involved the perceptions of the employee about the manager's attempts to promote a positive work climate. This environment is characterized by respect, mutual trust, psychological support, helpfulness, and friendliness.

Leader support and trust is the extent to which the supervisor is aware of and responsive to the needs of their subordinates (Jones & James, 1979). The trust element is a two-way involvement between supervisor and employee. The employees have a feeling of trust and confidence in their supervisor and the supervisor trusts the performance and judgments of the employees.

Leader goal emphasis consists of the supervisor stimulating personal involvement in meeting group goals by stressing high performance standards and getting involved in the work themselves, therefore setting an example (Jones & James, 1979). Closely related to goal emphasis is work facilitation which involves the supervisor effectively scheduling, coordinating, planning, and providing resources to help in meeting goal achievement (Jones & James, 1979). The supervisor structures both their role and the role of

the employees in job activities, for example, by specifying procedures or assigning tasks (Teas, 1982).

Leader interaction facilitation is a final variable within leader behavior that involves the supervisor encouraging the development of close, mutually satisfying relationships within the group (Jones & James, 1979). This involves a social element but is developed through the leader or supervisor.

Jones and James (1979), in a study of United States Navy enlisted male personnel, incorporated in their psychological climate questionnaire a measure of leader orientation that included support, interaction facilitation, goal emphasis, work facilitation, leader's ability to plan and coordinate, and confidence and trust. One component "Leader Facilitation and Support" was revealed from the principal components analysis which exhibited leader behaviors, such as the extent to which the leader was seen as helping to accomplish work goals by means of scheduling activities and planning, as well as the extent to which the leader was perceived as facilitating interpersonal relationships and providing personal support.

Research has shown that organizations that use leadership styles characterized by high consideration and initiation of structure will have a positive impact on employees' instrumentality perceptions (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976;

Teas, 1981, 1982). The effect of the supervisor's behavior was evident with paramedical and support personnel as well as retail salespeople and, thus, does not appear to be limited to one type of population. An overall leadership style that was supportive, considerate, participatory, and facilitating was found to be positively related to instrumentality beliefs. Leadership facilitation and support did not correlate significantly with any of the valence measures (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977).

In addition to effecting instrumentality beliefs, the same type of supervisory style has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction and commitment (Darden, Hampton, & Howell, 1989; Litwin & Stringer, 1966). The effect of differing leadership styles has been investigated (Litwin & Stringer, 1966) by creating three distinct climates: (1) an authoritarian-structured business where decision-making was centralized and employee behavior is governed by rules, (2) a democratic-friendly business where good interpersonal relations among employees were stressed, and (3) an achieving business where goal-achievement was stressed (Pritchard & Karasick, 1973).

Results found that subjects in the achieving climate produced the most, had high job satisfaction, and positive group attitudes. The democratic-friendly environment resulted in the highest level of work satisfaction and positive work-group attitudes. The authoritarian climate

led to low productivity as well as low job satisfaction and creativity, and negative attitudes toward the work group. Leadership style has been determined to be one of the most important determinants of organizational climate (Litwin & Stringer, 1966).

Varying leadership styles cannot only be seen to have an effect on satisfaction, performance, motivation, and commitment but on the psychological climate components of job and role characteristics as well. Darden, Hampton, and Howell (1989) found that an authoritarian-structured supervisory style caused role conflict, ambiguity, and lack of clarity. The findings indicated that supervisory style was positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to self-reported job performance. One of the most important factors in determining commitment was supervisory style. Acquiring committed salespersons can be accomplished with friendly, participative supervisors who are skillful at communicating role expectations.

Lucas (1985) assessed the attitudes of retail managers on job-related issues by incorporating questions related to satisfaction with supervisory consideration as one variable. Supervisory consideration was found to have a strong relationship with the supervisors' performance rating. Establishing open communication channels and creating a positive relationship between supervisors and managers was an important consideration among the managers in the study.

Workgroup Characteristics and Social Environment

Workgroup characteristics and social environment includes the workgroup cooperation and workgroup friendliness and warmth (Jones & James, 1979). Workgroup cooperation involves an atmosphere where there is a collaborative effort among all individuals to carry out the tasks. Workgroup friendliness and warmth is the amount of open communication and trust among the members of the workgroup. The atmosphere is portrayed by friendly relations.

"Workgroup Cooperation, Friendliness, and Warmth" has been revealed as a significant component of psychological climate (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Jones & James, 1979). This component includes a friendliness and warmth relationship among group members, cooperation among the workgroup, and their pride in the workgroup. This component of psychological climate was found among United States Navy enlisted personnel as well as health care employees.

This component of psychological climate was also found by Hackman and Oldham (1975) in the development and investigation of the Job Diagnostic Survey. Dealing with others, which is a psychological variable, was found to be positively related to measures of work satisfaction and motivation.

Organizational Characteristics

Organizational characteristics include management concern and awareness, opportunities for growth and advancement, reward system process, and organizational feedback/communication (Jones & James, 1979). Overall practices of the organization that involve the reward system, control system, rules, and constraints associated with the general functioning of the organization is the definition from Sims, Szilagyi, and McKemey (1976).

Organizational Identification has also been found to be a part of the organizational characteristics (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977). Management concern and awareness involves the organization's attempts to assess and respond to the employees' needs and problems (Jones & James, 1979).

Opportunities for growth and advancement is the degree to which an individual feels that the organization provides a method for development of desired personal skills, goals, and rewards (Jones & James, 1979). Reward system process is the degree to which the organization rewards individuals for performance rather than seniority or other nonperformance reasons.

Organizational feedback or communication, according to Teas (1982), involves the performance evaluation information provided to the employee that is organizationally mediated. It is the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining

direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance (Teas, 1982). Communication involves not only performance feedback information but any information concerning organizational procedures, policies, etc. being conveyed to the employee (Jones & James, 1979). It has been shown that communication through participation and performance feedback is positively related to employees' instrumentality perceptions (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Lawler, 1969; Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976; Teas, 1981; Vroom, 1964).

Organizational Identification is the degree to which an individual believes his organization performs an important function, offers unique opportunities for growth and reward, and takes pride in the organization (Jones and James, 1979). This dimension reflects perceived image and desirable growth potential offered by the organization. A similar characteristic was found among several samples as being significant (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Jones & James, 1979).

Jones and James (1979) included organizational items in their psychological climate questionnaire to United States Navy personnel. Two organizationally related factors emerged from analysis. The first component was labeled "Conflict and Ambiguity". A second component was labeled "Professional and Organizational Esprit". Similarly, organizational concern for the individual was the

classification given for one of the components found to be of significance in the perceived psychological climate by James, Hartman, Stebbins, and Jones (1977). Overall organizational characteristics are linked to individual experiences.

Expectancy II (perceived probability between performance and reward or instrumentality) has been found to be strongly related to the practices and policies of the organization as a whole (Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976; Teas, 1982). An open system of communication is an item within organizational characteristics that was found to be a contributor to instrumentality perceptions (Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976). A more specific area within communication, organizational feedback, has also been found to be significantly related to instrumentality beliefs (Teas, 1982). Closely related to this is increased job satisfaction which has been found where there was increased frequency of communication (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976).

Frederiksen (1966) investigated climate dimensions with middle managers by creating four treatment climates to examine the effects of varying climates on individuals. After applying these four climates it was found that when climate conditions permitted more freedom, administrators dealt more directly with peers as opposed to the restrictive climates where more formal channels were used (Pritchard &

Karasick, 1973). Climates that were more open, consultative, and employee-centered were associated with more positive job attitudes (Steer & Porter, 1979).

Work Motivation

The term "motivation" is derived from the Latin word *movere*, which means "to move". This is an insufficient definition for the purposes of this study. A description is needed of the processes involved in motivation. Several motivation theorists have used this term in differing forms. For example; "...a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity" is the definition from Vroom (1964, p. 6). Edward Lawler III uses motivation "to explain the voluntary choices people make among different behaviors" (1973, p. 5). "Motivation is what energizes, directs, channels, maintains, and sustains an employee's actions and behaviors" as defined by Steers and Porter (1979).

Each of these definitions, though different, appear to have three elements in common that should be of concern in studying motivation: (1) What energizes human behavior?, (2) What directs or channels the behavior?, and (3) What maintains this behavior over time (Steers & Porter, 1979)?. These elements, along with understanding that motivation deals with behaviors that people choose, which suggests that motivation is voluntary, are important components of understanding human behavior at work. Motivation is

multidimensional as evidenced by these definitions and researchers (Deci, 1972; James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Teas, 1981).

Motivation is the drive to act or behave in certain ways with the behavior directed toward something and involves feedback that requires either supporting the drive or redirecting the action. According to Vroom (1964) the behavior that most individuals demonstrate on the job and in the job market is voluntary and consequently motivated. If individuals do not work effectively it is because they do not feel motivated to do so. The key to working effectively is the degree of motivation the individual has (Quick, 1982). Each of these aspects of motivation has been shown over and over in research.

Centers and Bugental (1966) interviewed a cross-section of the working population in regard to their job motivations. White-collar workers were found to place greater value on intrinsic sources (interesting work, using skills or talents, providing a feeling of satisfaction) of job satisfaction than blue-collar workers. Blue-collar workers placed greater value on extrinsic sources (pay, co-workers, always having a job) of job satisfaction. White-collar workers were more likely to be motivated to stay on the job because of intrinsic considerations rather than the pay received or financial security. Differences existed in job motivation between occupational levels.

Motivation is a difficult concept to understand and test for several reasons. First, motivation cannot be seen. It has never been actually observed. Only the behavioral displays of motivation are observable so it is complex to infer what motive is behind observable behavior (LuThans, 1973; Steers & Porter, 1979). The relationship between motivation and behavior is a very intricate one.

Second, motivation is an individual's choice. It refers to behaviors that people choose. People control their own behavior. Motivation comes from within a person, not from outside sources. People act to gain the rewards that they see as important to them (Steers & Porter, 1979). There are a wide range of motivating factors just as there are many different kinds of people. What motivates one person to act may not be the motive of another. Individual differences exist which may profoundly affect what one desires and how one seeks to satisfy that desire. Organizations must weigh individual differences in regard to the rewards they offer or they may end up trying to motivate people with rewards they do not esteem (Lawler, 1973).

A third reason that motivation is a difficult concept to understand is that more than one need or desire may be influencing an individual at one time. These needs and desires may change as well as be in conflict with one another at varying times. Because of the changing nature of motives for an individual and their conflicting nature at

some times, it is a complex process to try to measure them with any certainty.

These three reasons make motivation difficult to understand and harder to measure. Numerous research studies have been conducted to attempt to clarify the nature of the relationships of motivation as it relates to behavior in work situations. Eight theories of motivation will be reviewed.

Maslow's Theory of Motivation

Abraham Maslow was the first to offer an overall theory of motivation. Though not intended to be directly applied to work motivation, his need hierarchy has had tremendous influence on the management approach to motivation. Maslow's theory is arranged in a hierarchical manner according to man's motivational needs. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs include (1) Physiological Needs, (2) Safety Needs, (3) Love Needs, (4) Esteem Needs, and (5) Self-Actualization Needs. He maintained that once a given level of need became satisfied, it no longer served to motivate. In order to motivate the individual, the next higher level of need had to be aroused (Maslow, 1970). Maslow's theory has been questioned as an overall theory of work motivation but may be useful as an appraisal of the priority needs of workers (LuThans, 1973).

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

Frederick Herzberg, in the 1950's, conducted a

motivational study on accountants and engineers in firms in Pennsylvania. The subjects were asked to report on job situations in which they had felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad. The study was concerned with the positive or negative motivational aspects of different job factors (Centers & Bugental, 1966). From the responses, Herzberg concluded that more job satisfaction was reported in relation to job content, labeled motivators (i.e., achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, etc.), and job dissatisfiers were more related to job context, labeled hygiene factors (i.e., salary, working conditions, interpersonal relations, supervision, etc.). These became known as Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation.

This theory is closely related to Maslow's need hierarchy in that the hygiene factors are more preventive and environmental in nature and thus comparable to Maslow's lower-level needs. Although the hygiene factors are suggested to prevent dissatisfaction, they do not lead to satisfaction nor to lasting motivation (LuThans, 1973; Whitsett & Winslow, 1967). The hygiene factors cannot lead to satisfaction because they do not contain the characteristics necessary for growth in an individual. To lead to growth, an achievement in tasks must be accomplished. Since the hygiene factors are not related to the task, they are unable to give an individual a sense of

growth (Herzberg, 1976). Herzberg's investigation of employee motivation concluded that the only way to motivate employees is to give them more challenging jobs for which they can assume responsibility. He also stated that motivated employees seek more hours of work, not less.

Research on this theory from a variety of organizational contexts has raised questions about its validity and reliability (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1967; Ewen, 1964; Lawler, 1973; Whitsett & Winslow, 1967). Subjective accounts of job events lead to many possible errors from reliability in classifying the job features and events to experimenter bias in analyzing the data (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1967; Ewen, 1964). Another major criticism of the theory is whether satisfaction and dissatisfaction are indeed two separate concepts (Lawler, 1973). Clear distinctions do not always exist between factors that lead to satisfaction and those that lead to dissatisfaction. Research shows that the Herzberg two-factor theory is an oversimplified representation of the mechanism by which job satisfaction or dissatisfaction comes about (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1967). Satisfaction or dissatisfaction can reside in the job content, the job context, or both jointly.

Vroom's Theory of Work Motivation

It has been suggested that Vroom's model is an alternative to the Herzberg model which it is not (LuThans,

1973). Both the Maslow and Herzberg theories provide specific suggestions on what motivates individuals in organizations. The Vroom theory stresses the individual differences in work motivation, however, it does not attempt to describe what the differences are. Maslow and Herzberg have oversimplified motivation while Vroom does not take a simplistic approach (LuThans, 1973). The Vroom theory recognizes the complexities of work motivation (LuThans, 1973).

Vroom (1964) is commonly regarded as the original researcher to use expectancy as the basis for a cognitive theory of work motivation (Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976). The Vroom theory (1964), as the most widely researched theory of motivation in the behavioral sciences (Oliver, 1974), was designed specifically for the purpose of dealing with motivation in the work environment (Lawler, 1973). Three concepts serve as the key building blocks of the theory: Valence, Instrumentality, and Expectancy. (See Chapter 1 for theoretical presentation).

Galbraith and Cummings (1967) applied the Vroom model of motivation with operative workers. This study supported the Vroom model on the interactive effects of valence and instrumentality in determining motivation for a particular performance outcome. The researchers suggested that at least three conditions were necessary for a component of the organizational reward system to exert a significant and

predictable impact on employee behavior. First, the outcome or component of the reward system must be desired by the employee. That is, the reward must have positive valence for the employee. Second, the employee must perceive that variations in his/her performance will lead to variations in the amount of reward he/she will receive, or instrumentality will be significantly different from zero. And third, provided both of the above exist, the environmental factors, technology, and other organizational factors that constrain the effectiveness of the reward system must be such that the organization is able to vary the significance of the reward element adequately to elicit variations in employee behavior.

Teas (1982) utilized the Vroom Model to test a set of propositions concerning retail sales employee's perceptions of job instrumentalities. Because this study only assessed instrumentality, the researcher suggested that additional research was needed regarding the valence and expectancy portions of the model. According to the expectancy theory, increased instrumentality beliefs can be expected to be associated with increased motivation.

Atkinson Model of Motivation

The Atkinson model (1964) was developed to explain behavior and performance related to the need for achievement, the need for power, and the need for affiliation (Litwin & Stringer, 1968; Steers & Porter,

1979). The need for achievement, power, and affiliation collectively are qualities of motivation that have been found to be important determinants of job performance (see Vroom, 1964). The Atkinson model states that the tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectancy or belief that the act will lead to a particular outcome or goal and on the value of that outcome or goal to the person (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). The model holds that

aroused motivation (to strive for a particular kind of satisfaction or goal) is a joint multiplicative function of (a) the strength of the basic motive [M], (b) the expectancy of attaining the goal [E], and (c) the perceived incentive value of the particular goal [I].

Aroused Motivation = M X E X I
(Litwin & Stringer, 1968, pp. 11-12).

This model considers the components of those equivalent to valence and instrumentality but does not include expectancy in the comprisal of motivation. By eliminating this component, one is not able to see if effort is related or unrelated to performance.

Porter and Lawler Model of Motivation

The Porter and Lawler Model of Motivation (1968) proposes a multivariable model for the complex relationship between job attitudes and job performance that exists. The authors built upon the Vroom (1964) model by including an effort-reward probability which refers to an individual's perceptions of whether differential rewards are based on

differential efforts (Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976). The key variables in this model are effort, performance, reward, and satisfaction. The model combines expectancy and instrumentality into one variable and discusses the relationship between effort and job outcomes (Pritchard & Sanders, 1973; Steers & Porter, 1979). Their research supports the hypothesis that job performance leads to job satisfaction by indicating that performance causes satisfaction because performance leads to rewards which, in turn, causes satisfaction.

Several limitations to this model have been discussed. First, the primary focus of their research was upon pay and the role of pay in employee motivation. Consideration of other outcomes was limited (Pinder, 1984). Second, LuThans (1973) and Steers and Porter (1979) suggest that by combining the two variables, expectancy and instrumentality, one is not able to see if performance is related or unrelated to job outcomes nor if effort is related or unrelated to performance. Third, in the model, motivation is not equal to satisfaction and/or performance. Each of these is a separate variable. Effort does not directly lead to performance. Effort is affected by abilities and traits of the individual (LuThans, 1973). Finally, it has been expressed that the relationship between satisfaction and performance is very complex. Researchers have suggested that the relationship suggested by Porter and Lawler is too

simplistic because (a) rewards have a more direct link to satisfaction than performance and (b) individuals are rewarded for current performance and this is what causes further performance, not satisfaction (LuThans, 1973).

LuThan's Needs--Drives--Goals

Understanding the meaning and association between needs, drives, and goals is the key to understanding motivation according to LuThans (1973). "Needs set up drives to accomplish goals.

Needs -----	Drives -----	Goals
(Deprivation)	(Deprivation w/Direction)	(Reduction of drives)"

(LuThans, 1973, p. 392). These three are interdependent and interacting components that constitute motivation. When people become committed to goals they have set, these goals provide motives for action--motivation (Timm, 1980). This theory of motivation is based upon a person's deprivation which causes a person to act in order to achieve a goal. While needs may be translated into valences, instrumentality and expectancy components of motivation are omitted, therefore performance and effort are not components of motivation resulting in a more simplistic approach to motivation.

Lawler Motivation Theory

Edward Lawler III (1971) developed an expectancy model of behavior that suggests that job behavior is influenced by

factors other than motivation, ability being one of the most important. He hypothesized that no matter how motivated a person is to perform well, good performance is not possible if the person lacks the necessary ability. When an employer is trying to determine the basis for poor performance, it is important to conclude how much of the problem is due to poor ability and how much is due to low motivation (Lawler, 1971). The model differs from other expectancy models by making a distinction between the expectancy that effort will lead to the successful performance of a behavior (Expectancy I) and the expectancy that this action will produce desired outcomes (Expectancy II). The model specifies what it is that determines the type of expectancy to performance and performance to outcome relationship beliefs that people have (Lawler & Suttle, 1973). The multiplicative combination of these two types of expectancies, then, determines the expectancy part of the expectancy/valence equation. An individual's motivation force to perform is determined by multiplying Expectancy I times Expectancy II times the outcome valences (Steers & Porter, 1979). In testing the theory, ability was not found to be a good predictor of job performance (Lawler & Suttle, 1973).

Based upon models from several researchers (Galbraith & Cummings, 1967; Lawler, 1964; Porter & Lawler, 1968), Lawler and Suttle (1973) sampled department managers from six retail stores to investigate seven conceptually different

variables. The purpose was to assess whether expectancies combine in a way suggested by Vroom (1964) and Lawler (1964) to influence motivation. It was concluded from the results that weighting expectancy items by valence items does not increase the predictability of behavior.

James, Hartman, Stebbins, and Jones (1977) used a modified version of the Lawler and Suttle (1973) VIE questionnaire. Considerable similarity was found between the valence and instrumentality items. The relationship between psychological climate and valence-instrumentality-expectancy components was significant.

Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics

Model of Work Motivation

Hackman and Oldham (1975) developed the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) as an instrument for surveying employee perceptions and evaluations of their job content. The concept behind the JDS is that to the degree that tasks with meaningfulness, identity, significance, feedback, autonomy, and variety are valued by employees, jobs with such characteristics will enhance job satisfaction with job content and decrease turnover (Mobley, 1982). The "job enrichment" construct has five component dimensions: (1) Task variety; (2) Task identity; (3) Task significance; (4) Autonomy; and (5) Feedback. These five job dimensions are believed to create three important psychological states: (1) Experienced Meaningfulness, (2) Experienced

Responsibility, and (3) Knowledge of Results or Feedback. The model suggests that internal rewards are gained by the individual when he/she receives feedback that he/she has performed well in work that is meaningful to him/her. This reinforces the behavior and gives the individual the incentive to continue performing well. The result is a self-perpetuating cycle of positive work motivation which is powered by self-generated rewards (Steers & Porter, 1979).

Variety, task identity, and task significance lead to meaningfulness. Job autonomy leads to responsibility and feedback leads to knowledge of results. The presence of at least one of the three meaningfulness dimensions plus autonomy and feedback, will lead to each of the three psychological states being present (Steers & Porter, 1979). A "Motivating Potential Score" (MPS) provides a formula to meet this criterion:

$$\text{MPS} = \frac{(\text{Variety} + \text{Task Identity} + \text{Task Significance})}{3} \times \text{Autonomy} \times \text{Feedback}$$

3

(Hackman & Oldham, 1975).

Each of the eight theories of work motivation reviewed demonstrates the complexity of work motivation both in understanding and measuring motivation. The Vroom (1964) Theory of Work Motivation was used as the conceptual model for this research study because it deals with the complexities of work motivation.

Research Relating Work Motivation
and Psychological Climate

An employee's work environment (organizational climate) has a significant effect on motivation and behavior (James, Hartman, Stebbins & Jones, 1977; Teas, 1982; Tyagi, 1982). The following are studies relating psychological climate and work motivation or aspects of motivation.

James, Hartman, Stebbins and Jones (1977) examined relationships between psychological climate and the components of a VIE model for work motivation. Managerial employees from a large health care company completed a psychological climate-VIE questionnaire. Results revealed that relationships among psychological climate and valence-instrumentality-expectancy components were significant.

Similar relationships have been found by Tyagi (1982) in investigating the relationships between organizational climate variables and motivational components. Components of motivation were classified by intrinsic or extrinsic characteristics. The results showed that the influence of climate dimensions was much stronger on intrinsic instrumentality than on extrinsic instrumentality and motivation. Each of the climate variables except challenge and variety had a significant impact on intrinsic motivation. Only job importance and organizational identification had a mild influence on extrinsic motivation. Climate variables of challenge and variety, job importance,

and role overload did not significantly influence the expectancy component of motivation.

As one segment of the VIE model (Vroom, 1964), instrumentality has been explored in relation to psychological climate (Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976; Teas, 1982). The expectancy theory of motivation framework (Vroom, 1964) has been used to test a set of propositions concerning retail sales employees' perceptions of job instrumentalities. Teas (1982) investigated the extent to which improved performance was perceived to result in increased rewards. Leader consideration, organizational feedback, and task variety and significance were found to be significantly related to instrumentality while task autonomy had no significant relationship to instrumentality. A participatory, considerate supervisory style (Teas, 1982) and organizational practices have been found to be positively related to instrumentality beliefs (Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976). The expectancy portion of the model has not been investigated as thoroughly as the valence and instrumentality sections (Teas, 1982) and was not found to be strongly related to organizational climate variables (Sims, Szilagyi, & McKemey, 1976).

As features of work motivation, job satisfaction and job performance have been found to be related to organizational climate factors (Anderson, 1984, 1986; Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976; Darden, Hampton, & Howell,

1989; Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Frederiksen, 1966; Litwin & Stringer, 1966; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973). Pritchard and Karasick (1973) studied the effects of organizational climate on job performance and job satisfaction as well as the effects of interactions between climate and individual needs on performance and satisfaction. The organizational climate was more highly related to individual job satisfaction than to job performance. A weak relationship existed between climate and job performance when each subject was considered; however, when groups of subjects were examined a strong relationship existed. The relationship between climate and job behavior is best described as a combination of predictor and moderator, depending on which climate factor is being observed.

Supervisory style, as one component of psychological climate, is positively related to job satisfaction and commitment and negatively related to self-reported job performance (Darden, Hampton, & Howell, 1989). Committed salespersons can be the result of friendly, participative supervisors who are skillful at communicating role expectations. When employees feel their performance is being watched and feedback from one's work is received, more job satisfaction is felt (Anderson, 1986; Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976).

Relationships between salespersons' perceived job characteristics and their job satisfaction, motivation,

organizational commitment, role perceptions, and performance, as well as interrelationships between these variables, indicate that overall job satisfaction is higher when perceived variety is higher, perceived task identity is lower, and experienced role conflict and ambiguity are lower (Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984). Work motivation is also higher when high levels of perceived variety and task identity and lower levels of role ambiguity exist.

Anderson (1984) investigated the relationship between worker-related dimensions of the retailing job and the workers' emotional and behavioral responses to their jobs among retail food store employees. While all job dimensions were significantly correlated with job satisfaction, autonomy and feedback were the two dimensions most significantly related to job satisfaction. The worker response that was most highly correlated with all dimensions of the job was job satisfaction. Job performance was related to only autonomy and feedback. Autonomy, feedback, and task identity were related primarily to motivating aspects of the job. This supports previous research that job dimensions are more closely related to affective worker responses such as job satisfaction, than to behavioral responses such as job performance.

Both role conflict and role ambiguity have been associated with job dissatisfaction, job-induced tension (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1976; Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984;

Good & Young, 1989; Kelly, Gable, & Hise, 1981), lower organizational commitment, and propensity to leave an organization (Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981; Darden, Hampton, & Howell, 1989; Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975; Good & Sisler, 1987). These studies found that a low level of role conflict and ambiguity leads to job satisfaction, which leads to organizational commitment, and therefore a lowered intention to leave an organization.

Lucas (1985) assessed the attitudes of retail store managers on job-related issues such as job satisfaction, pay levels, benefits, working conditions, supervisory consideration, self-perceived competency, personal characteristics such as age, tenure, income and education level, and likelihood of leaving the organization. Task-Specific Self-Esteem was found to be most closely related to job satisfaction and supervisory consideration was found to have a strong relationship with the supervisors' performance rating. Establishing open communication channels and creating a positive relationship between supervisors and managers was an important consideration among the managers in the study.

In summary, the four significant psychological climate factors that have been found to have an impact, separately and collectively, on an individual's work motivation were: (1) job and role characteristics, (2) leader behavior, (3)

workgroup environment, and (4) organizational characteristics.

The Retail Industry

Retailers are responsible for the selling of goods and services to the ultimate consumer (Morgenstein & Strongin, 1987). They also serve as the "ears" of the consumer front for the industry, as well as being the liaison for distributing information and stimulating demand for fashion goods. In the United States there are few career fields that offer as many employment opportunities as retail establishments. Retail is the largest source of fashion industry jobs with an estimated 135,000 retailers specializing in fashion apparel and accessories and 70,000 additional that include apparel and accessories in their merchandise assortment (Jarnow & Guerreiro, 1991). In 1985, 17,415,000 people were employed in the retail industry (Morgenstein & Strongin, 1987).

Operational characteristics make retail institutions distinct from one another. They may be classified as department stores, chain stores, specialty stores, or discount stores. Each have set requirements to be classified by that name. Department stores are retail establishments that must employ twenty-five or more people and carry 1) men's, women's, and children's apparel, 2) furniture and home furnishings, and 3) household linens and fabrics. In contrast to a department store, a specialty

store works with a single category of merchandise such as jewelry, apparel, books, shoes, or furniture. Chain stores are retail organizations that own and operate a string of similar stores and are merchandised and controlled from a central headquarters office. A fourth type of retail institution is the discount store. Discounters are retail stores that sell merchandise at lower prices on a regular basis, with most of the merchandise being national brands (Jarnow & Guerreiro, 1991). Table 1 shows the 1989 Market Shares that each type of retail institution held.

Retail is characterized by long hours, low wages and sometimes low or nonexistent benefits, and tasks that do not fully employ skill capabilities or provide opportunities for personal growth. Within American industries in 1989, the lowest average annual pay was in the retail industry with wages of \$12,283 (Taylor, 1990). Retail is also a "people-oriented" industry which distinguishes it from many other careers (Lucas, 1985). The diversity of retailing offers varied job opportunities.

Management positions offer the same type of diversity. Aspects of the retail management position not only distinguish it from managerial positions in other industries but also from lower-level retail positions as well as other management positions. Within retailing and within management positions, no two management positions are identical. Because retail managers interact with various

Table 1

1989 Apparel Market Shares

Apparel Market	Percentage Shares
Other *	20.7%
Discounters	18.8%
Chains	15.1%
Specialty Stores	21.2%
Department Stores	24.2%

* Other includes off-price, mail-order, factory outlet, variety, food/drug, and warehouse stores.

(The KSA Perspective, Kurt Salmon Associates, February 1990, p.5)

levels of organizational personnel (immediate supervisor, buyers, salespersons, and customers) and require contact beyond their own department and/or company, they occupy what has been termed a boundary-spanning role (Donnelly & Ivancevich, 1975; Kelly, Gable & Hise, 1981; Oliver & Brief, 1977-78). As more people interact, each with varying expectations, the potential for role conflict increases and less role clarity. A person in a management position in retail needs analytical skills, creativity, decisiveness,

flexibility, initiative, leadership skills, organizational skills, ability to take risks, and high stress tolerance in order to be effective (Lusch & Serpkenci, 1990).

Work motivation and psychological climate within the retail industry is an especially important issue. Numerous studies exist regarding the retail industry and have examined the issue of turnover, intent to leave, and commitment within the retail industry (Darden, Hampton, & Boatwright, 1987; Darden, Hampton, & Howell, 1989; Dubinsky & Skinner, 1984; Dunnette, Arvey, & Banas, 1973; Gable, Hollon, & Dangelo, 1984; Good & Sisler, 1987; Good, Sisler, & Gentry, 1988; Good & Young, 1989; Porter & Steers, 1973; Taylor & Weiss, 1972; Williamson, 1983). Limited research exists on employees' psychological climate and motivation beliefs in retail environments.

Demographic Variables

Moussavi, Jones, and Cronan (1989) surveyed employees from six agencies of state government to examine individual and position variables (demographic variables) as determinants of individuals' perceptions of their work environment or psychological climate. The six variables examined were gender, age, education, salary, job category, and tenure. Significant associations between climate dimensions and personal variables were found. Job category was associated with every climate dimension except Co-Worker Relations and salary was associated with every dimension

except Supervisory Style. Tenure was the third most effective variable. The three most effective variables (salary, category, and tenure) were variables related to the position of the individual. Education, gender, and age were the three least effective variables, each being individual characteristics.

The following demographic characteristics will be explored: gender, age, job tenure, education level, and dual-career families.

Gender

Gender is a demographic variable that has been found to affect responses on job satisfaction and psychological climate factors. A strong relationship between gender and turnover has been found to be vague (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973). Especially at the management level in retail, there has been a significantly skewed employee percentage with only 7% of management level or above being female. Females have to make more sacrifices than males, and are limited by their lack of flexibility (Chain Store Age General Merchandising Trends, November 1983). Porter and Steers (1973) found that family size and family responsibilities were positively related to turnover among women, whereas their impact on men was mixed. Women whose children were older showed less termination rates than younger females.

Witt (1989) examined Chusmir's (1982) model of gender differences in organizational commitment. The findings revealed that job satisfaction and psychological climate may underlie gender differences in the development of commitment. However, when age, salary, and length of employment were controlled, no significant gender differences were found in the relationship of job satisfaction and psychological climate with commitment. It was determined that based on these results, no conclusion as to the validity of the argument that attempts by management to achieve higher levels of employee commitment require separate strategies for women and men could be suggested.

Dubinsky and Skinner (1984) sampled the entire sales staff of a department store chain and found that retail saleswomen have higher overall job satisfaction than salesmen. In a study done by Centers and Bugental (1966) it was found that women placed more value on social factors on the job (to value good co-workers) and men placed greater emphasis on self-expression (the opportunity to use skills and talents).

Age

Age has been found to be strongly and negatively related to turnover (Darden, Hampton, & Boatwright, 1987; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973; Waters, Roach, & Waters, 1976). Older individuals have too much invested in the organization to leave, while

younger individuals have a strong desire to explore the existing job environment through job trial-and-error. Another possible relationship that may exist is that older employees may find that the number of job alternatives available to them tend to decrease or that older employees are not as attractive to other employers (Lucas, 1985; Woodard & Cassill, 1990).

Job Tenure

Closely associated with age is job tenure with an organization. Research (Darden, Hampton, & Boatwright, 1987; Porter & Steers, 1973; Waters, Roach, & Waters, 1976) has shown that increased job tenure is strongly related to propensity to remain on the job. A variety of factors may influence this reaction, all relating to the employee's investment in the organization. With increased tenure, employee's have an increased personal investment in the organization and may not be able to "afford" to quit.

Lawler (1971) investigated the relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and tenure and concluded that the two variables are not consistently related in any significant manner. There has, however, been found a relationship between tenure and job performance. Increasing time of service is associated with higher job performance (Lawler, 1971; Lucas, 1985).

Churchill, Ford, and Walker (1976) found a significant relationship between salesmen's job tenure and job

satisfaction. Those most satisfied had been in their positions for two years or less. The least satisfied salesmen were those who had been in their positions between five and fifteen years. There was some indication that job tenure and satisfaction was a curvilinear relationship with salesmen having more than 15 years being satisfied, however, there were not enough in the sample with this amount of service to test this conclusively. Job tenure was found to be negatively related to three components of satisfaction: the job itself, pay, and promotion. Neither satisfaction with company policies, supervision, fellow workers, nor customers had a significantly negative relationship with job tenure. Teas (1980) found no significant relationship between job experience and intrinsic or extrinsic job satisfaction among industrial salespeople.

Education

Lucas (1985) reports a negative relationship between job satisfaction and job performance and level of education. Employees with more formal education have a tendency to become bored with their jobs and have declines in job performance. This is due to the fact that the employees' skills are beyond those that the job requires and insufficient challenges are found.

Kunz (1986), in a study of home economics and business graduates employed in retail, examined the relationship between educational background and retailing careers.

Career development was found to be related to educational background. Whereas subjects who graduated from business programs reported satisfaction in their jobs, home economics graduates reported that if they had to do it over again, they would select business as a major. Kelly, Gable, and Hise (1981), in a study of chain store managers of large home entertainment products, found that as educational level increased, role conflict increased and both role clarity and job satisfaction decreased. Due to this type of relationship, it was suggested that over qualification is felt most strongly by college-trained store managers and further increased for college-trained individuals with some longevity.

Swinyard (1981), in a study of marketing students from 13 universities and colleges in the United States, found that students with higher average grades rated retailing lower in appeal than students with lower grades. From this it would seem that the top academic students are not selecting retail management as a future career.

Dubinsky and Skinner (1984) studied the entire sales staff of a department store chain and found that salesperson age and job tenure were positively related to organizational commitment, but educational level was inversely related. It was also found that educational level was not significantly related to overall job satisfaction of retail sales personnel.

Dual-Career Family

One changing demographic variable in the workforce is the dual-career family. Due to the increasing numbers of dual-career families, an examination of the relationship between work, family roles, and family size has been initiated. Family size and family roles are closely related because of the needs and requirements placed on an individual as a result of being responsible for a family (Porter & Steers, 1973). Family responsibility has been linked with gender as shown earlier. Work-family conflict has been linked with job dissatisfaction and intent to leave (Good & Sisler, 1987; Good, Sisler, & Gentry, 1988). Despite job satisfaction and organizational commitment of an employee, the work-family conflict element could be strong enough to lead to turnover. Two-career families have been found to substantially affect future relocation decisions. For retailers wanting or needing to transfer employees, their largest problem often is the reluctance of the spouse to leave an established career. Especially for women who transfer with husbands, there is evidence that to catch up with her career plan may take years or possibly never be done (Stores, 1984).

This is an important demographic variable to consider because family conflict can greatly affect the performance of an employee. Once a transfer is complete, going back often is not a possibility. Work-family conflict among

retail management often can be expected due to the long hours and relatively low wages and the possible frequent moves that accompany retail promotion (Good, Sisler, & Gentry, 1988).

Summary

Motivation models and theories have become more complex over the years. Researchers now recognize that motivation involves more than paying an employee to do a job. Examining relationships between the valence-instrumentality-expectancy model and perceptions of situations as represented by psychological climate provides an important contribution to the understanding of the work motivation of employees. Perceived characteristics such as role ambiguity, job challenge and variety, role conflict, job autonomy, job importance, role overload, leader goal emphasis, leader interaction, leader trust and support, psychological influence, workgroup cooperation, management concern and awareness, and organizational identification each have an effect on the motivation of employees. Demographic characteristics have also been found to have an impact on these variables. The dynamic nature of the retailing industry makes it a viable industry for studying the work motivation and psychological climate of employees.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Presented in this chapter are (1) hypotheses, (2) research design, (3) sample selection, (4) development of the instrument, (5) the field test, (6) collection of data, and (7) data analysis procedures.

Hypotheses

Based on the review of literature, the following hypotheses were formulated.

1. Each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate has a positive effect on work motivation when considered together.
2. Degree of structure of management groups will have an effect on work motivation.
3. Degree of structure of management groups will have an effect on each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate.
4. Each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate in the presence of demographic variables will have an effect on work motivation when considered together.

Table 2 presents independent and dependent variables for each hypothesis.

Table 2

Independent and Dependent Variables For Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Independent Variable (X)	Dependent Variable (Y)
1	13 Subscales of Psychological Climate	Work Motivation
2	3 Management Groups Structure (a)	Work Motivation
3	3 Management Groups Structure	13 Psychological Climate Subscales
4	13 Subscales of Psychological Climate and Demographic Variables	Work Motivation

(a) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR)

Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR)

Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR)

Research Design

The survey research method provided data for a descriptive and an analytical study. Results are helpful in understanding the relationship of psychological climate variables and work motivation variables of retail management employees. The descriptive study gives a current understanding of retail management beliefs of psychological climate factors, work motivation, and a demographic profile of the management employees. The analytical study investigates the influence of psychological climate variables on work motivation, how the retail management groups differ in this relationship, and the effects of psychological climate in the presence of demographic characteristics on work motivation.

Sample Selection

The population for this study consisted of 3,000 management employees currently employed by a major southeastern United States retailer. This retailer is the largest family owned and family managed department store in the United States with 340 stores in 14 states employing approximately 33,000 people (Appendix A).

The management employees were divided into three groups: (1) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR); (2) Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR); and (3) Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR). These three group divisions involve organizational structural differences that distinguish how

merchandise is bought and distributed to the stores. Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) is the simplest type of organizational buying structure. In this arrangement an individual store makes its own buying decisions and the merchandise is sent directly to the store.

The second group, Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), involves a group of stores that are geographically centralized in an area and similar in nature. Buying for a group takes place for these stores and then the merchandise is shipped to the individual stores. The third group, Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR), is an example of the organizational buying structure for the distribution center. With this arrangement instead of a buyer or buyers from a store purchasing for their location, there is buying for a group and the merchandise is shipped to a central location (distribution center) for circulation to the allocated stores.

Sample Size

A sample of 295 management employees representing 30 stores was used. The listing of employees was obtained from the retailer's office of Human Resource Utilization. The sample was selected from a group of stores that had completed the organizational Job Information Survey between May and September of 1991. The group was stratified by store performance results and ten stores from each performance level were selected. The 295 management

employees were divided into three groups. The Store Buying Store Receiving group was the largest group containing 159 employees. Each of the two remaining management groups (GBSR and GBGR) contained 69 and 67 employees respectively.

Development of the Instrument

A self-administered questionnaire 12 pages in length, which consisted of psychological climate, work motivation, and demographic sections, was mailed to retailer headquarters for distribution to the stores (Appendix B).

Psychological Climate

Section I of the questionnaire was an adaption of the James, Hartman, Stebbins, and Jones (1977) instrument. It was adapted from the instrument that was used to measure Navy personnel perceptions, to measure the perceived psychological climate of retail management. The psychological climate questionnaire contained 111 items representing 13 subscales. The 13 subscales were designed to measure four general areas of the organizational environment (Table 3).

Items were obtained from reviews of the literature (James & James, 1989; Jones & James, 1979). The number of items for each subscale varied from six to thirteen. Three continuum were constructed using a Likert scale from 1-5: Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree, Not At All to To A Very Great Extent, and Never to Always. Appendix C presents the psychological climate subscales with variable item numbers

Table 3

Psychological Climate Components

Psychological climate composites Subscales of composites	Number of items for each subscale
1. Job and Role Characteristics	
A. Role Ambiguity	11
B. Job Challenge and Variety	9
C. Role Conflict	12
D. Job Autonomy	6
E. Job Importance	6
F. Role Overload	13
2. Leader Behavior	
A. Leader Goal Emphasis and Work Facilitation	10
B. Leader Interaction Facilitation	6
C. Leader Trust and Support	8
D. Psychological Influence	6
3. Workgroup Characteristics	
A. Workgroup Cooperation and Influence	7
4. Organizational Characteristics	
A. Management Concern and Awareness	7
B. Organizational Identification	10
TOTAL	111

and examples. Internal consistency (Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients ranging from .61 to .81) and high predictive validity have been established for this instrument (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; James & James, 1989; Jones & James, 1979; Teas, 1982; Tyagi, 1982).

Work Motivation

Section II of the questionnaire was used to measure Vroom's valence, instrumentality, and expectancy components of motivation. Forty-three items were obtained from reviews of the literature (Galbraith & Cummings, 1967; James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Lawler & Suttle, 1973; Teas, 1982; Tyagi, 1982), a consultation with the retailer's Human Resource Utilization department to adapt the items to the specific organization, and a pilot test of a valence measure.

The valence section asked each respondent to rate the desirability of 20 job features on a five-point Likert scale from "Extremely Undesirable" (1) to "Extremely Desirable" (5). The instrumentality section asked each respondent to identify how certain they were that good job performance would lead to the 20 specific job features presented in the valence section using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Never, 5 = Always). The expectancy section asked each respondent to record whether or not they believed that effort (working hard) on their part would lead to good or increased job performance on three items using a five-point Likert scale

from "Never" (1) to "Always" (5). The variables of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy have each been used in research and have been shown to demonstrate criteria of both reliability (Cronbach alpha = .60 or higher) and validity (Galbraith & Cummings, 1967; Lawler & Suttle, 1973; Pritchard & Sanders, 1973; Tyagi, 1982).

Demographic

Section III was a demographic section containing 12 items relating to gender, age, educational level, major, marital status, geographic location, location of store, length of employment with this company, present position, spouse career, career of the spouse hindering move to a new geographic location, and family size.

Field Testing

The questionnaire was field tested with 20 management employees who were not part of the final sample. The field test respondents were company management employees who were attending a financial management course at retailer headquarters in August 1991. The field test was used to establish: (1) clarity and readability of instructions and questions, (2) modifications needed in format, rating scales, and other areas which could inhibit completion of the questionnaire, and (3) the time necessary to complete the questionnaire. After completion of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to complete an evaluation of the

questionnaire (Appendix D). The final questionnaire was revised based on recommendations from the field test.

Collection of Data

Data were collected by means of a mailed questionnaire sent to the sample of 295 management personnel provided by the retailer. The questionnaire was sent with a cover letter from the researcher, a cover letter from the retailer's Human Resources Management endorsing the study (Appendix E), and a return envelope. Each store in which the questionnaire was administered was assigned a representative to distribute the questionnaire to management personnel. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire, place it in an envelope which was provided, and return it to the representative by an assigned day. An identification number (001-295) was stamped on the top left corner of the questionnaire before mailing to identify the questionnaire by division and store number. The identification number was not matched to specific individuals. Questionnaires were mailed from each store to the researcher collectively.

Data Analysis Procedures

Statistical analyses used were means and frequency distributions; computation of a Work Motivation Score; formation, averaging and reliability of the Psychological Climate Subscales; coefficients of correlation; regression analysis; analysis of variance; and analysis of covariance.

The Statistical Consulting Center at UNCG assisted in data analysis and interpretation of results. A SAS computer program was used for all data analysis except the use of SPSSX to calculate psychological climate subscale reliabilities. Means and frequency distributions for the sample were computed. Levels of categorical variables were collapsed. Similar strategies of analysis have been used by other researchers (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Pritchard & Karasick, 1976; Tyagi, 1982).

Motivation Score

For each subject, a motivation score was computed for each of the 20 job features described. Motivational Score = $V_{\text{valence}} \times \text{Expectancy}$ (where $V_{\text{valence}} = \sum \text{valence} \times \text{instrumentality}$). Table 4 outlines the steps involved in computation of the work motivation score. A detailed example is included in Appendix F.

Motivational Force scores could range from 0 to 100. A low score suggests that an employee perceives very little congruence between what he/she values or wants in a job and the likelihood that hard work and effort will yield what he/she wants. A high score, conversely, will propose that an employee feels that there is a strong relationship between what he/she wants in a job and the likelihood that hard work and effort will yield what he/she wants. Therefore, those with a low motivation score for a particular job should be rather poorly "motivated" on that

 Table 4

Work Motivation Score Calculation

Step One -- Instrumentality / 4 = I

(I1/4, I2/4, ... I20/4) = I's

Step Two -- V1 X I1, V2 X I2, V20 X I20 = 20 VI's

Step Three -- Sum of VI's = VValence

Step Four -- Sum of 3 Expectancies / 12 = Expectancy

Step Five -- VValence X Expectancy = Work Motivation Score

job, less likely to persist or exert effort. A person with a high motivation index for a particular job should be highly "motivated" on that job, very likely to persist and exert effort.

Psychological Climate Subscales

To reduce the 111 psychological climate items, items were grouped into the 13 subscales recorded in the literature (James, L., Hartman, A., Stebbins, M. and Jones, A., 1977). Items that generated negative outcomes were reverse scored. The 13 subscales are: (1) role clarity, (2) job challenge and variety, (3) role harmony, (4) job autonomy, (5) job importance, (6) role assignment, (7) leader goal emphasis and work facilitation, (8) leader interaction facilitation, (9) leader trust and support, (10)

psychological influence, (11) workgroup cooperation and influence, (12) management concern and awareness, and (13) organizational identification. Each of the psychological climate subscales were averaged by dividing the subscale sum by the number of subscale items. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of each of the 13 subscales were calculated. The literature (James, Hartman, Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Jones & James, 1979) reported the use of four composites to further condense the 13 subscales. Four composites were formed using two methods. First, the four composites used in the literature were formed but were not found to be reliable. Second, a factor analysis of the 13 subscales was produced. The resultant three composites were not inclusive of psychological climate. Therefore the 13 subscales, not the four composites, were used in further analysis.

Analysis To Test Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1, 3 and 4 consist of more than one analysis within each hypothesis and are referred to as Hypotheses. To test Hypotheses 1, coefficients of correlation were used to test the strength of the linear relationship between the 13 subscales of psychological climate and work motivation. Regression was used to assess the effect of each of the 13 psychological climate subscales on work motivation. All 13 psychological climate subscales were entered into the regression equation at once with each one being assessed as if it had entered the regression after all other variables

had been entered. Type III Sums of Squares and Estimates were used to determine significance. Each variable was evaluated in terms of what it added to the prediction of work motivation that is different from the predictability provided by all the other variables. The model was refined to include only those significant variables or those approaching significance.

Hypothesis 2 and Hypotheses 3 were tested using an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to test the effect of the management group structure on work motivation (Hypothesis 2) and the 13 subscales of psychological climate (Hypotheses 3). With significant F values, contrast statements were used to further investigate differences between the management groups. The following contrasts were examined: (1) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), (2) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) and Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), and (3) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) and Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR).

Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test the effect of the 13 subscales of psychological climate in the presence of demographic variables on work motivation (Hypotheses 4). Twenty-two continuous and categorical variables (continuous = 13 psychological climate subscales, categorical = nine demographic variables) were initially

entered into the model. Type III Sums of Squares and Estimates were used to determine significance. Statistical significance was determined at the .05 level of probability. The model was further refined by selecting those items which were approaching significance ($p < .20$) and those which were thought by the store's Human Resource Manager and the researcher to be of importance.

CHAPTER IV
PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Results are presented in this order: (1) Description of Respondents, (2) Work Motivation Scores, (3) Psychological Climate Subscales, and (4) Testing of the Hypotheses.

Description of Respondents

Two hundred thirty-seven usable questionnaires were used in this study (80% response rate). Missing values were not from all the same subjects. Respondents represented eight states of the fourteen in which the retailer is located. The majority of the respondents lived in suburban areas (Table 5). Approximately two-thirds of the respondents were female with 63% having only a high school degree or some college or vocational training. Of the 86 possessing a Bachelor's degree, 39 had majored in the area of marketing and management (45%). Combining the first two categories for length of employment, 56% have been employed by the retailer ten years or less. Seventy-three percent of the respondents were married and 80% of those had a spouse who works full-time outside of the home. Fifty-one percent of those who were married stated that their spouse's career would hinder their moving to a new geographic location.

Table 5

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
<u>Gender</u>		
Male	90	37.98
Female	146	61.60
Missing Data	<u>1</u>	<u>0.42</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Age</u>		
Below 29	49	20.67
30-34	41	17.30
35-39	35	14.77
Above 40	109	45.99
Missing Data	<u>3</u>	<u>1.27</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Education</u>		
High School	56	23.63
Some College or Vocational School	94	39.66
Bachelor's Degree	70	29.54
Some Graduate School	12	5.06
Graduate School	4	1.69
Missing Data	<u>1</u>	<u>0.42</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Degree</u>		
Fashion Merchandising	6	2.53
Accounting/Finance	2	0.84
Marketing/Management	39	16.46
Liberal Arts	18	7.59
MBA	3	1.27
Other	16	6.75
Not Applicable	147	62.03
Missing Data	<u>6</u>	<u>2.53</u>
	237	100.00

(table continues)

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
<u>Urbanization</u>		
Rural	93	39.24
Suburban	112	47.26
Urban	28	11.81
Missing Data	<u>4</u>	<u>1.69</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Store Location</u>		
Shopping Center	39	16.46
Enclosed Mall	183	77.21
Downtown	7	2.95
Free-Standing Store	4	1.69
Missing Data	<u>4</u>	<u>1.69</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Length of Employment</u>		
1 Month-4 Years	66	27.85
5-10 Years	68	28.69
11-15 Years	45	18.99
16 Or More Years	54	22.78
Missing Data	<u>4</u>	<u>1.69</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Position</u>		
Store Manager	28	11.81
Department Manager	51	21.52
Department Buyer	26	10.97
Store Buyer	20	8.44
Other	106	44.73
Missing Data	<u>6</u>	<u>2.53</u>
	237	100.00

(table continues)

Characteristic	Frequency	Percent
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Married	172	72.57
Not Married	61	25.74
Missing Data	<u>4</u>	<u>1.69</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Spouse Employed</u>		
Yes	138	58.23
No	35	14.77
Not Married	59	24.89
Missing Data	<u>5</u>	<u>2.11</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Spouse's Career Hinders Moving</u>		
Yes	86	36.29
No	83	35.02
Not Married	62	26.16
Missing Data	<u>6</u>	<u>2.53</u>
	237	100.00
<u>Number Living in Household</u>		
One	40	16.88
Two	82	34.60
Three	54	22.78
Four	42	17.72
Five or More	14	5.91
Missing Data	<u>5</u>	<u>2.11</u>
	237	100.00

Description By Management Groups

Percentages related to demographic characteristics of the respondents by management group (SBSR, GBSR, GBGR) are given in Table 6. Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) contained 133 respondents (84% response rate), Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) and Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) each contained 52 respondents (75% and 78% response rates, respectively). Because the sample size (n) for each management group was different, percentages are used for comparisons.

The Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) group is predominantly female (63.9%). Of those with a Bachelor's degree, the largest percentage are in marketing and management. Three-fourths of this group are married and have a spouse who is employed with one-half reporting that their spouse's career would hinder their moving to a new geographic location. The SBSR group has the largest number of family members living in the household with one-half containing three or more members.

The Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) group has two-thirds of its population as female and is an older population, with two-thirds being over age 40. This group has been employed for a longer period of time, 16 or more years, than the other two groups. A much smaller percentage of the GBSR group have marketing/management degrees compared with SBSR and GBGR. Three-fourths of this group are married

Table 6

Demographic Characteristics of RespondentsBy Management Group

Demographic Characteristics	Percentages		
	SBSR* (<u>n=133</u>)	GBSR* (<u>n=52</u>)	GBGR* (<u>n=52</u>)
<u>Gender</u>			
Male	36.09	34.62	46.15
Female	63.91	65.38	51.93
Missing Data	<u>0.00</u>	<u>0.00</u>	<u>1.92</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Age</u>			
29 - Below	24.06	13.46	19.23
30 - 34	18.05	9.62	23.08
35 - 39	16.54	9.62	15.38
40 - Above	40.60	67.30	38.46
Missing Data	<u>0.75</u>	<u>0.00</u>	<u>3.85</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Education</u>			
High School	24.06	30.77	15.39
Some College or Vocational School	41.36	38.46	36.54
Bachelor's Degree	29.32	23.07	36.54
Some Graduate School	4.51	3.85	7.69
Graduate School	.75	3.85	1.92
Missing Data	<u>0.00</u>	<u>0.00</u>	<u>1.92</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00

(table continues)

Demographic Characteristics	Percentages		
	SBSR* (<u>n</u> =133)	GBSR* (<u>n</u> =52)	GBGR* (<u>n</u> =52)
<u>Degree</u>			
Fashion Merchandising	2.26	0.00	5.77
Accounting/Finance	1.51	0.00	0.00
Marketing/Management	21.05	5.77	15.39
Liberal Arts	5.26	9.62	11.54
MBA	0.00	3.85	1.92
Other	4.51	11.54	7.69
Not Applicable	64.66	67.30	50.00
Missing Data	<u>0.75</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>7.69</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Urbanization</u>			
Rural	41.36	34.62	38.46
Suburban	47.36	55.77	38.46
Urban	9.77	7.69	21.16
Missing Data	<u>1.51</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>1.92</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Store Location</u>			
Shopping Center	9.02	11.54	40.39
Enclosed Mall	86.47	73.08	57.69
Downtown	3.00	5.77	0.00
Free-Standing Store	0.00	7.69	0.00
Missing Data	<u>1.51</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>1.92</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Length of Employment</u>			
1 Month-4 Years	24.81	17.31	46.16
5-10 Years	32.33	17.31	30.77
11-15 Years	21.05	25.00	7.69
16 Or More Years	20.30	38.46	13.46
Missing Data	<u>1.51</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>1.92</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00

(table continues)

Demographic Characteristics	Percentages		
	SBSR* (<u>n</u> =133)	GBSR* (<u>n</u> =52)	GBGR* (<u>n</u> =52)
<u>Position</u>			
Store Manager	12.03	9.62	13.46
Department Manager	17.29	21.15	32.69
Department Buyer	14.29	13.46	0.00
Store Buyer	13.53	3.85	0.00
Other	40.60	50.00	50.00
Missing Data	<u>2.26</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>3.85</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Marital Status</u>			
Married	74.44	75.00	65.39
Not Married	24.06	23.08	32.69
Missing Data	<u>1.50</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>1.92</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Spouse Employed</u>			
Yes	57.14	67.30	51.92
No	18.05	9.62	11.54
Not Married	23.30	21.16	32.69
Missing Data	<u>1.51</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>3.85</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00
<u>Spouse's Career Hinders Moving</u>			
Yes	36.09	44.23	28.85
No	36.09	30.77	36.54
Not Married	24.82	23.08	32.69
Missing Data	<u>3.00</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>1.92</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00

(table continues)

Demographic Characteristics	Percentages		
	SBSR* (<u>n</u> =133)	GBSR* (<u>n</u> =52)	GBGR* (<u>n</u> =52)
<hr/>			
<u>Number Living in Household</u>			
One	15.79	17.31	19.23
Two	33.08	34.61	38.46
Three	27.07	17.31	17.31
Four	18.79	19.23	13.46
Five or More	3.76	9.62	7.69
Missing Data	<u>1.51</u>	<u>1.92</u>	<u>3.85</u>
	100.00	100.00	100.00

*SBSR = Store Buying Store Receiving

*GBSR = Group Buying Store Receiving

*GBGR = Group Buying Group Receiving

and 87% have a spouse who is employed with 59% of this group reporting that their spouse's career would hinder their moving to a new geographic location.

Among the three management groups, Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) is more evenly distributed on the gender variable (46.15% male, 51.93% female). Of the three groups, this group has been employed for the shortest amount of time. Approximately two-thirds of this group are married with 82% having an employed spouse. However, less than half report that the spouse's career would hinder their moving to a new geographic location. The GBGR group has the smallest number of family members living in the household with over one-half containing only one or two members.

Work Motivation Scores

Work motivation scores were computed for each respondent (See Appendix F for example). Scores ranged between 0 and 85. One-third of the sample scored between 0 and 35. Thirty-four percent scored between 36 and 49 and the final one-third scored between 50 and 85. Two-thirds of the respondents scored less than one-half of the score that was possible. Appendix F presents the mean for each of the valence, instrumentality, and expectancy items.

Psychological Climate Subscales

To reduce the 111 psychological climate items, items were grouped into 13 subscales found in the literature. Cronbach alpha reliability estimates ranged from .64 to .89

(Table 7). Reliability of all subscales were .64 and higher and all 13 subscales were retained for analysis.

Testing of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1

Each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate have a positive effect on work motivation when considered together.

A correlation matrix was generated with correlation coefficients for the 13 psychological climate subscales and work motivation (Table 8). Each of the 13 subscales correlated significantly with work motivation ($p = .0001$). Regression analysis was used to assess how the dependent and independent variables were related. Regression revealed that two of the psychological climate subscales, Job Importance ($p = .0248$) and Organizational Identification ($p = .0034$), were significantly positively related to work motivation and that two subscales were approaching significance: Leader Goal Emphasis ($p = .0619$), and Management Concern and Awareness ($p = .0506$). Nine of the subscales were not significantly related to work motivation (See Table 9).

A refined regression model using the four subscales that were significant and approaching significance in the initial analysis, indicated that three of the psychological climate subscales were significantly related to and had a positive effect on work motivation: Job Importance (p

Table 7

Reliability Coefficients for Psychological Climate Subscales

Psychological climate subscale	Cronbach alpha Reliability coefficient
Role Clarity	.7905
Job Challenge and Variety	.6424
Role Harmony	.8484
Job Autonomy	.7711
Job Importance	.7195
Role Assignment	.7232
Leader Goal Emphasis	.8071
Leader Interaction	.8201
Leader Trust and Support	.8911
Psychological Influence	.7969
Workgroup Cooperation	.8291
Management Concern and Awareness	.8456
Organizational Identification	.8719

Table 8

Coefficients of Correlation Between Psychological
Climate Subscales and Work Motivation

Psychological climate subscales and work motivation	(1) RC	(2) JCJV	(3) RH	(4) JA	(5) JI	(6) RA	(7) LGE
(1) Role Clarity	1.00						
(2) Job Challenge and Variety	.4086 .0001	1.00					
(3) Role Harmony	.4680 .0001	.1734 .0075	1.00				
(4) Job Autonomy	.5661 .0001	.5418 .0001	.4219 .0001	1.00			
(5) Job Importance	.4859 .0001	.6483 .0001	.3054 .0001	.5119 .0001	1.00		
(6) Role Assignment	.4644 .0001	.1497 .0211	.4526 .0001	.3898 .0001	.2193 .0007	1.00	
(7) Leader Goal Emphasis	.6384 .0001	.3657 .0001	.4030 .0001	.5347 .0001	.2905 .0001	.3803 .0001	1.00

(table continues)

Psychological climate subscales		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
and work motivation		RC	JCJV	RH	JA	JI	RA	LGE
(8)	Leader Interaction	.6210 .0001	.3480 .0001	.4078 .0001	.5736 .0001	.3157 .0001	.3526 .0001	.7853 .0001
(9)	Leader Trust and Support	.6440 .0001	.3800 .0001	.4380 .0001	.6290 .0001	.3665 .0001	.3715 .0001	.8071 .0001
(10)	Psychological Influence	.6427 .0001	.4002 .0001	.4573 .0001	.6246 .0001	.3520 .0001	.3674 .0001	.7396 .0001
(11)	Workgroup Cooperation	.4770 .0001	.2493 .0001	.3047 .0001	.4852 .0001	.3225 .0001	.4718 .0001	.4214 .0001
(12)	Management Concern and Awareness	.7205 .0001	.3324 .0001	.5004 .0001	.6173 .0001	.4144 .0001	.4019 .0001	.7264 .0001
(13)	Organizational Identification	.6890 .0001	.4741 .0001	.4459 .0001	.5583 .0001	.5387 .0001	.3620 .0001	.5005 .0001
(14)	Work Motivation	.4027 .0001	.3103 .0001	.2798 .0001	.3426 .0001	.3733 .0001	.2650 .0001	.4342 .0001

(table continues)

Psychological climate subscales	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
and work motivation	LI	LTS	PI	WGC	MCA	OI	WM
(8) Leader Interaction	1.00						
(9) Leader Trust and Support	.8138 .0001	1.00					
(10) Psychological Influence	.7081 .0001	.8251 .0001	1.00				
(11) Workgroup Cooperation	.4716 .0001	.4316 .0001	.4708 .0001	1.00			
(12) Management Concern and Awareness	.7198 .0001	.7919 .0001	.7363 .0001	.4965 .0001	1.00		
(13) Organizational Identification	.5139 .0001	.5210 .0001	.5024 .0001	.4038 .0001	.6158 .0001	1.00	
(14) Work Motivation	.3989 .0001	.4161 .0001	.4055 .0001	.2865 .0001	.4662 .0001	.4698 .0001	1.00

Table 9

Regression Analysis of 13 Psychological Climate
Subscales and Work Motivation

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Model	13	1523.2323	7.55	.0001
Error	<u>216</u>	210.7015		
Total	229			

<u>Source</u>	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T</u> Value	<u>p</u> > T	<u>StdErr.</u>
Role Clarity	-3.90	-1.34	.9093	2.9089
Job Challenge	1.16	0.41	.3421	2.8511
Role Harmony	-0.45	-0.16	.5649	2.7732
Job Autonomy	-2.58	-1.14	.8714	2.2691
Job Importance	5.88	1.98	.0248	2.9746
Role Assignment	2.01	1.04	.1503	1.9320
Leader Goal Emphasis	4.62	1.55	.0619	2.9908
Leader Interaction	0.55	0.22	.4117	2.4471
Leader Trust & Support	-0.11	-0.04	.5151	3.0027
Psychological Influence	1.35	0.59	.2780	2.2946
Workgroup Cooperation	-0.20	-0.09	.5375	2.0846

(table continues)

<u>Source</u>	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T</u> Value	<u>p</u> > <u>T</u>	<u>StdErr.</u>
Management Concern & Awareness	4.65	1.65	.0506	2.8233
Organizational Identification	6.38	2.73	.0034	2.3323

= .0143), Organizational Identification ($p = .0065$), and Leader Goal Emphasis ($p = .0109$) (Appendix G). A final Regression model using these three psychological climate subscales, provided further evidence that Job Importance ($p = .0079$), Organizational Identification ($p = .0005$), and Leader Goal Emphasis ($p = .0000$) were significantly positively related to work motivation (Appendix G).

There is evidence that Job Importance, Organizational Identification, and Leader Goal Emphasis had a positive effect on work motivation (Hypotheses 1). From the evidence, ten Psychological Climate Subscales did not positively effect work motivation: Role Clarity, Job Challenge and Variety, Role Harmony, Job Autonomy, Role Assignment, Leader Interaction, Leader Trust and Support, Psychological Influence, Workgroup Cooperation, and Management Concern and Awareness (Appendix G).

The three psychological climate subscales that had a significantly positive effect on work motivation in a retail setting were inclusive variables. The three incorporated a job characteristic, an organizational characteristic, and a supervisor characteristic. This suggests that a management's job importance, the retail organization, and the supervisors' role positively effect the work motivation of retail employees.

Hypothesis 2

Degree of structure of management groups will have an effect on work motivation.

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) revealed that the degree of structure of the three management groups did not have a significant effect on work motivation ($p = .3243$) (Appendix G). There is no evidence that the degree of structure of the three management groups had a significant effect on the work motivation.

Hypotheses 3

Degree of structure of management groups will have an effect on the each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate.

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) indicated that the degree of structure of the three management groups had a significant effect on six of the 13 psychological climate subscales: Leader Goal Emphasis ($p = .0232$), Organizational Identification ($p = .0070$), Role Clarity ($p = .0294$), Leader Interaction ($p = .0198$), Leader Trust and Support ($p = .0362$), and Psychological Influence ($p = .0032$). There is no evidence that the degree of structure had a significant effect on the remaining seven subscales (Table 10; Appendix G).

The mean scores of the three management groups (SBSR, GBSR, GBGR) on the 13 subscales of psychological climate in Table 10 demonstrate that the Store Buying Store Receiving

Table 10

Mean scores of management groups on
13 subscales of psychological climate

Psychological Climate Subscales	Management Groups						ANOVA p Value
	SBSR		GBSR		GBGR		
	Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error	Mean	Std. Error	
Job Importance	4.2721	.0406	4.2576	.0650	4.1807	.0650	.4868
Leader Goal Emphasis	3.7938	.0535	3.5302	.0850	3.6346	.0850	.0232
Organizational Identification	3.8128	.0540	3.5000	.0863	3.6431	.0863	.0070
Role Clarity	3.9097	.0484	3.7170	.0774	3.7115	.0774	.0294
Job Challenge	4.0238	.0416	3.8910	.0666	3.9711	.0666	.2372
Role Harmony	3.3157	.0382	3.2451	.0612	3.2932	.0612	.6204
Job Autonomy	3.7669	.0573	3.6891	.0916	3.7051	.0916	.7171
Role Assignment	3.5263	.0339	3.5361	.0542	3.5120	.0542	.9511
Leader Interaction	3.7236	.0630	3.4000	.1000	3.7115	.1000	.0198
Leader Trust and Support	3.8118	.0684	3.4935	.1090	3.6250	.1090	.0362
Psychological Influence	3.6437	.0677	3.2307	.1075	3.3910	.1075	.0032
Workgroup Cooperation	3.6854	.0506	3.6410	.0809	3.8750	.0809	.0812
Management Concern and Awareness	3.5213	.0623	3.2980	.0997	3.3846	.0997	.1354

(SBSR) group has the highest score on each subscale except Role Assignment (GBSR is highest) and Workgroup Cooperation (GBGR is highest). Of the six subscales in which degree of structure of management group had an effect, Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) has the highest mean on each of the six subscales followed by Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) with one exception: Role Clarity. The leadership and organizational characteristics have more influence on these two groups who have been employed overall for a shorter length of time than on the Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) group. Shorter length of employment for the SBSR and GBGR groups also suggests that more aspects of the job are being learned and role clarity is not as important a factor for this reason. Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) has the lowest mean on each of the subscales with the exception of Role Clarity. This group is older and has been employed longer than the other two groups. This suggests that the managers in Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) know and understand what their job is and are not as affected by leadership and organizational characteristics.

Contrast statements were used to make three comparisons of the mean scores for the six significant subscales: (1) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), (2) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) and Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) versus Group

Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), and (3) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) and Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) (Table 11). Each of these contrasts was important in explaining the original rejection of Hypotheses 3 of no differences in groups on the six psychological climate subscales.

Hypotheses 4

Each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate in the presence of demographic variables will have an effect on work motivation when considered together.

An Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) with 13 subscales and nine demographic variables resulted in a significant relationship between three of the subscales of psychological climate and work motivation in the presence of two demographic variables, age and management group.

Nine demographic variables were selected to be used in the initial analysis: gender, age of the respondent, education level, where the respondent lives, length of employment with the retailer, current position of the respondent, marital status, number living in the household of the respondent, as well as the management group. Because of small numbers of respondents in some categories some of the categories of the demographic variables were collapsed. Based on a review of the raw data for the education variable, 5.06% of the sample indicated having "some graduate school" and 1.69% indicated having "graduate

Table 11

Contrasts Between Management Groups on Subscales of
Psychological Climate--T Values From ANOVA

Psychological climate subscales	SBSR vs.		SBSR & GBGR vs.		SBSR vs. GBSR & GBGR	
	T Value	p Value	T Value	p Value	T Value	p Value
Role Clarity	2.11	.0358	1.04	.2986	2.68	.0080
Leader Goal Emphasis	2.62	.0093	1.86	.0637	2.63	.0092
Organizational Identification	3.07	.0024	2.27	.0239	2.96	.0034
Leader Interaction	2.74	.0067	2.73	.0068	1.77	.0779
Leader Trust and Support	2.47	.0141	1.78	.0770	2.45	.0150
Psychological Influence	3.25	.0013	2.29	.0227	3.27	.0013

- (1) SBSR = Store Buying Store Receiving
 GBSR = Group Buying Store Receiving
 GBGR = Group Buying Group Receiving

school". These two groups were combined and labeled Graduate School.

Since a small percentage of the sample, 8.44%, were identified on the position variable as a "store buyer", this group was combined with "department buyer" and labeled Buyer. However, when using the new variable in the analysis it was found that it explained a lot less variability than the original variables so the categories were restored to their original status.

In reporting the number living in the household, only 5.91% of the sample reported "five or more" living in their household. This category was combined with its preceding category and labeled Four or More.

An initial use of an Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) revealed that job importance ($p = .0155$), organizational identification ($p = .0092$), and management concern and awareness ($p = .0590$) were significantly related to work motivation in the presence of age ($p = .0595$). Approaching significance were leader goal emphasis ($p = .0929$), group ($p = .0759$), and position ($p = .1612$). There is no evidence that nine psychological climate subscales and six demographic variables have an effect on work motivation (ANCOVA Table 12).

Final analysis to test Hypotheses 4, provided evidence that three subscales of psychological climate, Job Importance ($p = .0050$), Organizational Identification ($p =$

Table 12

Analysis of Covariance for 13 Subscales of
Psychological Climate on Work Motivation
In Presence of Demographic Variables

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Model	35	724.0274	3.62	.0001
Error	187	200.2403		
Total	222			

<u>Source</u>	<u>Type III SS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F	
Group	1046.8991	2.61	.0759	
Gender	0.0065	0.00	.9954	
Age	1512.5304	2.52	.0595	
Education	52.6707	0.09	.9667	
Live	164.0113	0.41	.6646	
Employ	255.5515	0.43	.7350	
Position	1329.0295	1.66	.1612	
Marry	17.6875	0.09	.7666	
Number	386.3814	0.64	.5882	
	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T</u> Value	<u>p</u> > T	<u>StdErr.</u>
Role Clarity	-3.05	-0.95	.3411	3.20
Job Challenge	-0.83	-0.27	.7881	3.08
Role Harmony	-0.54	-0.17	.8621	3.15
Job Autonomy	-1.46	-0.60	.5519	2.45

(table continues)

<u>Source</u>	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T Value</u>	<u>p > T </u>	<u>StdErr.</u>
Job Importance	7.76	2.44	.0155	3.18
Role Assignment	1.49	0.43	.6649	3.45
Organizational Identification	6.61	2.63	.0092	2.51
Leader Goal Emphasis	5.45	1.69	.0929	3.23
Leader Interaction	0.50	0.19	.8502	2.65
Leader Trust & Support	-0.68	-0.21	.8331	3.26
Psychological Influence	0.96	0.39	.6941	2.46
Workgroup Cooperation	-0.80	-0.37	.7132	2.19
Management Concern & Awareness	5.94	1.90	.0590	3.12

.0010), and Leader Goal Emphasis ($p = .0001$) have a significant effect on work motivation in the presence of age ($p = .0173$) and management group ($p = .0591$) (Appendix G).

The highest motivation score occurs with the youngest age category. Motivation scores drop with each age group thereafter until age 40 and above which has an increased motivation score. Among the management groups, the highest motivation score occurs with Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR). Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR), which is the least structured of the three groups, has the lowest motivation score.

Job Importance is the perception of the respondent of how important their job is to the organization. Leader Goal Emphasis includes the supervisors role in guiding the employee in setting and accomplishing work goals and setting an example for the employee by becoming actively involved in the work. Organizational Identification involves the degree of association by the employee with the organization. Each of these characteristics of the organizational climate have a significant effect on work motivation in the presence of age and management group.

Summary

Organizational Identification and Leader Goal Emphasis were found to have a significantly positive effect on work motivation (Hypotheses 1), were effected by the degree of structure of management groups (Hypotheses 3), and have a

significant effect on work motivation in the presence of two demographic variables (Hypotheses 4). Degree of structure has an influence on the leadership and organizational characteristics. These characteristics involve interaction with other people.

Job Importance had a significantly positive effect on work motivation in Hypotheses 1 and on work motivation in the presence of demographic variables in Hypotheses 4. This extends previous research (Teas, 1982; Tyagi, 1982) by finding Job Importance to have a significant effect on the concept of motivation as an aggregate variable. Job Importance was not found to be effected by the degree of structure of management groups in Hypotheses 3. After reviewing the mean scores for the three groups (Table 9), Job Importance appears to be an important psychological climate subscale for each of the three groups. Each group believes that their job is making a meaningful contribution to the organization.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS,
AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine relationships among work motivation and the components of psychological climate in the retail environment. The Vroom Expectancy Model (VIE) (Vroom, 1964) was the conceptual model used in this study. The VIE Model of Work Motivation was based on the concepts that valence, instrumentality, and expectancy are what instigate and direct behavior. If a person desires a specific job feature (valence), believes that good job performance will lead to the specific job feature (instrumentality), and believes that effort or working hard will lead to good job performance (expectancy), then that person will be highly motivated to perform.

This research was an expansion of research done by Teas (1982), by including valence, instrumentality, and expectancy in the motivation measure. Motivation deals with understanding human behavior at work.

Among the antecedents of motivation, psychological climate has been regarded as one of the most significant contributors to an individual's motivation (James, Hartman,

Stebbins, & Jones, 1977; Pritchard & Karasick, 1973; Steers & Porter, 1979). The perceived psychological climate of an employee has a significant effect on the employee's motivation and behavior. Components of psychological climate such as job importance, role clarity, leader goal emphasis, and organizational identification, are each important variables that affect the work motivation process.

The survey research method provided data for a descriptive and an analytical study. As a descriptive study, a current understanding of retail management beliefs of psychological climate dimensions, work motivation, and a demographic profile of the management employees was determined. As an analytical study, the influence of psychological climate variables on work motivation, how the retail management groups differ in this relationship, and the effects of psychological climate in the presence of demographic characteristics on work motivation were examined.

A stratified sample of 295 retail management employees was obtained from a population of 3,000 management employees employed with one organization. This retailer is the largest family owned and family managed department store in the United States. A 12-page survey was mailed to the sample in September 1991. Section I of the questionnaire was used to measure the psychological climate. This section contained 111 items representing 13 subscales. The 13

subscales were designed to measure four general areas of the organizational environment. Section II of the questionnaire was used to measure Vroom's valence, instrumentality, and expectancy components of motivation. Section III was a demographic section containing 12 items relating to gender, age, educational level, major, marital status, geographic location, location of store, length of employment with this company, present position, spouse career, career of the spouse hindering move to a new geographic location, and family size.

Eighty percent ($\underline{n} = 237$) returned usable questionnaires. Respondents represented eight states with the majority living in suburban areas (47%). Approximately two-thirds of the respondents were female with 63% having only a high school degree or some college or vocational training.

The management employees were divided into three groups: (1) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR), (2) Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), and (3) Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR). These three group divisions involve organizational structural differences that distinguish how merchandise is bought and distributed to the stores.

The majority of the Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) group was female (63.9%). Three-fourths of this group were married and have a spouse who is employed. This group had

the largest number of family members living in the household with 50% comprising three or more members.

Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), the oldest group, was two-thirds female. Length of employment was longer for this group than either the Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) or Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) groups. Over three-fourths of the group were married.

Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) was the most evenly distributed on the gender variable (46.15% male, 51.93% female). The shortest length of employment was reported for this group. This group also reported the smallest number living in the household with over 50% having only one or two members.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses used were means and frequency distributions; computation of a Work Motivation Score; formation, averaging, and reliability of the Psychological Climate Subscales; coefficients of correlation; regression analysis; analysis of variance; and analysis of covariance. The Statistical Consulting Center at UNCG assisted in data analysis and interpretation of results. A SAS computer program was used for all data analysis except the use of SPSSX to calculate psychological climate subscale reliabilities.

Testing of the Hypotheses

The effect of each of the 13 subscales of psychological

climate on work motivation was investigated (Hypotheses 1). Results indicated that Job Importance, Organizational Identification, and Leader Goal Emphasis were significantly positively related to work motivation.

Hypothesis 2 explored the effect of the degree of structure of management groups on work motivation. Results provided no evidence that the degree of structure of management groups effect work motivation.

The effect of the degree of structure of management groups on each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate was investigated in Hypotheses 3. Six of the 13 psychological climate subscales produced significant results: Role Clarity, Leader Goal Emphasis, Organizational Identification, Leader Interaction, Leader Trust and Support, and Psychological Influence.

Contrast statements were used to provide a comparison of the mean scores on each of the six significant subscales of psychological climate. Three contrasts were made: (1) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), (2) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) and Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR), and (3) Store Buying Store Receiving (SBSR) versus Group Buying Store Receiving (GBSR) and Group Buying Group Receiving (GBGR). The contrasts provided evidence that there is a difference between the groups on the six psychological climate subscales.

Analysis of Covariance was used in Hypotheses 4 to examine the influence of each of the 13 subscales of psychological climate on work motivation in the presence of demographic variables. Job Importance, Organizational Identification, and Leader Goal Emphasis were found to have a significant effect on work motivation in the presence of age and management group.

Organizational Identification and Leader Goal Emphasis were found to have a significant effect on work motivation (Hypotheses 1), to be effected by the degree of structure of management groups (Hypotheses 3), and to have a significant effect on work motivation in the presence of two demographic variables (Hypotheses 4). Job Importance had a significant effect on work motivation in Hypotheses 1 and on work motivation in the presence of demographic variables in Hypotheses 4. Job Importance was not found to be effected by the degree of structure of management groups in Hypotheses 3. After reviewing the mean scores for the three groups (Table 9), Job Importance appears to be an important psychological climate subscale for each of the three groups. Each group believes that their job is making a meaningful contribution to the organization. Degree of structure does not have an impact on the individual job characteristics but does have an influence on the leadership and organizational characteristics which involve other people.

Conclusions

This research contributes to the study of the relationship between psychological climate and work motivation in the retail industry. Results from this study confirm that an employee's psychological climate beliefs have a significant effect on work motivation within the retail industry. The human resource cost in retail represents a little over two-thirds of the total expense dollars (Teas, 1982). With this proportion being spent on human resources, motivation of management employees is critical. Understanding the relationship between psychological climate and work motivation will enable these dollars to be used more efficiently.

Three psychological climate subscales were found to significantly effect work motivation: Job Importance, Leader Goal Emphasis, and Organizational Identification. For this retail sample, Job Importance and Organizational Identification were found to have a strong influence on motivation, which does not support the work of Tyagi (1982) who found that these two subscales only had a mild influence on extrinsic components of motivation. In addition, this extends previous studies (Teas, 1982; Tyagi, 1982) by finding Job Importance does have a significant effect on the concept of motivation as an aggregate variable. For the retail management employees surveyed, Leader Goal Emphasis was found to have a significant effect on work motivation.

Moussavi, Jones, and Cronan (1989) found that age was one demographic variable that had little effect on psychological climate dimensions. This study did not support this. The age variable was the one demographic variable found to influence psychological climate perceptions. Older individuals may feel more affiliation with the organization and better understand the responsibilities and expectations of their position than younger employees. Since the sample represented is an older population the age variable may have played a more important role.

Limitations of Findings

1. Other psychological climate and work motivation components not measured by the study may further explain this relationship.
2. The survey was limited to one company, which is privately held and located in the southeastern United States, therefore the results cannot be generalized to the retail industry population.
3. All of the retailer's stores (340) were not represented in the sample. Employee perceptions may be unique in the stores that were not represented.
4. Work motivation components individually may better explain the relationship between psychological climate and work motivation than a work motivation score.
5. Each management group individually may provide a clearer

understanding of the differences on the 13 psychological climate subscales, on motivation scores, and motivation components individually.

Implications

With today's competitive retail environment results of this study can benefit retail management and educators. Clothing and textiles educators will generally agree that among the broad objectives of teaching their course content are to help students function successfully as managers and constructively as executives and to prepare students to remain in their field of study. It is important to prepare them to be able to manage the frustrations in order to stay in the field and not move on to a new discipline. Understanding the areas within psychological climate that effect work motivation will aid educators in structuring course content to assist students in developing a professional perspective. Courses should provide content that executes the concepts of team-building, analytical management skills, performance management, planning and decision-making management, and system analysis management (i.e., training, store organization, management policies and procedures, personnel practices). A partnership between the retail industry and clothing and textiles faculty will provide guidance and input on curriculum decisions and development.

Findings of this study provided evidence that Job Importance, Leader Goal Emphasis, and Organizational Identification were three organizational environment dimensions that positively affect work motivation of the management employees. Teaching students the importance of being a team player, being able to guide others in establishing and achieving goals, setting an example for employees, and realizing the importance of their job to the organization are vital components of preparing students for retail management positions.

An additional asset to clothing and textiles curriculum is a structured internship program. An internship is an experience that allows a student to encounter first-hand how the theories and case-studies actually work in a retail setting. Internships provide a student with training in leadership skills, knowledge, and attitudes in a structured learning environment that cannot be acquired in the classroom.

The retail environment is facing many challenges. Among those challenges is competition. By motivating management employees, the retailer will be better equipped to win competitive battles. Proper training and motivation of retail management is a necessary additional component in the quest for competitive superiority especially in these competitive retail times. Retail management can use this information to analyze the store's work environment, re-

evaluate existing training programs, examine the reward structure, and refine recruitment strategies to determine how each one can encourage employee motivation.

Findings of this study indicated that Job Importance, Leader Goal Emphasis, and Organizational Identification were three work environment dimensions that positively affect work motivation of the management employees. The retailer needs to continue to address the needs of employees (job importance), the supervisor (leader goal emphasis), and the organizational identity items. This will not only benefit the retail organization but will aid in employee satisfaction and retention in the retail field.

Role Clarity, Leader Interaction, Leader Trust and Support, and Psychological Influence were each psychological climate variables that were affected by the degree of structure of management groups but did not reveal a significant effect on work motivation. Further research needs to be completed to investigate why these did not provide evidence of a significant effect on work motivation.

Periodically conducting surveys to measure psychological climate and work motivation would allow the retailer to gauge the impact of changes in organizational policies and the degree to which these act as motivators. Although an individual's perceptions are crucial in identifying the organizational climate, perceptions of climate may not accurately reflect realities. So, actions

designed to change the climate may not produce the intended effect on the perceptions of climate and therefore, not effect an individual's motivation.

Another method might be to employ a research strategy to review the concepts of ideal and actual psychological climates. Discrepancies between how individual's see their climate as it exists and as they would like it to be may provide valuable diagnostic information.

Job Importance and Organizational Identification were two psychological climate subscales that had a significantly positive effect on work motivation. One component of a positive, motivational work environment is recognition. Service awards and productivity bonuses can go a long way toward generating employee enthusiasm for the overall organization as well as personal achievement. Awards need not be extensive. A plaque, use of a reserved parking space for a month, a mention in the company newsletter, or a sign at the retail location encourages the desired behavior while making employees feel they are part of a team. Recognition is a means of encouraging an employee's Job Importance and Organizational Identification.

A shrinking labor supply and a fast-changing labor pool mean retailers must take an active approach to recruiting, motivating, and compensating employees at all levels. This is a tall order in today's cost-conscious retail environment. A retailer can turn this tough labor

environment to its competitive edge with innovative human resources programs that are expressly geared toward the welfare of the employee.

Recommendations

Findings from this study indicated areas where further research could be extended. One area that needs further research is the relationship between motivation and performance evaluations in a retail setting. This area of study is needed to further define the relationship between what employees say is important to them (their work motivation) and their performance. A linkage between psychological climate dimensions and performance should also be explored.

The study needs to be replicated in different retail settings to examine whether the relationships between psychological climate and work motivation are retailer-specific. An investigation of private- versus public-retail ownership would allow this question to be explored.

This study provides a range of motivation scores for retail management. Future studies will have a basis for comparison of motivation scores with both similar retail environments and diverse employment settings.

Although the amount of variance in motivation explained by psychological climate dimensions is meaningful, a considerable level of unexplained variance remains. Personal characteristics, situational factors, and other

factors may also influence motivation. Future studies should investigate the relative contribution of climate dimensions with other plausible factors in influencing work motivation.

The design of this study makes it difficult to determine cause-effect conclusions. Future research efforts should make use of analyses to identify causal relationships between psychological climate dimensions and work motivation. Longitudinal studies that can examine, over time, the effects of systematic efforts to change psychological climate dimensions is one strategy to investigate this causal relationship.

A policy of periodically providing performance evaluation feedback may increase motivation by clarifying management's performance expectations. In order for feedback to be most beneficial, it should be provided more often than once a year. Changes in motivation are quickly reflected in performance (Lawler & Suttle, 1973). Management employees should be aware of the goals of the organization and the standards of performance that are expected before performance evaluations are administered. By ensuring that employees get rewarded with those particulars that they desire, value is added to the work and motivation is a result. Movement is easy to achieve, but lasting motivation can only come from positive affirmations.

An attempt should be made to determine how situation-specific psychological climate dimensions are influencing perceived desirability of various job features or rewards. For example, an assessment can be made as to whether or not a certain type of challenging environment can increase the attractiveness of rewards, such as feelings of accomplishment and personal growth. Such an understanding can be useful for adjusting psychological climate dimensions to enhance the attractiveness of various rewards which can be offered. Steps need to be taken to make appropriate adjustments in those dimensions of psychological climate that did not significantly effect motivation (e.g., make jobs more challenging, offer more variety, avoid task conflict) to enhance the level of motivation.

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APPENDIX A
STORE LOCATION

340 Stores In 14 States



APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

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APPENDIX C
PSYCHOLOGICAL CLIMATE SUBSCALES
VARIABLE ITEM NUMBERS AND EXAMPLES

Table C-1

Psychological Climate Subscale Variables

Psychological climate subscale	Item - Page numbers and example
Role Clarity	11-1, 25-2, 33-3, 10-4, 22-5, 31-5, 9-6, 15-6, 22-7, 30-7, 37-8 "My job responsibilities are clearly defined." (#15-6)
Job Challenge and Variety	10-1, 14-1, 24-2, 32-3, 1-3, 15-4, 5-6, 12-6, 25-7 "My job requires a lot of skill and effort to do it well." (#14-1)
Role Harmony	12-1*, 26-2, 34-3*, 11-4, 23-5*, 30-5*, 2-6, 8-6*, 13-6*, 17-7*, 29-7*, 36-8* "To what extent do you have the materials you need to complete your work assignments?" (#11-4)
Job Autonomy	17-2, 29-2, 2-3, 21-7, 26-7, 40-8 "I have a great deal of freedom to decide how I do my job." (#17-2)
Job Importance	1-1, 18-2, 3-3, 16-4, 27-5, 20-7 "To what extent is your job important to the functioning of the store?" (#16-4)
Role Assignment	2-1, 13-1*, 16-2, 31-2, 35-3*, 21-5, 1-6, 3-6, 19-7*, 23-7*, 27-7*, 31-7, 41-8 "There is strong pressure for better job performance." (#3-6)
Leader Goal Emphasis and Work Facilitation	5-1, 20-2, 5-3, 9-4, 18-4, 29-5, 4-6, 18-7, 33-8, 38-8 "To what extent does your supervisor stress the importance of work goals?" (#9-4)

(table continues)

Psychological climate subscale	Item - Page numbers and example
<hr/>	
Leader	
Interaction Facilitation	6-1, 21-2, 6-4, 19-5, 34-8, 42-8 "To what extent does your supervisor encourage employees to work as a team?" (#6-4)
Leader Trust and Support	4-1, 37-3, 4-3, 17-4, 24-5, 28-5, 10-6, 14-6 "To what extent is your supervisor friendly and easy to approach?" (#28-5)
Psychological Influence	7-1, 22-2, 7-4, 6-6, 16-7, 28-7 "How often does your supervisor ask for your opinion when a problem comes up that involves your work?" (#6-6)
Workgroup Cooperation and Influence	9-1, 23-2, 8-4, 12-4, 20-5, 7-6, 35-8 "To what extent do the people in your workgroup cooperate to get the job done?" (20-5)
Management Concern and Awareness	28-2, 13-4, 25-5, 11-6, 24-7, 32-8, 39-8 "Upper management keeps well-informed about the needs and problems of employees in general." (#24-7)
Organizational Identification	3-1, 8-1, 15-1, 19-2, 27-2, 30-2, 36-3, 14-4, 26-5, 32-5 "I would definitely recommend Belk to a prospective recruit." (#15-1)

* Items that were negatively worded and reverse scored.

APPENDIX D

FIELD TEST EVALUATION FORM

FIELD TEST EVALUATION FORM

Please use this form to give your critical reaction to the questionnaire once you have completed it.

1. Did the cover letter make you want to fill out the questionnaire?
(If not, what else might have been said?)

2. Was there anything special that made you want or not want to fill out the questionnaire?

3. What problems, if any, did you have in answering the questions? Please indicate which question(s) (section and number) and the problems(s) you had.

4. If there were questions for which you did not find an appropriate answer given and no opportunity to list your own, please indicate which question(s) and your answer(s).

5. Did you find the questionnaire easy to fill out?

6. Did you find the directions clear?

7. Was the size of the print too small?

8. About how long did it take you to fill out the questionnaire?

_____ minutes

9. Please give any other suggestions or comments that would improve the questionnaire. (Use the back of this page if needed for your additional comments).

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!
RETURN THIS CRITIQUE FORM WITH YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX E

**COVER LETTER FROM RESEARCHER
COVER LETTER FROM HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

September 3, 1991

Dear Belk Management Personnel:

I am conducting, in cooperation with Belk Store Services, a survey among Belk management personnel. Your frank and accurate responses are very important to this research and a significant contribution to the understanding of motivation and perceived psychological climate among management employees of this company.

The questionnaire is extensive and will take approximately 25 minutes to complete. This approach is needed to obtain reliable measures of the many complex characteristics surrounding your job and to permit an accurate analysis of the information. Your accuracy and completeness in responding to every question, therefore, is most important to the usefulness of the study to Belk, and ultimately to you.

Your responses are confidential. Your name will never be placed on or matched to the questionnaire. After you have completed the questionnaire, place it in the pre-addressed envelope provided and seal the envelope. Return the completed questionnaire along with your Job Information Survey. The questionnaire will be forwarded to me.

Belk will be receiving a presentation on the findings of this study in May 1992. Your valuable time, effort, and cooperation is very much appreciated. I am sure that there will be benefits forthcoming to you and to Belk through your conscientious effort in this research.

Sincerely,

Ginger A. Woodard
Ginger A. Woodard
Ph.D. Candidate

Nancy L. Cassill
Nancy L. Cassill
Assistant Professor
Research Co-Advisor

Enclosure

To: Selected Store Managers
From: Bob Mobley and Tom Westall
Date: October 15, 1991
Subject: Management Survey Assistance

We need your help! As you will note from the enclosed cover letter, we are working in cooperation with the University of North Carolina at Greensboro to complete a study on management practices in retailing.

Your store was one of 30 stores we selected as a representative sample for the total organization. We spoke with your partner or group HR Manager for their approval of your store's participation in this survey.

The questionnaire, which will take only about 30 minutes, should be completed by you as the store manager, as well as each of the other members of your management team, including the Merchandise Manager/Coordinator, HR Operations Manager, Office Manager, Receiving Manager and Floor Managers (ASM's or Divisionals). You should have enough copies for your store. If you need more, contact us here at BSS.

You will note that the surveys are pre-numbered. This is to enable us to be sure that all surveys are returned. You should complete the first one in the sequence; however, this survey or any others will not be identified to us. They should be returned directly to UNCG in the enclosed envelopes for processing. You simply need to be sure that all of your surveys are completed and returned no later than November 1, 1991.

We appreciate your assistance in the study. Your input and that of the other management personnel in the store should be of real value to us in planning future management development activities and classes.

APPENDIX F
COMPUTATION OF MOTIVATION SCORE EXAMPLE

F-1

Computation example of work motivation score
for respondent 1

		Step 1	Step 2
	<u>V = Valence</u>	<u>I = Instrumentality</u>	<u>VI = V X I</u>
1.	4	4/4 = 1	4
2.	5	4/4 = 1	5
3.	5	4/4 = 1	5
4.	5	2/4 = .5	2.5
5.	5	3/4 = .75	3.75
6.	4	2/4 = .5	2
7.	4	2/4 = .5	2
8.	4	2/4 = .5	2
9.	3	2/4 = .5	1.5
10.	4	3/4 = .75	3
11.	3	3/4 = .75	2.25
12.	4	2/4 = .5	2
13.	4	2/4 = .5	2
14.	4	2/4 = .5	2
15.	3	2/4 = .5	1.5
16.	4	2/4 = .5	2
17.	3	2/4 = .5	1.5
18.	5	3/4 = .75	3.75
19.	4	3/4 = .75	3
20.	4	3/4 = .75	3

(Step 3) $VV = 53.75$

Step 4

Expectancy = $(1 + 0 + 4)/12 = 5/12$

(Questions 1 - 3 on page 11 of questionnaire)

Step 5

Work Motivation Score = $VV \times \text{Expectancy} = 22.58$

Step 1 -- Instrumentality / 4 = I

Step 2 -- $V1 \times I1, V2 \times I2, \dots, V20 \times I20 = 20 \text{ VI's}$

Step 3 -- Sum of VI's = VValence

Step 4 -- Sum of 3 Expectancy / 12 = Expectancy

Step 5 -- VValence X Expectancy = Work Motivation Score

F-2

Means and standard deviations of
valences and instrumentalities

Items	Valence		Instrumentality	
	Mean(a)	SD	Mean(b)	SD
1. Promotion	4.34	.81	.64	.22
2. Keeping your job	4.73	.62	.87	.19
3. Job security	4.63	.69	.82	.20
4. Giving help to others	4.67	.58	.79	.20
5. Personal growth	4.71	.56	.82	.20
6. Accomplishment	4.77	.48	.87	.19
7. Independent thought and action	4.34	.74	.72	.22
8. Time at work passing fast	3.68	.96	.75	.23
9. Receive compliments	3.85	.83	.63	.24
10. Respect from superiors	4.56	.62	.73	.24
11. Special recognition	3.83	.80	.61	.26
12. High pay	4.51	.74	.54	.28
13. Pay raise	4.66	.68	.58	.28
14. Respect from employees	4.61	.58	.73	.20
15. Being tired from hard work	2.94	1.05	.62	.25
16. Few chances to make friends	2.26	1.07	.42	.26
17. Freedom	3.58	.89	.54	.24
18. Remain in geographic location	3.88	1.04	.60	.25
19. More responsibility	3.72	.97	.72	.20
20. Other benefits	4.38	.69	.57	.26

(a) Scores could range from 1 - 5.

(b) Scores could range from 0 - 1.

F-3

Expectancy means and standard deviations

Items	Expectancy	
	Mean (a)	SD
1. Working less hard than I presently do leads to decreased job performance.	.75	.27
2. Working harder than I presently do to increased job performance.	.67	.29
3. My working hard will lead to good job performance.	.83	.21

(a) Scores could range from 0 - 1

APPENDIX G
STATISTICAL TABLES

Table G-1

Regression analysis of 4 psychological climate subscales
and work motivation

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>p > F</u>
Model	4	4764.7839	24.19	.0001
Error	225	196.9352		
Total	229			

<u>Source</u>	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T Value</u>	<u>p > T</u>	<u>StdErr.</u>
Job Importance	5.27	2.19	.0146	2.4020
Organiz. ID	5.28	2.50	.0065	2.1105
Goal Emphasis	5.01	2.31	.0109	2.1682
Manag. Concern	3.53	1.60	.0560	2.2112

Table G-2

Regression analysis of 3 psychological climate subscales
and work motivation

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>p > F</u>
Model	3	6185.8440	31.20	.0001
Error	<u>226</u>	198.2832		
Total	229			

Source	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T Value</u>	<u>p > T</u>	<u>StdErr.</u>
Job Importance	5.80	2.43	.0079	2.3868
Organiz. ID	6.53	3.33	.0005	1.9653
Goal Emphasis	7.10	4.10	.0000	1.7319

Table G-3

Analysis of variance for management group
on work motivation

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>p > F</u>
Management Group	2	310.4660	1.13	.3243
Error	<u>229</u>	274.3703		
Total	231			

Table G-4

Analysis of variance for management group
on job importance

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	0.1587	0.72	.4868
Error	<u>234</u>	0.2198		
Total	236			

Table G-5

Analysis of variance for management group
on role clarity

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	1.1156	3.58	.0294
Error	<u>234</u>	0.3116		
Total	236			

Table G-6

Analysis of variance for management group
on leader goal emphasis

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	1.4380	3.82	.0232
Error	<u>232</u>	0.3761		
Total	234			

Table G-7

Analysis of variance for management group
on organizational identification

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	1.9653	5.07	.0070
Error	<u>234</u>	0.3879		
Total	236			

Table G-8

Analysis of variance for management group
on leader interaction facilitation

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	2.0788	3.99	.0198
Error	<u>232</u>	0.5209		
Total	234			

Table G-9

Analysis of variance for management group
on leader trust and support

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	2.0799	3.37	.0362
Error	<u>233</u>	0.6180		
Total	235			

Table G-10

Analysis of variance for management group
on psychological influence

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > <u>F</u>
Management Group	2	3.5456	5.89	.0032
Error	<u>232</u>	0.6019		
Total	234			

Table G-11

Analysis of variance for management group
on job challenge and variety

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > <u>F</u>
Management Group	2	0.3343	1.45	.2372
Error	<u>234</u>	0.2309		
Total	236			

Table G-12

Analysis of variance for management group
on role harmony

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	0.0933	.48	.6204
Error	<u>234</u>	0.1950		
Total	236			

Table G-13

Analysis of variance for management group
on job autonomy

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	0.1455	.33	.7171
Error	<u>234</u>	0.4369		
Total	236			

Table G-14

Analysis of variance for management group
on role assignment

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	0.0196	.05	.9511
Error	<u>234</u>	0.3909		
Total	236			

Table G-15

Analysis of variance for management group
on workgroup cooperation

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Management Group	2	0.8652	2.54	.0812
Error	<u>234</u>	0.3409		
Total	236			

Table G-16

Analysis of variance for management group
on management concern and awareness

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > <u>F</u>
Management Group	2	1.0423	2.02	.1354
Error	<u>234</u>	0.5169		
Total	236			

Table G-17

Analysis of covariance for 4 subscales of psychological
climate on work motivation in presence of
3 demographic variables

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>p > F</u>
Model	13	1825.2205	9.77	.0001
Error	209	186.8805		
Total	222			

Source	<u>Type III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>p > F</u>
Group	956.7973	2.56	.0797
Age	1968.7505	3.51	.0162
Position	1269.5028	1.70	.1516

	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T Value</u>	<u>p > T </u>	<u>StdErr.</u>
Job Importance	6.05	2.46	.0148	2.46
Organiz. ID	5.31	2.48	.0139	2.14
Goal Emphasis	4.36	1.99	.0481	2.19
Manag. Concern	5.11	2.22	.0273	2.30

Table G-18

Analysis of covariance for 4 subscales of psychological climate on work motivation in presence of 2 demographic variables

Source	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Model	9	2476.2231	13.17	.0001
Error	218	188.0755		
Total	227			

<u>Source</u>	<u>Type III SS</u>	<u>F</u> Value	<u>p</u> > F
Group	1081.9273	2.88	.0585
Age	2190.9823	3.88	.0099

	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T</u> Value	<u>p</u> > T	<u>StdErr.</u>
Job Importance	6.19	2.59	.0101	2.38
Organiz. ID	5.02	2.37	.0185	2.11
Goal Emphasis	4.46	2.07	.0392	2.15
Manag. Concern	4.25	1.92	.0559	2.21

Table G-19

Analysis of covariance for 3 subscales of psychological climate on work motivation in presence of 2 demographic variables

<u>Source</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>p > F</u>
Model	8	2698.9327	14.18	.0001
Error	219	190.3881		
Total	227			

<u>Source</u>	<u>Type III SS</u>	<u>F Value</u>	<u>p > F</u>
Age	1973.5552	3.46	.0173
Group	1091.1958	2.87	.0591

	<u>Estimate</u>	<u>T Value</u>	<u>p > T </u>	<u>StdErr.</u>
Job Importance	6.76	2.83	.0050	2.3861
Goal Emphasis	6.86	3.90	.0001	1.7587
Organiz. ID	6.58	3.35	.0010	1.9674