

Robert F. Lusch & Ray R. Serpkenci

Personal Differences, Job Tension, Job Outcomes, and Store Performance: A Study of Retail Store Managers

The authors investigate the relationships between four personal difference variables and job outcomes of retail store managers. They also investigate the influence of job tension on managerial performance and of the manager's performance on the financial performance of the retail store. Empirical results indicate that achievement orientation and inner- and other-direction of retail store managers have important direct as well as moderating influences on key job processes and outcomes. Empirical results demonstrate the critical influence of managerial effectiveness on retail store performance.

EFFECTIVE management of human resources in retailing is critically important for achieving a competitive market position and a high rate of return. It is of special concern at the store level because both the creation and exchange of value in retailing are decidedly "local" phenomena. However, studies directed towards a better understanding of the job processes and job outcomes of this workforce are few and far between. Especially disturbing is the paucity of research on the antecedents and consequences of job outcomes for store managers.

The store manager has a unique influence on the achievement of organizational objectives. At the local level, he or she is simultaneously a merchandiser, a salesperson, a financial officer, a marketer, and a supervisor of other employees. The manager is also a key intelligence gatherer and a market researcher in

the store's trading area, as well as a modest strategist for the store. It is disheartening to observe that, with few exceptions (e.g., Nordstrom, Wal-Mart, The Limited), most retail firms are not cognizant of the significance of this key actor. This is unfortunate, as no retail strategy is likely to succeed without dedicated execution by these people at the "front lines."

As Lucas (1985) points out, most job outcomes research in retailing has centered on understanding the correlates of role perceptions and job outcomes of department managers or salesclerks rather than store managers (e.g., Donnelly and Etzel 1977; Dubinsky and Mattson 1979; Oliver and Brief 1977-78; Teas 1982). Recent research, however, indicates that there may be significant differences in these relationships, depending on the task characteristics and the occupational level in the organization (e.g., Fisher and Gitelson 1983; Jackson and Schuler 1985; Lucas 1985; Van Sell, Brief, and Schuler 1981). Therefore, though the results of retail *salesforce* research are directional, direct extrapolations may be misleading.

Though research is scarce, there is ample conventional wisdom about what makes a store manager "successful." For example, Lusch (1982, p. 15-17) and Davidson, Sweeney, and Stampfl (1984, p. 466-7) suggest that a store manager needs analytical skills,

Robert F. Lusch is Professor and Dean, College of Business Administration, and Director, Distribution Research Program, University of Oklahoma. Ray R. Serpkenci is Assistant Professor, Scarborough Campus and Faculty of Management, University of Toronto. The authors express their appreciation to Bert C. McCammon, Jr., David Ross Boyd Professor of Marketing, University of Oklahoma, for his unfailing support and encouragement to his students throughout the years.

creativity, decisiveness, flexibility, initiative, leadership, organization, risk taking, and high stress tolerance to be effective in managing a retail operation. However, neither Lusch nor others provide any conceptual framework or empirical evidence to support such recommendations. Furthermore, there is no evidence that store managers who have the requisite personal characteristics and skills are, in fact, happy or satisfied in their jobs. Equally important, there is little evidence on whether job processes or outcomes (e.g., job tension, performance, or satisfaction) have any direct or indirect impact on store performance (cf., Donnelly and Etzel 1977; Kelly, Gable, and Hise 1981).

The purpose of our article is to present a preliminary model of the correlates of job outcomes for store managers. In the proposed model, several personal difference variables (i.e., achievement orientation, self-esteem, and inner- and other-direction) are related to tension experienced at work, which in turn is related to key job outcomes (i.e., job performance and satisfaction) of store managers. The model also explores the relationships among job tension, job performance, and store performance. The latter investigation should shed light on the importance of the store manager in achieving the economic objectives of the retail enterprise.

Background and Research Questions

Marketing research has an impressive research tradition of investigating the antecedents of job outcomes in industrial salesforces (e.g., Bagozzi 1978, 1980; Becherer, Morgan, and Richard 1982; Behrman and Perreault 1984; Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1974, 1976; Fry et al. 1986; Kohli 1985; Teas 1981, 1983; Teas, Wacker, and Hughes 1979; Tyagi 1982; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1975, 1977). Marketing researchers also have examined similar issues for industrial buyers (e.g., Michaels, Day, and Joachimsthaler 1987; Parasuraman 1981), brand managers (e.g., Lysonski 1985), and salesclerks (e.g., Donnelly and Etzel 1977; Dubinsky and Mattson 1979; Oliver and Brief 1977-78; Teas 1982). The output is even more voluminous in the fields of industrial and applied psychology, organizational behavior, and labor economics. Meta-analysis on (1) the antecedents and outcomes of role perceptions (Fisher and Gitelson 1983; Jackson and Schuler 1985), (2) organizational antecedents of job satisfaction (Loher et al. 1985), (3) determinants of (salesperson) job performance (Churchill et al. 1985), and (4) salesforce selection criteria (Ford et al. 1987) summarize the empirical findings to date.

Personal Differences and Job Outcomes

The general interest in the personal differences/job outcomes relationships is rooted in the motivational

theories of human behavior and performance. The major theoretical queries here are whether and to what extent individual differences affect role perceptions, performance-reward expectancies, and effort-reward instrumentalities. Though personal difference variables generally are assigned only secondary roles in current job outcome studies (Weiss and Adler 1984), answers to these questions have a definite appeal to marketers. As Bagozzi (1978, p. 521) notes, most selling and marketing jobs are "a uniquely individual activity where the [person's] successes and failures rise and fall more on his or her abilities and efforts than on shared teamwork with others." If personal differences are in fact important in determining favorable individual and organizational outcomes, the relevant variables would be of considerable help in the identification of the "right" people.

Of particular relevance to our study are four personal difference variables: (generalized) self-esteem, achievement orientation, and the inner- and other-direction of store managers. These constructs and their relations to job outcomes are of special interest in retailing because most store operations are managed outside the "corporate" organization. A store manager is in the unique position of being one part organization employee and one part entrepreneur. In a highly turbulent and competitive environment, a store manager, as the major implementor of strategic plans, is expected to be highly motivated, significantly goal-directed, and highly tolerant of stress and tension. The personal difference variables in our research, to various degrees, aim to capture such personal characteristics.

The role of self-esteem. Generalized self-esteem (GSE) is defined as the extent to which a person sees and *evaluates* him/herself as a competent, moral, and need-fulfilling individual (Korman 1968). Though self-acceptance, self-confidence, and self-assurance generally are considered synonymic to GSE, it may be more appropriate to think of these concepts as related dimensions. (Task-) specific self-esteem (TSSE), or self-efficacy, is a *situation-specific* concept of similar (self-) evaluations in a *narrower context*, for example, of an individual's job (Brockner 1988).

The role of self-esteem in affecting job satisfaction and job performance, or in moderating their relationships, was an area of intense inquiry following Korman's internal consistency hypothesis. Korman (1970, p. 32) argued that only high self-esteem individuals would show a higher satisfaction with work, because "individuals [high on self-esteem] will be motivated to perform on a job consistent with [their] self-image . . . and choose and find most satisfying those roles which are consistent with their self-cognitions." In their conceptualization of industrial sales-

person performance, Walker, Churchill, and Ford (1977) proposed that salespeople high in self-esteem would also hold greater expectancies and have higher satisfaction with their work. Researchers in organizational behavior (e.g., Greenhaus and Badin 1974; Inkson 1978; Jacobs and Solomon 1977), as well as in marketing (e.g., Bagozzi 1980; Kohli 1985; Teas 1981, 1982), have found support for both propositions. In a rare study of store managers, Lucas (1985) also reported a positive association between TSSE and job satisfaction and performance. Despite these and other findings, however, the body of evidence in this area is equivocal.

Recent research suggests that the importance of self-esteem in predicting job outcomes may be moderated by other variables such as sex roles and status (Dipboye et al. 1979; Lopez 1982). Tharenou and Harker (1984, p. 630), in contrast, intimate that GSE is "more likely to be a direct predictor of [job outcomes] rather than a moderator variable." Some researchers also have posited that self-esteem may not be an antecedent of job outcomes but, on the contrary, an *outcome* of job processes. Bagozzi (1978), for example, hypothesized GSE and TSSE to be functions of a salesperson's job satisfaction, role ambiguity, role conflict (tension), job performance, and other-directedness. Though his empirical results tend to corroborate some of these hypotheses, such results should be interpreted cautiously.¹

There is a significant distinction between one's *concept of self*, which is in constant reappraisal by the person, and one's *self-concept* (e.g., self-esteem), which is the *product* of this reflexive activity (Gecas 1982). Self-esteem, as a relatively enduring *outcome* of one's self-evaluations, can be expected to be affected, but only very gradually. Therefore, proposed linkages *from* various job outcomes *to* self-esteem (or to other personal difference variables) are not only problematic, but in some cases (e.g., cross-sectional studies) clearly unwarranted. Unless a study is designed to capture dynamic and longitudinal interaction between such variables and job processes, it is more prudent to treat them as antecedent conditions (or moderating variables) rather than job outcome measures.

The role of achievement orientation. Achievement orientation is an individual's generalized tendency to be energized to perform well. Persons high in

achievement orientation value work in and of itself and are highly motivated to seek and conquer challenges in their jobs (Deci 1975; Duncan and Featherman 1973).

The nature of the achievement orientation/job outcomes relationship(s) can be considered in parallel with self-esteem. However, though internal balance or consistency is the *original* theoretical basis for a GSE/job outcome relationship, achievement orientation typically is explained in terms of an expectancy-value framework (Korman 1974). Briefly, the logic of expectancy-value theory is that the more an actor can obtain rewards or value from a given form of behavior, the more the actor will engage in that behavior. Further, to the extent that the source of motivation is internal (external) to the individual, the more the individual will work for and value intrinsic (extrinsic) rewards, all subject to possible diminishing returns (Korman 1974; Porter and Lawler 1968). In the marketing literature, Walker, Churchill, and Ford (1977) provide a general framework for the antecedents of salesperson motivation, but do not consider achievement orientation as a distinct variable in their propositions.

The general expectation here is for store managers high in achievement orientation to have higher job performance and satisfaction, because for these managers work is a central, primary activity, and *the* instrument for success. However, managers high in achievement orientation may become dissatisfied if perceived rewards are not obtained or are inconsistent with their expectations. Empirical evidence in support of these expectations is mixed and is summarized by Korman (1974, p. 181–209). The studies following Walker, Churchill, and Ford's (1977) framework generally have investigated organizational variables and have not included achievement orientation as an antecedent of salesforce job satisfaction or performance. In the only study in this area, Bagozzi (1980) examined the direct relationship between achievement *motivation* and job satisfaction and found support for a positive linkage.

The role of inner- and other-direction. Inner- and other-direction (or locus of control) generally refer to the degree to which individuals perceive the events in their lives as being a consequence of their own actions and hence controllable (inner-direction) or as being unrelated to their behaviors and therefore beyond their control (other-direction) (Lefcourt 1972; Rotter 1966). There is, however, considerable debate on whether these perceptions are the opposite ends of a continuum or represent two independent personal characteristics. Confirmatory analyses in our research support the hypothesis that inner- and other-direction are reasonably distinct dispositions, negatively correlating at modest

¹Certain important limitations of Bagozzi's (1978) study should be noted. First, his single-equation testing strategy is open to question given the complexity and interdependencies among his variables. Second, the cross-sectional design of his study significantly limits his ability to entertain "causal" inferences between GSE and TSSE and their hypothesized antecedents. Finally, in some of his other articles (e.g., Bagozzi 1980), he proposes relationships in which "causal" inferences entertained in his 1978 article are, in fact, reversed.

to low levels² (cf. Collins, Ashmore, and Ross 1973). Therefore, in our study, we treat inner- and other-direction as two related but distinct personal characteristics.

With its basis in social learning and attribution theories (Weiner 1972), the inner- versus other-direction of individuals has significant implications for their motivation and achievement behavior. The body of evidence in this area indicates that inner-directed individuals are cognitively more active, higher in motivation, less prone to stress, and more resistant to *external* influences (Lefcourt 1972). In Walker, Churchill, and Ford's (1977) conceptualization of performance determinants, inner-direction is posited to be an important predictor of instrumentality estimates of salespeople and potentially a positive correlate of job satisfaction. Recent research also reinforces the notion that internal control and internal reward orientation may have a positive influence on the job performance and satisfaction of salespeople (e.g., Sujan 1986; Teas and McElroy 1986; Weitz, Sujan, and Sujan 1986).

In the organizational behavior area, researchers generally have found internally oriented workers to have higher job satisfaction (e.g., Mitchell, Smyser, and Weed 1975; Organ and Greene 1974). In marketing, Behrman and Perreault (1984) report a strong negative association between external orientation and job satisfaction. In general, empirical evidence tends to support Walker, Churchill, and Ford's (1977) expectation of a positive association between (internal) locus of control and instrumentality estimates in industrial and retail salesforces (Teas 1981, 1982). On the basis of these and earlier observations on achievement orientation and self-esteem, the following research hypotheses can be entertained.

- H₁: Retail store managers high in (a) self-esteem, (b) achievement orientation, (c) inner-direction (other-direction) have higher (lower) levels of job satisfaction.
- H₂: Retail store managers who are more achievement-oriented have higher job performance.

Though it is clear that the personal differences considered in H₁ are not independent, we find no theoretical justification for a "causal" relationship(s) among these variables. The review of the conceptual evidence, however, strongly suggests that we should expect inner-direction, achievement orientation, and GSE to be closely associated. Not surprisingly, in articles reporting measures of association for similar variables, we find modest to high correlations that reinforce these

²When items for inner- and other-direction are hypothesized to form a unidimensional scale, the variance-covariance structure cannot be fairly reproduced ($\chi^2 = 56.30$, d.f. = 20; $p < .00$) and the unidimensionality hypothesis must be rejected. However, when the items are set to be indicators of two associated dimensions, the resulting interfactor correlation is $-.38$ and the alternative model fits the data well ($\chi^2 = 21.51$, d.f. = 19; $p < .31$).

expectations (cf. Bagozzi 1978; Behrman and Perreault 1984). Hence we also propose the following research hypothesis.

- H₃: Generalized self-esteem, achievement orientation, and inner-direction are associated positively among themselves and negatively with other-direction.

Personal Differences/Job Tension

We define job tension to be an affective state resulting from an individual's feelings associated with perceived negative consequences of role perceptions. According to this conceptualization, the traditional notions associated with role theory (e.g., ambiguity, conflict, overload, and accuracy) represent the *processes* that result in an overall affective state about one's job and work environment. Our research interest is (1) to explore whether the level of tension felt in one's job is related to personal differences and (2) to investigate the moderating effect of these personal differences on the relationship between job tension and job outcomes.

Previous studies on role theory have been concerned mainly with the antecedents and consequences of role ambiguity and role conflict as distinct from job tension. However, it is generally accepted that conflicting and ambiguous role perceptions lead to higher levels of tension in the work environment (Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1976; Fry et al. 1986; Walker, Churchill, and Ford 1977). In their meta-analysis, Jackson and Schuler (1985, p. 40) note that "[in] studies of role ambiguity and role conflict [which] include measures of tension and/or anxiety . . . tension tends to be positively correlated with both ambiguity ($r = .43$) and role conflict ($r = .47$) . . . [and this] seems to be the major reason that research on conflict and ambiguity is categorized as 'stress' research."

Generally, studies on the antecedents of tension-producing role perceptions also have been restricted to investigations of organizational factors and leader behaviors, with personal differences relegated to secondary roles as moderating variables. Most researchers agree, however, that personal differences may affect the way individuals *perceive* and/or *react* to stressful events in their work environment (Brockner 1988; Jackson and Schuler 1985; Weiss and Adler 1984). Hence, as Schuler (1980) suggests, it is plausible to study personal differences not only as "moderators of relationships between stressors and stress symptoms, [but also as] factors explaining the level of stress an individual will experience."

In this context, and of the variables considered in our study, inner- and other-direction (locus of control) of individuals are probably the most closely studied personal differences. Internally controlled persons are theorized to hold the generalized belief that job-life outcomes are the consequence of their own actions,

whereas the externally controlled persons believe such outcomes are determined mainly by chance, fate, or more powerful others (Rotter 1966). In comparison with externally directed individuals, inner-directed persons are also more likely to rely on self-generated role definitions, impose their own role expectations, and hence be relatively *less bothered* by tension-producing elements in their work environment.

In studies of organizational behavior, researchers consistently have found a positive association between (external) locus of control and tension-producing role perceptions. Some researchers also have hypothesized tension-producing processes to have stronger negative job outcomes for internally oriented than for externally oriented individuals (e.g., Abdel-Halim 1980; Batlis 1980). However, as Jackson and Schuler (1985, p. 35) note, though the "moderator hypothesis is more prevalent . . . the evidence is less supportive" of such conceptualizations.

Similar (but weaker) findings support a negative association between self-esteem and tension-producing role perceptions. As Brockner (1988, p. 68) notes, ". . . by their very nature, stressors test individuals' coping abilities. High SEs' greater self-confidence may enable them to ward off the impact of the stressor to a greater extent than low SEs. Not only, then, are low SEs more likely to experience the stress of role strain, but also low SEs may be more apt to exhibit the negative consequences of role strain." However, as noted before, in several studies GSE or TSSE is considered to be a *criterion* variable, despite the general agreement that self-esteem is a person's relatively stable evaluation of self-concept (e.g., Bagozzi 1978; Kohli 1985). The notion that tension or tension-producing states lead to lowered self-evaluations is plausible, but because of the cross-sectional nature of nearly all such studies, the evidence for this linkage is inadequate. Given the conceptual definition of self-esteem, we believe it is more reasonable to expect that persons with more favorable self-cognitions and evaluations feel less tension.

No direct theoretical or empirical evidence links an individual's achievement orientation to job tension. The few studies that have examined a related concept, need for achievement, have produced mixed results. However, these studies view need for achievement as a moderator of job tension and job outcome relationships, as opposed to a (direct) antecedent of job tension (Johnson and Stinson 1975; Morris and Snyder 1979). Though evidence is limited, it appears plausible that persons who value work and the challenges of work as a conduit to success experience less tension. This expectation does not rule out the possibility, however, that persons high in achievement orientation may also feel less satisfied in the presence of high tension *if* tension is perceived as an

inhibitor of success. In summary, managers high in achievement orientation may be less bothered by tension-producing elements (i.e., a direct effect) but, given a high amount of tension in the work environment, these individuals might be less effective and less satisfied than managers who are lower in achievement orientation (i.e., a moderating effect).

Results from studies examining personal difference variables in salesforces support the preceding expectations. For example, Behrman and Perreault (1984) show that (external) locus of control is related positively to role conflict. Interestingly, the correlations they report (p. 17) also indicate a significant, uniform, and positive association between (external) locus of control and role ambiguity, and similar but negative associations between need for achievement and the two role perception variables. Generally, inferential evidence here suggests that high achievement needs and inner-direction may be associated negatively with tension-producing role perceptions.

In a similar study, the associations between other-directedness and job tension (conflict) and role ambiguity are again uniform, positive, and significant (Bagozzi 1978). In the same study, both GSE and TSSE are associated negatively with role ambiguity and job tension (conflict) indices (p. 526, Table 3). Finally, in a study investigating industrial salesforce supervisory behavior, Kohli (1985) found a positive relationship between TSSE and role clarity, which is consistent with Bagozzi's findings.

In summary, personal differences may indeed have a moderate to strong direct influence on the perception of tension-producing processes and their outcomes. On the basis of these observations, we propose the following direct relationships.

- H₄: Retail store managers who are high in (a) self-esteem, (b) achievement orientation, and (c) inner- (other-) direction will experience lower (higher) levels of job tension.

However, as noted before, several researchers have looked at personal differences not as antecedent factors, but as moderators of the strength of the relationship between tension-producing elements and job outcomes. For example, it has been proposed that the relationship between tension and job satisfaction would be weaker for "internals" than for "externals" (Jackson and Schuler 1985) and that the job performance and satisfaction of only low SEs would be significantly (and negatively) affected by various role strains (Brockner 1988). The conceptual development in this area is very limited, but the implications of moderating effects are intriguing. To explore these issues, we pose the following research questions without specific *a priori* expectations.

Are the relationships between job tension and job

outcomes (performance and job satisfaction) dissimilar between retail store managers who are higher in (a) self-esteem, (b) achievement orientation, and (c) inner (other) direction and store managers who are lower on the same characteristics?

Job Tension and Job Outcomes

Both cognitive and motivational explanations predict that tension and tension-producing perceptions will be associated negatively with job performance and job satisfaction. As hypothesized by Walker, Churchill, and Ford (1977), and corroborated in numerous studies in marketing and allied disciplines, tension-producing role perceptions are found to relate negatively to job satisfaction but positively to the tendency of individuals to leave their jobs. Walker and his coauthors and Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) provide the conceptual underpinnings for these expectations, and the meta-analyses by Jackson and Schuler (1985) and Fisher and Gitelson (1983) review the empirical findings.

Job tension, as the collective outcome of work overload, ambiguity surrounding others' expectations, and the conflicting nature of those expectations, is also predicted to lower managerial effectiveness. In general, empirical results tend to confirm this expectation, but the (negative) association reported for the tension-performance linkage is nearly always of a smaller magnitude than that found for the job tension/job satisfaction relationship (Jackson and Schuler 1985).

For the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction, the previous belief that satisfied workers would be more productive generally has been found not to hold. The major theoretical and empirical support today is for the proposition that performance influences satisfaction (e.g., Bagozzi 1980; Locke 1970; Porter and Lawler 1968). However, it is also recognized that a strong direct linkage should not be expected unless an important intervening variable, perceived equitable rewards, also is modeled into the system of relationships (Porter and Lawler 1968, p. 37). These observations suggest the following two research hypotheses.

H₅: A high level of job tension adversely affects (a) the job satisfaction and (b) the job performance of retail store managers.

H₆: Job performance of retail store managers has a positive (but weak) influence on their job satisfaction.

Job Outcomes and Retail Store Performance

The performance of a retail store clearly depends on the effective performance of *all* employees. However, the role of a store manager is probably the most critical, because he or she is responsible for all other employees and their productivity. Equally important, the store manager is also frequently responsible for the execution of a host of decisions that influence store

performance (e.g., store hours, markdowns and other reductions, inventory, promotion, etc.). To the extent that the manager is doing a good job in these key decision areas, retail store performance will be enhanced.³ These observations suggest the following research hypothesis.

H₇: The job performance of the retail store manager positively influences store performance.

It is reasonable to expect the satisfaction of a store manager may also be influenced by the store's performance. Because a manager has a significant responsibility for the store's operations, one would expect managing a unit that achieves high performance to be satisfying. As one of the reviewers has suggested, however, the nature or the strength of this relationship may be moderated by personal differences. For example, store managers high in inner-direction might not need an external cue for their feelings of satisfaction, as they tend to value only intrinsic rewards. For other-directed store managers, however, store performance could provide positive feedback and therefore might be a source of satisfaction with their work. Similar arguments can be made for the other personal difference variables considered in our study. Collectively, these observations suggest our final two hypotheses.

H_{8a}: Higher store performance is expected to have a positive influence on the job satisfaction of retail store managers.

H_{8b}: The magnitude of the store performance/job satisfaction relationship may be moderated by individual differences.

These and other hypotheses are summarized in Figure 1. All variables in this framework are assumed to be latent concepts, each measured by one or more fallible indicators. In the next section, we briefly describe these measures and the research method used in empirical analyses.

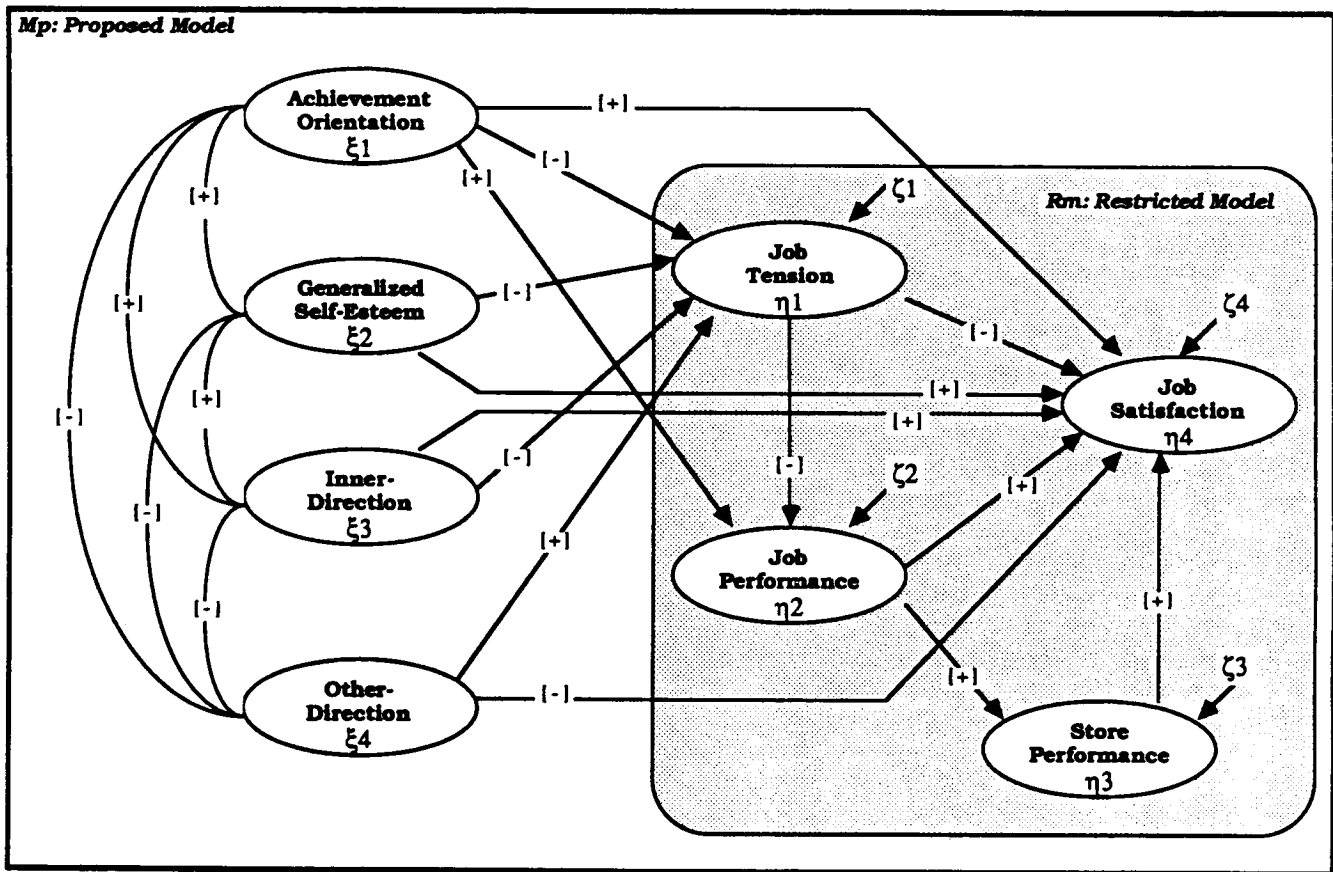
Method

Sample, Setting, and Research Instruments

The data for the study were obtained from a regional variety store retailer with more than 200 stores in the U.S. The statistical analyses reported are based on 182

³Clearly, the determinants of retail store performance are not limited to the performance of its human resource base. For instance, the competitive position of the retail unit in the marketplace, the degree of overstoreing, and the amount of competitive rivalry in the trading area are among the many other factors that would affect store-level outcomes. However, our focus is limited to the study of personal differences and job outcomes of store managers. The interest in store performance is an instrumental one that enables us to investigate the relationships among the personal and organizational outcomes. As we note subsequently, even in the presence of other factors, the relationships examined here are substantially unaffected.

FIGURE 1
Proposed Model of Job Outcomes for Retail Store Managers (measurement model not shown)



stores and their managers for which complete data were available for all variables. The retail units are located in major metropolitan and rural areas in nearly equal numbers. Stores in metropolitan areas generally operate in strip shopping centers and other stores are stand-alone units in rural communities. Most stores have 7000 to 10,000 square feet of selling area; newer units are larger, ranging from 15,000 to 25,000 square feet of selling space. Each store offers a wide range of general merchandise items, catering to a relatively narrow trading area with a tight customer focus. Most stores are also fairly uniform in terms of their merchandise mix and store layouts, and are staffed by a store manager and one or more assistant managers. A district supervisor closely monitors the operations of 10 to 15 retail units and reports directly to senior managers.

Store-level data on operating and financial characteristics of each store were obtained through a survey of store operations data form for the most recent three years of operation. Items from this survey were used to operationalize the store performance construct. A survey of managerial effectiveness, designed

to provide an assessment of the performance of store managers, was completed by the district supervisor for each retail unit. This survey form also included items on the demographic profile of each of the store managers, which were obtained from the personnel records of the company. A quality of work life survey was mailed to and completed by each store manager. This survey was designed to capture a large number of personal and attitudinal characteristics of the store managers and to provide measures for job outcome variables used in the study. In addition, it included demographic variables, such as the manager's age, tenure with the company, years of experience in retailing, and education.

The surveys of store operations and managerial effectiveness were exhaustive in their coverage of the chain's retail units and store managers. For the quality of work life survey, 208 of the 226 questionnaires (or 92%) were returned to be included in the study. However, all store managers who had less than one year of tenure with the retail unit were eliminated from analyses. Other deletions due to missing values in the

combined database limited the statistical analyses to 182 stores and store managers.

Measurement

The scales used in the study were designed by reviewing the relevant literature and in collaboration with the senior managers. Empirical definitions of the latent constructs were obtained through confirmatory methods described by Werts, Linn, and Jöreskog (1974; Werts et al. 1978) and Jöreskog (1971a) and discussed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Gerbing and Anderson (1988). The pairwise correlation coefficients for the observed variables and the composite reliability estimates for the latent variables are summarized in Table 1. The construction and content of individual scales are briefly described next.

Achievement orientation (ACO) was operationalized by a single indicator, based on the score from a 5-item scale adapted from Duncan (1969). All items were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Generalized self-esteem (GSE) also was operationalized by a single indicator, measured by 15 items from the Jackson Personality Inventory. These items were anchored on a 5-point scale from "very much like me" to "very much unlike me." The single indicator of other-di-

rection (ODR) was obtained from a scale from Collins, Ashmore, and Ross (1973). The five items in the scale elicited store managers' agreement-disagreement, on five points, to statements such as "I change my opinion or do things to please others," "In a group I am unlikely to express my opinion," and "To get along, I tend to do what others expect." Inner-direction (IDR) was operationalized by a single indicator (also from Collins, Ashmore, and Ross 1973) using three items: "I am basically good at following through with my plans," "One's behavior should be directed toward . . . definite personal goals," and "Tell it like it is is always the best policy." These items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Job tension was operationalized by three indicators measured on a scale adapted from Kahn et al. (1964). The score from two items, reflective of the severity of demands imposed on the store manager by time constraints, was used to define the first indicator, tension due to role overload (TRO). The score from four items was used to define a second indicator, tension due to role ambiguity (TRA). The four items were reflective of pressures resulting from unclear role requirements and the lack of adequate information on the job. Finally, the score from four items was used

TABLE 1
Pairwise Correlation Coefficients and Measurement Properties of Latent Variables (n = 182)

Latent Variable:	Job Tension			Job Performance			Retail Store Performance				Job Satisfaction				Personal Differences				
Observed Variable:	TRO	TRA	TRC	JP1	JP2	JP3	NPS	SPF	SIN	SFE	PAY	PRO	SUP	COW	WRK	ACO	GSE	ODR	IDR
TRO	1.00																		
TRA	.40	1.00																	
TRC	.62	.62	1.00																
JP1	-.17	-.12	-.10	1.00															
JP2	-.19	-.11	-.16	.86	1.00														
JP3	-.20	-.10	-.15	.83	.89	1.00													
NPS	-.23	-.06	-.08	.48	.48	.52	1.00												
SPF	-.15	.00	-.04	.24	.33	.34	.62	1.00											
SIN	-.16	-.05	-.07	.37	.42	.44	.65	.78	1.00										
SFE	-.15	-.06	-.12	.35	.39	.39	.59	.53	.65	1.00									
PAY	-.21	-.47	-.37	.10	.15	.12	.10	.12	.09	.06	1.00								
PRO	-.14	-.50	-.32	-.04	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.01	-.02	.00	.54	1.00							
SUP	-.19	-.50	-.38	.16	.13	.10	-.05	-.09	-.03	-.01	.40	.39	1.00						
COW	-.21	-.40	-.39	-.05	-.05	-.05	-.07	-.09	-.03	-.10	.48	.46	.46	1.00					
WRK	-.38	-.42	-.36	.07	.02	.03	.09	-.03	.08	.02	.36	.53	.38	.56	1.00				
ACO	-.29	-.25	-.25	-.02	-.05	-.08	.07	.05	.07	.01	.27	.38	.21	.37	.59	1.00			
GSE	-.17	-.04	-.20	-.04	-.02	-.04	-.05	-.02	.01	.08	-.11	.02	-.01	.06	.14	.19	1.00		
ODR	.35	.23	.38	.02	-.03	-.02	-.08	-.14	-.11	-.21	-.03	-.11	.03	-.08	-.20	-.20	-.48	1.00	
IDR	-.30	-.18	-.22	-.03	-.02	-.09	.09	-.05	.03	.02	.04	.05	-.07	.20	.21	.30	.26	-.18	1.00

Observed Variable:	TRO	TRA	TRC	JP1	JP2	JP3	NPS	SPF	SIN	SFE	PAY	PRO	SUP	COW	WRK	ACO	GSE	ODR	IDR
No. of Scale Items:	2	4	4	22	8	1	1	1	1	1	4	2	3	2	5	5	15	5	3
Mean:	5.31	9.64	9.74	85.69	42.68	5.30	6.12	63.44	4.67	55.78	11.47	6.82	9.95	6.80	21.12	18.16	48.38	11.75	10.96
Standard Deviation:	2.00	3.00	2.87	12.49	8.57	1.24	6.10	22.31	1.50	12.53	3.65	1.78	2.74	1.85	3.50	3.11	8.17	3.46	2.07

Latent Variable:	Job Tension	Job Performance	Retail Store Performance	Job Satisfaction	ACO	GSE	ODR	IDR
Reliability†:	0.80*	0.95*	0.88	0.82	0.66	0.85	0.74	0.60*

† Composite reliability estimate(s) (see Werts, Linn, and Joreskog 1978).

* Identification requires at least partial tau-equivalence.

to measure the third indicator, tension due to role conflict (TRC). These items were reflective of the amount of tension felt by the store manager due to discrepant expectations at work, irrespective of time pressures. All 10 items were measured on 5-point scales anchored by "never bothered" to "bothered all the time."

Consistent with the previous research and literature (e.g., Churchill, Ford, and Walker 1974; Futrell 1979; Gillet and Schwab 1975), the job satisfaction construct was operationalized through five indicators. A 16-item scale derived from the JDI provided the following measures: satisfaction with work (WRK), with five items; satisfaction with compensation (PAY), with four items; satisfaction with promotion opportunities (PRO), with two items; satisfaction with superiors (SUP), with three items, and satisfaction with coworkers (COW), with two items. Each indicator was measured by its respective scores on two to five items ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree."

Job performance of store managers was operationalized by three indicators measured on two scales designed specifically for our study. The first measure of job performance (JP1) was the total score from a scale of 22 items that exploratory interviewing had indicated were attributes of effective managerial performance. None of these items made any direct reference to store performance but simply asked for an evaluation of the store manager on such aspects as ability (skills) to make sound or rapid decisions, solve day-to-day problems, adjust to new situations, and cope with strain and pressure, and knowledge of store operations and competitive conditions in the marketplace. Each of the items was rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The second indicator of job performance (JP2) was the total score from an 8-item, 7-point ("very satisfied" to "very dissatisfied") semantic scale. These eight items were designed to reflect the supervisor's satisfaction with the manager's performance on such attributes as overall managerial skills, level of motivation, and relations with others in the company. The third and final indicator of job performance (JP3) was a single-item rating of the "overall performance" of the store manager by the supervisor on a 7-point semantic scale.

Finally, four individual measures obtained from the survey of store operations were used to operationalize the store performance construct: net profits before corporate tax allocation expressed as a percentage of sales (NPS), net sales per square foot of selling area (SPF), net sales per dollar of (average) inventory investment (SIN), and net sales per full-time-equivalent employee (SFE). Collectively, these measures were intended to capture both the level of profitability and the productivity of each store and to represent the economic outcomes for the retail chain.

In summary, eight latent constructs in the study were measured collectively with 19 indicators. The personal difference variables each were measured by a single indicator; the job tension, job outcomes, and store performance constructs each had three to five multiple indicators.

Statistical Procedure and Model Specification

The statistical method used was covariance structure analysis with latent variables (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1979, 1983). LISREL V-6.13 was used in the estimation of both the composite reliability estimates and the structural path coefficients. The moderating influences of the personal differences were assessed by means of group analysis procedures summarized in *LISREL User's Guide* (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1983, ch. 5) and described in more detail by Jöreskog (1971b).

In model specification each element in the regression matrix, Λ_x , was fixed to its composite reliability (see Lord and Novick 1968, p. 61). One element in each vector of the regression matrix, Λ_y , was fixed to one to set the scale of the respective η 's (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1983). There were no correlated errors ($\Theta_{\epsilon\epsilon}$ or Θ_{88}) in the specification of the model; however, the off-diagonal elements ($i \neq j$) in Φ , corresponding to the expectations described in H_3 , were free to be estimated. The overall fit of the LISREL model(s) was assessed by the usual criteria (e.g., absence of improper solutions, a low χ^2 in comparison with d.f., examination of parameter estimates, their standard errors, and the residuals in $(S-\Sigma)$, as well as a series of incremental indices of fit over various alternative models.⁴

The structural parameter estimates for the model of Figure 1 and its overall goodness of fit are summarized in Table 2. Several incremental fit indices (Bentler and Bonett 1980) comparing the relative improvement in fit for the proposed model, M_p , over three alternative (null) models also are provided in Table 2. These (null) models are:

- the strict null model, M_0 , of complete independence,
- a modified null model (measurement only), M_m , indicating a completely orthogonal factor structure, and
- a modified null model (measurement only with six factor correlations), M_n , corresponding to noncausal associations between personal difference variables.

Results

Measurement Properties and Model Fit

Composite reliability estimates in Table 1 indicate adequate reliability for all latent variables in the model.

⁴In all LISREL applications, the covariance matrix was the input for final parameter estimation. Only the ML parameter estimates and their associated standard errors were examined for substantive interpretations (Jöreskog and Sörbom 1983). However, for ease of presentation and discussion, all parameters reported, unless otherwise indicated, are standardized estimates.

TABLE 2
Estimated (Standardized) Structural Parameters and Goodness of Fit of Proposed Model^a

Proposed Linkages	Sign Re: H ₀	Parameter Estimate					
Between Endogenous Variables							
Job performance → store performance	+	.506 ^b					
Job performance → job satisfaction	+	-.025					
Store performance → job satisfaction	+	-.064					
Job tension → job performance	-	-.233 ^b					
Job tension → job satisfaction	-	-.626 ^b					
Exogenous → Endogenous Variables							
ACO → job tension	-	-.211 ^b					
ACO → job performance	+	-.137 ^c					
ACO → job satisfaction	+	.433 ^b					
GSE → job tension	-	.090					
GSE → job satisfaction	+	-.036					
ODR → job tension	+	.395 ^b					
ODR → job satisfaction	-	.175 ^b					
IDR → job tension	-	-.181 ^b					
IDR → job satisfaction	+	-.130 ^c					
Within Exogenous Variables							
ACO ↔ GSE	+	.192 ^b					
ACO ↔ ODR	-	-.205 ^b					
ACO ↔ IDR	+	.326 ^b					
GSE ↔ ODR	-	-.485 ^b					
GSE ↔ IDR	+	.272 ^b					
ODR ↔ IDR	-	-.193 ^b					
Model Designation^d							
	χ^2	d.f.	χ^2 /d.f.	$f_{(0)}^e$	$\Delta\chi^{2f}$	Δ d.f.	p-Value for Δ
Mo	1937	171	11.33	10.6	—	—	—
Mm	556	156	3.57	3.1	1380	15	< .001
Mn	473	150	3.15	2.6	83	6	< .001
Mp	280	136	2.06	1.5	193	14	< .001
Ms	0	0		0.0			
Incremental Fit Indices							
	Mo vs. Mp	Mm vs. Mp	Mn vs. Mp	Mm vs. Mo	Mm vs. Mo	Mm vs. Mo	
Non-normed	.90	.15	.11	.75	.75	.79	
Normed	.86	.14	.10	.72	.72	.76	
Squared Multiple Correlations							
For structural equations			.51				
For job tension			.28				
For job performance			.05				
For store performance			.26				
For job satisfaction			.60				

^aAll figures are rounded to nearest meaningful digit.

^bt > 2.

^c1.65 < t < 1.78.

^dMo = strict null model, Mm = measurement only, Mn = measurement and person variables correlated, Mp = proposed model, Ms = saturated model.

^eMinimum of ML fitting function.

^fChange in χ^2 from the previous model.

However, the variance-covariance structure implied by the proposed model does not reproduce the sample variance-covariance structure well (see Table 2). As is well known, this is an unreasonable test over a saturated model, Ms, which implies near zero residuals (Bentler and Bonett 1980). When the hierarchically nested models in Table 2 are reviewed, clearly Mm

is a significant improvement over Mo, Mn is a significant improvement over Mm, and Mp is a significant improvement over Mn. Furthermore, the normed and nonnormed incremental fit indices also indicate that a reasonably good fit has been achieved, though further improvements could be possible if the model were relaxed further—an issue we examine in the next

section. For now, it seems reasonable to conclude that the proposed model has good measurement properties and provides a fair fit to the data.

Findings for Direct Effects

The first set of research hypotheses predicts that retail store managers high in achievement orientation (H_{1b}), generalized self-esteem (H_{1a}), and inner-direction (H_{1c}) will have higher job satisfaction, whereas other-directed store managers will be less satisfied in their job. The linkage from achievement orientation to job satisfaction (.433, $p < .01$) is significant and in the expected direction (see Table 2). The direct link from other-direction to job satisfaction (.175, $p < .01$) is also significant, but opposite the hypothesized direction. (The total effect of other-direction on job satisfaction, however, is negative, but not large in magnitude). Path coefficients for both GSE and IDR are not statistically different from zero.

The second hypothesis predicts a positive relationship between achievement orientation and job performance. The parameter estimate for this linkage ($-.137$) is opposite in sign to what was expected and it could be considered significant at a lower cutoff value ($p < .10$).

H_3 posits that the personal difference variables are all related to one another at arbitrary levels. The (Mn vs. Mm) incremental fit analysis in Table 2 indicates that these parameters are collectively significant. In the same table, we see individual associations are also significant and each pair of variables is correlated in the expected direction(s). Specifically, achievement orientation, GSE, and inner-direction are associated positively with one another and other-direction is associated negatively with each of the other variables. In general, store managers who are higher in achievement orientation and inner-direction appear also to be higher in generalized self-esteem and lower in other-direction. Though these findings are consistent with the inner-other metaphor and the postulates of social learning and motivational theories (Brockner 1988; Collins, Ashmore, and Ross 1973), the magnitude of the correlations indicates that these associations are not very strong.

The fourth hypothesis predicts that store managers high in achievement orientation (H_{4b}), generalized self-esteem (H_{4a}), and inner- (other-) direction (H_{4c}) feel less (more) job tension. With the exception of GSE, all parameter estimates are significant and in the direction(s) hypothesized. Achievement-oriented and inner-directed store managers appear to be less bothered by strain and tension ($-.211$ and $-.181$, $p < .01$, respectively), whereas other-directed managers seem highly tension prone (.395, $p < .01$). Collectively, these results indicate significant direct relationships between personal characteristics and the

amount of job tension felt at work.

High job tension is predicted to have an adverse effect on a store manager's job satisfaction (H_{5a}) and job performance (H_{5b}). The results are in the direction(s) hypothesized ($-.626$ and $-.233$) and significant ($p < .01$). Job stress or tension appears to have a strong and negative impact on the effectiveness of store managers and on their job satisfaction. The store manager's job satisfaction, however, is neither influenced by his or her job performance (H_6) nor enhanced by the overall performance of the store (H_8). Neither of these path coefficients ($-.025$ and $-.064$) is statistically different from zero. These results suggest that the job satisfaction experienced by store managers is independent of their job performance and of the performance of their store. Finally, H_7 predicts a direct and positive relationship from job performance to store performance. The parameter estimate for this relationship is significant (.506, $p < .01$) and in the expected direction. The effectiveness of the store manager appears to have a strong and positive influence on the economic outcomes for the retailer.

The squared multiple correlations reported in Table 2 summarize the amount of variance "captured" by each of the structural equations. These quantities are analogous to the R_2 measure in OLS and loosely indicate the degree to which the relevant variances-covariances are jointly accounted for by the variables in the respective structural equation(s). Specifically, the "predictive power" of the job tension (.28) and store performance (.26) equations appears to be reasonably strong, whereas that of the job performance equation (.05) is low. For job satisfaction and for the model as a whole, a reasonably high amount of variance is captured through all the direct and indirect linkages (.60 and .51, respectively).

Findings for Moderating Effects

To explore and test for moderating effects of personal differences, further analyses are necessary on a restricted model (R_m) of "inner relations" (see shaded area in Figure 1). For this purpose, we recast job tension as an exogenous variable, and retain the two job outcomes and the store performance construct as endogenous latent variables. Using the frequency distribution for each personal difference variable, we then divide the original sample ($n = 182$) into nearly equal halves.

The results from four separate group analyses are summarized in Table 3. For comparison, the first column in the table is the standardized parameter estimates from the R_m for the overall sample ($n = 182$). In the next series of columns are the standardized parameter estimates for specific groups.

In the upper part of Table 3, the estimates are from LISREL group analyses in which the measurement

TABLE 3
Standardized Parameter Estimates from LISREL Group Analyses

Proposed Linkages	Restricted Model Estimates (n = 182)	Group Analysis							
		Low ACO (n = 93)	High ACO (n = 89)	Low GSE (n = 91)	High GSE (n = 91)	Low ODR (n = 112)	High ODR (n = 70)	Low IDR (n = 112)	High IDR (n = 70)
Variant Measurement Models									
Job perf. → store perf.	.506 ^a	.505 ^a	.523 ^a	.522 ^a	.487 ^a	.503 ^a	.507 ^a	.431 ^a	.578 ^a
Job perf. → job sat.	-.072	-.099	.014	-.045	-.095	-.044	-.198	-.017	-.125
Store perf. → job sat.	-.040	.077	-.220 ^b	-.076	.009	-.113	.100	.001	-.128
Job tens. → job perf.	-.194 ^a	-.166 ^b	-.276 ^a	-.112	-.289 ^a	-.176	-.274 ^a	-.231 ^a	-.186
Job tens. → job sat.	-.655 ^a	-.554 ^a	.818 ^a	-.800 ^a	-.535 ^a	-.664 ^a	-.770 ^a	-.577 ^a	-.719 ^a
χ ² (d.f.)	178.95 (85)	249.64 (170)		270.88 (170)		262.83 (170)		285.65 (170)	
Invariant Measurement Models									
Job perf. → store perf.	.506 ^a	.497 ^a	.530 ^a	.549 ^a	.464 ^a	.519 ^a	.487 ^a	.421 ^a	.623 ^a
Job perf. → job sat.	-.072	-.119	.047	-.040	-.093	-.053	-.191	-.028	-.100
Store perf. → job sat.	-.040	.005	-.200 ^b	-.078	.003	-.092	.094	.002	-.122
Job tens. → job perf.	-.194 ^a	-.177 ^b	-.241 ^a	-.111	-.314 ^a	-.173	-.293 ^a	-.225 ^a	-.198 ^b
Job tens. → job sat.	-.655 ^a	-.618 ^a	-.670 ^a	-.792 ^a	-.549 ^a	-.607 ^a	-.814 ^a	-.624 ^a	-.650 ^a
χ ² (d.f.)	178.95 (85)	260.18 (197)		309.32 (197)		287.64 (197)		308.23 (197)	

^ap < .01.
^bp < .10.

properties in the groups are assumed to be variant. Hence, these estimates are identical to what would be obtained if each group were analyzed separately. In the lower part of the table are parameter estimates from analyses in which the measurement models are set to be invariant over the two groups. Clearly, the first set of estimates (with variant measurements) is nested in the variance-covariance structure of the second set of models (with invariant measurements). Therefore, the chi square differences with their associated change in degrees of freedom can be used to test the hypothesis that measurement models are, in fact, invariant. These tests indicate that the hypothesis cannot be rejected for alternative specifications of ACO, ODR, and IDR. The two alternative measurement models for GSE groups indicate that invariant measurements may not be tenable ($\Delta\chi^2 = 38.4$ and $\Delta d.f. = 27$, $p < .08$). However, an inspection of the estimated parameters obtained with either specification readily indicates that the estimated path coefficients in all four groups are nearly identical in magnitude.⁵

The results indicate that personal differences may indeed moderate the strength of some of the relation-

⁵Before these comparisons were undertaken, we tested for the invariance of complete variance-covariance structure for each group, that is:

$$H_0: [\Sigma^{(1)} = \Sigma^{(2)}].$$

The results from these analyses uniformly indicate that H_0 cannot be rejected. However, in a more stringent test, when all measurement and structural parameters are set to be invariant:

$$H_1: [\Sigma_{\lambda, \theta, \psi, \phi, \beta, \gamma}^{(1)} = \Sigma_{\lambda, \theta, \psi, \phi, \beta, \gamma}^{(2)}].$$

H_1 is uniformly rejected for all groups. Because of the large number of free parameters in these formulations, however, the tests are clearly influenced by the small sample size(s) (Jöreskog 1971b). Therefore, results from the group analyses should be reviewed with caution.

ships between job tension and job outcomes of store managers. Specifically, store managers who are higher in achievement orientation and in generalized self-esteem are affected more adversely in their job performance by a high amount of job tension than are their counterparts who are lower on these dimensions. More accurately, job tension/job performance relationships are negative and significant only for store managers who are higher in GSE and ACO. The moderating effects of higher other-direction and lower inner-direction are similar: store managers higher in other-direction and those lower in inner-direction are the two groups most adversely affected in their job performance when there is high tension. For managers low in other-direction and managers who are high in inner-direction, job tension/job performance linkages are not statistically different from zero.

Job tension/job satisfaction linkages in all groups are large, negative, and significant. These results, combined with the findings of the proposed model, generally reinforce the common wisdom that everyone is less satisfied when there is a high amount of job tension. However, the impact of job tension on job satisfaction is not uniform. Specifically, the more achievement-oriented and more inner-directed managers appear to be more dissatisfied when there is high tension. Store managers who are lower in GSE and higher in other-direction are likely to exhibit similar tendencies. As is the case for the sample as a whole, the job performance/job satisfaction linkage is not statistically different from zero in any of the groups. In contrast, job performance has a significant and uniform impact on store performance regardless of the personal differences.

Finally, for the moderating effects of personal dif-

ferences on the store performance/job satisfaction linkage (H_{8a}), the results do not support the expectations suggested by one reviewer. In all groups, with the possible exception of the high(er)-achievement-oriented managers ($-.200, p < .10$), the path coefficients are not statistically different from zero (see Table 3, lower left). In general, store performance does not appear to have any impact on job satisfaction, irrespective of the degree of personal differences.

Because our analyses are based on rather small sample sizes, it is difficult to make strong inferences. However, we believe the results are interesting enough to stimulate further research in this direction.

Discussion

Collectively, our results can be examined in two parts, (1) findings that corroborate conventional wisdom, reinforce previous research, and warrant some suggestions for the retail industry and (2) findings that call for future methodological refinements before we can draw substantive theoretical or practical conclusions.

Role of Personal Differences

Though almost everyone appears to be affected adversely by the stresses of work, some managers are predisposed to cope better. As conventional wisdom and previous research indicate, inner-directed and achievement-oriented store managers are significantly less bothered by tension than their counterparts who are lower on those dimensions. Our findings indicate that other-directed managers do not cope well with stress.

We find no evidence to support the notion that GSE makes a difference in influencing tension at work. However, before discounting the importance or relevance of self-esteem as an antecedent factor, we would be prudent to examine more refined conceptualizations and measurements of this variable. Self-esteem related to specific managerial tasks in a narrower job context may have a better predictive value.

Personal differences are generally less important as direct predictors of store managers' job satisfaction. Our findings indicate that only achievement orientation has a significant (positive) relation to job satisfaction. Neither GSE nor inner-direction has a strong relationship with job satisfaction. Contrary to our expectation, the direct influence of other-direction on job satisfaction is positive, but the total effect of the same variable is negative. The latter finding is due to the strong negative relationship between job tension and job satisfaction. Other-directed store managers are most prone to feel job tension, the net effect being lower overall job satisfaction. In our sample of store managers, this indirect effect is so strong ($.395 \times -.626$

$= -.247$) that it completely negates the direct positive linkage (.175).

Churchill, Ford, and Walker's (1985) meta-analysis suggests that personal differences may be more important predictors of job performance in salesforces than organizational variables, especially in service industries (see p. 112–14, corrected r 's for moderators). Though we did not examine organizational determinants, we generally do not find personal differences to be direct determinants of job performance. However, we do find that personal differences are important in coping with a key performance determinant (i.e., job tension). Hence, the indirect effects of personal differences on job performance may be more important than their direct influence. In this context, our findings indicate that inner-directed store managers are more effective in their job and other-directed managers are less so. Neither GSE nor achievement orientation, however, appears to have an important relationship with job performance.

Overall, these findings suggest that personal difference variables are important and relevant in understanding the job processes and outcomes of store managers. However, before managerial conclusions can be drawn, more research is needed. For example, though achievement orientation tends to reduce the degree of tension felt at work, the *strength* of job tension/job performance relationships is significantly different for high versus low achievement store managers. In other words, achievement orientation helps cope with tension but conceivably, in the presence of high tension, high achievement orientation may "reduce" job performance and job satisfaction (see Table 3). Similar conclusions are also valid for managers high versus low in GSE and low versus high in inner-direction.

Clearly, the role of personal differences in influencing job outcomes of store managers becomes significantly more complex when examined closely. On the basis of direct relationships alone, one could recommend that retail organizations seek and retain high achievers and inner-directed individuals as store managers. However, as our group analyses suggest, such strong inferences may be premature. Furthermore, as our results suggest, several of the relationships may be nonlinear.

Role of Job Tension

The job tension construct has been a central factor in the investigation of job outcomes in a variety of settings. The reason is that job tension is believed to have a strong adverse effect on both job performance and job satisfaction and an equally adverse effect on organizational outcomes. Our findings substantially corroborate these expectations: job tension has a direct and negative effect on job performance and job per-

formance has a strong positive influence on a store's performance.

In both the general model and in the group analyses, we also find that job tension has a large and negative effect on job satisfaction. Though these findings reinforce conventional wisdom, plausible alternative explanations cannot be ruled out without further analyses. For example, one could argue that these concepts are strongly related because they are inherently affective states. Job tension is a negative affective state (i.e., experiencing job tension makes one feel bad about one's job) and job satisfaction is a positive affective state (i.e., experiencing it makes one feel good about one's job). Hence, the strong negative association between job tension and job satisfaction may be confounded by (1) a "lack of differentiation" between the two concepts because they reflect underlying affective dispositions or (2) a "spurious" relationship due to a third factor affecting both latent variables. Upon further analysis, the former conjecture is found untenable, but the latter cannot be ruled out⁶ (i.e., though the two variables are sufficiently distinct, their association may be spurious).

At first thought it seems that, to understand the influence of job tension on job satisfaction, we need more complex specifications whereby the effects of potential confounds can be isolated. However, new and alternative specifications may not provide all the answers. For example, Sieber (1974) makes strong theoretical arguments for the possibility of a *positive* relationship between tension-producing elements and job satisfaction. According to Sieber, the multiplicity of roles may produce strain, conflict, or overload; however, these roles also are likely to provide role privileges, legitimacy or status, and security for the individual. As we accumulate potentially conflicting roles, clearly we "burden" ourselves with the additional demands each role brings; yet there is also a "hidden" satisfaction in doing so. The implications of these possibilities are interesting and can be more far

⁶A weak test for the first conjecture is to evaluate the null hypothesis, H_0 , in which we assume a common factor (with $3 + 5 = 8$ indicators) reflecting affective dispositions. Results from confirmatory analyses indicate that H_0 is not tenable ($\chi^2 = 138.7$, d.f. = 20; $p < .00$). However, the chi square difference between H_0 and an alternative model that specifies two correlated factors, H_a , indicates that H_a cannot be rejected (H_0-H_a : $\Delta\chi^2 = 60.75$ (1), $p < .01$). Therefore, we conclude that the relationship between job tension and job satisfaction is not due to a lack of differentiation between the two concepts. To evaluate the second conjecture, another test can be formulated using two nested models: we let Mp be our base model, tested against an alternative model (Ma) where Ψ_{41} is free to be estimated (see Figure 1). The ML estimate for $\Psi_{41} = .52$ ($\sigma = .07$) indicates that this parameter is significant. Furthermore, the differences between the nested models (Mp-Ma: $\Delta\chi^2 = 10.42$ (1), $p < .005$) indicate that Ma does contribute significant additional information. Hence we cannot rule out the possibility that job tension and job satisfaction may be related, at least in part, because of their joint association with a more general (method or nonmethod) factor.

reaching than simply clarifying the job tension/job satisfaction relationship. To investigate Sieber's conjectures, however, we need entirely new measurement instruments for these constructs. We hope that, in future undertakings, marketing scholars will incorporate some of these thoughts into their research agendas.

Role of Job Performance

Contrary to the implications of other studies (e.g., Donnelly and Etzel 1977; Kelly, Gable, and Hise 1981), our findings suggest a strong positive relationship between the job performance of managers and the financial outcomes for the retail unit. However, before any substantive inferences can be drawn, alternative explanations must be ruled out.

First, because our measure(s) of a manager's job performance is obtained from a survey of district supervisors, a major source of concern is the potential for "response bias." A supervisor, given the nature of his or her duties, is intimately knowledgeable of each store's performance in the district. Therefore, when the supervisor is asked to assess a manager's job performance, the response demands may be such that we could not possibly differentiate the two latent variables. However, when we reexamine the proposed relationship(s) by incorporating the implications of this conjecture into our model specification, we find this alternative explanation untenable.⁷

A second source of concern is the possibility of a model "misspecification," because a host of other determinants of store performance are not included in our framework. More specifically, one could argue that if "environmental" and/or "marketing mix" variables were specified as part of a more general model, the positive association between job performance and

⁷A strong test for this possibility is to evaluate a null hypothesis, H_0 , of a common factor structure (with $3 + 4 = 7$ indicators). Results from confirmatory analyses indicate that this hypothesis is untenable (H_0 : $\chi^2 = 313.25$, d.f. = 14; $p < .00$). The chi square difference between H_0 and an alternative model (H_a : where it is assumed there are two correlated factors) indicates that H_0 cannot be rejected (H_0-H_a : $\Delta\chi^2 = 270.61$ (1), $p < .01$). We therefore conclude that there are two distinct, but related, dimensions. Another test, investigating the possibility of a third-factor effect(s), also can be formulated via two nested models. We let the proposed model of Figure 1 (Mp) be the base model that is tested against an alternative model (Mb) in which Ψ_{32} is free to be estimated. The additional free parameter in Mb reflects the correlations in disturbances of η_2 and η_3 , which is analogous to a (higher order) factor influencing both endogenous variables. The ML estimate for $\Psi_{32} = .18$ ($\sigma = .33$) indicates that this parameter is not significant, and the differences between the two models (Mp-Mb: $\Delta\chi^2 = .64$ (1), $p < .50$) indicate no new information is gained from the less restricted model (Mb). Hence, we can rule out the possibility that job performance and store performance may be related because of a "halo" effect and conclude that superior performing store managers make a significant contribution to store performance. Another response issue with one supervisor evaluating the job performance of a store manager is the potential for key informant bias. Unfortunately, as triangulation was not possible in our research, we were unable to examine this issue.

store performance should diminish considerably or, in the extreme case, vanish altogether because such variables are arguably the "primary" determinants of store performance. In the context of more general models in which such factors (e.g., competitive intensity, market position, and other trade area characteristics) are incorporated into the structural equations, we find that the job/store performance relationship we report is substantially unaltered in its direction or magnitude (Serpken 1984). We therefore conclude that the job performance or effectiveness of a store manager has a direct and significant influence on the financial performance of the retail unit.

Finally, we find no relationship between either job performance or the financial performance of the store and the job satisfaction of store managers. These results, however, are not entirely unexpected. At the time of our research, the company studied was perceived to have neither an equitable profit-sharing scheme nor a plan for meaningful progression through the ranks. In fact, nearly 70% of the store managers responding to an (open-ended) section of the quality of work life survey had something "negative" to say about the nature (absence) of company policies in those areas and/or noted the (inequitable) distribution of rewards in the chain as a major source of concern. Hence, in the absence of strong linkages between job and/or store performance and rewards, a result of no asso-

ciation accurately describes the nature of these relationships in our sample. Conceivably, these findings may be more generally true and warrant further research.

Conclusion

Retail store managers occupy an indispensable boundary role between the corporate organization, the store operations, and the marketplace, yet what factors help or hinder the job outcomes of these actors and how those factors may affect the organizational outcomes are rarely studied. A key objective of our study was to examine these questions in a field setting and to stimulate further research on these and other related issues.

A more comprehensive understanding of job outcomes of store managers undoubtedly will come from research in which the personal differences are studied simultaneously with (organizational) job characteristics. Replications in other settings are also likely to enhance our knowledge and in time may provide useful guidelines for more effective utilization of retail talent. Our study is only a start in this direction with its focus on four psychological constructs and four outcome measures. Other retail and marketing educators are encouraged to challenge, modify, and build on the model we propose.

REFERENCES

- Abdel-Halim, A. A. (1980), "Effects of Person-Job Compatibility on Managerial Reactions to Role Ambiguity," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 26, 193-211.
- Bagozzi, Richard P. (1978), "Salesforce Performance and Satisfaction as a Function of Individual Differences, Interpersonal, and Situational Factors," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15 (November), 517-31.
- (1980), "Performance and Satisfaction in an Industrial Salesforce: An Examination of Their Antecedents and Simultaneity," *Journal of Marketing*, 44 (Spring), 65-77.
- Batlis, N. C. (1980), "Job Involvement and Locus of Control as Moderators of Role-Perception/Individual Outcome Relationships," *Psychological Reports*, 46, 111-19.
- Becherer, Richard C., Fred W. Morgan, and Lawrence M. Richard (1982), "The Job Characteristics of Industrial Salespersons: Relationship to Motivation and Satisfaction," *Journal of Marketing*, 46 (Fall), 125-35.
- Behrman, Douglas N. and William D. Perreault, Jr. (1984), "A Role Stress Model of the Performance and Satisfaction of Industrial Salespersons," *Journal of Marketing*, 48 (Fall), 9-21.
- Bentler, P. M. and Douglass G. Bonett (1980), "Significance Tests and Goodness of Fit in the Analysis of Covariance Structures," *Psychological Bulletin*, 88, 588-606.
- Brockner, Joel (1988), *Self-Esteem at Work*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.
- Churchill, Gilbert A., Jr., Neil M. Ford, and Orville C. Walker, Jr. (1974), "Measuring the Job Satisfaction of Industrial Salesmen," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 11 (August), 254-60.
- , ———, and ——— (1976), "Organizational Climate and Job Satisfaction in the Salesforce," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 13 (November), 323-32.
- , ———, and ——— (1985), "The Determinants of Salesperson Performance: A Meta-Analysis," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22 (May), 103-18.
- Collins, Barry E., Richard D. Ashmore, and Lee Ross (1973), "Some Dimensions of the Internal-External Metaphor in Theories of Personality," *Journal of Personality*, 41 (December), 471-92.
- Davidson, William R., Daniel J. Sweeney, and Ronald W. Stampfl (1984), *Retailing Management*, 5th ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Deci, Edward L. (1975), "Notes on the Theory and Metatheory of Intrinsic Motivation," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 15, 193-206.
- Dipboye, Robert L., Walter H. Zultowski, H. Dudley Dewhirst, and Richard D. Arvey (1979), "Self-Esteem as a Moderator of Performance-Satisfaction Relationships,"

- Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 15, 193–206.
- Donnelly, James H., Jr., and Michael J. Etzel (1977), "Retail Store Performance and Job Satisfaction: A Study of Anxiety-Stress and Propensity to Leave Among Retail Employees," *Journal of Retailing*, 53 (Summer), 23–8.
- Dubinsky, Alan J. and Bruce E. Mattson (1979), "Consequences of Role Conflict and Ambiguity Experienced by Retail Salespeople," *Journal of Retailing*, 55 (Winter), 70–86.
- Duncan, Otis D. (1969), "Contingencies in Constructing Causal Models," in *Sociological Methodology*, E. F. Borgatta, ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers, 74–117.
- and David L. Featherman (1973), "Psychological and Cultural Factors in the Process of Occupational Achievement," in *Structural Equation Models in the Social Sciences*, A. S. Goldberger and O. D. Duncan, eds. New York: Seminar Press, 229–53.
- Fisher, Cynthia D. and Richard Gitelson (1983), "A Meta-Analysis of the Correlates of Role Conflict and Ambiguity," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 320–33.
- Ford, Neil M., Orville C. Walker, Jr., Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., and Steven W. Hartley (1987), "Selecting Successful Salespeople: A Meta-Analysis of Biographical and Psychological Selection Criteria," in *Review of Marketing*, Michael J. Houston, ed. Chicago: American Marketing Association, 90–131.
- Fornell, Claes and David F. Larcker (1981), "Evaluating Structural Equation Models With Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (February), 39–50.
- Fry, Louis W., Charles M. Futrell, A. Parasuraman, and Margaret A. Chmielewski (1986), "An Analysis of Alternative Causal Models of Salesperson Role Perceptions and Work Related Attitudes," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 23 (May), 153–63.
- Futrell, Charles M. (1979), "Measurement of Salespeople's Job Satisfaction: Convergent and Discriminant Validities of Corresponding INDSALES and Job Descriptive Index Scales," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16 (November), 594–7.
- Gecas, Viktor (1982), "The Self-Concept," in *Annual Review of Sociology*, 8, 1–33.
- Gerbing, David W. and James C. Anderson (1988), "An Updated Paradigm for Scale Development Incorporating Unidimensionality and Its Assessment," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25 (May), 186–92.
- Gillet, Bernard and Donald P. Schwab (1975), "Convergent and Discriminant Validities of Corresponding Job Descriptive Index and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Scales," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 313–17.
- Greenhaus, Jeffry and Irwin J. Badin (1974), "Self-Esteem, Performance, and Satisfaction: Some Tests of a Theory," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 722–6.
- Inkson, Kerr J. H. (1978), "Self-Esteem as a Moderator of the Relationship Between Job Performance and Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 63, 243–47.
- Jackson, Susan E. and Randall S. Schuler (1985), "A Meta-Analysis and Conceptual Critique of Research on Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict in Work Settings," *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 36, 16–78.
- Jacobs, Rick and Trudy Solomon (1977), "Strategies for Enhancing the Prediction of Job Performance From Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62, 417–21.
- Johnson, Thomas W. and John E. Stinson (1975), "Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict, and Satisfaction: Moderating Effects of Individual Differences," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 329–33.
- Jöreskog, K. G. (1971a), "Statistical Analysis of Sets of Congeneric Tests," *Psychometrika*, 36 (June), 109–33.
- (1971b), "Simultaneous Factor Analysis in Several Populations," *Psychometrika*, 36 (December), 409–26.
- and Dag Sörbom (1979), *Advances in Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Models*. Cambridge, MA: Abt Books.
- and ——— (1983), *LISREL User's Guide*, 2nd ed. Chicago: International Educational Services.
- Kahn, R. L., D. M. Wolfe, R. P. Quinn, J. D. Snoek, and R. A. Rosenthal (1964), *Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Kelly, J. Patrick, Myron Gable, and Richard T. Hise (1981), "Conflict, Clarity, Tension, and Satisfaction in Chain Store Manager Roles," *Journal of Retailing*, 57 (Spring), 27–42.
- Kohli, Ajay A. (1985), "Some Unexplored Supervisory Behaviors and Their Influence on Salespeople's Role Clarity, Specific Self-Esteem, Job Satisfaction, and Motivation," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22 (November), 424–33.
- Korman, Abraham K. (1968), "Task Success, Task Popularity, and Self-Esteem as Influences on Task Liking," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 52, 484–90.
- (1970), "Toward an Hypothesis of Work Behavior," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54, 31–41.
- (1974), *The Psychology of Motivation*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Lefcourt, Herbert M. (1972), "Recent Development in the Study of Locus of Control," in *Progress in Experimental Personality Research*, Vol. 6, Brendan A. Maher, ed. New York: Academic Press, Inc., 1–39.
- Locke, Edwin A. (1970), "Job Satisfaction and Job Performance: A Theoretical Analysis," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 5, 484–500.
- Loher, Brian T., Raymond A. Noe, Nancy Moeller, and Michael P. Fitzgerald (1985), "A Meta-Analysis of the Relation of Job Characteristics and Job Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70, 280–9.
- Lopez, Elias M. (1982), "A Test of the Self-Consistency Theory of the Job Performance-Job Satisfaction Relationship," *Academy of Management Journal*, 25, 335–48.
- Lord, Frederick M. and Melvin R. Novick (1968), *Statistical Theories of Mental Test Scores*. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Lucas, George H., Jr. (1985), "The Relationship Between Job Attitudes, Personal Characteristics, and Job Outcomes: A Study of Retail Store Managers," *Journal of Retailing*, 61 (Spring), 35–62.
- Lusch, Robert F. (1982), *Management of Retail Enterprises*. Boston: Kent Publishing Company.
- Lyonski, Steven (1985), "A Boundary Theory Investigation of the Product Manager's Role," *Journal of Marketing*, 49 (Winter), 26–40.
- Michaels, Ronald E., Ralph L. Day, and Erich A. Joachimsthaler (1987), "Role Stress Among Industrial Buyers: An Integrative Model," *Journal of Marketing*, 51 (April), 28–45.
- Mitchell, Terence R., Charles M. Smyser, and Stan E. Weed (1975), "Locus of Control: Supervision and Work Satisfaction," *Academy of Management Journal*, 18 (September), 623–31.
- Morris, James H. and Robert A. Snyder (1979), "A Second Look at Need for Achievement and Need for Autonomy as Moderators of Role Perception-Outcome Relationships," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64, 173–8.

- Oliver, Richard L. and Arthur P. Brief (1977-78), "Determinants and Consequences of Role Conflict and Ambiguity Among Retail Sales Managers," *Journal of Retailing*, 53 (Winter), 47-58, 90.
- Organ, D. W. and C. N. Greene (1974), "Role Ambiguity, Locus of Control and Work Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59, 101-2.
- Parasuraman, A. (1981), "Role Clarity and Job Satisfaction in Purchasing," *Journal of Purchasing and Materials Management* (Fall), 2-7.
- Porter, Lyman W. and Edward E. Lawler (1968), *Managerial Attitudes and Performance*. Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.
- Rizzo, John R., Robert J. House, and Sidney I. Lirtzman (1970), "Role Conflict and Ambiguity in Complex Organizations," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15 (June), 150-63.
- Rotter, J. B. (1966), "Generalized Expectancies for Internal Versus External Control of Reinforcement," *Psychological Monographs*, 80, 1-28.
- Schuler, Randall S. (1980), "Definition and Conceptualization of Stress in Organizations," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 25, 184-215.
- Serpenci, Ray R. (1984), "An Investigation Into the Determinants of Retail Store Performance," PhD dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman.
- Sieber, Sam D. (1974), "Toward a Theory of Role Accumulation," *Sociological Review*, 39 (August), 567-78.
- Sujan, Harish (1986), "Smarter Versus Harder: An Exploratory Attributional Analysis of Salespeople's Motivation," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 23 (February), 41-9.
- Teas, R. Kenneth (1981), "An Empirical Test of Models of Salespersons' Job Expectancy and Instrumentality Perceptions," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (May), 209-26.
- (1982), "Performance-Reward Instrumentalities and Motivation of Retail Salespeople," *Journal of Retailing*, 58 (Fall), 4-26.
- (1983), "Supervisory Behavior, Role Stress, and the Job Satisfaction of Industrial Salespeople," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20 (February), 84-91.
- and James C. McElroy (1986), "Causal Attributions and Expectancy Estimates: A Framework for Understanding the Dynamics of Salesforce Motivation," *Journal of Marketing*, 50 (January), 75-86.
- , John G. Wacker, and R. Eugene Hughes (1979), "A Path Analysis of Causes and Consequences of Salespeople's Perceptions of Role Clarity," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16 (August), 355-69.
- Tharenou, Phyliss and Philip Harker (1984), "Moderating Influence of Self-Esteem on Relationships Between Job Complexity, Performance, and Satisfaction," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 623-32.
- Tyagi, Pradeep K. (1982), "Perceived Organizational Climate and the Process of Salesperson Motivation," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19 (May), 240-54.
- Van Sell, M., A. P. Brief, and R. S. Schuler (1981), "Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity: Integration of Literature and Directions for Future Research," *Human Relations*, 34, 43-71.
- Walker, Orville C., Jr., Gilbert A. Churchill, Jr., and Neil M. Ford (1975), "Organizational Determinants of the Industrial Salesman's Role Conflict and Ambiguity," *Journal of Marketing*, 39 (January), 32-9.
- , ———, and ——— (1977), "Motivation and Performance in Industrial Selling: Present Knowledge and Needed Research," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14 (May), 156-68.
- Weiner, B. (1972), *Theories of Motivation: From Mechanism to Cognition*. Chicago: Markham.
- Weiss, Howard M. and Seymour Adler (1984), "Personality and Organizational Behavior," *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 6, 1-50.
- Weitz, Barton, A. (1981), "Effectiveness in Sales Interactions: A Contingency Framework," *Journal of Marketing*, 45 (Winter), 85-103.
- , Harish Sujan, and Mita Sujan (1986), "Knowledge, Motivation, and Adaptive Behavior: A Framework for Improving Selling Effectiveness," *Journal of Marketing*, 50 (October), 174-91.
- Werts, C. E., R. L. Linn, and K. G. Jöreskog (1974), "Intra-class Reliability Estimates: Testing Structural Assumptions," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 34, 25-33.
- , D. R. Rock, R. L. Linn, and K. G. Jöreskog (1978), "A General Method of Estimating the Reliability of a Composite," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 38, 933-8.

Reprint No. JM541105

ADVERTISERS' INDEX

The Burke Institute	Cover 4
Houghton Mifflin Company	Page 26, 58
JAI Press Inc.	Cover 3