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The Impact of Organizational Climate Variables of Perceived Organizational
Support, Workplace Isolation, and Ethical Climate on Salesperson Psychological
and Behavioral Work Outcomes

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
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THE IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE VARIABLES OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, WORKPLACE ISOLATION, AND ETHICAL CLIMATE ON SALESPERSON PSYCHOLOGICAL AND BEHAVIORAL WORK OUTCOMES

Robert J. Riggle

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation is to build and test a model that integrates the marketing, management, and psychological literature with respect to organizational climate variables and their direct and indirect impact on salesperson psychological and behavioral outcomes, as well as one that answers the overarching research question of how organizational climate variables impact salesperson psychological and behavioral work outcomes.

Data were collected during the time period from April 2006 until May 2006. Three hundred survey invitations were sent via e-mail to salespeople at three organizations. The participating organizations included a privately owned publishing firm located in the southeastern United States, a large privately owned Internet recruiting firm located in the upper Midwest, and a publicly traded worldwide financial information reporting firm. In total, 251 responses were gathered yielding an overall response rate for the study of 83.6%.

Generally, the results from this analysis confirm the research questions that climate variables such as perceived organizational support, ethical climate, and trust do positively impact salesperson psychological and behavioral

outcomes. Managerial implications and directions for future research are also offered.

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

As many of today's businesses continue to struggle to survive or remain profitable, it becomes important for managers to better understand the factors that influence employees and important employee-oriented work outcomes. The growing significance placed on understanding employees and their behavior within the organization has produced a great deal of interest in investigating employee perceptions of climate within the organization. In our society, we spend quite a bit of time in organizations. These organizations can be schools, corporations, religious institutions, etc. Since much of our time is spent in these organizations, the environment surrounding the individual has important costs for him/her personally and professionally.

The growing significance placed on understanding sales employees' behavior within the organization has produced a great deal of interest in investigating their perceptions of climate within the organization. Salespeople are a vital part of our work environment. They are responsible for creating the revenues needed for firms to remain profitable and survive. In many instances, salespeople are also the face of the organization to the customer. A recent article by Artis and Harris (2007) highlights the importance of salespeople within the business landscape. Artis and Harris noted that sales related occupations

comprise approximately 10.5% (or approximately 15.25 million) of all jobs held in the United States. Of these sales oriented jobs, approximately 54% are retail, 6.3% are service providers, 12.7% are manufacturing/wholesale representatives, and 15.7% are in a supervisory capacity of some kind. The Bureau of Labor Statistics has projected that by 2012 there will be an increase in the number sales related jobs to somewhere in the neighborhood of 17.2 million. Given the current state of affairs (salespeople gaining more responsibility for building strong customer relationships) and the projected increase in the number of sales related jobs in the near future, firms need to create more supportive working environments for sales and non-sales employees. To date, little research has been conducted on organizational climate and its impact on salespeople's psychological and behavioral outcomes. Salespeople are considered boundary spanners or front line employees in that they typically spend more time in the field dealing with customers. This geographic and psychological separation from the organization can create a much different work environment for salespeople as compared to non-boundary personnel (Riggle, Edmondson, & Hanson, 2007).

Over the past decade, Fortune Magazine has published an annual article on the 100 best companies to work for. These companies are supposedly spending large amounts of resources to create a positive environment for their employees. Firms offer many varying types of tangible and intangible items to their workers in order to achieve some sense of positive attitude toward/about the organization. These tangible and intangible items that are received can be seen

as creating different facets of the culture of the organization. These facets include supportive climate, ethical climate, social climate, and trusting climate. In order to create a supportive climate, companies provide things such as profit sharing, tuition reimbursement, flextime for mothers of young children, and receiving personal communication from the CEO. For ethical climate, firms provide compensation for community volunteer work, create a “green” office space, allow salespeople to oversee conditions in the firm’s overseas factories, and provide an ombudsperson to help resolve conflicts within the workplace. In creating a social culture, companies have flattened their organizational chart so all salespeople have access to upper management and promote monthly celebrations for birthdays and company successes (Levering and Moskowitz, 2007). Finally, companies creating trusting climates have created transparent policies, made all salespeople stakeholders in the organization, and allowed workers to participate in religious/cultural activities during the work day. It should be duly noted that these tangible and intangible items companies give to and allow of their workers cost time, money, and non-renewable resources.

Therefore, it is critical that we understand whether these climate variables indeed create enough positive salespeople psychological and behavioral outcomes to warrant their continuance.

The idea of organizational climate integrates at least three types of concepts. They include (1) environmental concepts, such as size and arrangement of the firm, which are peripheral to the person, (2) individual

concepts, such as attitudes the worker brings with him to the firm, and (3) outcome concepts including such things as satisfaction, performance, and commitment to the firm, which are determined by the interaction between the environmental and individual concepts. The importance of investigating the interaction of organizational and individual variables is that it provides much needed direction for identifying and conceptualizing environmental variables relevant to the climate. Organizational climate variables such as supportiveness, participation, feelings of trust, and performance can provide useful insight for refining work environments (James and James, 1989).

Contribution of the Research

The purpose of this dissertation is to build and test a model that integrates marketing, management, and psychological literatures with respect to organizational climate variables and their direct and indirect impact on salesperson psychological and behavioral outcomes. The overall objective of this research is to investigate how a salesperson's perception of that climate of the organization (being supportive, social, trusting, and ethical) impacts important attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. The research proposed for this dissertation has both theoretical and practical importance. Theoretically, the research proposed in this dissertation will assist in taking a critical first step to help shed light on how social exchange relationships (e.g., professional and personal relationships between individuals within the organization) and the perception of

organizational climate influence salespeople's attitudes and behaviors.

Moreover, research aspires to provide empirical evidence that these important climate variables drive salesperson outcomes such as performance, commitment, and satisfaction.

This research will help identify how salespeople are influenced by support from the organization and provide suggestions for managing those perceptions of support. The specific research questions for this study are identified below.

Research Question 1: How much do the organizational climate variables ethical climate, perceived organizational support, workplace isolation, and trust influence salesperson psychological and behavioral outcomes?

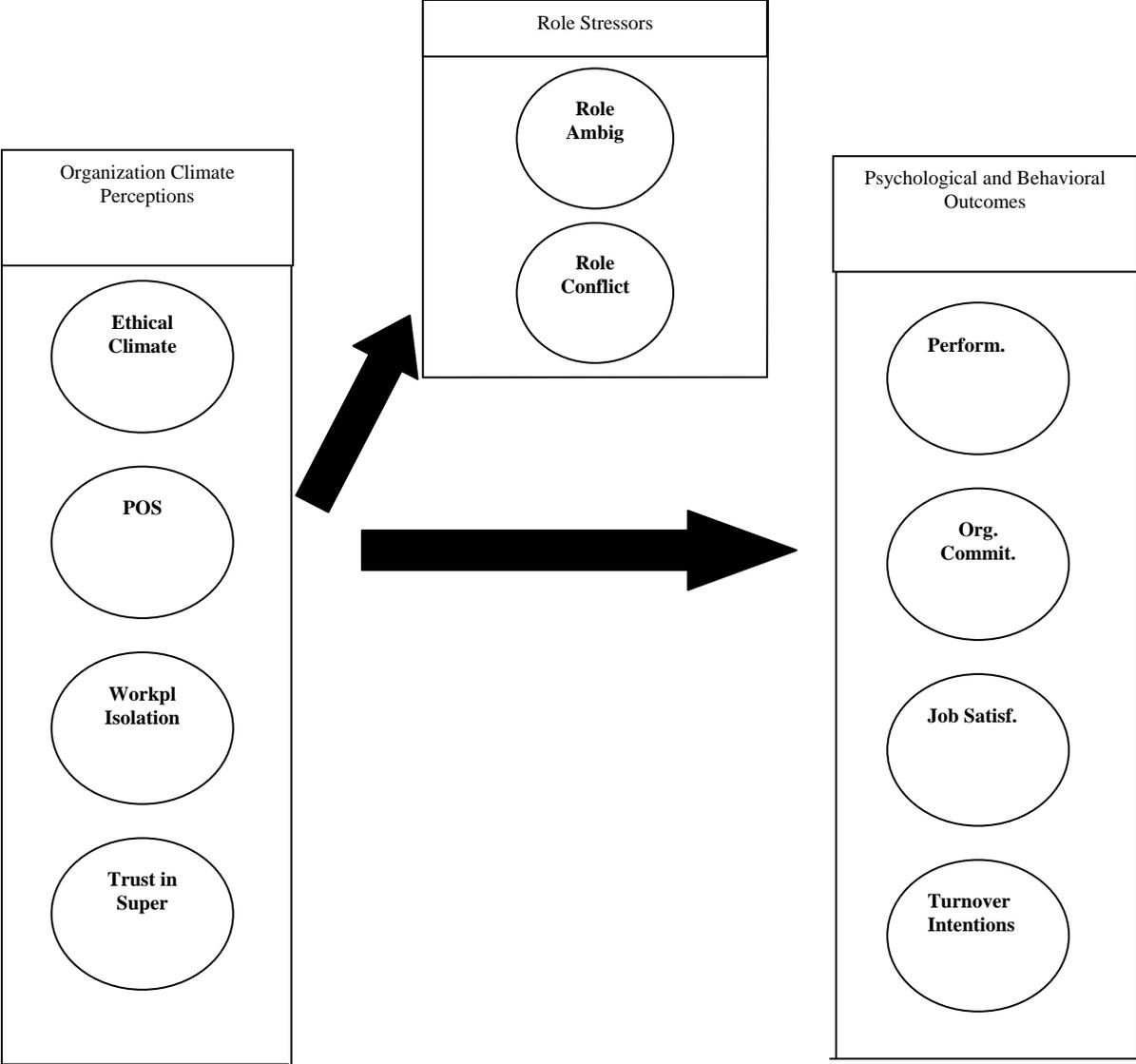
Research Question 2: What are the interrelationships among these organizational climate and outcome variables?

Summary of Remaining Chapters

As previously indicated, this dissertation proposes a model that examines the impact of organizational climate variables on salesperson attitudes and behaviors (See Figure 1). The model moves beyond the current understanding of organizational climate and proposes an examination of the interrelationships of potential organizational climate variables (Ethical Climate (EC), Perceived

Organizational Support (POS), Workplace Isolation (WI), and Trust). This is followed by an investigation into the direct and indirect influence these potential climate variables have on important attitudinal and behavioral variables such as performance, job satisfaction, role stressors, and organizational commitment. This dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 presents a brief introduction of the background, research questions, and importance of the dissertation. Chapter 2 presents a literature review of the organizational climate, perceived organizational support, ethical climate, and trust literature. Chapter 3 presents the research hypothesis testing methodology followed by an outline of the proposed sample, statistical method to be employed, and the measures to be used to collect the data from the sample. The results and discussion are encompassed in Chapters 4 and 5 along with implications and directions for future research.

Figure 1 - Conceptual Model



CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

This chapter is segmented into two main portions. The first portion contains a brief synopsis of the development and use of organizational climate followed by a literature review of the proposed organizational climate variables including perceived organizational support, workplace isolation, organizational trust, and ethical climate. The second portion contains a study proposal stemming from issues identified from both the literature review and current literature gaps in sales force research.

History of Organizational Climate

Organizational climate theory has been described as “one of the most important, but least understood concepts” (Hellriegel and Slocum, 1974, p. 255). In the 1930’s, it was recommended that in order to better understand behavior, one must look at it as it was related to the environment in which the behavior took place. This suggestion seemed very logical to researchers and thus began the investigation into environmental research.

The notion of organizational climate has commonly been attributed to the Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939). In their study of aggressive behavior in juvenile males, Lewin, et al. (1939) coined the term “social climate” to connote the

environment that was created in diverse treatment groups in their study. In this study, the researchers were largely interested in investigating leader behaviors across the experimental groups and identifying the influence that those leader behaviors had on the relational exchanges within that group, specifically focusing on the aggressive behavior of boys. During their study, Lewin, et al. (1939) found three methods of leader behavior – authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire.

The researchers assigned each leader behavior to a specific group where they then found that as the boys were moved from group to group, authoritarian behaviors created aggressive or apathetic social climates while democratic and laissez-faire leader behaviors attenuated aggressive social climates and created leaders who were more revered by the boys. This research provided the first empirical link between the behavior of a leader and the organizational climate.

Later, the notion of climate was investigated and made clearer by Litwin and Stringer (1968) and Stringer (2002). Using Lewin, et al.'s (1939) work, as well as the social needs concepts of aroused social motives (Atkinson, 1964; McClelland, 1987), Litwin and Stringer fashioned a simulated business situation using three different manufacturing firms. These simulated organizations had similar make up except for the leadership qualities of the company presidents. Litwin and Stringer identified a relationship between leader behavior and the organizational climate perceived by the workers, as well as a relationship between the organization's climate and the performance of the employees in

terms of overall business performance. These findings highlighted two essential elements in our understanding of climate. First, climate impacts employee attitudes and motivation which, in turn, has a direct impact on business performance (Stringer, 2002). Secondly, they reported that the realities of the firm's climate are only understood as they are perceived by the members of the organization, and thus, we must allow these organizational members to utilize the firm's climate to filter phenomena to those employees (Litwin & Stringer, 1968).

Since these studies, the concept of climate has seen its share of controversy. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, issues such as the focus of the convenience and its relationships with other variables were notable. In the first case, researchers argued that the focus on individual levels of analysis for an organizational construct was theoretically inappropriate and invalid. The point was made that if organizational climate was conceptualized and measured from an individual level, then it would be no different than the concept job satisfaction (James & Jones, 1974). This point prompted many research studies to assess the relationship between climate and satisfaction. The general consensus was that climate was significantly different from satisfaction and that, in many cases, there was no relationship between the variables (Lafollette & Sims, 1975; Schneider & Snyder, 1975). This left the door open for researchers to use the individual level of analysis for assessing organizational climate.

Since its inception, the organizational climate concept has often been confused with organizational culture as well. According to Stringer (2002),

organizational culture and organizational climate are two very different constructs. Similar to climate, the concept of culture has no consensus on its definition. One can define culture as “shared basic assumptions” (Schein, 1992, p.12), or prevailing ideals (Deal & Kennedy, 1982) that carry on over time despite fluctuations in organization personnel. Meyerson (1991) suggested that one reason culture is so difficult to define is because it is, in essence, the code word for the contextual side of organizational existence. Denison (1996) went further to describe the similarities and differences between organizational climate and culture. His distinction between these concepts boiled down to the following. Climate refers to a situation and its link to thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of organizational members. Thus, it is temporal, subjective, and often subject to direct manipulation by people with power and influence. Culture, in contrast, refers to an evolved context (within which a situation may be imbedded). Thus, it is rooted in history, collectively held, and sufficiently complex to resist attempts at direct manipulation (p. 644).

An added distinction between culture and climate can be seen in their theoretical directions. Climate is rooted in the person-environment fit theories from Lewin (1951) whereby behavior is a product of both the person and the environment (e.g., the person is external to the environment) while culture (a social construction of events) assumes that the employee cannot be divided from the environment. Some researchers go further to claim that climate is a subcomponent of organizational culture (Schein, 1992; Stringer, 2002). Given

the constant debate on these two constructs, this dissertation takes the stance to rely upon the Denison (1996) conceptualization of organizational climate.

Despite the ongoing debate surrounding organizational climate, the construct continues to play a prominent role in organizational research (Rousseau, 1988). Several definitions have been offered by various authors as discussed below. More than ten meta-analytic and content analytic reviews of the literature have been published on organizational climate since 1960 highlighting its maturity in organizational research (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; James & Jones, 1974; Jones & Jones, 1979; Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Payne & Pugh, 1976; Rousseau, 1988; Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

Definition of Organizational Climate

One of the earliest definitions of organizational climate was proposed by Forehand and Von Gilmer (1964). They viewed organizational climate to be comprised of qualities that discriminate one firm from another, that endure over time, and help to control actions of employees within the organization. Subsequent research from Tagiuri, Litwin, and Barnes (1968) build upon Forehand and Von Gilmer by adding the notion that climate should be described as the set of qualities that encompass the organization of inquiry. Beyond this, several researchers have proposed other definitions that place more weight on the environment, including things such as guidelines, actions, and the

atmospherics (Argyris, 1958; Schein, 1992), while another group insists that leader and manager behavior are most important (Fleishman, 1953; McGregor, 1960; Meyer, 1968). Moreover, another group of researchers focus on measurable outcomes (Forehand, 1968). Below is a brief listing of the differing definitions of organizational climate as shown by (Grant, 2002).

Organizational climate is made up of perceived organizational properties intervening between organizational characteristics and behavior (Friedlander & Margulies, 1969).

Organizational climate is a set of attitudes and expectations describing the organization's static characteristics and behavior-outcome and outcome-outcome contingencies (Campbell, et al., 1970).

Individual perceptions of their organization are affected by characteristics of the organization and the individual (Schneider & Hall, 1972).

Psychologically meaningful cognitive representations of the situation perceptions (James & Jones, 1974).

Perceptions or interpretations of meaning which help individuals make sense of the world and know how to behave (Schneider & Snyder, 1975).

Individuals' cognitive representations of proximal environments... expressed in terms of psychological meaning and significance to the individual, an attribute of the individual, which is learned, historical and resistant to change (James & Sells, 1981).

An assessed molar perception or an inference researchers make based on more particular perceptions (Schneider & Reichers, 1983).

('Organizational Climate') A generic term from a broad class of organizational, rather than psychological, variables that describe the context for individual's actions (Glick, 1985).

Organizational Climate is a concept reflecting the content and strength of the prevalent values, norms, attitudes, behaviors and feelings of the people in an organization (McNabb & Sopic, 1995).

As can be seen above, researchers attempt to permit the definition of organizational climate be taken out of the context of inquiry. While it is complicated to propose an all purpose definition, it is possible to draw up the boundaries of the concept by ascribing to it certain characteristics. Tagiuri, et al. (1968) identified several aspects of climate that help to clarify the domain of the concept.

"Climate is a molar, synthetic concept (like personality).

Climate is a particular configuration of situational variables.

Its component elements may vary, however, while the climate may remain the same.

It is the meaning of an enduring situational configuration.

Climate has continuity, but not as lasting as culture.

Climate is determined importantly by characteristics, conduct, attitudes, expectations of other persons, and by sociological and cultural realities.

Climate is phenomenologically external to the actor who may, however, feel that he contributes to its nature.

Climate is phenomenologically distinct from the task for both observer and actor.

It is in the actor's or observer's head, though not necessarily in a conscious form, but it is based on characteristics of external reality.

It is capable of being shared (as consensus) by several people in the situation, and it is interpreted in terms of shared meanings (with some individual variation around a consensus).

It cannot be a common delusion since it must be veridically based on external reality.

It may or may not be capable of description in words, although it may be capable of specification in terms of response.

It has potential behavioral consequences.

It is an indirect determinant of behavior in that it acts upon attitudes, expectations, and states of arousal, which are direct determinants of behavior” (Tagiuri, et al., 1968, pgs. 24-25).

Formation of Organizational Climate

The notion of organizational climate has been thought to have many dimensions to its makeup. These varying dimensions have been cause for much of the debate surrounding the concept. In the early 1970’s, researchers proposed four main dimensions to organizational climate. These dimensions include autonomy, structure of the job, reward orientation of the employee, and the consideration, warmth, and support offered by the organization (Campbell, et al., 1970). Autonomy, as described by the researchers, was said to be the freedom of the person to be his/her own boss and keep extensive decision-making power for himself/herself. The structure of the job refers to how the objectives and methods within the job are created and communicated to the worker by his/her superiors. Reward orientation suggests how motivated the worker is to perform his/her job, while consideration, warmth, and support, refers to the support, stimulation, and overall relationship quality perceived from one’s organization (Campbell, et al., 1970). A meta-analysis of organizational climate by Koys and DeCotiis (1991) found that climate is a perception and not an assessment of their job satisfaction. They further asserted that climate is the internal atmosphere of the organization. In their analysis of the organizational

climate literature, Koys and DeCotiis (1991) identified approximately 80 separate features. Through a reduction procedure, Koys and DeCotiis condensed the features from 80 to 45, and ultimately identified eight super-ordinate climate dimensions: 1) autonomy, 2) cohesion, 3) trust, 4) pressure, 5) support, 6) recognition, 7) fairness, and 8) innovation. Koys and DeCotiis (1991) finally concluded that organizational climate should be assessed at an individual level, and that each worker's observation can be expected to differ across the eight global categories.

Measurement of Climate

In step with the formation of organizational climate is its measurement. Researchers have suggested at least three different approaches for measuring climate (James & Jones, 1974). These approaches include a multiple measurement organizational attribute approach, a perceptual measurement organizational approach, and a perceptual measurement individual approach (Jackson-Malik, 2005).

The first approach is a Multiple Measurement of Organizational Attributes (MMOA) approach which asserts that organizational climate is measurable as a set of attributes or properties about the organization -- organizational climate includes a set of firm attributes. The MMOA presumes organizations have specific climate attributes that are significantly different from climate attributes within other organizations. These attributes are typically based on the

organization rather than employee perceptions as other approaches may suggest. The MMOA approach also assumes that the firm's climate cannot be affected by fluctuations in employee behaviors such as turnover (Forehand & Von Gilmer, 1964). Moreover, these researchers suggested that a firm's culture characteristics hold over time and influence employee behavior. While this approach has been used in the literature, it is rather narrow in its assertion that employees do not contribute to the climate. The other two measurement approaches take into account the vital role of the employee in the formation of climate.

The second measurement approach is the Perceptual Measurement Organizational Attribute approach (PMOA). The PMOA views organizational climate as a set of perceptual variables which combine the organization's attributes, as well as the perceptions of its agents.

The third approach for measuring organizational climate is the Perceptual Measurement of Individual Attributes (PMIA) approach, which views organizational climate as perceptual and as an individual attribute (perceived by individuals —the individual's attribute). This approach considers the individual and assesses what is psychologically important to him/her and how he/she perceives the work environment (James & Jones, 1974). This popular approach has seen the most acceptance within the organizational research field.

In Schneider and Snyder's (1975) study, organizational climate was found to be completely shaped by the perceptions of the workers. Schneider and

Snyder went further to assert that organizational climate was exclusively reliant on employee perceptions and that the organization, as its own entity, does not have a climate. Research has shown that the construct of climate refers to the employee's observation of the psychological influence of the work environment on his or her sense of well being (James & James, 1989).

Moos (1974) identified three dimensions of work environments that relate to organizational climate. The first dimension includes a relationship aspect, consisting of the basis and magnitude of interpersonal relationships within the organization. Here, employees are observed as supporting and helping each other. The second dimension, personal development, cultivates personal growth and self enhancement. Finally, in the third dimension, system maintenance and change, employees see the environment as being orderly, clear in expectations, stable, and responsive to change.

Jones and Jones' (1979) meta-analytic review of the climate literature found 17 factors that are said to be in the workplace. These factors include stress, autonomy, organizational trust, support, work group collaboration, friendliness, and warmth. Other researchers have described climate factors (such as trust, support, fairness, warmth, autonomy, feedback, cohesion, pressure, and innovation) that determine how an environment influences behavior and are guided toward achievement of organizational goals (Koys & DeCotiis, 1991; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998; Zammuto & Krakower, 1991).

Given what has been identified within the organizational climate literature, little research has focused on sales-related employees. Singh (1998; Singh, Verbeke, & Rhoads, 1996) recognized that sales employees are different from other employees in that they perceive higher levels of stress and responsibility in their job, thus, their resulting attitudes and behaviors may be different than other workers. Moreover, these concepts of support, trust, ethics, and isolation have seen relatively little empirical findings compared to marketing and sales employees. The proposed study for this dissertation will take into account these issues. As noted by James and Jones (1974) several studies have identified these specific issues (support, trust, ethics, and isolation [social relationships]), yet none have operationalized these concepts relative to organizational culture. Therefore, the following study proposal seeks to answer these calls.

Hypothesis Development

The following section presents rationale for the proposed study. Along with the rationale, several hypotheses are proposed. The rationale in this section builds hypotheses in sections rather than one at a time. To reduce redundancy, the rationale for multiple hypotheses is presented at one time rather than individually. Some hypotheses presented in this section have been previously tested in the literature (in some cases many times). Again, to reduce redundancy, the discussion on these hypotheses is abbreviated.

Development of the Ethical Climate Construct

The notion of ethical climate has received increased attention recently within the sales force literature (Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon, 2006; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006). Ethical climate is defined as the salesperson's perception of the prevailing ethical standards that are reflected in the organization's practices, procedures, norms, and values (Babin, Boles, & Robin, 2000; Mulki, et al., 2006; Schwepker, Ferrell & Ingram, 1997). Sales force researchers have been particularly concerned with the effects of ethical climate on issues such as turnover and performance (e.g., Jaramillo, et al., 2006; Schwepker, 2001; Valentine & Barnett, 2003), yet no research has investigated whether ethical climate influences POS. A firm's ethical climate directs the ethical values and behaviors expected from its employees. Just as salespeople may make meaningful appraisals concerning other support elements such as autonomy and justice, they also make meaningful appraisals of the work environment on ethical grounds. Perceptions of support from the organization are also obtained from meaningful appraisals of the work environment. One example of these appraisals could be when an employee looks to the organization for direction on specific job tasks. In certain instances, the organization could direct the salesperson to a new account worth more money in commissions and valuable to the firm for long-term profits. The organization explains how to handle this client in return for maximized sales. This exchange could have support undertones in that the employee may be receiving this client

because of a previous job well done (e.g., reciprocative POS). In the same instance, the directives from the organization regarding the new client could have ethical ramifications as the client may be critical to long-term profitability and any ethical fumble could spell trouble down the road. Given that these assessments are distinctly different from other assessments of support, ethical climate may be another antecedent of POS.

Hypothesis 1: Ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on POS.

Role theory states that as employees received inconsistent commands or requests from their managers, they tended to become dissatisfied and their performance decreased (Kahn, Wolf, Quinn, Snock, & Rosenthal, 1964; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Additionally, as employees perceive their job duties as unclear, similar consequences may be experienced. Within the sales and marketing literature, researchers have conceded that these variables are very important for salespeople as they often face conflicting expectations from their numerous bosses (customers, sales managers, etc.). Research has indicated that organizational climate variables may influence perceptions of role stress (Singh, 1998). Trevinio, Butterfield, and McCabe (2001) suggest that as employees perceive there to be a positive ethical climate within their organization, a reduction in role stress may occur as role expectations are

becoming more clear. Recent research has investigated and found evidence of a negative relationship between ethical climate and role stress (Jaramillo, et al., 2006; Schwepker, et al., 1997).

Hypothesis 2: Ethical climate will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity.

Hypothesis 3: Ethical climate will have a moderate negative impact on role conflict.

Recent research has also indicated that salespeople develop positive attitudes toward their organization when it expressly outlines standards to help understand ethical and unethical behavior (Valentine & Barnett, 2003). These attitudes can be manifested in important outcomes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Organizational commitment refers to the salesperson's attachment to the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) while job satisfaction refers to how much he/she likes their job (Spector, 1997). Jaramillo, et al. (2006) suggest two factors that may explain the relationship between ethical climate and job attitudes. The first factor suggests that ethical climate may help keep the salesperson from engaging in unethical behaviors such as deceptive selling and/or coercive tactics. The second factor suggests that ethical climate may help develop long-term relationships with customers

since salespeople may be happier in their jobs due to reduced role stress (Mulki, et al., 2006). An ethical climate can help to produce positive attitudes and behaviors for salespeople. For example, traditional wisdom suggests that the more ethical a company is, the more their clients will stay with them rather than risking a relationship with a competing firm. Following this logic, the more an organization is ethical, and, thus, the more clients they have that stay for the long-term, the more opportunity there will be for salespeople to make commissions. Therefore, ethical climate should have a direct impact on commitment to the organization, as well as satisfaction in their job.

Hypothesis 4: Ethical Climate will have a moderate positive impact on organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5: Ethical Climate will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction.

Development of the POS Construct

The POS construct was developed in 1986 by Robert Eisenberger and his colleagues to explain how employees view their employing organization's commitment to them and how those support mechanisms gained from the organization's commitment to the employee influences employee commitment back to the organization. The theoretical basis used for conceptualizing this

construct was Social Exchange Theory (SET). The notions of economic social exchanges (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) have both been used by organizational researchers to describe the motivational basis behind employee behaviors and the formation of positive employee attitudes (e.g., Etzioni, 1961; Levinson, 1965; March & Simon, 1958). SET has been and is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms in organizational behavior research to date (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Social Exchange Theory has been classified under the "motivational theory" category because of its ability to explain interpersonal behaviors. According to Jex (2002), motivational theories are concerned with the question of why people do what they do. Three primary reasons exist regarding the need to study motivation of individuals. First, motivation is the key to understanding many types of behavior within organizations. Being able to understand these behaviors may help researchers, in turn, to understand other important behaviors such as job performance and turnover. Second, understanding these workplace behaviors may increase the ability to predict future behaviors. For instance, say an organization's sales managers know the motivation underlying a particular performance domain for their salespeople. By understanding these motivational factors, the sales manager can more accurately predict future performance outcomes that can be very important for selection, training, or promotional issues. Third, understanding the motives behind certain behavior can enable managers to harness and/or influence it.

Motivational theories are segmented into four distinct categories, based on their focus. These categories include (1) need-based theories, (2) job-based theories, (3) cognitive process theories, and (4) behavior approaches. SET is categorized into the cognitive process theories category that focuses on human thought processes for understanding employee motivation. The cognitive processes category is home to equity theory (Homans, 1958), expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964), goal-setting theory (Austin & Vancouver, 1996), and control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981; Powers, 1973). Equity theory (Homans, 1958) proposes that humans tend to view social interaction as being similar to an economic transaction whereby one party gives something of value in return for something of value (e.g., one person gives money to a restaurant in exchange for a meal; an employer gives an employee a paycheck in return for performing some work task). Based on this notion, SET was developed to explain how people assess the value of some exchange in order to adjust what is given back for what was received. One of the basic assumptions of equity theory is that employees bring a certain number of "inputs" such as academic credentials, experience, etc. These inputs are then traded for some psychological contract. This contract stipulates that certain outputs or outcomes are expected and is rewarded or reciprocated with resources, compensation, and commitment from the organization. From this point, value assessments begin and are made during each reciprocation situation in order for both parties to adjust the value for the future exchange. Several mechanisms may be used to adjust or restore equity in

social exchanges. These mechanisms can include 1) an employee increasing outcomes such as performance or commitment; 2) reducing inputs or decreasing the level of effort devoted to a particular task; 3) changing the perception of value of certain outcomes or adjusting cognitive assessments of value; 4) changing the standard comparison by choosing different people to compare the input to output ratio; and 5) leaving the job to find one that provides a more favorable ratio of inputs and outputs.

As far back as 1920, researchers have been using facets of SET to bring together disciplines such as psychology (e.g., Gouldner, 1960; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), sociology (e.g., Blau, 1964) and anthropology (Firth, 1967; Sahlins, 1972). Most recently, within the management literature, the conceptual underpinnings of SET have been used by researchers to understand workplace behavior (Shore, Tetrick, & Barksdale, 1999). Within the organization, the SET model specifies that certain workplace reciprocations lead to interpersonal connectedness (e.g., employee to employee or employee to organization) leading to social exchange relationships (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). From the organization-employee perspective of social exchange, these relationships evolve over time as the employer “takes care of employees”, thereby eliciting important reciprocative outcomes such as organizational commitment and increased work behaviors.

Social Exchange Theory is defined as “a social psychological perspective that explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges

between parties” and has been mostly used to clarify why individuals communicate commitment to the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Scholl, 1981) and engage in contextual performance behaviors (e.g., performance that is outside that of the job description) (Organ, 1988).

Social Exchange Theory posits that all human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis followed by the comparison of alternative actions. For example, when an individual perceives the benefits of the relationship as outweighing the perceived costs, then the theory asserts that the individual will remain in the relationship. Early conceptualizations of Social Exchange Theory stem from Gouldner's (1960) norm of reciprocity. The norm of reciprocity argues that people will return benefits given to them in a relationship as a "payback" for those benefits received. Blau (1964) further stipulated that the basis of any exchange relationship could be characterized as either being based on social or economic principles. Social principles express that social relationships are grounded in "trusting gestures of goodwill" that is reciprocated at some future point. Alternatively, economic principles suggest that economic relationships are grounded in the exchange of valuable resources which will also be exchanged or "reciprocated" at some future point.

Social exchange has been conceptualized two ways in the management and organizational literature. The first conceptualization characterizes social exchange as a global exchange relationship between employees and the

organization. This characterization focuses on the employee's belief that the organization values his/her efforts and contributions to the organization and cares about their personal well being (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). This is consistent with Eisenberger, et al.'s (1986) conceptualization of global exchange which is termed perceived organizational support. The second conceptualization of social exchange focuses more on the dyadic relationship between employee and supervisor. From this perspective, the employee perceives his/her direct supervisor or manager cares about their well being and values their contribution back to the organization. This conceptualization can be termed perceived supervisor support which is also consistent with Eisenberger, et al.'s (1986) proposition.

Social exchange theorists and organizational/supervisory support researchers have identified that the employee's perception of high levels of support could create felt obligation to repay the organization. Specifically, empirical research has found POS to be positively related to performance of conventional job responsibilities, citizenship behavior, and commitment (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Shore & Wayne, 1993). Other empirical research on social exchange has revealed that the more support the employee perceives from his/her supervisor, the more he/she becomes obligated to the supervisor and behaves in a manner that is above and beyond what is required in the psychological contract.

According to the organizational support paradigm (Eisenberger, et al., 1986), the development of POS is encouraged by employees' propensity to assign the organization human-like qualities (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). To review, POS is defined as the employee's global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values his/her contributions and cares about his/her well-being (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Employees' global beliefs are developed as a result of the organization providing support mechanisms that include, but are not limited to, providing a fair organizational culture, increasing monetary and non-monetary compensation such as verbal praise and training, and increased decision-making power or autonomy. Additionally, research has indicated that organizational rewards and favorable job conditions contribute more to the development of POS if the employee believes that these rewards and outcomes are because the organization wants to provide them rather than having to provide them contractually or legally (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995). As employees develop POS, research has indicated that they begin to reciprocate back to the organization (Eisenberger, et al., 1997). During this process, many favorable outcomes may occur that include, but are not limited to, increased job satisfaction and heightened affect, increased organizational commitment, increased task and contextual performance, and reduced turnover intentions.

The notion of POS originated in the psychology literature and has seen prolific investigation within both psychology and organizational management

disciplines. From its inception, POS has been used to investigate how employees view their organization's commitment back to them through the provision of support mechanisms such as resources and pay (Riggle, et al., 2007). Within the psychology literature, much research has investigated the different commitment mechanisms stemming from employee POS. Constructs that have seen abundant research are overall organizational commitment as well as affective, normative, and continuance commitment. This is somewhat logical in that the main assumption regarding POS refers to commitment from the organization for commitment back to the organization. Additionally, other variables such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and role stress have also been studied with POS in psychological literature. Similarly, management and organizational behavior literature has somewhat mirrored the psychological literature in its research on POS. Quite a bit of literature in this field has also concentrated on organizational commitment issues, as well as important outcomes such as job satisfaction and role stress.

The primary difference in these two groups of literature seems to be the focus on outcomes from POS. The management literature typically focuses on important business outcomes such as task performance and turnover, while the psychological literature is somewhat less focused in this area. The next section highlights a meta-analytic review of the POS literature. The review was performed by Riggle, Edmondson, and Ortau (2005) in order to identify the antecedents and consequences of POS. This analysis is an important step in

synthesizing the vast POS literature and identifying viable future research directions.

Meta-Analytic Literature Review

As previously mentioned, the concept of POS was initially developed to explain the development of employee commitment to an organization (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Their findings suggest that employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well being.

The reciprocal exchange relationships that stem from an employee's POS serve as the basis for many of the hypothesized relationships investigated in the literature. Initially introduced by (Eisenberger, et al., 1986), the concept of "perceived organizational support" was used in an effort to better understand social exchanges between the individual and the organization.

The global beliefs that employees develop serve as the trigger for the inferences concerning their organizations' commitment to them. In turn, this inference of the organization's perceived commitment to its employees contributes to the employees' reciprocated commitment back to the organization. For example, perceptions of high levels of POS create employee feelings of obligation toward the organization as well as reciprocating the employers' commitment by engaging in behaviors that support organizational goals (Eisenberger, et al., 1986).

Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support

The review of the literature on POS yielded six viable antecedent constructs. These constructs include monetary compensation, distributive justice, procedural justice, role ambiguity, role conflict, and job autonomy. Each of the constructs is briefly visited below.

The construct of compensation was noticed in only a few articles with POS. Compensation refers to the organization's positive evaluations of the employee's work effort or accomplishments, resulting in some type of monetary gain (e.g., salary and/or bonus) for the employee (Witt, 1992). Traditional wisdom suggests that compensation is the main motivating factor for many employees (Ryals & Rogers, 2005). Given this school of thought, compensation should play a large role in interpreting whether the organization values employee effort and cares about their well being.

The notion of justice has been moderately investigated in conjunction with POS. Justice refers to the organization's honest impartial treatment of its employees free from prejudice or favoritism (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Ryan, 1993). Two sub-constructs of justice have been identified in the literature. The first is distributive justice referring to perceived fairness in the organization's policies and practices of interpersonal treatment that employees receive from the organization (Colquitt, et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The second is procedural justice which is defined as the consistency or

fairness of the organization's procedures and processes used to determine the distribution of employee treatment outcomes (Colquitt, et al., 2001). The perception of fairness within the organization is critical to developing notions of support. It is necessary for employees to identify equality throughout the organization if the organization hopes to create the perception of support.

Role stressors, factors that induce an employee's inability to cope with work environmental demands, have been investigated as antecedents of POS in past research. Role stressors primarily include role ambiguity and role conflict. Role ambiguity refers to the employee's perception of uncertainty about what tasks are involved in carrying out his or her job and occurs when the behavioral expectations for a role are not clear (Kahn, et al., 1964). Role conflict, on the other hand, is defined as the disconfirmation of an employee's expectations and values in performing his/her work duties and those work duty expectations or values projected by the organization, resulting in the employee perceiving incompatibility between expected sets of behaviors (Katz & Kahn, 1978). These stressors limit an employee's ability to cope with work demands and have an impact on POS (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The final antecedent construct identified in this meta-analysis is the autonomy construct. Hackman and Oldham (1976) depict autonomy as "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out" (p. 162). The importance of autonomy

can be seen in many marketing jobs, especially sales. As many sales job descriptions are somewhat vague, the employee's ability to control his/her job is critical to their success. Autonomy is also important to the perception of support from the organization. Employees who perceive they have the freedom and discretion to perform their job functions as they see fit, will trust that the organization believes in their abilities and values their efforts.

Consequences of POS

A review of the POS literature also yielded six viable consequence constructs. These constructs include trust, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance (task and contextual), and intention to leave. Each of these constructs is briefly discussed below.

The first consequence construct identified through the literature review was trust. Trust refers to the mutual willingness of both the employee and the organization to be open to the actions of one another irrespective of being able to monitor or control the other party's actions (Mayer, Davis, & Shoorman, 1995). These social exchanges (e.g., the organization's willingness to let the employee alone to do their job without monitoring or control) lay the foundation for employees to trust the organization.

The next construct identified was organizational commitment. Organizational commitment refers to the magnitude of the employee's identification and involvement with an organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers,

1982; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Theoretically, organizational commitment is divided into three subgroups that include affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment is the most widely reported sub-construct of commitment reported in the literature. Porter, et al. (1974) proposed an affective-based interpretation of employees' organizational commitment that suggests an employee commits to the organization because he/she identifies and is emotionally involved with the firm. While other definitions have been suggested, Porter, et al.'s (1974) interpretation is the most widely used variation. Perceived organizational support is an important driver of organizational commitment. Social exchanges between the organization and the employee in the form of support can help to create commitment back to the organization.

Job satisfaction is another construct identified as a consequence of POS. Job satisfaction is characterized as the employee's overall affective attitude or feelings toward their job. The more positive feelings the employee has about the job, the more their job satisfaction (Witt, 1991). Eisenberger, et al. (1986) suggest that job satisfaction is a consequence of organizational support in that when the organization is perceived to be providing support for the employee, the greater the employee's subsequent job satisfaction.

Research on job performance separates the construct into two specific categories: task and contextual (Conway, 1999; Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994; Organ, 1997). Task performance refers to core job responsibilities having direct consequences of ability and experience (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994).

Contextual performance, on the other hand, consists of behaviors such as volunteering for activities beyond the formal job requirements, persistence, assistance to others, following rules and procedures, and defending the organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1997). Perceived organizational support suggests that the exchange relationships built between employees and organizations are similar to those developed between individuals. Through exchange relationships, the employee and the organization reciprocate by providing needed resources to each other (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). From the employee's perspective, the necessity to fulfill his/her socio-emotional needs is attributable to a sense of reward and well being (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). In turn, the organization's needs are for performance related to job outcomes. The perception of organizational support by the employee can be viewed as a proxy for the fulfillment of these socio-emotional needs, thus stimulating an obligation to repay the organization. The repayment comes in the form of job performance output (Eisenberger, et al., 1986).

The final construct identified in the literature review is intention to leave. Intention to leave the organization refers to an employee's personal mental decision of no longer wishing to be employed with their current organization (Lee & Mowday, 1987). Through SET, the reciprocity norm indicates that people tend to feel obligated to help those who help them. POS is inversely associated with employees' feelings of wanting to discontinue their employment with their current organization (e.g., intention to leave). Eisenberger, et al. (1990) argue that one

way the employee can repay the organization is through continued employment. Those employees who feel that the organization is supportive of their efforts will feel more obligated and committed to repay the organization (Angle & Perry, 1981; Porter, et al., 1974). In turn, employees who do not feel that the organization is very supportive of their efforts are less committed and more likely to seek employment elsewhere (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989).

Method

Database development. A multi-sampling strategy was undertaken to ensure the representativeness and comprehensiveness of the final database used in the current POS meta-analytic literature review. First, a search was performed of PsycINFO, ABI/Inform, Dissertation Abstracts, and Education Full Text databases for published articles and conference proceedings prior to July 2005 using the keywords “perceived organizational support” and/or “POS” in its title, abstract, and/or full text. Using the Web of Science’s citation index, a search was also performed for all articles that referred to Eisenberger, et al.’s original 1986 POS scale development article. The next step was to examine the references of the articles identified from the above searches, as well as the references from Rhoades and Eisenberger’s (2002) literature review article for additional studies. In an effort to address the traditional “file drawer” problem associated with any type of meta-analytic literature (Rosenthal, 1995), a request

was posted on the ELMAR and MKT-PhD listservs, as well as contacting both authors of the Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) article to obtain unpublished research dealing with POS, including unpublished doctoral and masters theses.

Inclusion criteria and coding process. Inclusion of studies in the current meta-analysis is based on four criteria. First, in keeping with the procedures reported in by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), this meta-analysis only included studies that used survey methodology. Second, only studies that reported the r-family of effects (e.g., product-moment correlation coefficients [r] or its variants (Rosenthal, 1994) or at least the necessary information needed to derive this correlation were included in the analysis. Third, antecedents and consequences were only considered if there were at least five studies measuring the same construct. Given the current study's research objectives, only studies that used Eisenberger, et al.'s (1986) original POS scale or some variation of it were included in the final analysis. Upon completion of the multi-sampling and selection processes, a total of 412 correlations were obtained from 138 published and unpublished studies, doctoral dissertations, and master's theses.

Development of the final database followed the procedures outlined in other reported meta-analyses in the literature (e.g., Brown & Peterson, 1993; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). A coding form was developed to capture measurement characteristics of POS, its antecedents and consequences, samples sizes, the r-family of effect size indicators (e.g., product-moment

correlations) and those indicators that could be converted to correlation coefficients (e.g., Student's-t, chi square, F-ratios with a specified degree of freedom, and p values [see Lipsey & Wilson, 2001; Rosenthal, 1994]) from each study.

After capturing the necessary effect size information from each study, each effect size was corrected for attenuation bias by dividing the correlation coefficient by the product of the square root of the reliabilities POS and a selected antecedent or consequence (Hunter & Schmidt, 1990). If a study did not include one or both of the required reliabilities for a relevant construct (or pair of constructs), then the weighted mean reliability(s) for that particular construct(s) across all the studies was used in correcting the reliability (Geyskens, Steenkamp, & Kumar, 1998). If a study had multiple scales examining the same construct, the correlations were averaged in order to prevent the violation of the independent sampling assumption. Then, all the reliability-corrected correlations were transformed into Fisher's z-coefficients using Lipsey and Wilson (2001) recommended r-to-z transformation procedure. To allocate greater weight to those estimates that were more precise, the z-coefficients were averaged and weighted by an estimate of the inverse of their variance ($N-3$) (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001) then converted back into correlation coefficients.

To check for coding quality, two expert researchers coded the studies independently. Using the procedures recommended by Perreault and Leigh (1989), an interjudge reliability index was calculated for each of the measurement

and demographic characteristics. The reliability estimates ranged between .94 and 1.0, strongly indicating that the consistency of the coding process was adequate and coding errors were minimized (see Perreault & Leigh, 1989, p. 147).

Analyses and Results

Descriptive statistics. There were a total of 163 independent studies from which correlations for the final analysis were derived. Industry types for the 150 non-student independent studies are as follows: 61 corporate/manufacturing firms, 50 service-oriented firms (17 health care, 16 education, 17 government), and 39 mixed industries. The reported reliability for the perceived organizational support scale ranged from .6 to .98, with the average reliability index weighted by sample size being .88.

Homogeneity analysis. Prior to conducting any of the meta-analyses, it was necessary to assess the homogeneity of the data using the Q statistic for each of the 18 constructs included in this study. A study is deemed homogeneous if the variance of the distribution of effect sizes is no greater than that expected from sampling error alone. However a study is heterogeneous if the effect sizes are larger than what one would expect from sampling errors meaning that there are differences among the effect sizes from some other source (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Each construct, except “employee burnout”, had

a Q statistic (distributed as a χ^2 with $k - 1$ degrees of freedom) for the uncorrected correlation that was highly significant (ranging from 124.0 to 2048.9) implying that the studies are not homogeneous. A random-effects model was employed for every construct, except "employee burnout", which utilized a fixed-effects model. The use of a random-effects model assumes that the "variability beyond subject-level sampling error is random" (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001, p. 117); therefore, the population of effect sizes varies by subject level sampling as well as other variability sources (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001).

Meta-Analytic Results

Meta-analyses were conducted on six antecedent and six consequence constructs. Table 1.1 (see Appendix B) displays the results of the meta-analyses, including the number of independent studies (k), number of respondents in sample (N), average weighted correlation corrected for attenuation (r), the standard error, the range of corrected weighted average correlation, Q statistic for each corrected average correlation, and the estimated fail-safe N statistic (also known as availability bias) for each construct. Sixteen of the antecedents and consequences yielded a significant correlation corrected for attenuation. There were seven antecedents and nine consequences that had a corrected correlation significantly different from zero. Using Cohen's (1977) rule of thumb for interpreting effect size magnitude, a weak (small) effect size is a corrected correlation that is less than or equal to 0.10; a moderate (medium)

effect size is a corrected correlation that is greater than 0.10 but less than 0.40; and a strong (large) effect size is a corrected correlation that is greater than or equal to 0.40 (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001).

Among the antecedents, the POS procedural justice relationship has been the most frequently examined relationship (20 studies). Substantially less attention has been paid to the association between POS job autonomy (six studies). Of the antecedents, distributive justice ($r = .68, p < .05$), procedural justice ($r = .72, p < .05$) and job autonomy ($r = .56, p < .05$) exhibited strong positive relationships with POS, while there was a moderate positive relationship between POS and monetary reward compensation ($r = .20, p < .01$). The meta-analysis also revealed a strong inverse relationship between POS and job role ambiguity ($r = -.46, p < .05$), as well as moderate inverse relationships between POS and job role conflict ($r = -.24, p < .001$).

Among the consequences, organizational commitment ($r = .71, p < .05$), trust ($r = .68, p < .05$), and job satisfaction ($r = .61, p < .05$) exhibited strong positive relationships with POS. The results also revealed moderate positive relationships between POS and task ($r = .18, p < .01$) and contextual ($r = .27, p < .05$) performances. There was a strong inverse relationship between POS and intention to leave ($r = -.49, p < .05$).

Discussion of Meta-Analytic Results

Various forms of social exchange have been investigated in both the general marketing and services marketing literature in recent years, yet little work has examined POS and its impact on employee-oriented issues. This study extends prior attempts to summarize the extant perceived organizational support literature by employing a considerably larger number of effect sizes and investigating more potential relationships with POS. Specifically, previous attempts to consolidate research findings in the perceived organizational support literature include Rhoades and Eisenberger's (2002) quantitative review of the literature which offers preliminary evidence of the impact of POS on organizational and employee outcomes. Apart from the broader scope, which also has a considerably larger database, this study examines the impact of a larger set of sample and measurement characteristics including how education, organizational tenure, and industry type impact theoretical relationships with POS. The multivariate results from this meta-analytic assessment provide insight into the bivariate relationships that involve perceived organizational support. These results will help to document the literature in this vast research stream.

Antecedents of POS. Overall, the multivariate analyses reveal that POS is impacted by many organizational and employee-oriented issues such as justice and job stressors. In particular, organizational compensation (operationalized as monetary rewards for this study) was found to positively impact employee

perceptions of organizational support. Employees may interpret or perceive an organization's pay policy as a proxy for how committed the organization is to them. When an organization compensates an employee's effort with monetary rewards, the employee may perceive the organization to be supportive.

Organizational fairness was also found to have a considerable impact on POS. Employees perceive that an organization is supportive when they perceive that there is consistency in the way the organization applies its established rules, policies, and practices in the equal treatment of each employee. These impressions of consistency and equality create impressions of impartiality in the eyes of the employees. Job stressors, role ambiguity and role conflict also play an important role in employee perceptions of organizational support.

Finally, antecedent results also reveal that job autonomy also plays an important role in employee perceptions of support. Job autonomy has a moderately strong relationship with POS. The more employees perceive they have control over the way they complete the duties and tasks in the job, the more they perceive that the organization is supportive. Organizations wanting to maximize support perceptions might consider relinquishing control over some job duties and tasks and allow the employee some leeway in how the job is accomplished.

Consequences of POS. Results from these multivariate analyses also show that POS has a profound impact on a number of important employee-

oriented job outcomes. Trust in the organization was shown to be positively influenced by the employee's perception of organizational support. The more the employee views the organization to be supportive of their efforts and value their contribution, the more trust an employee will have in the organization.

Other results from this study revealed that POS also positively influences an employee's commitment to the organization. This study found that increased levels of POS will lead to stronger feelings of commitment toward the organization. This finding intuitively well and follows Social Exchange Theory's proposition that employees will be as committed to the firm as they feel the organization is committed to them.

It has been suggested that the more positive feelings the employee has about the job, the higher their job satisfaction perceptions will be (Witt, 1991). Job satisfaction was shown to be positively influenced by the employee's perception of organizational support.

To recap, job performance was separated into two areas for this study: task and contextual performance. Task and contextual performance were both positively influenced by an employee's perception that the organization was supportive of their efforts. This finding is important since firms continually struggle to develop new methods of improving the performance of their employees. Depending on the job, the employee's performance can either directly or indirectly impact the overall firm performance dictating many firm oriented consequences. Firms that emphasize increased job performance may

well benefit from knowing that the support mechanisms they provide to their employees directly influence the employee's task and contextual job performance.

A final critical finding of this review was that of POS's influence on an employee's intention to leave the organization. The results from this analysis coincide with the theoretical notion that POS does reduce an employee's intention to leave the organization. Firms that are concerned with minimizing turnover may be able provide additional support to their employees. Increased support may help to reduce the turnover intentions and could possibly boost organizational commitment.

POS Hypothesis Development

As the previous meta-analytic review of POS illustrates, the notion of organizational support has seen much investigation within psychological and management/organizational behavior literature. As many of today's businesses continually strive to create efficiencies in order to remain profitable and survive, it is important for managers to understand how support mechanisms differentially influence salespeople's behavioral outcomes such as performance and job satisfaction (Brown & Peterson, 1993). This growing need to understand these support mechanisms and how they are perceived by the employee has created much interest from researchers who investigated exchanges and the

relationships created between employees and their organization (Rousseau, 1990; Wayne, Shore & Linden, 1997).

The nature of salesperson workplace support and its relationships with important outcome variables remains of great interest to both managers and researchers (Johlke, 2005). Exchange theorists have produced a huge base of literature that suggests employees significantly rely on exchange relationships with the organization (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). The vast majority of studies that have looked at POS and its impact on its antecedents and consequences typically stop short of developing structural models and primarily analyze simple correlations to gain insight into this area.

Organizations that value their employees and care about their well being are more likely to provide those employees with explicit expectations and instructions regarding how the job should be performed. It is reasonable to expect, therefore, that salespeople who have higher levels of POS will experience lower levels of role stress.

Hypothesis 6: POS will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity.

Hypothesis 7: POS will have a strong negative impact on role conflict.

Research in non sales-oriented literature has proposed that POS also has an important influence on performance (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). In fact, as shown in the meta-analytic literature review, POS and performance are related at approximately .20 correlation. The problem with this correlation is that the studies used in the meta-analysis include very few sales samples. Therefore, it is imperative that research investigates this relationship further before the literature can conclude that, in fact, POS does influence performance. Social exchange theorists have proposed that the more an employee perceives support from the organization, the more they will behave in a manner that is consistent to carrying out the organization's goals and objectives (Wayne, et al., 1997). Further, research has also shown that the more an employee perceives their supervisor is supportive of them, the more that employee will perform well (Susskind, Kacmar, & Borchgrevink, 2003). Unfortunately, little research has investigated these influences on salesperson performance.

Hypothesis 8: POS will have a moderate positive impact on performance.

POS may also influence perceptions of isolation from the organization. The perception of support from the organization can indicate several things. At a minimum, POS conveys that the organization values the salesperson's efforts and cares about his/her well being (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Additionally, the

organization can "tack on" additional ancillary benefits for the salesperson such as additional resources to perform their job more efficiently, increased control over how the job is done, as well as providing a fair and equitable organizational climate. When a salesperson perceives these resources as being a positive influence on his/her job, then he/she should develop an increased sense of commitment for the organization. Moreover, the reciprocation frequency from the organization may also influence the perception of support. For example, the more the firm keeps in contact with the salesperson, the more the salesperson should perceive that the organization appreciates their contributions. This frequent contact with the salesperson should minimize their psychological and social separation from the organization which should reduce feelings of isolation.

Hypothesis 9: POS will have a strong negative impact on workplace isolation.

Trust in the organization has also been suggested to be related to POS and refers to the mutual willingness of both the employee and organization to be open (vulnerable) to the actions of one another irrespective of being able to monitor or control the other party's actions (Mayer, et al., 1995; Riggle, et al., 2005). This vulnerability comes from the uncertainty regarding the other party's intentions to honor the agreement and act appropriately. Blau (1964) noted that the establishment of relational exchanges between the organization and the

employee involves making resource investments in the other party connoting a commitment by that party to fulfill some agreement such as a job contract. In order to equalize the balance of exchange, salespeople will feel obligated to reciprocate the good deeds or resources obtained from the organization by increasing their performance and overall commitment to reaching the organization's goals and objectives. The reciprocation aspect of POS and social exchange may reinforce and stabilize trust which can increase important behavioral outcomes.

Hypothesis 10: POS will have a strong positive impact on trust in the organization.

Development of the Organizational Trust Construct

The notion of trust has been conceptualized as the extent to which a salesperson has confidence in the organization's reliability and integrity. This definition is based on the conceptualization of trust found in the relationship marketing literature, which stresses the importance of trust between organizations (e.g., Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpande, 1992; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). There have been various conceptualizations of trust in the literature (Brashear, Boles, Brooks, & Bellanger, 2003). Podsakoff, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) noted the lack of a "clear consensus" as to the most appropriate conceptualization or measurement. Previous one-dimensional

conceptualizations include trust as reliability (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999), competence (Cook & Wall, 1980), benevolence (Anderson & Weitz, 1989), and integrity or honesty (Jap, 1999). Other multi-dimensional approaches include trust as behaviors (Smith & Barclay, 1997) as well as conceptualization using benevolence and credibility (Ganesan, 1994). Within the sales literature, several researchers have used the marketing and management approaches that define trust as the degree of confidence that the salesperson has in his/her manager being both benevolent and honest. In this conceptualization, trust is like a buyer-seller relationship whereby exchanges are made by each party (sales manager gives direction, advice, praise, and resources in exchange for effort, performance, and commitment) (Rich, 1997). Within the sales manager-salesperson relational dyad, trust may act as a countervailing force that helps to create positive feelings toward the organization as well as positive feelings toward their job. Flaherty and Pappas (2000) identified that as salespeople trust their organization, they also feel more satisfied, feel safer in their job which promotes commitment, and can indulge in proactive workplace behaviors.

Hypothesis 11: Trust in the organization will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 12: Trust in the organization will have a strong positive impact on organizational commitment.

Development of the Workplace Isolation Construct

Workplace isolation is a psychological construct that describes employees' perceptions of isolation from the organization and their co-workers (Marshall, Michaels, & Mulki, 2007). These isolation perceptions are suggested to form when there is an absence of support from the organization as well as a lack of social and emotional interaction within the team (Marshall, et al., 2007). When employees work remotely from the firm, there is the potential to lose contact and camaraderie with the agents of the organization resulting in feelings of disconnection and isolation (Mulki, 2004; Pinsonneault & Boisvert, 2001). Salespeople generally fit this employee description as it pertains to workplace isolation. Salespeople are boundary spanning employees (Singh, 1998) meaning they operate on the fringe of the organization. Their job responsibilities are to reconcile both their company's and their customers' needs and expectations (Babin & Boles, 1998). The fringe of the organization can mean many things including being physically, emotionally, and/or socially separated from the organization (Mulki, 2004). Research has indicated that salespeople have less opportunity for informal/impromptu meetings with their co-workers and supervisors which can further their perception of isolation.

Physical separation is probably seen most frequently with salespeople in that the salesperson typically meets the customer at their place of business at their convenience. Being physically separated may cause salespeople to feel

'left-out' and increase their job stress. Likewise, emotional and social isolation may also promote feelings of isolation, even when the salesperson is not physically separated from the organization. For example, telemarketing sales people have been known to work from a centralized location with sales managers and co-workers, yet some feel isolated due to the amount of time they spend with their customers compared non-salespeople, who interact with each other (Moncrief, 1986).

Some firms have tried to alleviate these feelings of isolation among their salespeople by communicating with them more frequently through e-mail and voice mail. Unfortunately, research has shown that these types of communiqué lack the richness and social presence that face-to-face contact provides (Andres, 2002; Gainey, Hill & Kelley, 1999; Mulki, 2004).

Hypothesis 13: Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on trust in the organization.

Hypothesis 14: Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 15: Workplace isolation will have a strong negative association on organizational commitment.

Development of the Role Stressor Constructs

Role stress is an important variable when investigating salespeople and their attitudes and behaviors toward the organization (Churchill, Ford, Hartley, & Walker, 1985). Role stress variables that have been investigated in the literature include both role ambiguity and role conflict (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Role ambiguity is defined as a salesperson's confusion regarding his/her job responsibilities (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Churchill, Ford, Walker, Johnston, and Tanner (2000) observed that salespeople who experienced role ambiguity typically felt uncertain about how to act in a certain situation because they did not exactly know what the sales manager expected from them. Research has also found (see Ford, Walker, & Churchill, 1975) that salespeople are generally uncertain about what their sales managers expect in most situations. Additionally, other research proposes that more control over the salesperson will lessen the perception of ambiguity about his/her job (Kohli, 1985; Walker, Ford, & Churchill, 1975). Moreover, research has proposed that closely supervised salespeople are more aware of their supervisor's expectations and demands and tend to exhibit lower levels of role ambiguity (Churchill, et al., 2000).

Role conflict, on the other hand, is defined as the disconfirmation of a salesperson's expectations and values in performing his/her work duties and those work duty expectations or values projected by the organization. This results in the employee perceiving incompatibility between expected sets of behaviors (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Role conflict typically occurs when the

salesperson receives incompatible or conflicting requests from his/her sales manager regarding what to do in a certain situation. Johlke (2005) suggests that organizations that value their employees' contributions and care about their well being are more inclined to provide explicit instructions and expectations regarding their job. These explicit instructions should reduce the resulting role stress as well as increase effort and time spent working on job related tasks.

Hypothesis 16: Role ambiguity will have a weak negative impact on performance.

Hypothesis 17: Role ambiguity will have a moderate negative impact on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 18: Role conflict will have a strong negative impact on job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 19: Role conflict will have a strong negative impact on organizational commitment.

Development of the Job Satisfaction Construct

Salesperson job satisfaction is one of the most widely considered variables within the sales force literature (Brown & Peterson, 1993). A classic

definition of job satisfaction is provided by Locke (1976), who defined it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 1300). Much of the interest in this construct over the years has been due to its highly important relationship with a number of significant outcome variables such as organizational commitment, performance, and turnover (Brown and Peterson 1993). The interest in sales force satisfaction is said to reflect the increasingly humanistic orientation of modern management (Bagozzi 1980). In a meta-analytic review of the antecedent and consequence variables of job satisfaction, Brown and Peterson (1993) posit that salesperson role perceptions have typically been found to be an important structural determinant of job performance and satisfaction, while other research has found it to lead to lower turnover in the sales force (Futrell & Parasuraman, 1984).

Hypothesis 20: Job satisfaction will have a strong negative impact on turnover.

Development of the Organizational Commitment Construct

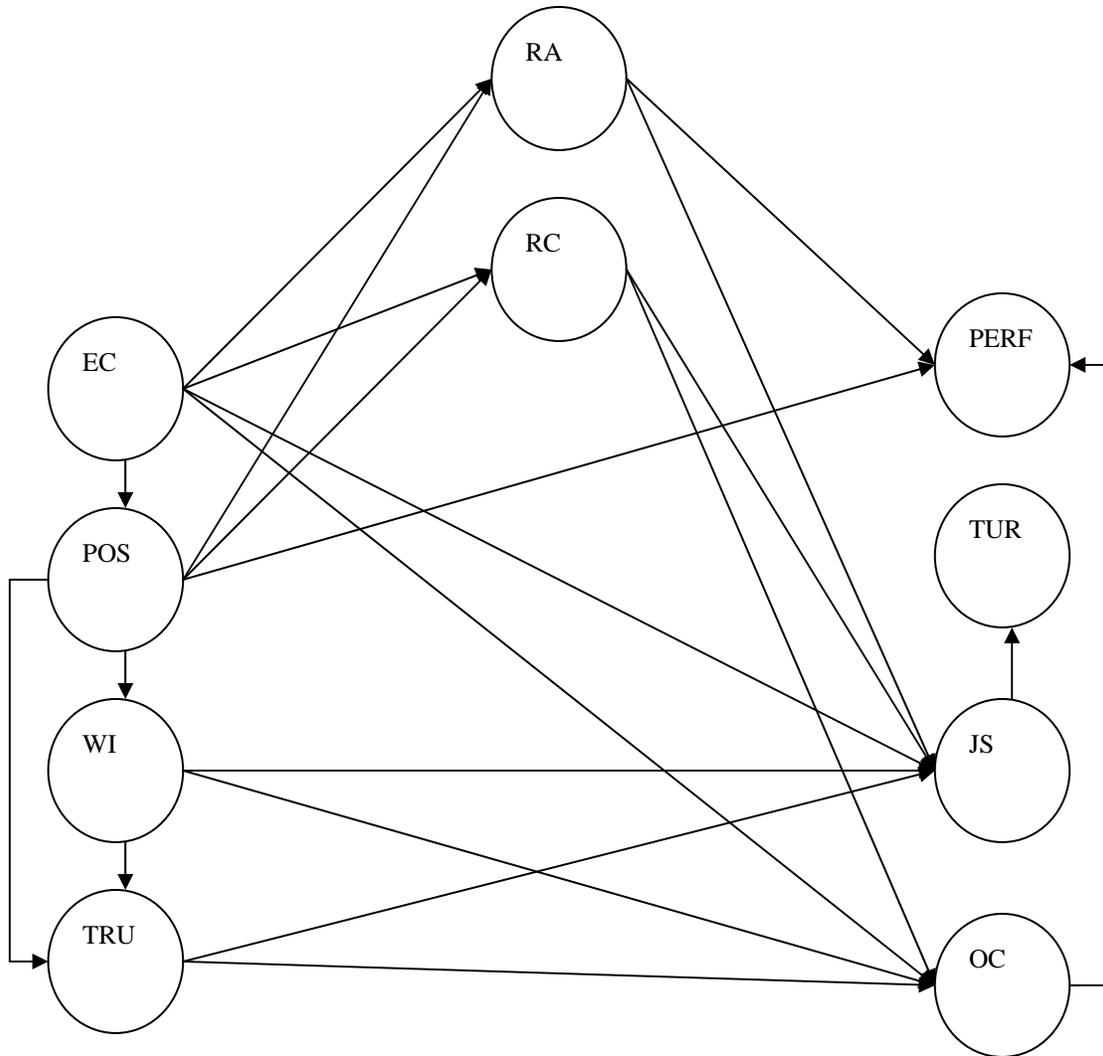
Organizational commitment is defined as employees' identification with the firm and its goals and objectives (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). In general, salespeople who are committed to the firm will reciprocate important outputs back to the firm such as increased task and contextual performance (Organ, 1997) as well as feel more satisfied in their job (Spector, 1997). Consistent with

exchange theory (Gouldner, 1960), committed employees will exert extra effort on behalf of the company in order to achieve its goals and objectives (Mulki, et al., 2006). Literature has identified a link between organizational commitment and job performance (Boshoff & Mels, 1995; Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006). In these studies, employees who were more committed to their organization performed at a higher level than employees who were not as committed. Therefore, commitment to the organization should impact job performance.

Hypothesis 21: Organizational commitment will have a moderate positive impact on performance.

Table 2.1 presents an overview of each of the previously discussed hypotheses for this study. Figure 2 highlights the paths used for developing the hypotheses in this section. The figure outlines both the interrelationships between the variables (Research Question 2) and the general tendencies of how organizational climate variables (POS, Ethical Climate, Workplace Isolation, and Trust) drive salesperson attitudes and behaviors.

Figure 2. Path Model



Summary

This section laid the framework suggesting that organizational climate significantly influences salesperson attitudes and behaviors. A rationale was provided for the use of each of the variables in the model and hypotheses were proposed. The next section will outline the methodology used to collect and analyze the data. Sample and measurement information is also provided.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

Introduction to Chapter

This chapter describes the methodology used to test a model that investigates the impact of perceived organizational support, ethical climate, and workplace isolation on salesperson work outcomes. First, the research setting and sample characteristics are described. Second, an explanation of the measures used to collect data is presented. Third, the research procedures and data analysis is provided. Finally, a summary of the methodology is offered.

The research methodology described in this study follows the Churchill and Iacobucci research design approach (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2004). The Churchill and Iacobucci paradigm is an updated version of Churchill's (1976) prescription for research in the social sciences. This paradigm has been widely used within business and organizational research and has served as the "gold standard" for research in marketing. This section is outlined in the following manner. First, a description of the research commences with the benefits of using a cross-sectional analysis, followed by identifying the type of data collection technique and instrument to be used. Second, the potential sample characteristics are discussed along with a description of the pretest. Third, an

overview of the chosen data collection technique is presented along with guidelines for data processing and analysis.

The research to be performed in this study is cross-sectional in nature. A cross-sectional research design is a one-time study involving a data collection effort at a single period in time. The benefit of a cross-sectional design is that it provides a snapshot of variables at one point in time and is deemed to be representative of some known sample (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2004). The research fits the criteria of analyzing a one-time data collection effort to analyze the influence of POS on salesperson job performance. Ideally, if time were not a factor, a longitudinal research design would be most appropriate for this study, however, this is not the case. In tandem, this research employs a structured and undisguised data collection instrument for collecting data from this one shot effort. Structure refers to the degree of standardization that is imposed within the questionnaire. For example, highly structured questionnaires solicit respondents to choose a response from a predetermined bank of responses (e.g., please mark the response from 1 to 7 that best fits you). Disguise, on the other hand, refers to how much the respondent knows about the purpose of the study. In highly undisguised questionnaires, such as the one in this study, the purpose of the research is obvious to the respondent. Structured and undisguised questionnaires are the most common data collection instruments used in marketing research (Parasuraman, Grewal, & Krishnan, 2004). Several benefits are associated with structured and undisguised questionnaires. First, it is

relatively easy to compare responses between respondents. This is a critical factor for using several types of data collection techniques (especially structural modeling which is discussed later). Second, these types of questionnaires are relatively easy to administer and tabulate since each respondent receives and has the opportunity to answer the same questions. Third, structured and undisguised questionnaires increase the likelihood of having high reliabilities, which is also crucial for both the analysis and generalizability of the results.

The sample used in this study consists of inside business-to-business salespeople across the United States in multiple industries and firms. The sample is drawn from three companies that were willing to participate in return for reports and presentations regarding the findings of the study.

In order to be confident in the conclusions that are to be drawn from this research, it is important to assess both reliability and validity from the data collected (Hair, Bush & Ortinau, 2003). As constructs are inherently unobservable, attempting to measure abstract objects (Hair, et al., 2003) requires a researcher to perform a number of procedures. Among these procedures is the assessment of reliability and validity. Reliability and validity are related concepts. Reliability, while it is necessary for validity, it is not, by itself, sufficient (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). If a measure is reliable, it does not necessarily mean it is valid. For instance, a measure can be deemed reliable, yet it may lack discriminant, convergent, or face validity. However, the reciprocal of that statement does not hold true. If a measure was determined to be valid, then it

would also be deemed reliable. This may be primarily due to reliability being mostly a technical issue while validity is more of a philosophy (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Reliability is achieved when a measure is stable over a variety of conditions whereby the same results can be obtained (Nunnally, 1978). Reliability is important for many reasons. First, measures that can be repeated and stay stable over a variety of conditions allow for predictability. Another reason why reliability is important is that it allows for measures to show small changes in relationships between constructs (Nunnally, 1978). By having reliable measures, smaller differences can be detected, thus helping to determine true relationships between variables. Reliability is typically measured using Cronbach's Alpha, which is a measure of internal consistency. The normal value that is accepted to decide whether a measure is reliable is 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). In the context of the proposed model, reliability is assessed by calculating Cronbach's Alpha for each construct or variable and determining whether the items corresponding to each construct or variable are internally consistent (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In this study, Cronbach's Alpha estimate is calculated (Churchill, 1979; Nunnally, 1978) and, based on the Cronbach's Alpha estimate, the measure is deemed reliable if the estimate is above the cutoff of 0.70 (Traub, 1998).

Another important aspect of the pretest is to assess validity. Generally, there are two main types of validity that researchers are concerned with: construct validity and content validity (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Construct validity

is the degree to which inferences can legitimately be made from the operationalizations of measures from a study to the theoretical constructs on which those operationalizations were based (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The major question underlying construct validity is whether the substance of the measure is representative of the overall content of the concept being measured. Construct validity includes several subtypes of validity including discriminant and convergent validity. Discriminant validity is the degree to which the operationalization is not similar to other operationalizations that it theoretically should be not be similar to. Convergent validity is the degree to which the operationalization is similar to (converges on) other operationalizations that it theoretically should be similar to (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

Content validity is the extent to which a test measures an intended content area or defined body of knowledge that is determined by expert judges from the domain used in the measures (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Content validity primarily depends on how meticulously the scale development process is followed (Churchill, 1979; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988).

In the context of the proposed study, validity would be assessed by using confirmatory factor analysis via structural equations modeling (SEM) (Bollen, 1989). This method of validity assessment will help to indicate convergent and discriminant validity. For assessing convergent validity, a researcher should look for high factor loadings (0.80 and above) for items that are supposed to measure the construct of interest. Another measure of convergent validity using

confirmatory factor analysis is that of the average variance explained (AVE). Fornell and Larcker (1981) propose that measures should have an AVE above 0.50 to be seen as having convergent validity.

In order to test discriminant validity using factor analysis in SEM, a researcher would look at the factor loadings for multiple constructs. All indicators of each of the constructs are correlated against each of the latent factors (constructs). Ideally, if each construct were to have high loadings from only its indicators and low loadings from indicators from other constructs, it would be determined to have convergent validity. Discriminant validity is assessed if the items corresponding to a construct only load high on that construct's latent factor and low on all other constructs' latent factors. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) also propose using average variance explained to assess discriminant validity. Using this technique, a measure is deemed to have discriminant validity if the average variance explained estimate is greater than the squared correlation of all the factors. In this study, both convergent and discriminant validity of the measures is assessed (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). To test for convergent and discriminant validity, the measures are subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Analyzing the line item's factor loadings on each of the latent factors assesses convergent validity. The decision criteria is to have high loadings from only those line items that correspond to a particular factor while having low loadings on factors that do not correspond to the items. Once it

is determined that the items load properly on each of the factors, the measures can be deemed appropriate for use in the study.

The data collection procedure first begins with a selection of the sample as described above. The respondent will receive the following items: a letter from the researcher via e-mail, an e-mail letter from their sales manager describing the survey and asking for their help for participation, and a hyperlink to an online questionnaire. The letter from the researcher explains the study, ensures confidentiality, and asks for the respondent's help in completing the survey. Two weeks after the initial mailing, a follow-up e-mail will be sent to remind the respondents to complete and submit the questionnaire.

Analytic Procedure

As previously alluded to, the data analytic technique used in this study is Structural Equation Modeling. A structural equation model is deemed appropriate for a number of reasons. First, SEM allows the researcher to analyze multiple dependence relationships at one time. Second, it is also useful when a dependent variable also serves as an independent variable for another dependent variable. Third, it allows the researcher to use or incorporate latent variables into the analysis. The proposed model for this study incorporates attributes of having multiple dependent variables that need to be estimated at the same time; variables that serve as both independent and dependent variables at the same time. It also incorporates latent variables into the analysis of which

manifest variables must be used to estimate the value of the latent variable.

Finally, the SEM procedure is robust to deviations in normality. In other words, it will work even when the data is skewed or peaked.

Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) identify that SEM has a number of stages. Estimating an SEM model is a multi-stage process. First, the researcher should conduct a path diagram linking the relationships between both endogenous and exogenous variables (Hair, et al., 1998). Next, the researcher should specify the measurement model determining the number of indicators and accounting for the reliability of the measures. Next, the correlation matrix that was previously calculated should be input and then the model can be identified. Once identified, the model must be assessed for path estimates and goodness of fit. Goodness of fit indices have been developed to let the researcher know whether the model is a good predictor (Hair, et al., 1998). Indices such as Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, Comparative Fit Index, and Normed Fit Index are used for assessing the model. Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) (Steiger & Lind, 1980) is a measure of the discrepancy per degree of freedom for the model. Normed Fit Index (NFI) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980) is an incremental fit statistic that is defined in terms of the minimal values of the respective fit function (Gerbing & Anderson, 1992). NFI essentially standardizes the chi-square statistic where zero is “no fit” and one is “perfect fit”. It is primarily used to compare a restricted model to a full model. Similarly, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) measures the improvement in non-centrality.

Decision criteria for these statistics yield that a model is close fit if RMSEA is 0.08 or below, CFI is 0.90 or above, and NFI is 0.90 or above (Byrne, 1998). If the model is deemed to be well fit, interpretation can begin.

Research Setting

The effect of perceived organizational support, ethical climate, and workplace isolation is an important issue to study across many occupational settings (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Due to the nature of sales jobs, the lack of research on these constructs in a sales context, and the influence of salespeople's activities on overall individual and organizational performance, a sales setting is appropriate for studying the relationships described in Figure 2. To test the research hypotheses, a web based survey was administered, via e-mail contact, to sales employees of three (two privately owned, one publicly owned) sales organizations.

Data were collected during the time period from April 2006 until May 2006. Three hundred survey invitations were sent via e-mail to salespeople at three organizations. The participating organizations included a privately owned publishing firm (Organization 1) located in the southeastern United States, a large privately owned Internet recruiting firm (Organization 2) located in the upper Midwest, and a publicly traded worldwide financial information reporting firm (Organization 3). The first wave of data collection occurred in early April 2006 across all companies and yielded 187 individual responses. Two weeks later,

the second wave of invitations was e-mailed to only those in the sample who had not already responded. The second wave yielded an additional 49 responses. The third and final wave occurred four weeks after the first wave and yielded the final 15 responses. In total, 251 responses were gathered yielding an overall response rate for the study of 83.6%. Table 3.1 reveals the breakdown from each firm across the three waves of data collection. Since the response rate for the sample was so high (83.6%), no test for non-response bias was performed

Participants

Sample demographics of the 251 responses (58.2% male and 40.2% female) yielded the age response most frequently reported as 18-25 (104 responses) followed by 26-35 (92 responses). The respondents are well educated with nearly 150 reporting they held a degree from a four-year college or university. The overwhelming majority (64.5%) of the respondents is single and reports a yearly income range of \$50,000 to \$59,000.

It is important to note that the sample size, while relatively small, is sufficient enough to conduct the analysis for this study. Generally, the rule of thumb for sample size in SEM is the number of paths to be estimated in the model times ten. In the case of this dissertation, there are 21 paths to be estimated which, according to the rule of thumb, should require 210 responses to perform the analysis. One other important point to make about the sample size for this study relates to the power of the results. While some studies achieve

sample sizes into the thousands for SEM, the smaller number of responses in the sample that show an effect speaks volumes over those larger samples. In effect, the smaller the sample that shows an effect, the greater the generalizability of those effects.

Instrumentation

This section presents an overview of the scales used in this study. All scales were taken from extant literature. Appendix A presents the items contained in each scale. Appendix B includes the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the constructs used in this study. Table 7.1 indicates the standardized item loadings of the measurement model.

Ethical Climate

The Ethical Climate measure that is used in this study consists of seven Likert-type items based on Schwepker's (2001). The instrument measures the domain of ethical climate by using questions from areas such as: 1) the existence of a written code of ethics, 2) the communication of ethical expectations to employees, 3) a commitment from management to ethical values, and 4) perceptions about the enforcement of ethical codes. Recent studies (e.g., Jaramillo, et al., 2006; Mulki, et al., 2006; Weeks, Roberts, Chonko, & Jones, 2004) have reported acceptable reliabilities for this scale. A seven point Likert-response format from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) is employed.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) is a construct developed by Eisenberger, et al. (1986) that assesses an employee's perception that the organization values their efforts and cares about their well being. The original scale consisted of 36 items measuring the domain. A recent study by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) identified that a shorter version of the POS scale was acceptable if the original scale was too long. Subsequently, the eight-item POS scale was derived from the original 36-item scale by using the items with the highest factor loadings based on a confirmatory factor analysis. The eight-item POS scale has demonstrated acceptable reliability in previous studies ($\alpha = .89$ and $.90$, respectively) (Hutchison & Garstka, 1996; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999) and is measured using a seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Trust

The trust construct to be used in this study consists of seven items reflecting its dimensions as identified by Gabarro and Athos (1978). Studies (Mulki, et al. 2006; Robinson, 1996) using this measure have found acceptable reliabilities ($\alpha = .82$, $.87$, and $\alpha = .87$, respectively). The original version of the scale utilizes the "employer" as a reference point for the responses. This study, however, uses the supervisor reference as social exchange theory suggests that supervisors are considered agents of the organization and are closer to the

salesperson (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). The response format for this construct will consist of a seven-point Likert-type scale with descriptors of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

Workplace Isolation

The workplace isolation scale that is used for this study incorporates ten Likert-type items that measure both dimensions of the domain. Appropriate reliabilities have been reported for this scale (Marshall, et al., 2007). The response format for the measure utilizes a 1 to 7 rating format (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree).

Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction construct to be used in this study was taken from Jaramillo, et al. (2006) which was an adapted version of Spector's (1985) satisfaction measure. The scale utilizes three Likert-type items to represent the construct domain. Jaramillo, et al. (2006) found acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .92$) for the scale, consistent with prior research. The response format for this scale incorporates a one to seven agreement rating (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree).

Organizational Commitment

The organizational commitment measure to be used in this study comes from Speier and Venkatesh's (2002) scale. This measure was adapted from O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). Three Likert-type items are used to represent the commitment domain. Previous researchers have found acceptable reliabilities ($\alpha = .75$; $\alpha = .83$, respectively). The response format for this measure uses a seven-point True/False rating (1 = Very False to 7 = Very True).

Turnover Intention

The turnover intention measure adopted for this study was taken from Brashear, et al. (2003) which is an adaptation of Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian (1997). Four Likert-type items are used to measure the domain. Research (Brashear, et al., 2003; Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996) has shown acceptable reliabilities for this scale ($\alpha = .91$; $.92$, respectively). The response format for this measure includes a seven-point, strongly disagree-strongly agree option (where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

Self-Rated Performance

This study utilizes a subjective performance measure obtained from Piercy, Cravens, and Lane (2001) that assesses a salesperson's self-rated task performance. Eight items are used to assess the salesperson's performance. A seven-point Likert-type scale 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) is

employed. Previous studies have reported acceptable reliability estimates (e.g., Mulki, 2004, $\alpha = .74$; Piercy, et al., 2001, $\alpha = .79$).

Research Procedures

Descriptive and Reliability Analysis

Results of the reliability analysis are shown in Table 4.1. Overall, the variables exhibited acceptable reliabilities above the necessary .70 threshold established by Nunnally (1978). It should be noted that some skewness and possible range restriction may exist within the variables. This should not pose a problem for structural equations modeling since it is relatively robust to non-normal data. An analysis of the correlations between the variables indicates that the variables are related as previously thought.

Correlation Analysis

The next step in the analysis process was to investigate the correlations among the variables. First, a correlation matrix was produced (see Table 5.1) through the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The correlation matrix revealed some interesting associations between the variables. First, on its face, the correlation matrix confirms many of the hypothetical relationships proposed from Chapter Two. While the hypotheses cannot be tested using purely a correlation matrix, the correlation matrix does suggest that the findings should be favorable. Table 5.1 again presents the Cronbach Alpha (e.g., internal

consistency) calculations along the diagonal. The correlation matrix also indicates some inconsistencies in the workplace isolation variable. These inconsistencies may be problematic for the analysis.

During the correlation analysis, it was necessary to analyze the inter-item correlations within each construct's scale (Nunnally, 1978). Analyzing the inter-item correlation matrices for each construct's scale allows for identifying possible redundant items that can be eliminated from the analysis. The LISREL program performs a function similar to this in the measurement model. The measurement model analysis provides estimates of the factor loadings that can be used to identify items that can be eliminated from the analysis because of redundancy or poor fit. While analyzing the inter-item correlation matrices for each construct's scale is important, no action (removing items from the analysis) will be taken prior to running the measurement model.

The analysis of each construct's inter-item correlation matrix revealed some interesting findings. Ideally, in order for a construct's scale to be considered acceptable for analysis, the inter-item correlations must be between .39 and .65 (Nunnally, 1978). The inter-item correlation matrix for POS reported three correlations below .39 and one above .65, which may indicate items to be dropped from further analysis. Again, no items were dropped before consulting the measurement model. The ethical climate construct reported two questionable correlations. Workplace isolation showed 23 questionable correlations, seven for trust, one for role conflict, one for organizational

commitment, three for job satisfaction, five for turnover, and ten for performance. On their face, these questionable correlations may seem troubling; however, the measurement model will help to make the final decision on the variables to be dropped.

Iteration 1: Measurement Model

A measurement model was used to assess the measurement properties of the variables used in this study. The measurement model explains how the variables are operationalized relative to the items used to measure that variable (Hair, et al., 1998). Results from the measurement model indicate that the chi-square (χ^2) is significant ($\chi^2 = 1877$, $df = 810$; $p < 0.0001$), the hypothesis of close fit cannot be rejected at $\alpha = .05$, RMSEA = .073 (CI = .068 to .077) (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). Results suggest that the measurement model adequately fits the data (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). Table 7.1 indicates the final results of the factor loadings and t-values. All factor loadings were significant using a .05 alpha (probability of having a Type I error; Type I error is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is true). Although all factor loadings were significant, several loadings on the full measurement model were below the acceptable range of .60 as prescribed by Hu and Bentler (1999). Therefore, it was decided to eliminate items with loadings below .60. Ten items were identified as loading below .60 and were dropped from the analysis. These items included three from POS, five

from Workplace Isolation, and two from Ethical Climate. Dropping items from the analysis helps improve the fit of the measurement model as well as the specification of the structural model. Once the items were eliminated, the model was reanalyzed. Table 7.1 highlights the factor loadings of the reduced model.

Iteration 2: Initial Structural Model 1

The model parameters of the structural model were estimated using LISREL 8.72. The covariance matrix was used to estimate the parameters of the model as prescribed by Hair, et al. (1998). The model fit was evaluated using a number of statistics including chi-square, RMSEA, NFI, and CFI. The chi-square analysis assesses the overall observed fit of the model relative to an expected fit value. The second iteration of the model indicated much better measurement model fit over the previous model (see Table 8.1 for statistics). This iteration showed a very large decrease in Chi-Square (1877.21 vs. 784.88), a nearly two percent decrease in RMSEA (which tightened the 90% confidence interval), and a substantial increase in NFI and CFI. Since there was an improvement over the previous analysis, it was decided to move forward and begin analyzing the structural model fit. The fit for the second iteration was moderately acceptable. The chi-square and RMSEA estimates were reduced and the NFI and CFI estimates were increased, all in the appropriate direction. Although the model fit was better with the condensed number of items, it was necessary to analyze the modification indices to determine if there were any other paths that should

logically be specified to further improve the model. Several important issues were highlighted in the modification indices. Two paths were added to the model to improve the fit. These paths were from Role Ambiguity to POS and from Role Conflict to POS. As the model previously specified, paths were proposed to go from POS to Role Ambiguity and POS to Role Conflict as predicted by Johlke (2005). These paths were deleted and the new paths were added through several steps. The final model iteration fit is discussed in the results section.

Summary

This section outlined the methodology used to collect and analyze the study data. Three hundred surveys were initially sent to salespeople in three companies. Two hundred fifty one surveys were completed and returned for a 83.6% response rate. The data was subjected to structural analysis to test the measurement properties and estimate the path coefficients. The following section outlines the results from the analysis.

CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing was conducted in a two-stage process. The first stage evaluates the fit of the model using the fit statistics bolded in Table 7.1. The second stage of hypothesis testing includes an evaluation of the path coefficients and their respective signs for the hypotheses (Ping, 1996).

Stage 1 – Evaluation of Model Fit

The results from the final model indicated better fit over the two previous iterations. Table 8.1 illustrates the fit compared to both previous iterations. Goodness of fit tests help determine whether the model being tested should be accepted or rejected. There are two categories of fit indices used to evaluate structural models: absolute and incremental. Absolute fit indices evaluate how well a model fits the data. Examples of absolute fit indices are the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Standardized Root-Mean-Square Residual (SRMR). Several authors propose decision criteria for these variables. For instance, Hu and Bentler (1999) propose that RMSEA values less than or equal to .05 are “close approximate fit”, while values between .05 and .10 are “reasonably approximate

fit". RMSEA values above .10 are considered poor fit. Additionally, SRMR values below .10 are considered adequate. SRMR is the standardized difference between the observed covariance and predicted covariance. This measure tends to be smaller as sample size increases and as the number of parameters in the model increases. The GFI statistic has proven to be more problematic. Recent simulation studies have shown that GFI and Adjusted GFI do not perform well (Hu & Bentler, 1999). It was concluded that this statistic is too sensitive to sample size and, therefore, could produce many Type I errors and should not be considered when assessing model fit. As shown in the current model, the absolute fit measures of RMSEA and SRMR are well within the acceptable limits for reasonably approximate fit (RMSEA = .052, CI = .045 - .058; SRMR = .072). On the other hand, incremental fit indices assess the improvement in fit over a baseline or null model. Examples of incremental fit indices are the Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Similar to the absolute fit measures, Hu and Bentler propose cutoffs for NFI, TLI, and CFI. TLI is an unbiased estimator of a quantity that includes the parsimony ratio and is the only widely used index relatively independent of sample size. Traditionally, these indexes have been used with a cutoff in which values larger than .90 are considered good fitting models. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggest that these values should be increased to .95 to avoid increasing probabilities of Type I error. As noted in Table 8.1, the current model's NFI, TLI, and CFI are almost all above the acceptable levels (NFI = .94; TLI = .97; CFI = .97). Taking both

absolute and incremental fit measures for this model into account, it is determined that the model has acceptable fit. The hypotheses can now be tested using the beta coefficients from the analysis.

Stage 2a –Hypotheses

The hypothesis testing process took each of the standardized path (SP) coefficients and their corresponding t-statistics and compared them to the hypotheses from Chapter 2. For each hypothesis, the standardized path is compared to (Cohen, 1977) effect size interpretation to determine whether full or partial support is warranted. The decision criteria for supporting, partially supporting, or not supporting a hypothesis is as follows. To gain full support, a hypothesis must have a SP in the hypothesized direction and magnitude. Hypotheses will be partially supported if the SP has a magnitude greater than or less than the hypothesized magnitude. Hypotheses will not be supported if the SP direction is opposite of the hypothesized direction or the t-value is too low.

Hypothesis 1

To test the hypothesis ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on POS, it was necessary to look at the path coefficients from the analysis. Structural equations modeling results indicate that the path between ethical climate and POS is strongly positive (SP = .45; $t = 6.34$, $p < .001$) (Cohen, 1977), in line with the hypothesis. This finding indicates that the more the salesperson

perceives the climate to be ethical, the higher his/her overall perceptions of support. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is partially supported.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 states that ethical climate will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity. Analysis of the path coefficient between ethical climate and role ambiguity is in the hypothesized direction (SP = $-.31$; $t = -4.01$, $p < .001$) and is significant; however the magnitude of the finding is less than the hypothesized magnitude. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 is partially supported. This finding indicates that as salespeople perceive the climate to be ethical, their resulting role ambiguity will reduce.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 states that ethical climate will have a moderate negative impact on role conflict. Results partially support the hypothesis (the magnitude of the path coefficient is less than the hypothesized magnitude) (SP = $-.07$; $t = -4.57$, $p < .001$) thus indicating that as a salesperson perceives the climate to be ethical, their resulting role conflict will reduced.

Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 states that ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on organizational commitment. The results from the analysis support this

claim (SP = .35; $t = 5.31$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the more ethical the salespeople perceive the climate to be, the more they will be committed to the organization.

Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 suggests that ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction. The results from the model analysis revealed that ethical climate does have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction (SP = .34; $t = 5.47$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the more ethical the climate is perceived by the salespeople, the more they will be satisfied in their jobs.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 suggests that POS will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity. The analysis results demonstrate that POS does in fact, negatively impact role ambiguity (SP = -.40; $t = -4.22$, $p < .001$). Therefore, as salespeople perceive the organization to be supportive, their resulting role ambiguity is reduced.

Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 proposes that POS will have a strong negative impact on role conflict. SEM analysis results reveal that the path between POS and role conflict is negative (SP = -.12; $t = -6.01$, $p < .001$), but the magnitude of the effect size is lower than expected. Consequently, as salespeople perceive the

organization to be supportive, their resulting conflict in their job is reduced.

Hypothesis 7 is partially supported.

Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 implies that POS will have a moderate positive impact on performance. Unfortunately, the analysis reveals that there is no significant path between PS and job performance (SP = $-.08$; $t = -.63$, $p = .529$). Therefore, Hypothesis 8 is not supported. Suggestions as to why this result occurred are discussed in the next chapter.

Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 suggests that POS will have a strong negative impact on workplace isolation. The results reveal that POS actually increases workplace isolation. The path coefficient between POS and workplace isolation is positive and significant (SP = $.07$; $t = 6.30$, $p < .001$) indicating that while salespeople perceive the organization to be supportive, they may feel more psychologically isolated. This result is counter to what was expected; therefore, Hypothesis 9 is not supported. Suggestions for this finding can be found in the next chapter.

Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 proposes that POS will have a strong negative impact on trust in the organization. SEM analysis reveals that POS does positively impact

trust (SP = .49; $t = 5.82$, $p < .001$) which supports Hypothesis 10. Therefore, as salespeople perceive their organization to be supportive, their perception of trust increases.

Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11 indicates that trust in the organization will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction. Analysis reveals that trust has no impact on job satisfaction (SP = .15; $t = 1.86$, $p = .0635$). Therefore, Hypothesis 11 is not supported.

Hypothesis 12

Hypothesis 12 suggested that trust in the organization will have a strong positive impact on organizational commitment. Again, analysis revealed that trust has no significant impact on organizational commitment (SP = .02; $t = .39$, $p = .6967$). Thus, Hypothesis 12 was not supported.

Hypothesis 13

Hypothesis 13 offers that workplace isolation will negatively impact trust in the organization. The analysis revealed that workplace isolation does not have any significant impact on trust contrary to the hypothesis (SP = .38; $t = .61$, $p = .5422$). Therefore, no support is found for Hypothesis 13.

Hypothesis 14

Hypothesis 14 set forth that workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on job satisfaction. In this case, it was found that workplace isolation has a strong negative impact on job satisfaction. The results revealed that the path between workplace isolation and job satisfaction was -11.06 ($t = -4.79$, $p < .001$) which is partially consistent with the hypothesis (the magnitude of the SP was much higher than expected). This variable was transformed in the analysis stage because of skewness, which could be providing the high coefficient. Therefore, it was concluded that Hypothesis 14 was only partially supported.

Hypothesis 15

Hypothesis 15 indicates that workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on organizational commitment. The analysis revealed that workplace isolation does have a strong negative impact on organizational commitment which is partially consistent with the proposition ($SP = -7.55$; $t = -4.32$, $p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 15 was partially supported.

Hypotheses 16 and 17

Hypothesis 16 and 17 suggest that role ambiguity will negatively impact performance and job satisfaction, respectively. Similar to Hypothesis 13, no support is found for either of these hypotheses. Analysis revealed that there is

no significant impact on performance from role ambiguity (SP = .05; $t = .64$, $p = .5225$). Additionally, role ambiguity does not have any significant impact on job satisfaction (SP = -.01; $t = .00$). A discussion of possible explanations for these findings can be found in Chapter 5

Hypothesis 18

Hypothesis 18 proposes that role conflict will have a strong negative impact on job satisfaction. Analysis reveals that role conflict does have a strong negative impact on job satisfaction (SP = -8.18; $t = -6.75$, $p < .001$) in support of the hypothesis and implies that as salespeople's conflict within their job increases, their resulting job satisfaction decreases.

Hypothesis 19

Hypothesis 19 indicates that role conflict will have a strong negative impact on organizational commitment. Similar to the previous analysis, support was found for this hypothesis (SP = -6.66; $t = -7.03$, $p < .001$). Analysis revealed that as role conflict increases, a salesperson's overall commitment to the organization decreases.

Hypothesis 20

Hypothesis 20 suggests that job satisfaction will have a strong negative impact on turnover. The structural analysis reveals that job satisfaction does

negatively impact turnover intentions (SP = -1.05; $t = -16.05$, $p < .001$). As salespeople's job satisfaction increases, their resulting intentions to leave the organization decrease in support of Hypothesis 20.

Hypothesis 21

Finally, Hypothesis 21 proposes that organizational commitment will have a moderate positive impact on performance. In partial support of this hypothesis, analysis revealed that organizational commitment does positively impact job performance (SP = .44; $t = 3.95$, $p < .001$). Therefore, as salespeople's overall organizational commitment increases, their resulting job performance will increase. Each hypothesis path, t-value, and support can be seen in Table 9.1 below.

Summary

This section presented the results from the structural analysis and tested the hypotheses in the study. Generally, the hypotheses were supported with a few exceptions. The following section presents a discussion of these results followed by limitations and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The purpose of this dissertation was to build and test a model that integrates the marketing, management, and psychological literature with respect to organizational climate variables and their direct and indirect impact on salesperson psychological and behavioral outcomes. All are directed at answering the overarching research question of how organizational climate variables impact salespeople's psychological and behavioral work outcomes. An important contribution of this research is to provide empirical evidence that these important climate variables drive salesperson outcomes such as performance, commitment, and satisfaction. Generally, the results from the analysis confirm the research questions that climate variables such as perceived organizational support, ethical climate, and trust do positively impact those outcomes.

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section discusses the driving effects of these climate variables on salesperson outcomes. The second section discusses the limitations of the study. Finally, directions for future research are given.

Organizational Climate Influence on Psychological and Behavioral Outcomes

Perceived Organizational Support

The POS construct was the major focus of this research in that little previous investigation as to how POS influenced salespeople has been completed. Given this lack of knowledge, four of the research questions in this study revolve around POS and its differential impact on work outcomes. Research Question Two asked whether organizational support positively impacts salesperson performance. Unfortunately, our analysis revealed no significant path from POS to performance which is contrary to the research question. The results from Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) suggest that there is a relationship between POS and performance. Several explanations may exist as to why POS does not impact the performance of salespeople. First, it may be that there are too many other variables at play that better explain and predict performance. In recent years, sales force performance has been impacted by variables such as self esteem and job stress (Barksdale, Bellenger, Boles, & Brashear, 2003), emotional intelligence (Sams, 2005), and job satisfaction (Johlke, 2005). Second, the measurement of POS is for that of the general employee and not necessarily for marketing or sales employees. As discussed earlier, salespeople are different from traditional employees in that they are boundary spanners and must answer to multiple bosses. The POS measure may need to be redeveloped for salespeople to better reflect their attitudes and behaviors.

With regard to research Question Four which questioned whether POS reduced role stressors, the analysis revealed that POS did negatively impact role ambiguity and role conflict consistent with the hypotheses in support of this research question. While this finding is expected, some unique implications may be drawn for managers. First, as previously discussed, role stressors such as role ambiguity and role conflict can cause many problems for salespeople. As indicated by Babakus, Cravens, Johnston & Moncrief (1996), role stress has received considerable attention in academic research (Dubinsky & Mattson, 1979; Ford, et al., 1975; Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell, & Black, 1990; Michaels, Day, & Joachimsthaler, 1987). The two main aspects of role stress are role ambiguity and role conflict. These variables have been found to have noteworthy impact on important psychological outcomes and behaviors such as job satisfaction and performance, respectively (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Jackson & Schuler, 1985).

Role ambiguity has been defined as the condition where a salesperson does not have clear direction regarding the expectations of his or her role in the job or the organization. On the other hand, role ambiguity has been defined as the condition where a salesperson feels that she/he does not have enough information to perform the job adequately (Rizzo, et al., 1970). It has been suggested in the literature that the notion of POS might reduce role conflict and ambiguity (Johnston, Parasuraman, & Futrell, 1989). The findings of this study are consistent with these expectations.

Sales managers may want to consider these findings when attempting to combat the effects of role stress on psychological and behavioral outcomes. Increasing salesperson perceptions of support from both the organization and its agents may help to reduce those stressors. Some ways that may help increase notions of support could be to communicate to those salespeople that the organization cares about their well being and values their contributions back to the organization. Communicating that the organization values the salesperson's contributions may come in the form of recognition for sales volume or participation in activities toward the goals and objectives of the organization. Furthermore, organizations may find it fruitful to institute policies and programs to show its appreciation to the salespeople. Ideas such as flexible scheduling, cross-training, sincere "thank-yous", and special events may go a long way to providing the feeling of support to the salesperson from the organization.

Perceived organizational support was also hypothesized to positively impact the amount of trust the salesperson has in the organization in reference to Research Question Two. According to the analysis, POS does indeed positively drive a salesperson's trust in the organization. The only previous evidence of a relationship between POS and trust can be seen in a 2002 meta-analysis by Rhoades and Eisenberger and in an updated meta-analysis presented earlier in this dissertation. The most recent evidence suggests that the correlation between POS and trust is .68, indicating a strong relationship between the variables and borders on conceptual redundancy. The results from the structural

model presented in Chapter 4 indicate that POS actually drives trust, demonstrating a highly significant path coefficient of .49 ($t = 5.82$). Several implications for practice can be drawn from this finding. First, Flaherty and Pappas (2000) suggested that trust plays a big role in salesperson psychological and behavioral outcomes. Their study revealed that salespeople who trust their managers and their organization are more satisfied in their job and are more committed to the organization. While this study did not uncover the same results, sales managers should consider these implications when dealing with their subordinates. Sales managers may want to try to increase trust by providing clear evidence that they care about the salesperson's well being. They should strive to create an environment of open communication and sincere feedback to express their appreciation of the job done.

Unfortunately, the results from the analysis did not support the hypothesis that POS would reduce feelings of workplace isolation from Research Question Five. Contrary to the hypothesis, the results from the analysis concluded that POS slightly increased workplace isolation. It was noted during the analysis that the workplace isolation construct was unstable. Out of the ten items used to measure workplace isolation, five had to be excluded from the analysis due to low factor loadings. It was also noted that the responses to these items were skewed which might have caused more problems including this finding.

Ethical Climate

The concept of ethical climate is another important organizational climate variable that was used in this study. Research Question One asked whether ethical climate positively impacted salesperson perceptions of organizational support. In support of Research Question One, ethical climate proved to be a very important driver of salesperson perceptions of their job stress and their support from the organization. Ethical climate is represented by perceptions influencing the perceived rightness or wrongness present in a marketing environment (Babin, Boles, & Robin, 2000; Ferrell, Weaver, Taylor & James, 1978). Creating a climate that promotes ethical conduct can help a firm clarify its standards of ethical behavior to salespeople (Schwepker, et al., 1997). Research has found that employees desire consistency between their ethical value system and the ethical climate within the firm (Dubinsky & Ingram, 1984). Importantly, it has been noted that salespeople want policies and codes of ethics so that limitations of ethical behavior are known (Dubinsky, Jolson, Michaels, Kotabe, & Lim, 1992) and clear distinctions are made as to what the organization expects from its sales force. The current study found that ethical climate significantly reduced role stressors such as conflict and ambiguity. When these stressors are reduced by the ethical climate perceptions, salespeople might not feel pressured to cut corners to make the sale. When salespeople feel stressed about what to do in their job and how to act/react to certain situations, they may feel compelled to do something not quite ethical to sell one customer. However,

when these policies, procedures, and standards of ethical behavior are prevalent, as in this case, salespeople know what is expected and, thus, may not feel the same pressure to perform at any cost than may otherwise occur.

Ethical climate was also linked positively to POS in that the more a salesperson perceives the organization's climate to be ethical, the more they feel supported by the organization. From a practical perspective, this finding may suggest that organizations that are under pressure to adopt more stringent ethical guidelines may accomplish two goals at the same time. It seems that by defining ethical boundaries, organizations may be meeting their salespeople's expectations about ethics. In turn, they may achieve higher support perceptions and possibly important behavioral and psychological outcomes that were not tested for in this study. This finding may also suggest that when deciding to develop ethical guidelines, firms need to expand beyond focusing solely on ethical standards and include facets for increasing employees' recognition of the firm's concern/support for their salespeople's well being.

Workplace Isolation

The workplace isolation construct describes employees' perceptions of isolation from the organization and their co-workers (Mulki, 2004). It has been proposed that when employees work from afar or are isolated within the office that can cause them to lose contact with co-workers, many negative consequences may occur. Recent research has proposed that workplace

isolation can have many negative consequences on psychological and behavioral outcomes of salespeople. These consequences can have an adverse influence on the organizations' goals and objectives. Indeed, workplace isolation does negatively impact outcomes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The results from this analysis concluded that workplace isolation has a very strong negative impact on job satisfaction ($b = -11.06$; $t = -4.79$) and organizational commitment ($b = -7.55$; $t = -4.32$). These findings suggest that psychological isolation is something for sales managers to constantly monitor from their salespeople. Workplace isolation can be a result of physical, emotional, or social separation from colleagues. While these types of separation are prevalent for outside salespeople, inside salespeople can also experience these feelings. Sales managers for inside business-to-business salespeople may want to consider a couple of alternatives to help minimize feelings of separation among their sales force. One way to alleviate feelings of isolation is to constantly communicate with the salespeople. Face-to-face communication has been shown to reduce the feelings of separation (Andres, 2002; Mulki, 2004) and help bring the salesperson back into the social fold. Communication that includes appreciative notions may also help to increase perceptions of support from the organization impacting a myriad of other important consequences. Another method of reducing feelings of separation is to have organizational sponsored mixers and get-togethers. Informal activities of this type could encourage salespeople socialize together and get to know others within the

organization. To reduce physical isolation, firms may consider the layout of the office to determine whether all possible social networks are utilized. Salespeople might be able to tap into synergistic rhythms during work thereby reducing isolation, increasing perceptions of support, and increasing overall performance levels.

Post Hoc Analysis

Several demographic variables were gathered in the data collection process. A post hoc analysis revealed a few interesting findings. The most surprising result was the impact that co-worker interaction had on turnover intentions. A simple regression analysis revealed that the more contact a salesperson has with his/her co-workers, the more he/she will intend to leave the organization. This finding might highlight the competitive nature of the sales job as being too much for some salespeople. Additional research needs to be performed to understand this finding. Another interesting finding from the post hoc analysis was the prevalent influence of education. A salesperson's level of education seems to attenuate several perceptions about the organization and job. For example, education reduces POS, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. With respect to POS and organizational commitment, it may be that the more educated a salesperson tends to be, the more options they have and thus they don't feel as committed. Additionally, the type of support these individuals perceive may not be the type of support more educated salespeople

need. The decrease in job satisfaction for more educated salespeople is somewhat more vexing. One explanation for this finding could be that more educated people may feel that sales jobs are beneath their abilities. This is a far-reaching assumption so future research needs to delve deeper into this finding.

The last important finding was with the tenure variable. Tenure had mixed effects with these psychological and behavioral outcomes. First, tenure reduced POS and role conflict. It may be that the longer a salesperson has been with their firm, the less support they need which could explain the POS finding. Another explanation is that the support they are receiving is not meeting their needs as a senior salesperson in that firm. Second, tenure increases role ambiguity. As salespeople stay longer at a firm, the more responsibility they may take on, either in their job or external to their job. This finding may speak to the dyadic conceptualization of performance being both task and contextual (see Chapter 2). Future research needs to investigate these findings further. Table 10.1 outlines the remaining results from the post hoc analysis.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations to this study exist. First, there might have been some problems in this study regarding how certain constructs were measured. The most suspect variable, workplace isolation, was very unstable in both the measurement model and the structural model analysis. It was noted that the construct, initially measured by ten items, had low factor loadings during the

confirmatory factor analysis or measurement model stage of analysis. In fact, five of the ten items showed poor factor loadings (less than .50) which could impact the fit of the model. Upon ridding the model of the poorly fitting items, the construct showed better fit, yet still had loadings lower than those of other constructs. Additionally, responses were generally skewed across each of the items for workplace isolation necessitating a square root transformation before further analysis. Finally, after reducing both the number of items and performing the normalizing transformation on this variable, several associated hypotheses were not supported.

A second limitation of this study is its generalizability to the population. The sample used in this study consisted of inside business-to-business salespeople across three firms in three different industries. Even though the sample covers a somewhat broad range, the generalizability of the study results could be questioned. Moreover, virtually no outside salespeople were used in this study. All respondents in the sample were inside business-to-business salespeople creating questions as to the generalizability. At best, the results from the study could apply to inside salespeople focusing on business-to-business accounts.

A third limitation of the study is its cross-sectional design. While the results generally supported the hypothesized model, there could be alternative explanations for these results. A longitudinal research design might shed light on these potential problems.

Suggestions for Future Research

Several future research directions have been identified from this study. First, it has been recently suggested that salesperson self-reported performance ratings are not highly correlated with sales managers' ratings of performance (Jaramillo, Carrillat, & Locander, 2005). One drawback to studies (like this dissertation) is access to dyadic or sales manager rating data. In this vein, future research may find it useful to investigate just how POS impacts objective and subjective performance ratings from both salespeople and sales managers. Researchers may find that there is a direct impact from POS to performance when measured from a supervisory perspective rather than from the self-reported method as in this study.

Second, as alluded to earlier in this chapter, the POS scale was developed and has primarily been used with non-sales employees. Future researchers may consider developing a new scale of POS for sales employees that better reflects the nature and responsibilities of the job, with emphasis placed on identifying specific things sales managers and organizations do to create support perceptions. In developing this new POS scale, qualitative data will need to be collected from salespeople and sales managers. This data can then be used to first develop a new definition of POS directly related to salespeople. As it stands, POS is loosely defined as the employee's perception that the organization cares about his/her well being and values his/her contributions to the organization's goals and objectives (Eisenberger, et al.,

1986). Without biasing the future qualitative findings, a new definition of POS may look something like the following:

Salesperson Perceived Organizational Support

The organization provides the necessary resources for salespeople to make the sale, provides adequate compensation for contribution to organization's goals and objectives, provides incentives for a job well done, allows salespeople to decide how to perform their job duties, trusts the judgment of salespeople, and treats all salespeople fairly.

Third, future research studies may want to examine other antecedents to POS. The meta-analytic literature review presented in Chapter 2 portrayed the current knowledge of POS antecedents. While this was a first step in understanding the POS construct, more work needs to be done to investigate other variables. For example, POS has been proposed to be an antecedent to organizational commitment. However, other research findings suggest that POS may be an outcome of commitment (Karatepe & Tekinkus, 2006).

Fourth, future research may also consider investigating other potential outcomes of POS. The meta-analytic literature review identified several viable psychological and behavioral outcomes. Yet, there are still many avenues to be investigated.

Fifth, in tandem with the previous suggestion, future research should consider testing the norm of reciprocity prior to looking at the POS-organizational commitment link. The norm of reciprocity, to review, is the basis for social exchange theory whereby individuals reciprocate or exchange valued resources and is considered the starting mechanism for the social exchange relationship (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Future research should include this construct to provide a full understanding of the employee-organization exchange.

Sixth, future researchers may consider investigating whether POS and other organizational climate variables have a significant bottom-line impact on firm performance. Investigating these bottom-line influences will help businesses decide whether to allocate scarce resources toward developing positive organizational climate. Moreover, research may find that certain types of individuals are more susceptible to these organizational climate variables and thus will be more motivated than other types of employees. The implication of this would be a fundamental change in recruitment and selection for sales employees. Recent marketing and sales literature has seen a vast increase in the emphasis on ethics. Future researchers may consider focusing their efforts on just how an ethical climate is created. Moreover, research should analyze how customers perceive ethics along the relationship lifecycle.

Seventh, given the problems encountered with the workplace isolation construct, future researchers should consider redesigning the scale. This construct has much potential for helping to create knowledge within the

marketing and sales literature. In its current state, however, it is unable to overcome its psychometric problems. Therefore, a new workplace isolation measure should be developed which includes both physical and psychological isolation factors.

Finally, since this study focused only on direct path relationships, future research should focus on assessing more mediating and moderating relationships. Mediating and moderating relationships between the organizational climate variables and psychological and behavioral outcomes could help shed light on exactly how these relationships vary.

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APPENDIX A - MEASURES

Appendix A (Continued) Role Stress

Both role conflict and role ambiguity are important intervening variables that influence the impact of differing organizational practices on individual and organizational outcomes (Beardon & Netemeyer, 1999). The role conflict and role ambiguity scales that are used in this research encompass 20 questions regarding salespeople's perceptions about their job. Previous research using these scales have reported acceptable reliabilities for both role conflict and role ambiguity ($\alpha = .82$ and $.81$), respectively (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Each of these items is measured using a seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (very false) to 7 (very true) as prescribed by Rizzo, et al. (1970).

Role Conflict

I have to do things that should be done differently.

I work on unnecessary things.

I perform work that suits my values.

I have enough time to complete my work.

I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.

I have just the right amount of work to do.

I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with.

I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.

I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.

Appendix A (Continued)

I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.

I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.

I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.

Scale Point Descriptors:

Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (very false) to 7 (very true).

Role Ambiguity

I feel certain how I is evaluated for a raise or promotion.

I am told how well I am doing my job.

I feel certain about how much authority I have.

I know what my responsibilities are.

I have to “feel my way” in performing my duties.

I know exactly what is expected of me.

Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

I have to work under vague directives or orders.

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (very false) to 7 (very true).

Appendix A (Continued)
Ethical Climate

The ethical climate measure that is used in this study consists of seven Likert-type items based on Schwepker's (2001). The instrument measures the domain of ethical climate by using questions from areas such as: 1) the existence of a written code of ethics, 2) the communication of ethical expectations to employees, 3) a commitment from management to ethical values, and 4) perceptions about the enforcement of ethical codes. Recent studies (e.g., Mulki, et al., 2006; Jaramillo, et al., 2006; Weeks, et al., 2004) have reported acceptable reliabilities for this scale. A seven point Likert-response format from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) is employed.

My company has a formal, written code of ethics.

My company strictly enforces a code of ethics.

My company has policies with regards to ethical behavior.

My company strictly enforces policies regarding ethical behavior.

Top management in my company has let it be known in no uncertain terms that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated.

If a salesperson in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results in primarily personal gain (rather than corporate gain), she or he is promptly reprimanded.

Appendix A (Continued)

If a salesperson in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results in primarily corporate gain (rather than personal gain), she or he is promptly reprimanded.

Scale point descriptors: Seven-point Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued)
Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) is a construct developed by Eisenberger, et al. (1986) that assesses an employee's perception that the organization values their efforts and cares about their well being. The original scale consisted of 36 items measuring the domain. A recent study by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) identified that a shorter version of the POS scale was acceptable if the original scale was too long. Subsequently, the 8-item POS scale was derived from the original 36-item scale by using the items with the highest factor loadings based on a confirmatory factor analysis.

The eight-item POS scale has demonstrated acceptable reliability in previous studies ($\alpha = .89; .90$, respectively) (Lynch, et al., 1999; Hutchinson & Garstka, 1996) and is measured using a seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Instructions: Listed below and on the next several pages are statements that represent possible opinions that YOU may have about working at _____. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by filling in the circle on your answer sheet that best represents your point of view about _____.

The organization values my contribution to its well being.

The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)

Appendix A (Continued)

The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)

The organization really cares about my well being.

Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)

The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.

The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)

The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued)
Trust

The trust construct to be used in this study consists of seven items reflecting its dimensions as identified by Gabarro and Athos (1978). Studies (Robinson, 1996; Mulki, et al., 2006) using this measure have found acceptable reliabilities ($\alpha = .82$ and $.87$; $\alpha = .87$, respectively). The original version of the scale utilizes the "employer" as a reference point for the responses. This study, however, will break out employer into both the supervisor and organization facets in order to isolate the differential effect on salesperson outcomes. The response format for this construct will consist of a seven point Likert type scale with descriptors of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree.

I believe my organization has high integrity.

I can expect my organization to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.

My organization is not always honest and truthful. (R)

In general, I believe my organization's motives and intentions are good.

I don't think my organization treats me fairly. (R)

My organization is open and upfront with me.

I'm not sure I fully trust my employer. (R)

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued)
Workplace Isolation

The workplace isolation scale that is used for this study incorporates ten Likert-type items that measure both dimensions of the domain. Appropriate reliabilities have been reported for this scale (Marshall, et al., 2007). The response format for the measure utilizes a 1 to 7 rating format (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree).

I am well integrated with the department/company where I work.

I am kept in the loop regarding company social events/functions.

I am part of the company network.

Upper management knows about my achievements.

My supervisor communicates my achievements to upper management.

I have friends available to me at work.

I have one or more co-workers available who I talk to about day-to-day problems at work.

I have co-workers available whom I can depend on when I have a problem.

I have enough people available at work with whom I can talk about my job.

I have people around me at work.

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued)
Job Satisfaction

The job satisfaction construct to be used in this study was taken from Jaramillo, et al., (2006) which was an adapted version of Spector's (1985) satisfaction measure. The scale utilizes three Likert-type items to represent the construct domain. Jaramillo, et al., (2006) found acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .92$) for the scale, consistent with prior research. The response format for this scale incorporates a one to seven agreement ratings (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree).

In general, I don't like my job. (R)

All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

In general, I like working here.

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued)
Organizational Commitment

The organizational commitment measure to be used in this study comes from Speier and Venkatesh's (2002) scale. This measure was adapted from O'Reilly and Chatman (1986). Three Likert-type items are used to represent the commitment domain. Previous researchers have found acceptable reliabilities ($\alpha = .75$; $\alpha = .83$, respectively). The response format for this measure uses a 7 point True/False items (1 = Very False to 7 = Very True).

I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

I feel a sense of "ownership" for this organization rather than just being an employee.

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued)
Turnover Intention

The turnover intention measure adopted for this study was taken from Brashear, et al., (2003) which is an adaptation of Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996). Four Likert-type items are used to measure the domain. Research (Netemeyer, et al., 1996; Brashear, et al., 2003) has shown acceptable reliabilities for this scale ($\alpha = .91; .92$, respectively). The response format for this measure includes a seven-point, strongly disagree-strongly agree options (where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree).

I often think about quitting my present job.

I intend to quit my job.

During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job.

I have searched for a new job.

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-point, Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued) Self-Rated Performance

This study will utilize a subjective performance measure obtained from Piercy, Cravens, and Lane (2001) that assesses a salesperson's self-rated task performance. Eight items are used to assess the salesperson's performance. A seven point Likert-type scale 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree) is employed. Previous studies have reported acceptable reliability estimates (e.g., Mulki, 2004, $\alpha = .74$; Piercy, Cravens, & Lane, 2001, $\alpha = .79$).

Self-Rated Performance

Building effective relationships with customers.

Making effective presentations to customers.

Keeping expenses at acceptable levels.

Achieving sales targets and other business objectives.

Understanding our products and services.

Providing feedback to management.

Understanding customer needs and work processes.

Contributing to my sales unit's revenues.

Scale Point Descriptors: Seven-Point, Likert-type Scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

Appendix A (Continued)
Dissertation Survey

Dear Respondent,

My name is Robert J. Riggle. I am a Ph.D. Candidate in Marketing at the University of South Florida. I am currently working on my dissertation and really need your help.

My research is focused on the relationship salespeople have with their employer. The success of this important research depends on you. Your participation is critical as one of the people randomly sampled for this study. The information you give will not be identified with you and your identity will remain completely anonymous! Your opinions and responses will only be used when grouped with those of other salespeople participating in the survey.

I was a salesperson like you for several years and know you have limited leisure time and probably do not like filling out questionnaires. But, this is a pioneering study to understand the important links between sales force support and how you view your job. The questionnaire is easy to fill out and will take only a few minutes to complete. Your honest responses are very important to the success of this study. After answering all the questions in the survey, please click the "submit survey" button located at the end of the questionnaire.

Appendix A (Continued)

You have my personal guarantee that I am not trying to sell you something. If you have any doubts, concerns, or questions about this survey, please call me at (813) 974-6239 or my major professor, Dr. Paul J. Solomon, at (813) 974-5995. Thank you in advance for your participation in this groundbreaking study.

Sincerely,

Robert J. Riggle,
University of South Florida

Appendix A (Continued)

1) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may or may not have about working for your current employer. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by clicking the answer that best represents your point of view. Remember, this is just asking for your opinion. There is no right or wrong answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My employer values my contribution to the company's well being.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My employer really cares about my well being.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My employer fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My employer takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My employer would ignore any complaint from me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, my employer would fail to notice.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My employer cares about my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My employer shows very little concern for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix A (Continued)

2) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may or may not have about working for your current employer. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by clicking the answer that best represents your point of view. Remember, this is just asking for your opinion. There is no right or wrong answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My company has a formal, written code of ethics.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company strictly enforces a code of ethics.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company has policies with regards to ethical behavior.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Top management in my company has let it be known, in no uncertain terms, that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If a salesperson in my company is discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results in primarily personal gain (rather than corporate gain), he/she will be promptly reprimanded.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If a salesperson in my company is	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix A (Continued)

discovered to have engaged in unethical behavior that results in primarily corporate gain (rather than personal gain), he/she will be promptly reprimanded.							
I am well integrated with the department/company where I work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I am kept in the loop regarding company social events/functions.	<input type="checkbox"/>						

3) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may or may not have about working for your current employer. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by clicking the answer that best represents your point of view. Remember, this is just asking for your opinion. There is no right or wrong answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am part of the company network.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Upper management knows about my achievements.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My sales manager communicates my achievements to upper	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix A (Continued)

management.							
I have friends available to me at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I have one or more co-workers available who I talk to about day-to-day problems at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I have co-workers available whom I can depend on when I have a problem.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I have enough people available at work with whom I can talk about my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I have people around me at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						

4) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that your sales manager may or may not have about how well you do your job. Using a "well below average" to "well above average" rating scale, please select the response that best represents your opinion of how your sales manager would rate your performance.

Appendix A (Continued)

"My Sales Manager would rate my performance on....."

	Well below average	2	3	4	5	6	Well above average
Sales commissions earned.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Exceeding sales objectives/targets.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Generating new customer sales.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Generating current customer sales.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Overall, compared to a typical sales person in my firm, my sales manager would rate my performance as...	<input type="checkbox"/>						

5) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may or may not have about working for your current sales manager. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by clicking the answer that best represents your point of view. Remember, this is just asking for your opinion. There is no right or wrong answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I believe my sales manager has high integrity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I can expect my sales manager to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My sales manager is not always honest and truthful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In general, I believe my sales manager's motives and intentions are good.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix A (Continued)

I don't think my sales manager treats me fairly.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
My sales manager is open and upfront with me.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I'm not sure I fully trust my sales manager.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
My sales manager values my contribution to the company's well being.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
My sales manager really cares about my well being.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
My sales manager cares about my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
My sales manager takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>						

6) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may or may not have about your current job. Using an agree/disagree scale, please select the one response that best expresses your point of view.

Remember, this is just asking for your opinion. There is no right or wrong answer.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix A (Continued)

I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I know exactly what is expected of me.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I know how my performance is going to be evaluated.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
I feel a sense of ownership for this organization rather than just being an employee.	<input type="checkbox"/>						

7) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may or may not have about your current job. Using a strongly disagree to strongly agree scale, please select the one response that best expresses the

Appendix A (Continued)

extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Remember, this is just asking for your opinion. There are no right or wrong answers.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
In general, I don't like my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In general, I like working here.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I often think about quitting my present job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I intend to quit my present job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
During the next 12 months, I intend to search for an alternative role (another job, full-time student, etc.) to my present job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have recently searched for a new job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8) Instructions: Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may or may not have about how well you do your job. Using a "well below average" to "well above average" rating scale, please select the response that best represents your opinion of your performance.

Appendix A (Continued)

"I would rate my performance on....."

	Well below average	2	3	4	5	6	Well above average
Sales commissions earned	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Exceeding sales objectives/targets.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Generating new customer sales.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Generating current customer sales.	<input type="checkbox"/>						
Overall, compared to a typical salesperson in my firm, I rate my performance.....	<input type="checkbox"/>						

9) How many miles do you typically work from your employer's office?

10) Approximately how many hours do you work per week?

- Under 10
- 10 to 19
- 20 to 29
- 30 to 39
- 40 to 49
- 50 to 59
- 60 to 69
- Over 70

11) Approximately how many people work in your office?

- Less than 10
- 10-50
- 51-100
- 101-250
- 251-500
- 501-1000
- More than 1000

12) How long have you worked for your current employer?

- Less than 1 year
- 1 - 3 years
- 4 - 6 years
- 7 - 9 years
- 10 - 12 years

Appendix A (Continued)

- 13 - 15 years
- More than 15 years

13) Given a typical work week, please click the approximate percentage of time you spend at your firm's office.

- Under 10%
- 11% to 19%
- 20% to 29%
- 30% to 39%
- 40% to 49%
- 50% to 59%
- 60% to 69%
- 70% to 79%
- 80% to 89%
- Over 90%

14) Given a typical work week, please click the approximate percentage of time are you in contact with your Supervisor?

- Under 10%
- 11% to 19%
- 20% to 29%
- 30% to 39%
- 40% to 49%
- 50% to 59%
- 60% to 69%
- 70% to 79%
- 80% to 89%
- Over 90%

15) Given a typical work week, please click the approximate percentage of time are you in contact with your Work Colleagues?

- Under 10%
- 11% to 19%
- 20% to 29%
- 30% to 39%
- 40% to 49%
- 50% to 59%
- 60% to 69%
- 70% to 79%
- 80% to 89%
- Over 90%

Appendix A (Continued)

16) Given a typical work week, please click the approximate percentage of time are you in contact with your Customers?

- Under 10%
- 11% to 19%
- 20% to 29%
- 30% to 39%
- 40% to 49%
- 50% to 59%
- 60% to 69%
- 70% to 79%
- 80% to 89%
- Over 90%

17) On average, how often do you work from your employer's offices?

- Daily
- Weekly
- Monthly
- less than once a month
- Never

18) In what industry does your company operate?

- Advertising/Public Relations
- Biotechnology / Biomedical
- Computers
- Construction
- Consumer Products/Retail/Wholesale
- Consulting
- Education
- Energy
- Entertainment
- Finance/Banking
- Food & Apparel
- Government-Federal/State/Local
- Insurance
- Industrial Tech
- Manufacturing
- Medical/Healthcare
- Military
- Non-Profit
- Publishing

Appendix A (Continued)

- Travel/Hospitality
- Telecommunications
- Transportation
- Utilities
- Not currently employed
- Student
- Training

19) Approximately how many people are employed by your company?

- Less than 10
- 10-50
- 51-100
- 101-250
- 251-500
- 501-1,000
- More than 1,000

20) What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

21) What is your age?

- Under 18
- 18 to 25
- 26 to 35
- 36 to 45
- 46 to 55
- 56 to 65
- Over 65

22) What is the highest level of education you have attained to date?

- High school graduate or less
- Attending/attended college 1 - 3 years
- Graduated from 4 year college
- Postgraduate study or degree

Appendix A (Continued)

23) Approximately what is your household's total combined income for the year, before taxes?

- Under \$25,000
- \$25,000 - \$29,999
- \$30,000 - \$39,999
- \$40,000 - \$49,999
- \$50,000 - \$59,999
- \$60,000 - \$74,999
- \$75,000 - \$99,999
- \$100,000 - \$124,999
- \$125,000 - \$149,999
- \$150,000 - \$174,999
- \$175,000 - \$199,999
- \$200,000 or more

24) What is your current marital status?

- Single
- Married
- Divorced or Separated
- Widowed

Thank you again for your time and effort in completing this survey!! You will now be directed to the University of South Florida Department of Marketing homepage.

APPENDIX B - TABLES

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 1.1.- POS Meta Analytic Findings

CONSTRUCT	k ^a	N ^b	r ^c	SE	Range of r	Q
ANTECEDENTS						
Compensation	7	8144	.20**	.08	.05 to .34	246.5
Distributive Justice	8	4856	.68*	.09	.57 to .76	175.9
Procedural Justice	20	7723	.72*	.13	.58 to .82	2048.9
Role Ambiguity	9	4778	-.46*	.12	-.63 to -.25	500.6
Role Conflict	8	4161	-.24***	.10	-.41 to -.05	441.0
Autonomy	6	8105	.56*	.07	.45 to .65	163.7
CONSEQUENCES						
Trust	8	3091	.68*	.09	.42 to .75	124.0
Affective Commitment	71	22478	.71*	.03	.68 to .74	1525.3
Job Satisfaction	50	26322	.61*	.03	.56 to .65	1320.8
Task Performance	26	5120	.18**	.03	-.29 to .64	131.3
Contextual Performance	35	15838	.27*	.02	.24 to .31	184.8
Intentions to Leave the Organization	28	9844	-.49*	.04	-.56 to -.42	551.9
<p>p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001 ^a = number of articles showing correlation with POS ^b = summated sample size for all studies ^c = meta analytic correlation</p>						

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 2.1. Overview of Study Hypotheses

H1	Ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on POS.
H2	Ethical climate will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity.
H3	Ethical climate will have a moderate negative impact on role conflict.
H4	Ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on organizational commitment.
H5	Ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction.
H6	POS will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity.
H7	POS will have a strong negative impact on role conflict.
H8	POS will have a moderate positive impact on performance.
H9	POS will have a strong negative impact on workplace isolation.
H10	POS will have a strong positive impact on trust in the organization.
H11	Trust in the organization will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction.
H12	Trust in the organization will have a strong positive impact on organizational commitment.
H13	Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on trust in the organization.
H14	Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on job satisfaction.
H15	Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on organizational commitment.
H16	Role ambiguity will have a weak negative impact on performance.
H17	Role ambiguity will have a moderate negative impact on job satisfaction.
H18	Role conflict will have a strong negative impact on job satisfaction.
H19	Role conflict will have a strong negative impact on organizational commitment.
H20	Job satisfaction will have a strong negative impact on turnover.
H21	Organizational commitment will have a moderate positive impact on performance.

Appendix B (Continued)
 Table 3.1. Response Rates by Organization

Organization	Wave	Invitations	Completed Responses	Response Rate by Wave
1	Wave 1 - April 4, 2006	130	57	43.8%
	Wave 2 – April 18, 2006	73	33	45.2%
	Wave 3 – May 2, 2006	40	22	55.0%
2	Wave 1 - April 4, 2006	140	120	85.7%
	Wave 2 – April 18, 2006	20	9	45.0%
	Wave 3 – May 2, 2006	11	0	00.0%
3	Wave 1 - April 4, 2006	30	7	23.3%
	Wave 2 – April 18, 2006	23	3	13.0%
	Wave 3 – May 2, 2006	20	0	00.0%

Appendix B (Continued)
 Table 4.1. Reliability Analysis

Variable	Mean	95% CI Min	95% CI Max	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
POS	5.38	5.04	5.37	.892	8
Ethical Climate	5.51	4.97	6.05	.859	6
Workplace Isolation	2.11	1.59	2.78	.837	10
Performance	4.72	4.60	4.90	.932	5
Trust	5.74	5.42	6.04	.910	7
Role Ambiguity	3.13	2.94	3.24	.773	3
Role Conflict	5.79	5.76	5.85	.837	3
Job Satisfaction	5.68	4.38	6.98	.920	3
Organizational Commitment	5.46	4.16	6.76	.831	3
Turnover	2.63	1.03	4.23	.904	4

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 5.1. Correlation Matrix

POS	.89									
Ethical Climate	.345(**)	.85								
Workplace Isolation	.543(**)	.290(**)	.83							
Trust	.462(**)	.330(**)	.358(**)	.90						
Role Ambiguity	-.536(**)	-.421(**)	-.375(**)	-.457(**)	.77					
Role Conflict	-.647(**)	-.384(**)	-.583(**)	-.360(**)	.525(**)	.83				
Organizational Commitment	.665(**)	.358(**)	.468(**)	.404(**)	-.388(**)	-.588(**)	.83			
Job Satisfaction	.638(**)	.340(**)	.360(**)	.407(**)	-.371(**)	-.462(**)	.781(**)	.92		
Turnover	-.560(**)	-.305(**)	-.262(**)	-.320(**)	.294(**)	.341(**)	-.612(**)	-.765(**)	.90	
Performance	.215(**)	.111	.327(**)	.198(**)	-.095	-.246(**)	.350(**)	.311(**)	-.304(**)	.93

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Appendix B (Continued)
 Table 6.1. Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

	POS1	POS2	POS3	POS4	POS5	POS6	POS7	POS8
POS1	1							
POS2	.644(**)	1						
POS3	.407(**)	.360(**)	1					
POS4	.653(**)	.618(**)	.331(**)	1				
POS5	.395(**)	.480(**)	.429(**)	.398(**)	1			
POS6	.498(**)	.444(**)	.450(**)	.450(**)	.450(**)	1		
POS7	.576(**)	.730(**)	.328(**)	.595(**)	.496(**)	.457(**)	1	
POS8	.585(**)	.653(**)	.526(**)	.514(**)	.581(**)	.553(**)	.662(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 6.2. Ethical Climate

	EC1	EC2	EC3	EC4	EC5	EC6
EC1	1					
EC2	.437(**)	1				
EC3	.646(**)	.558(**)	1			
EC4	.450(**)	.628(**)	.601(**)	1		
EC5	.345(**)	.608(**)	.364(**)	.534(**)	1	
EC6	.338(**)	.591(**)	.409(**)	.521(**)	.649(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 6.3. Workplace Isolation

	WI1	WI2	WI3	WI4	WI5	WI6	WI7	WI8	WI9	WI10
WI1	1									
WI2	.429(**)	1								
WI3	.391(**)	.369(**)	1							
WI4	.376(**)	.458(**)	.498(**)	1						
WI5	.309(**)	.325(**)	.331(**)	.707(**)	1					
WI6	.353(**)	.388(**)	.345(**)	.264(**)	.196(**)	1				
WI7	.257(**)	.243(**)	.248(**)	.117	.048	.616(**)	1			
WI8	.274(**)	.305(**)	.408(**)	.240(**)	.141(*)	.612(**)	.562(**)	1		
WI9	.449(**)	.433(**)	.448(**)	.295(**)	.213(**)	.604(**)	.523(**)	.539(**)	1	
WI10	.292(**)	.426(**)	.218(**)	.248(**)	.158(*)	.393(**)	.275(**)	.294(**)	.528(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 6.4. Trust

	TRUST1	TRUST2	TRUST3	TRUST4	TRUST5	TRUST6	TRUST7
TRUST1	1						
TRUST2	.606(**)	1					
TRUST3	.645(**)	.502(**)	1				
TRUST4	.749(**)	.570(**)	.603(**)	1			
TRUST5	.579(**)	.508(**)	.525(**)	.563(**)	1		
TRUST6	.707(**)	.660(**)	.557(**)	.663(**)	.580(**)	1	
TRUST7	.672(**)	.562(**)	.655(**)	.633(**)	.590(**)	.682(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 6.5. Role Ambiguity

	RA1	RA2	RA3
RA1	1		
RA2	.481(**)	1	
RA3	.513(**)	.592(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 6.6. Role Conflict

	RC1	RC2	RC3
RC1	1		
RC2	.650(**)	1	
RC3	.588(**)	.683(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 6.7. Organizational Commitment

	OC1	OC2	OC3
OC1	1		
OC2	.813(**)	1	
OC3	.580(**)	.598(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 6.8. Job Satisfaction

	JS1	JS2	JS3
JS1	1		
JS2	.820(**)	1	
JS3	.836(**)	.807(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 6.9. Turnover

	TURN1	TURN2	TURN3	TURN4
TURN1	1			
TURN2	.787(**)	1		
TURN3	.738(**)	.721(**)	1	
TURN4	.719(**)	.650(**)	.668(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 6.10. Self-Rated Performance

	PERF1	PERF2	PERF3	PERF4	PERF5
PERF1	1				
PERF2	.776(**)	1			
PERF3	.721(**)	.694(**)	1		
PERF4	.749(**)	.750(**)	.661(**)	1	
PERF5	.767(**)	.801(**)	.735(**)	.756(**)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 7.1. Measurement Model Standardized Factor Loadings

Construct and Scale Item	Standardized Factor Loadings	t-values ^a
Ethical Climate		
EC2	0.84	15.51
EC4	0.76	13.58
EC5	0.70	11.98
EC6	0.70	12.05
Perceived Organizational Support		
POS1	0.75	
POS2	0.83	13.52
POS4	0.73	11.79
POS7	0.81	13.26
POS8	0.79	12.84
Workplace Isolation		
WI1	0.57	
WI2	0.62	7.69
WI3	0.60	7.54
WI6	0.69	8.32
WI8	0.63	7.81
WI9	0.78	8.92
Supervisory Trust		
TRUST1	0.86	
TRUST2	0.73	13.47
TRUST3	0.73	13.53
TRUST4	0.82	16.32
TRUST5	0.71	12.91
TRUST6	0.83	16.41
TRUST7	0.81	15.91
Role Ambiguity		
RA1	0.64	
RA2	0.74	8.94
RA3	0.81	9.25
Role Conflict		
RC1	0.76	
RC2	0.86	13.24
RC3	0.78	12.20
Organizational Commitment		
OC1	0.87	

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 7.1 (Continued)

OC2	0.90	19.43
OC3	0.70	12.84
Job Satisfaction		
JS1	0.91	
JS2	0.92	24.11
JS3	0.88	21.53
Turnover		
Turn1	0.93	
Turn2	0.86	20.46
Turn3	0.81	17.82
Turn4	0.77	16.06
Self Rated Performance		
PERF1	0.88	
PERF2	0.89	20.45
PERF3	0.80	16.53
PERF4	0.84	18.26
PERF5	0.89	20.46
^a = all t-values are significant at the $p < .001$ level.		

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 8.1. Model Iteration Comparison

Goodness of Fit Statistics	Iteration 1 All Items	Iteration 2 Items Deleted	Iteration 3 Paths Added
Degrees of Freedom	810	456	454
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	1821.38 (p = 0.0)	813.45 (p = 0.0)	789.16 (p = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	1877.21 (P = 0.0)	784.88 (p = 0.0)	759.80 (p = 0.0)
Estimated Non-Centrality Parameter (NCP)	1067.21	328.88	305.80
90% Confidence Interval for NCP	944.79 ; 1197.31	255.15 ; 410.48	233.77 ; 385.70
Minimum Fit Function Value	7.29	3.25	3.16
Population Discrepancy Function Value	4.27	1.32	1.22
90% Confidence Interval for F0	3.78 ; 4.79	1.02 ; 1.64	0.94 ; 1.54
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.073	0.054	0.052
90% Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.068 ; 0.077	0.047 ; 0.060	0.045 ; 0.058
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < .05)	0.00	0.017	0.031
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	8.25	3.72	3.63
90% Confidence Interval for ECVI	7.76 ; 8.77	3.42 ; 4.04	3.34 ; 3.95
ECVI for Saturated Model	7.22	4.22	4.22
ECVI for Independence Model	78.75	51.44	51.44
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 496 Degrees of Freedom	19602.42	12795.30	12795.30
Independence AIC	19686.42	12859.30	12859.30

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 8.1 (Continued)

Model AIC	2063.21	928.88	907.80
Saturated AIC	1806.00	1056.00	1056.00
Independence CAIC	19876.49	13004.12	13004.12
Model CAIC	2484.08	1254.72	1242.68
Saturated CAIC	5892.48	3445.44	3445.44
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.91	0.94	0.94
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.94	0.97	0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.85	0.86	0.86
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.95	0.97	0.97
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.95	0.97	0.97
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.90	0.93	0.93
Critical N (CN)	125.44	163.64	167.96
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.18	0.16	0.14
Standardized RMR	0.090	0.080	0.072
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.74	0.84	0.84
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.71	0.81	0.82
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.66	0.72	0.72

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 9.1. Standardized Paths and t-values

Hypothesis		Sign	Model		Support ^a
			SP	(t)	
1	Ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on POS.	+	0.45	6.34***	PS
2	Ethical climate will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity.	-	-0.31	-4.01***	PS
3	Ethical climate will have a moderate negative impact on role conflict.	-	-0.07	-4.57***	PS
4	Ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on organizational commitment.	+	0.35	5.31***	S
5	Ethical climate will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction.	+	0.34	5.47***	S
6	POS will have a strong negative impact on role ambiguity.	-	-0.40	-4.22***	S
7	POS will have a strong negative impact on role conflict.	-	-0.12	-6.01***	PS
8	POS will have a moderate positive impact on performance.	+	-0.08	-0.63	NS
9	POS will have a strong negative impact on workplace isolation.	-	0.07	6.30***	NS
10	POS will have a strong positive impact on trust in the organization.	+	0.49	5.82***	S
11	Trust in the organization will have a moderate positive impact on job satisfaction.	+	0.15	1.86	NS
12	Trust in the organization will have a strong positive impact on organizational commitment.	+	0.02	0.39	NS
13	Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on trust in the organization.	-	0.38	0.61	NS

Appendix B (Continued)
Table 9.1 (Continued)

14	Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on job satisfaction.	-	-11.06	-4.79***	S
15	Workplace isolation will have a moderate negative impact on organizational commitment.	-	-7.55	-4.32***	S
16	Role ambiguity will have a weak negative impact on performance.	-	0.05	0.64	NS
17	Role ambiguity will have a moderate negative impact on job satisfaction.	-	-0.01	-0.00	NS
18	Role conflict will have a strong negative impact on job satisfaction.	-	-8.18	-6.75***	S
19	Role conflict will have a strong negative impact on organizational commitment.	-	-6.66	-7.03***	S
20	Job satisfaction will have a strong negative impact on turnover.	-	-1.05	-16.05***	S
21	Organizational commitment will have a moderate positive impact on performance.	+	0.44	3.95***	PS
<p>$p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$ ^a - S = supported; PS = Partially Supported; NS = Not Supported</p>					

Appendix B (Continued)
 Table 10.1. Post Hoc Analysis Results

Independent Variable	Adjusted R ²	Standardized Regression Beta	t	p
Perceived Organizational Support				
Tenure	.024	-.167	-2.667	.008
Education	.022	-.161	-2.579	.010
Trust in the Organization				
Contact with Supervisor	.038	.194	3.102	.002
Role Ambiguity				
Tenure	.052	.236	3.823	.000
Role Conflict				
Tenure	.027	-.175	-2.800	.006
Organizational Commitment				
Education	.022	-.160	-2.550	.011
Income	.017	.146	2.313	.022
Job Satisfaction				
Education	.021	-.158	-2.528	.012
Performance				
Contact with Customers	.038	.204	3.255	.001
Income	.119	.350	5.836	.000
Turnover				
Contact with Co-workers	.022	.161	2.561	.011

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Robert J. Riggle is currently an assistant professor of marketing at Northern Illinois University. He earned his Bachelor's degree in Public Administration and Masters of Business Administration from Henderson State University in Arkadelphia, Arkansas. During his undergraduate career, Robert was able to complete an internship in the White House Office of Presidential Inquiries under the direction of Jamie Sue Williams.

While in the Ph.D. Program at South Florida, Robert presented papers at several conferences including the American Marketing Association and the Society for Marketing Advances. Robert was named a fellow to the American Marketing Association Sheth Doctoral Consortium as well as the Society for Marketing Advances Doctoral Consortium. Robert resides in Sycamore, Illinois with his wife, Edith, and son, Jack.