THE EFFECTS OF PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION, PERFORMANCE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN A TURKISH PUBLIC ORGANIZATION

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT ON EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION, PERFORMANCE AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT IN A TURKISH PUBLIC ORGANIZATION

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The notion of person-organization fit (P-O fit) is concerned with identifying the antecedents and consequences of compatibility between employees and the organizations in which they work, as part of interactional psychology. Literature on consequences of P-O fit has demonstrated significant relationships with various individual outcomes.

The main purpose of the present study was to examine the effects of P-O fit operationalized as value congruence between the employee and the organization, on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance of employees working in a public organization at both individual-level and cross-level analysis by utilizing multiple measures of fit. The secondary purpose was to compare multiple measures of fit in terms of their power in predicting individual outcome variables and investigate the level of association between direct and indirect fit and whether direct fit contributed to prediction over and above indirect fit measures.

One hundred and eighty employees of a public organization filled out the questionnaire. Cross-level analysis could not be performed because of inadequate level of agreement between respondents. Results revealed that both direct and indirect fit measures were significant predictors of individual outcome variables at individual-level analysis except for supervisor ratings of task performance and overall performance,

which were solely predicted by direct fit. Direct fit was the most consistent and effective predictor of individual outcome variables and made a consistent unique contribution to prediction of outcome variables over and above indirect fit measures. The results and implications of the study were discussed and limitations of the study were addressed.

Keywords: Person-Organization Fit, Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, Performance.

ÖZ

BİR TÜRK KAMU KURUMUNDA KİŞİ-KURUM UYUMUNUN ÇALIŞANIN İŞ TATMİNİNE, PERFORMANSINA VE İŞE BAĞLILIĞINA ETKİLERİ

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Birey-Örgüt uyumu kavramı, etkileşimsel psikolojinin bir parçası olarak, çalışanlar ile çalıştıkları kurumlar arasındaki uyumluluğun öncelleri ve sonuçları ile ilgilidir. Kişi-Kurum uyumunun sonuçları hakkındaki literatür çeşitli sonuç değişkenleri ile anlamlı ilişkiler göstermiştir.

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı, kişisel değerler ile kurum değerleri arasındaki uyum olarak ölçülen Birey-Örgüt uyumunun çalışanların iş tatmini, performansı ve işe bağlılığı üzerindeki etkilerini hem kişisel düzeyde hem örgütsel düzeyde birden fazla uyum ölçüm yöntemi kullanarak ortaya çıkarmaktır. Araştırmanın ikincil amacı ise kullanılan uyum ölçüm yöntemlerini bağımlı değişkenleri yordama güçleri yönünden karşılaştırmak ve doğrudan uyum ile dolaylı uyum arasındaki ilişki düzeyi ile doğrudan uyumun bağımlı değişkenleri dolaylı uyumun üzerinde bir yordama katkısı olup olmadığını ortaya çıkarmaktır.

Bu amaçla, bir kamu kurumunda çalışmakta olan yüz seksen çalışana anket uygulanmıştır. Kurum kültürü konusunda yeterli düzeyde görüş birliği ortaya çıkmadığından örgütsel düzey analizi uygulanamamıştır. Sonuçlar, sadece doğrudan uyum ile anlamlı şekilde yordanan yönetici tarafından değerlendirilen iş performans ile genel performans hariç olmak üzere, hem doğrudan hem dolaylı uyumun sonuç

değişkenlerinin anlamlı yordayıcıları olduğunu göstermiştir. Doğrudan uyum en etkin yordayıcı olarak ortaya çıkmış ve sonuç değişkenlerini sürekli olarak dolaylı uyum ölçümlerinin üzerinde yordamıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları tartışılmış ve çalışmanın sınırlılıklarına değinilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Birey-Örgüt Uyumu, İşe Bağlılık, İş Tatmini, Performans.

To My Family and Hakan

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organizational behavior is concerned with understanding and predicting how people behave in organizational settings. Research in organizational behavior aims to understand and predict how people behave in organizational settings.

Most investigations in organizational research domains have focused on either situational or personal determinants of individual responses in organizations. Individuals and their employing organizations had been studied seperately on the basis of different paradigms in organizational sciences for a long time. Some researchers argued that situation is primarily responsible for individual behavior, on the other hand, some researchers argued that personality characteristics are primarily responsible for behavior. Recently, there has been an effort to integrate the individual and organizational foci of theory and research that guide the examination of the reciprocal relationships between individuals and their employing organizations. House, Rousseau and Hunt (1995) referred to this integration effort of individual and organizational theories and research as "meso". Currently, organizational behavior is theorized differently by three major perspectives: the situationist perspective, the person perspective and interactional psychology perspective.

The situationist perspective focus on situational conditions such as job design, pay systems, leadership and so forth in understanding and predicting the behavior of organization and people in them. "Situationalists" try to identify environmental elements that affect individual attitudes and behaviors and understand how people make sense of their environments (Davis, Blake and Pfeffer, 1989; Sheridan,1992). The situationist perspective is concerned with predicting individual attitudes and behaviors through the measurement of the environment.

As noted by Schneider, Goldstein and Smith (1995), the person perspective on organizational behavior sees the personality attributes of the people in a setting as the

fundamental defining characteristic of that setting. "Personalogists" suggest that individual characteristics such as personality traits, values and beliefs affect attitudes and actions in consistent and characteristic ways across situations and over time (Staw, Bell and Clausen, 1986; Weiss and Adler, 1984). The person perspective argues that one can predict behavior by measuring needs, traits, values and motives. Schneider at al.'s (1995) Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework (ASA), which argue that people seek out situations that are attractive to them, are selected to be a part of that situation and help to determine the situation by remaining in that situation, is one of the major theories that emphasize the role of people in situations. It implies that people are particularly important in the organizational context and are responsible for the structure, processes and culture of the organization,

Finally, the interactional psychology perspective examines the behavior of individuals as a function of the interaction between personal attributes and situational attributes (Chatman, 1989; House, Shane and Herold, 1996; O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991; Schneider et al., 1995). In other words, it is assumed that aspects of both individual and situation combine to influence a focal individual's response to a given situation.

1.1. The Interactional Perspective in Explaining Employee Behavior

In interactional models, the situation is regarded as something persons either must fit to be effective or something that moderates the relationship between some individual characteristic and individual effectiveness. In other words, situations are conceptualized as separate and distinct from the individuals behaving in them. Interactional perspective acknowledges that people and situations are interdependent.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) showed that job design moderated higher order need strength and job satisfaction. Schneider (1978) demonstrated that work situation is a moderator of ability-performance relationships. Also, Peters and O'Connor (1988) demonstrated the moderating role of facilitators and inhibitors in individual differences-performance relationship. The notion of person-environment fit (P-E fit) is an important concept in interactional psychology and will be discussed in detail below.

1.2. Theoretical Foundations of P-E Fit

The principle of interaction and the principle of congruence can be cited as the major theoretical foundations in explaining the notion of P-E fit:

1.2.1. Principle of Interaction

As part of the interactional psychology perspective, the notion of person-environment (P-E) fit has long been a focus of theory and research in vocational, organizational, and related research domains. A fundamental assumption in organizational psychology is that it is crucial to understand the interaction between features of the organizational context and the characteristics of individuals operating within the organization to understand behavior in organizations. Sells (1963) has presented the "principle of interaction" as one of the three postulates that can represent psychology as a science. He stated that:

> ...all theorists appear to agree that behavior, even at the most primitive levels, represents the result of some form of mediated transaction between organism and environment. Let us call this the principle of interaction, expressed by the interaction equation, R=f(O.E), that is, R(behavior) is a function of the interaction of organism and environment. Psychologists vary widely in the interest and importance that they attribute to various parts of the equation, and this is evident in the differential emphasis in the literature, on stimulus, control, response and mediational process. However, no one has challenged the generality of the basic equation (Sells, 1963, p. 696).

The notion of P-E fit is one approach for simultaneous consideration of persons and situational contexts.

1.2.2. Principle of Congruence

The principle of congruence (Aronoff and Wilson, 1985) states that the most productive environment is a result of the match between the characteristics of the person and the situation.

Person-environment interaction had been widely examined in occupational stress research and a conceptual model concerning person-environment congurence was presented by French, Rogers and Cobb(1974). A central hypothesis of the model was

that stress, which is defined as subjective P-E fit, is a major cause of behavioral, physical and psychological strains. Two basic distinctions are involved in the model.

The first distinction is made between the objective and subjective environment. The objective person is defined as the attributes of the person as they actually exist. On the other hand, subjective person is the person's perception of his/her own attributes. The objective environment refers to physical and social situations and events as they exist regardless of the person's perceptions, on the other hand, subjective environment is defined as the situation and events as perceived by the person. P-E fit theory assumes that the objective person and environment have an effect on their subjective counterparts. However, these effects are imperfect due to perceptual biases, limits on human information processing, cognitive construction processes and situational barriers that impede access to objective information (cited in, Edwards and Rothbard, 1999).

The second distinction is made between two versions of P-E fit (French et al, 1974) . One version concerns the fit between the values of the person and the supplies in the environment available to fulfill values. Values are defined as the desires of the person subsuming interests, preferences and goals; and supplies refer to aspects of the environment that can fulfill the person's values such as extrinsic rewards, pay, recognition, and intrinsic rewards. The other version concerns the fit between the demands of the environment and person's abilities. Demands refer to qualitative and quantitative requirements faced by the person and include objective demands, socially constructed norms and role expectations, whereas, abilities refer to skills, energy, time and resources the person can make use of in meeting demands.

Therefore, broadly, P-E fit can be defined as the degree of congruence or correspondence between an individual's needs, capabilities and aspirations, and the resources, demands and opportunities charactersitic of the environment. However, it should be noted that still the definition of fit is a critical and unanswered question to a large extent.

1.3. Different Forms of P-E Fit

As noted by Kristof (1996), despite the efforts of some authors to make a distinction between various types of P-E fit, frequently the lines between these types are

blurred. In relation to this, Schneider et al.(1995) proposed that fit can occur at many different levels of analysis as a construct and Kristof (1996) suggested that P-E fit be categorized into five different levels.

The boradest level of the work environment with which a person may fit is the vocational level and is defined as person-vocation (P-V) fit. The second level is the person-organization (P-O) fit, which is broadly defined as the compatibility between individuals and organizations. The third level is the person-group (P-G) fit, which is defined as the compatibility between individuals and their work groups. The fourth level is the person-job (P-J) fit, which is the fit between the abilities of a person and demands of a job. Finally, the fifth level concerns the fit between an individual and his/her supervisor, which is primarily discussed in the literature on vertical dyadic linkage. This type of fit can be labeled as person-person (P-P) fit.

Several fit theories have been developed in organizational psychology research, each focusing on a different level of analysis such as careers (Holland, 1985; Super, 1957), job choice(Hackman and Oldham,1980), organizational climate (Joyce and Slocum, 1984) and organizational culture (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991).

CHAPTER 2

PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT

Person-organization (P-O) fit has been an area of interest among both researchers and managers during recent years whose concern is the antecedents and consequences of compatibility between people and the organizations in which they work. Literature on consequences of P-O fit has demonstrated significant relationships with important individual outcome variables such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, which will be explored in detail in the following sections. Because of its relationship with individual outcome variables, P-O fit has important implications for selection practices of organizations, which is analyzed in the literature on antecedents of P-O fit. In terms of selection practices, P-O fit research is concerned with examining the phenomenon of hiring people for organizations not only for jobs (KSAs) (Chatman, 1989). Therefore, it offers a more comprehensive and flexible approach to employee selection. The focus of this study will be the consequences of P-O fit.

2.1. Definiton and Operationalizations of P-O Fit

The definition of P-O fit is a somewhat problematic issue due to multiple conceptualizations and operationalizations. P-O fit is broadly defined as the compatibility between individuals and organizations by most researchers. However, as Kristof (1996) notes, compatibility can be conceptualized in a variety of ways, resulting in two different perspectives on P-O fit. The first perspective on P-O fit concerns a distinction between supplementary and complementary fit. As stated by Muchinsky and Monahan (1987):

> Supplementary fit occurs when a person supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals in an

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environment (p. 269), and complementary fit occurs when a person's characteristics make whole the environment or add to it what is missing (p. 271).

Schneider's (1987) Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) framework can be regarded as a milestone in the beginning of P-O fit research. According to this framework, individuals are not randomly assigned to situations, but rather they seek out situations that are attractive to them. Finally individuals will be selected to be a part of that situation and help to determine the situation by remaining in that situation. Schneid er uses this framework in explaining the functioning of an organization. He argues that organizations are one situation that people are attracted to, selected to be a part of and remain with, if they are a good fit with the organization, or leave, if they are not a good fit with the organization. ASA framework can be placed within supplementary fit since it proposes that people and organization are attracted to each other based on similarity.

The second perspective on P-O fit concerns the needs-supplies and demands-abilities distinction. According to Kristof (1996), from the needs-supplies perspective, P-O fit occurs when an organization satisfies individuals' needs, desires or preferences. In contrast, the demands-abilities perspective suggests that fit occurs when an individual has the abilities required to meet organizational demands.

Specifically, four different operationalizations of P-O fit were identified as a result of Kristof's (1996) review of P-O fit literature. First operationalization focuses on measuring similarity between fundamental characteristics of people and organizations such as values and personality, and congruence between individual and organization is the most frequently used measure in this type of operationalization (Chatman, 1989, 1991; Judge and Bretz, 1992; Posner, 1992). The second operationalization of P-O fit focuses on goal congruence with organizational leaders or peers (Vancouver, Millsap and Peters, 1994; Vancouver and Scmitt, 1991). The third operationalization concerns the match between individual preferences or needs and organizational systems and structures (Bretz, Ash and Dreher, 1989; Cable and Judge, 1994; Turban and Keon, 1993). The fourth operationalization of P-O fit is the match

between the characteristics of individual personality and organizational climate (Bowen et al., 1991, Burke and Deszca, 1982; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1984).

A comprehensive definition is needed to integrate the variety of conceptualizations. Kristof (1996) proposed a model in order to generate a comprehensive definition. In the model, the relationship between the fundamental characteristics of a person such as values, goals, personality and attitudes and fundamental characteristics of an organization such as culture, climate, values, goals and norms represents "supplementary fit". On the other hand, the relationship between demands and supplies of person and organization represents "complementary fit". Specifically, organizations supply financial, physical, psychological resources and task-related and interpersonal growth opportunities that are demanded by employees. Organizations, in turn, demand time, effort, commitment, knowledge, skills and abilities from employees. It should be noted that demands and supplies are likely to be influenced by the underlying characteristics of person and organization.

As a result, P-O fit is defined comprehensively as the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when at least one entity provides what other needs, or, when they share similar fundamental characteristic or both, in the model. By this way, both the supplementary and complementary perspectives are incorporated into definition.
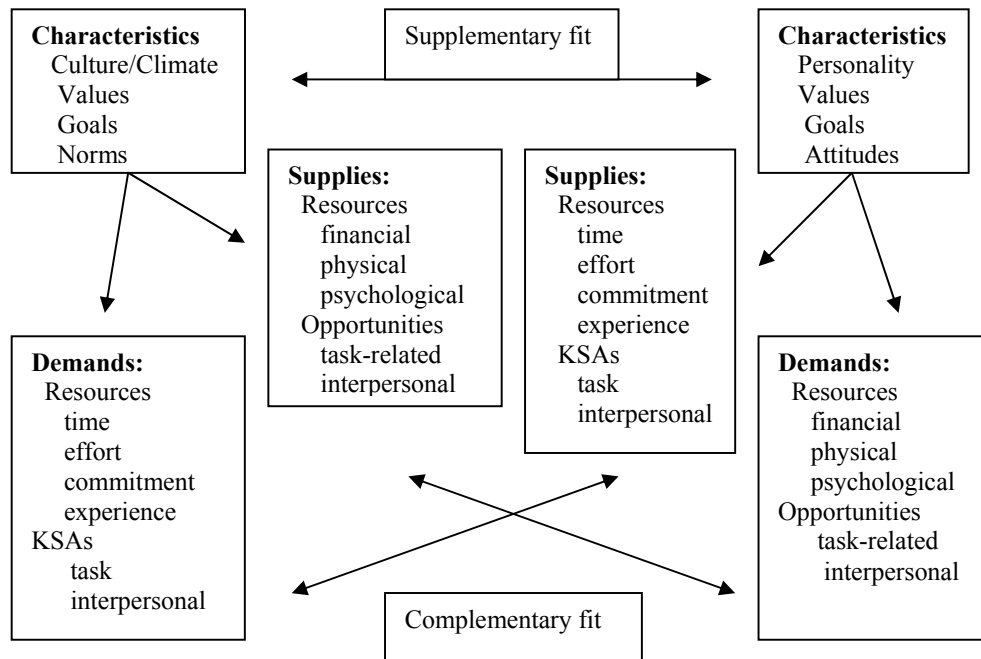
Figure 1. Various Conceptualizations of Person-Organization Fit, **Source: Kristof (1996).**

An important question in the P-O fit literature is the multidimensional nature of fit as shown by different approaches to defining fit as shown by different approaches to defining fit. In one study Bretz and Judge (1994) used multiple measures of fit and found significant cumulative effects of employee satisfaction but did not disentangle the effects of each type of fit. The study of Westerman and Cyr (2004) is most probably the only study to examine different approaches to P-O fit in order to attain a more comprehensive picture. In relation to this, they empirically examined two of the approaches to P-O fit proposed by Kristof (1996); supplementary fit (as measued by values congruence and personality congruence) and needs-supplies fit (as measured by work environment congruence) to find out if they have unique or differential effects on employee satisfaction, commitment and intention to remain with the organization. Data were collected from 105 employees in six organizations. Supplementary fit as measured by values congruence and needs-supplies fit were each found to be significant predictors of commitment and satisfaction. Moreover, all three fit measures

were related to employees' intention to remain with the organization. Thereby, the multidimesional nature of fit was empirically shown. Among different fit approaches, value congruence came out to be the most consistent and effective predictor of employee outcomes consistent with prior research.

P-O fit was operationalized as value congruence between employees and the organization in this study for several reasons: First, this type of operationalization was found out to be the most consistent and effective predictor of employee outcomes in prior research (Boxx et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Verquer et al., 2001; Westerman and Cyr, 2004). Second, values are fundamental and relatively enduring in terms of their effect on behavior and attitudes (Chatman, 1991). Values play a key role in shaping and guiding the attitudes and behaviors of individuals and they are relatively hard to change. Individual values are enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state is personally preferrable to its opposite (Rokeach, 1973). Also, organizational values provide an elaborate and generalized justification for appropriate behavior of members and for the actions and functions of the organizational system (Enz, 1988). Values are the components of organizational culture that guide employees' behaviors (Schein, 1992). Third, individual and organizational values can be directly compared, eliminating most of the problems that result from using measures that are not commensurate. Commensurate measurement refers to describing both person and organization with the same content dimensions. It ensures the mutual relevance of characteristics of person and organization. Cherrington and England (1980) has empirically demonstrated the general superiority of commensurate measures over non-commensurate measures in terms of predictive validity. Fourth, values predict a variety of individual outcomes such as satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Meglino et al., 1992; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991; Tepeci, 2001).

2.2. Measurement of P-O Fit

Issues related to measurement of P-O fit are as follows and each will be discussed below: (1) the distinctions between direct (subjective fit or perceived fit) and indirect (objective fit or calculated) fit, (2) the distinctions between individual and cross-level measures of indirect fit, (3) Common instruments for measuring indirect fit and (4) alternative methods for calculating indirect fit.

2.2.1. Direct and Indirect Fit

Direct fit can be described as the judgment that a person fits well in the environment. This type of fit is generally measured by asking people to tell the extent to which they believe a fit exists. As a result, as long as the person perceives that a fit exists, good fit is said to exist, having no regard with actual level of similarity or complementarity between person and the organization. Enz (1988) has demonstrated that perceived fit predicted departmental power, while fit as calculated by a comparison of individual and organizational characteristics failed to predict it. However, Kristof (1996) criticizes the direct measurement of fit for two reasons; first, she points out that one can not be sure that commensurate dimensions are being compared unless the value characteristics to be compared are not explicitly described. Second, she notes that consistency bias may be involved in predicting employee attitudes such as "I think that I fit well, so I must be satisfied with my job". Most researchers prefer using indirect measurement because of such shortcomings of direct measurement of fit.

On the other hand, indirect fit is measured by comparing individual characteristics and organization characteristics. Different measures were used for individual and organizational variables in the early studies of interaction between the employee and the organization (Bern and Funder, 1978; Tom, 1971). Therefore, people were described in one language, while situations were described in a totally different language (Schneider, 1987). On the other hand, "commensurate measurement" enables the utilization of a common standard in measuring individual and organization variables (Chatman, 1989). Instruments utilizing commensurate

measurement operationalize organizational culture as respondents' perception of the extent to which a set of value dimensions exist in their current organization. In accordance with this, firstly, the respondents are asked whether a set of value dimensions exist in their current organization and secondly, whether the same dimensions would exist in their ideal organization. The former question reveals organization values, while the latter reveals individual values. These values are compared to assess P-O fit. From now on, objective fit (or calculated fit) will be referred to as "indirect fit" and subjective fit (or perceived fit) will be referred to as "direct fit".

The relationship between direct fit and indirect fit has been investigated by some researchers. Cable and Judge (1996, 1997) demonstrated a significant but small correlation between direct fit and indirect fit (r =.26, p < .01; r = .25, p <.01, respectively) in two of their studies. Whereas, Enz (1988) demonstrated a moderate correlation (r = .37, p<.01) between direct fit and indirect fit. Tepeci (2001) also reported a moderate correlation between indirect fit (calculated as the sum of absolute differences between personal and organizational values and as the sum of squared differences between personal and organizational values) and direct fit, which revealed correlations of r= .52, p< .01 and r= .53, p< .01, respectively; when indirect fit was calculated as a correlation between the personal and organizational value profiles the association was low with r= .14, p< .05. On the other hand, Tepeci reported no significant relationship between direct and indirect fit at cross-level analysis. These findings suggest that direct fit and indirect fit are somewhat related, but nonetheless distinct and the relationship between them needs further investigation. Accordingly, one aim of this study was to measure both direct and indirect fit and investigate the association between direct and indirect fit.

2.2.2. Individual-level and Cross-level Indirect Fit

Individual-level fit is used to measure the relationship between each employee's preferred organizational characteristics and that employee's perception of

the existing organization. Individual is taken as the unit of analysis in this type of measurement.

On the other hand, cross-level fit is used to measure the relationship between each employee's preferred organizational characteristics and the organizational profile of those characteristics. In order to form an organizational profile, employee perceptions of the organization are aggregated. However, a certain degree of agreement between individual responses should be demonstrated for the aggregate to be meaningful, which is typically > .70 interrater reliability (Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Nunnaly and Bernstein, 1994).

Some researchers advocate the use of individual-level fit, while others support the use of cross-level fit (Nisbett and Ross, 1980; James, 1982; Kristof, 1996; Nunnaly and Bernstein, 1994). Nisbett and Ross (1980) think that individual-level measurement should be used because people's perceptions of reality drive their cognitive appraisals of and reactions to specific situations. Thus, it is argued that instead of aggregating each employee's perceptions to form an organizational profile, each employee's own perception of organizational characteristics should be used as the basis for comparison.

On the other hand, Kristof(1996) contends that aggregation of individual scores should be used in the measurement of calculated P-O fit because when variables are measured by perceptions, an aggregate is more likely to approach an objective "reality" of the organizational characteristics but she also states individual-level fit may have a stronger effect on individual outcome variables than would a fit with the organization's aggregate because individual-level differences are more real for the individual.

There are contradicting findings regarding the significance of P-O fit as a predictor of outcome variables in individual and cross level analyses. Boxx et al. (1991) found out that indirect fit is a significant predictor of individual outcomes at the individual-level analysis. Several other studies reported significant relationships between P-O fit and dependent variables in cross-level analysis (Cable and Judge, 1996, 1997; Chatman, 1991; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). Enz (1988) found that indirect cross-level P-O fit did not

account for significant variance in power. Tepeci (2001) compared his study's findings at the individual level and the cross level and found inconsistencies at different levels. These mixed results imply that further research on the comparative effects of each level of analysis is needed. So, one purpose of this study was to compare the findings at individual-level and cross-level analysis.

2.2.3. Common Instruments for Measuring Indirect Fit

As noted previously, different measures were used for individual and organizational variables in the early studies of interaction between the employee and the organization (Bern and Funder, 1978; Tom, 1971). Therefore, people were described in one language, while situations were described in a totally different language (Schneider, 1987). In other words, personal values and organizational values were measured in different contents preventing direct comparison of value profiles and making the resulting fit measure problematic.

On the other hand, "commensurate measurement" enables the utilization of a common standard in measuring individual and organization variables (Chatman, 1989). The Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reily et al., 1991), the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Meglino et al., 1989), and the Organizational Values Congruence Scale (Enz, 1988) are common instruments used for commensurate measurement.

All of these instruments operationalize organizational culture as respondents' perception of the extent to which a set of value dimensions exist in their current organization. In accordance with this, firstly, the respondents are asked whether a set of value dimensions exist in their current organization and secondly, whether the same dimensions would exist in their ideal organization. The former question reveals organization values, while the latter reveals individual values. Then, these values are compared to assess P-O fit.

2.2.3.1. The Organizational Culture Profile

The Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) which was developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) was used in this study for measuring P-O fit. It is one of

the major measures of organizational culture in use today (Agle and Caldwell, 1999; Howard, 1998; Judge and Cable, 1997). Ashkanasy, Broadfoot and Falkus (2000) reported that the OCP was one of only a few instruments to provide details concerning reliability and validity based on a review of 18 organizational culture measures published between 1975 and 1992. OCP had been revised twice since 1991; thus, the original version as well as the revised versions will be explored briefly below.

<u>The Original Version</u>

The original version of the OCP consisting of 54 value statements was developed by using exploratory factor analysis to establish eight dimensions of organizational culture, namely: innovation, attention to detail, outcome orientation, aggressiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation and decisiveness. O'Reilly et al. (1991, p. 494-495) developed factor names that best matched the descriptions in the literature of organizational culture and values at the time and that were easy to understand.

These 54 value statements can generically capture individual and organizational values and the instrument uses the Q-sort method of data collection (Block, 1978) in identifying values that characterize a target organization and an individual's preference for that particular configuration of values. In line with the general procedure for generating Q-sort profiles, respondents are asked to sort the 54 items into nine categories, ranging, for instance, from most to least desirable or from most to least characteristic, and to put a specified number of statements in each category. To develop a profile of an organization's culture, respondents familiar with the organization are asked to sort the 54 value statements according to the extent to which the items are characteristic of the organization. For individual preferences, individuals are asked to sort the same items according to the extent to which these values would exist in their ideal organization.

An average reliability coefficient of 0.88 was reported by O'Reilly at al. (1991), while, an average reliability of 0.86 was established by Vandenberghe (1999). Vandenberghe's (1999) research was conducted in a European context (Belgium) and

a different occupational setting (health care industry) compared to the original US study.

Chatman (1991) conducted a number of tests to assess the reliability and validity of OCP in his study. 16 MBA students from a large university Q-sorted the 54 items twice, once in February of the first year of their program and again 12 months later. Correlations over the year were quite high (average r =.73; range = .65-.87), indicating stable preferences.

Another concern regarding the OCP was the inherent predetermined ordering that biases responses. That is, there is the potential for placing items based on how culturally approved each item is, thereby, resulting in social-desirability bias. To avoid this, items in the OCP were cast in neutral terms and 8 organizational behavior doctoral students were asked to Q-sort the items into nine categories using "most socially desirable" to "most socially undesirable" as their anchors. This social-desirability profile was compared to eight firm profiles. They were not significantly correlated (median correlation = .18), so, organizational members did not appear to sort the OCP in a way to make their firm look good.

Revised Versions

The first revision involved the reduction of the number if items from 54 to 40 (Cable and Judge, 1997). The second revision involved developing a more user-friendly version of the OCP that has been modernized through its factor names and structure to reflect more precisely the competitive and socially-aware nature of the business world (Sarros, Gray, Densten and Cooper, in press). The revised version of the instrument was validated on a large, nation-wide sample of Australian business executives. Different from the previous analyses of OCP conducted by O'Reilly et al. (1991) that involved exploratory factor analysis in establishing the dimensions, this revised version involved using confirmatory factor analysis(CFA), which tests the theoretically derived, hypothetical stucture of factors. One main advantage of CFA over exploratory factor analysis is that content adequacy, which is based on the theoretical correspondence between a measure's items and a factor's delineated

content domain, can be addressed. The new version of the OCP consisted of 28 items and had a new factor structure with seven factors, namely; supportiveness, innovation, competitiveness, performance orientation, stability, emphasis on rewards, and social responsibility. Two new factors, stability and social responsibility were added. The results established internal reliability and validity of the new version. In addition to this, the study investigated the predictive, content and construct validity of the instrument and demonstrated satisfactory results as well, which had been a major shortcoming of the related research field. However, one major limitation of the study was validating the new instrument in only Australian culture. Further research in a variety of organizational and national cultures is needed to test whether the new version of the OCP is valid elsewhere.

Organizational culture is formed by different aspects of organizational life such as strategies, interpersonal relationships and context which can be different within and across nations. Since the sample of interest for Sarros et al. (in press)'s study in developing a revised version of the OCP was Australian managers, their perceptions of organizational culture might not be generalizable to other nations. As noted by Sarros et al. (in press), international 62-nation GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Program) project revealed identifiable considerable idiosyncrasies of Australian leader behavior such as higher levels of egalitarianism compared to their Anglo American and European counterparts. Because of these potential idiosyncrasies, 54 items of the original version of the OCP was used in this study.

2.2.4. Alternative Methods for Calculating Indirect Fit

There are three ways of calculating fit at both the individual-level and cross-level: (1) difference scores, (2) correlations between individual and organizational value items, and (3) polynomial regression.

2.2.4.1. Difference Scores

The first way is computing difference scores. In this method, the arithmetic difference between perceived and preferred value ratings is calculated for each of the commensurate value items. Then the sum of differences is computed by one of three ways; a) summing the differences, by which positive and negative differences are distinguished but positive and negative values are offset when summed, b) summing the absolute value of differences, by which equal weight is assigned to differences regardless of the direction so that the sum is more meaningful, c) summing the squared differences, by which the difference is again nondirectional and also larger differences have greater weight.

Edwards (1993, 1994) has criticized difference scores for four main problems. First, the effects of positive and negative differences are the same. Second, contribution of individual differences to the overall score is not distinguished when summed. Third, when the same individuals form the person and organization profiles, the correlation between these items is artificially inflated and the reliability of the differences scores is reduced. Fourth, difference scores often fail to explain outcome variance beyond that explained by component measures individually.

On the other hand, as a response to Edward's critisizms, Tisak and Smith (1994) argue that since many aspects of organizations and individuals influence attitudes and behaviors overall P-O fit is more meaningful than fit on each value dimension independently. Accordingly, they claim that multiple value dimensions should be incorporated to the assessment of fit. In addition to this, they argue that difference scores have the potential to capture something conceptually different from their components, which are individual and organizational variables. Finally, they claim that reliability of the difference scores is an empirical question that should be investigated on a study-by-study basis.

2.2.4.2. Correlation

As an alternative to computing difference scores, correlation between individual and organizational profiles, which is known as the Q score, can be

computed. This method has been used widely in P-0 fit research (Cable and Judge, 1996; 1997; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). This Q-score method compares the perceived and preferred scores for the same value items by computing the correlation between the paired responses. The correlation is based on as many data points as there are items. Cable and Judge (1996), argue that correlation score reflects a more conservative and uninflated estimate of fit than difference scores because correlation represents similarity in profile distributions.

Edwards (1994), on the other hand, directs the same criticism regarding the difference score method to correlation method such as concealing the contribution of individual differences to the overall P-O fit score, low reliability, and inability to explain additional variance. In addition to these, he claims that perceived and preferred profiles with large discrepancies but similar shapes can reveal high correlation values; while profiles with small discrepancies but dissimilar shapes can produce low or even negative correlation scores.

2.2.4.3. Polynomial Regression

Edwards (1993, 1994) recommended using polynomial regression for measuring the individual effects of person (P), organization (O) and fit. This method involves regressing the outcome variable on P and O, and P x O interaction term serves as the measure of fit. Edwards found out that the proportion of variance explained in the dependent variable is increased in this method when compared to other two methods.

Kristof (1996) recommended using multiple measures of fit in the studies to better assess the relative effect of each. In accordance with this, Tepeci (2001) investigated the relative predictive power of these alternative measurement methods of fit and could not find a definite answer. However, he claimed that findings such as moderate correlations between direct fit and indirect fit at the individual level and the weak effect of correlation and difference scores in the cross level analysis could be regarded as signs that Edward's perspective is true. He claimed that further research is needed and recommended using alternative measures of perceived fit and multiple

measures of calculated fit, including correlations, difference scores, polynomial regression to better understand the influence or predictive power of P-O fit at both individual-level and cross-level analyses. In accordance with this, the present study will utilize correlation, difference scores and direct fit as measures of fit.

2.2.5. Consequences of P-O Fit

Up to now, numerous studies investigating the relationship between P-O fit and various individual outcome variables have been conducted and review of the literature demonstrated significant relationships.

Downey et al. (1975) conducted a study in which he tested the proposition that organizational climate interacts with individual personality in influencing job satisfaction and performance. Data was collected from 92 managers from one industrial firm who work at different hierarchical levels and functional areas of an organization. Job performance was measured in terms of job movements within the past four years and percent salary increases from 1971 to 1973. JDI was used for measuring job satisfaction. Results revelaed that individuals having high need for social contact and interdependence with other people were better performers (as measured by number of promotions or percent salary increases for managers) in organizations of humanitarian climates when compared to less sociable co-workers. Also, individuals with high need for social contact and interdependence with other people and who perceive the organization's climate as open and empathetic and set high standards for achievement were more highly satisfied with their supervisor and pay than those with a similar personality need structure but who perceive the organization's climate as closed, bureaucratic and impersonal. Thus, the study provided support for the congruence concept.

Tziner (1987) investigated the effect of P-O fit on work performance of industrial employees by using self-reports. Results indicated that employees reporting low discrepancies between their organization's climate for achievement and their preferences for such a climate had higher self-appraised work performance than those reporting high discrepancies.

Meglino et al. (1989) investigated the fit between supervisors and subordinates on the basis of work value congruence. Value congruence was assessed using the Comparative Emphasis Scale, which is a 24-item forced-choice instrument yielding ipsative rankings of the four work values; achievement, fairness, honesty and helping and concern. Results indicated that congruence in values was associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and reporting to work on time.

O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) assessed person-organization fit on the basis of value congruency. Data were collected from 131 first-year M.B.A. students, 93 M.B.A. students, 171 new accountant and 128 senior accountants, 96 certified public accountants and 730 middle-level managers employed by a government agency, each representing a separate group using OCP. Results indicated that a high level of person-culture fit was positively associated with organizational commitment, satisfaction and longevity with an organization, as hypothesized. Results of regression analyses demonstrated that person-organization fit predicts job satisfaction and organizational commitment a year after fit was measured (Time 1) and actual turnover after two years (Time 2). Person-organization fit was correlated with normative commitment, which was defined as the attachment to an organization based on value congruence.

Boxx et al. (1991) examined the impact of organizational values and value congruency on satisfaction, commitment and cohesion within a not-for-profit setting. Data was collected from 387 highway and transportation department executives. A self-administered survey comprising of measures developed or modified from other research was used to collect information on organizational values, value congruency, comm.itment, satisfaction and cohesion. Seven organizational values which were found to be related to performance and excellence in the marketplace by Peters and Waterman (1982) were used for assessing actual as well as preferred level of values. The findings indicated that organizational values as well as value congruence affect satisfaction, commitment and cohesion. The findings implied that if an organization lacks value studies or value congruence is low action should be taken to change the organization's value orientation.

Chatman (1991) investigated whether P-O fit explains additional variance in individual outcomes beyond that explained by individual and organizational characteristics. Data were collected from 171 entry-level auditors in eight of the largest U.S. public accounting firms and the congruence of their values with those of the organization was assessed. The OCP was used to measure person-organization fit. Overall satisfaction was measured with Kunin's Faces Scale. Intent to leave was assessed with four Likert-scaled questions. She found P-O fit to be a better predictor of satisfaction, commitment, turnover intention, and length of stay than either personal characteristics or situational characteristics, or both combined. Also, P-O fit at entry explained significant variance in satisfaction and departure measured a year and two and one-half years later, respectively. And, changes in fit over the first year affected satisfaction but not departure. This indicated that departure is affected by the absolute level of fit only and not by relative changes in fit. Moreover, P-O fit was related with employee outcomes even after controlling for P-J fit.

As noted previously, one alternative operationalization of P-O fit is goal congruence. In one study, Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) operationalized P-O fit as goal congruence between employees and the organization and investigated relationships between organization members' agreement on organizational goals and their attitudes and intentions in a study of teachers and principals from over 350 secondary schools. Specifically, the goal congruence between hierarchical levels (supervisor-subordinate) and within a level (member-constituency) was examined. The results confirmed the hypotheses such that superior-subordinate (teacher-principal) and member-constituency (teacher-other teachers) goal congruence were positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment and negatively with intention to quit, with member-constituency congruence having the greatest impact on teachers' organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intention to quit.

Adkins, Ravlin and Meglino (1992) also investigated fit between co-workers on the basis of work value congruence. It was hypothesized that employees with higher value congruence would experience greater satisfaction and organizational commitment and exhibit higher levels of performance. Value congruence was assessed

by CES; commitment was assessed using the 15-item Porter and Smith (1970) Commitment Scale; overall and facet job satisfaction was assessed by the short version of Hackman and Oldham scale (1975) and finally, data on performance of employees was obtained from company records at the time the survey was conducted. Data were collected from 191 production workers. Results indicated that the extent to which job required the individual to work closely with others moderated the relationship between work value congruence and performance. Also, individual's tenure with the organization moderated the relationship between work value congruence and facet satisfactions and attendance.

Posner (1992) extended the research into the person-organization fit (values congruency) phenomenon by investigating the impact of demographic factors, such as age, gender, ethnic background, organizational level, management position, length of service, and functional area, on work attitudes. The study was conducted in a large multinational manufacturing company and the survey was mailed to all domestic management and professional employees making a total of 1634 employees. A 3-item scale was used assessing work attitudes. Specifically, one item measured motivation, one item measured commitment and one item measured the esprit the corps (teamwork) of company employees. There were two hypotheses in the study. The first postulated a positive relationship between person-organization values congruency and work attitudes. The second, in the form of a null hypothesis, proposed that individual differences would have no impact on relationships between person-organization values congruency and work attitudes. Person-organization values congruency was assessed in relationship to alignment with the organization's six core principles. Both hypotheses were supported. Results indicated that person-organization values congruency was directly related to motivation, commitment and esprit de corps of company employees and this relationship was not moderated by demographic factors.

Ostroff (1993) investigated the relative, combined and interactive effects of organizational climates and personal orientations on individual's attitudes and behaviors in organizations, which are satisfaction, commitment, involvement in work, adjustment to work, performance, stress, turnover intent and absenteeism. The

questionnaires assessing personal orientation and work outcomes were completed by 553 teachers from 29 secondary schools. Questionnaire assessing climate was completed by another group of 581 teachers and climate scores based on the perceptions of this group of teachers were assigned to the other group. Results indicated that both organizational climates and personal orientations were significantly related to work-related attitudes and behaviors. It was demonstrated that personal orientations made significant contribution to explaining individual's outcomes, independent of the climates of the organizations. However, contrary to hypothesis, the climate-person orientation interaction did not significantly add to the understanding of individual's behaviors and attitudes beyond that already by climates and personal orientations alone.

Bretz and Judge (1994) conducted one of the few studies that examine the effects of multiple conceptualizations of fit on work attitudes. Fit was operationalized in four ways, which are value congruence (supplementary), individual personality and organizational image similarity (supplementary), the degree to which organizational reinforcement systems met individuals' needs (needs-supplies), and the extent to which individual KSAs meet job requirements (more related with P-J fit). Results showed a powerful direct effect of P-O fit on organizational satisfaction and organizational tenure, and an indirect effect of fit on job promotions, and salary level, to a lesser extent.

Some researchers (eg.Judge and Bretz, 1992; Cable and Judge, 1994, 1996, 1997; Ash, Dineen and Noe, 2002) investigated the consequences of P-O fit in terms of selection practices. Judge and Bretz (1992) examined the relationships between work value congruence and job choice. Data were collected from college graduates through CES and respondents were provided job scenarios incorporating the valued of the CES. Results indicated that individuals tended to prefer jobs with dominant work values consistent with their own.

Cable and Judge (1994) investigated the effect of P-O fit on job seekers job search and job choice decisions. Specifically, they investigated the degree to which pay preferences influenced job search decisions in hypothetical as well as actual

organizations and the degree to which job seekers' dispositional characteristics had an effect on preferences for certain compensation attributes. The sample was made up of 171 college students who were seeking jobs during the study. Results revealed that different types of job seekers were attracted to different pay systems and suggested that the attractiveness of pay policies can be increased by greater levels of fit between individual personality traits and compensation system characteristics.

Cable and Judge (1996) was the first study to examine the P-O fit construct as it is interpreted by employees and to investigate the determinants and outcomes of employees' subjective P-O fit perceptions. They investigated job seekers' and new employees' subjective person–organization (P-O) fit perceptions and studied 96 active job seekers across three time periods, from their initial job search activity to their intended turnover from the jobs they accepted. Hypotheses were motivated by P-O fit, job choice, and organizational entry research and focused on the determinants of job seekers' and new employees' P-O fit perceptions, and the extent of importance of P-O fit perceptions relative to job attributes in job choice decisions and work attitudes such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction as well as turnover intentions and willingness to recommend the organization. Results indicated that job seekers' P-O fit perceptions are predicted by the congruence between their values and their perceptions of recruiting organizations' values but not by their demographic similarity with organizational representatives. Results also suggested that P-O fit perceptions predict job choice intentions and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, willingness to recommend the organization and turnover intentions, even after controlling for the attractiveness of job attributes. Finally, results suggested that job seekers can manage their future work attitudes by weighting P-O fit in their job choice decisions.

In another study, Cable and Judge (1997) developed and tested a model of person–organization fit and organizational hiring decisions, using data from 38 interviewers making hiring decisions about 93 applicants. Results suggested that interviewers can assess applicant–organization values congruence with significant levels of accuracy and that interviewers compare their perceptions of applicants' values with their organizations' values to assess person–organization fit. Results also

suggested that interviewers' subjective person–organization fit assessments have large effects on their hiring recommendations relative to competing applicant characteristics, and that interviewers' hiring recommendations directly affect organizations' hiring decisions. Thus, one consequence of interviewers' subjective P-O fit perceptions was organization's hiring decisions.

Ash, Dineen and Noe (2002) examined applicant attraction in the context of Web-based recruitment. A P-O fit framework was adopted in examining the relationship between the provision of feedback to individuals regarding their potential P-O fit with the organization and attraction. It is the first study to adopt a theoretically grounded approach to issues of P-O fit and applicant attraction in the context of Web-based recruitment. The relationship between attraction on the one hand, and objective and subjective P-O fit, agreement with fit feedback and self-esteem were also investigated. Results indicated that both feedback level and objective P-O fit were positively related to the attraction. And, subjective P-O fit fully mediated these relationships. Also, attraction was related to the interaction of objective fit, feedback and agreement, and objecive fit, feedback and self-esteem. This study emphasizes that the provision of P-O fit feedback through organizational Web sites can result in higher attraction of potential employees.

Vandenberghe (1999) replicated the earlier study of O'Reilly et al. (1991) on the effect of level of congruence between an organizaton's culture and its new employees' value preferences on turnover. However, the study was conducted in a different organizational setting and country; in the health care industry of Belgium. Data was collected from 630 respondents working in hospitals. OCP was used for assessing personal and organizational values. Results revealed that recruits having value profiles similar to their employing organizations were more likely to stay with the organization during the early employment period. Also, the study demonstrated a cross-cultural generalizability of the structure of the OCP by providing preliminary evidence that the OCP can be used in another country with different language.

Goodman and Svyantek (1999) investigated the influence of P-O fit on employees'task and and contextual performance in their study. It was hypothesized

that the fit between employees'desired organizational cultures and their actual organizational cultures would predict contextual performance such as helping behaviors toward other employees or the organzation. They collected data from 221 employees occupied with different jobs and working in 11 different departments of a manufacturing organization. A survey was administered for assessing organizational culture and satisfaction level. Organizational citizenship behavior measure developed by Smith, Organ and Near (1983) was used for measuring contextual performance. The immediate supervisor of employees rated contextual as well as tsak performance of employees. Results supported the hypothesis such that perceptions of the organizational culture and the discrepancy between employees' ideal organizational culture and their perceptions of the actual organizational culture were important in predicting both contextual and task performance. The study also highlighted that the "reward" component of organizational culture was the predictor that influenced all forms of performance. This suggested that contextual performance was not that free.

Edwards (1996) and Edwards and Rothbard (1999) examined the relationship between fit and outcome variables from a different point of view in two of his studies in the sense that whether an excess of supplies over values (can be regarded as "overfit") or vice versa (can be regarded as "underfit") had unique consequences. Edwards (1996) examined two versions of the person-environment (P-E) fit approach to stress, one representing the fit between environmental supplies and employee values (S-V fit), and another the fit between environmental demands and employee abilities (D-A) fit. Analyses used data from 428 respondents who completed four-item measures of supplies, values, demands, abilities, importance, and two forms of strain, which were job dissatisfaction and tension, in reference to five sets of managerial tasks. Results indicated that strain increased not only when supplies and values differed, but also when they were both low in an absolute sense. And, unlike job dissatisfaction, tension was positively related to supplies and, to a lesser extent, negatively related to values. For D-A fit, job dissatisfaction decreased as demands and abilities increased. And, tension was positively related to demands and negatively related to abilities. Results indicated that insufficient supplies were related to

dissatisfaction at all levels of importance but excess supplies were related to dissatisfaction only when importance was moderate or high. A weak moderating effect for importance was found in the relationship between D-A fit and job dissatisfaction. Comparisons of S-V and D-A fit indicated that, although both versions of fit were related to both forms of strain, S-V fit was more strongly associated with job dissatisfaction, whereas D-A fit was more strongly associated with tension. These conflicting findings suggested that S-V and D-A fit were related to different forms of affect. Specifically, a link between deviation of values from supplies and displeasure as reflected by job dissatisfaction and a link between deviation of demands from abilities and tension was proposed.

Edwards and Rothbard (1999) used person-environment fit theory to examine how the comparison of work and family experiences to the person's values relates to well-being. The relationship between environmental supplies and personal values fit and well-being was investigated on four value dimensions- autonomy, relationships, security and segmentation- that were considered as important human values for both work and family. Data were collected from 1758 employees at a large public university, who completed 4 item measures of supplies and values for value dimensions. Measures of overall well-being included anxiety, depression, irritation and somatic symptoms. For autonomy, well-being increased as supplies increased toward values and continued to increase as supplies exceeded values, decreasing only when excess supplies were substantial. Also, well-being was higher when supplies and values were both high than both were low. For relationships, well-being increased as supplies increased towards values and continued to increase as supplies exceeded values, and well-being was higher when supplies and values were both high than when both were low. For security, well-being increased as supplies increased toward values and continued to increase as supplies exceeded values, although to a smaller degree; but, well-being was not higher when supplies and values were both high than when both were low. For segmentation, contrary to predictions, well-being was higher when segmentation supplies and values were both high than when both were low.

Tepeci (2001) investigated whether P-O fit contributed to explanations of employee job satisfaction, intent to quit, and willingness to recommend the organization beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values and the relationship between direct and indirect fit. He developed an instrument called Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP) for measuring individual and organizational values. 10 employees from 34 table-service restaurants in the US except fast food restaurants participated in the study. Results indicated that perceived fit explained the most outcome variance, followed by culture, calculated fit, and individual values. In both individual-level and cross-level analyses, perceived P-O fit explained additional variance in employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend beyond the effects accounted for by organizational culture and individual values. At the individual-level, results indicated that calculated P-O fit did not add to the explanation for any of the outcome variables. In cross-level analysis, calculated P-O fit demonstrated very minor additional explanation. When used as the only independent variable at the individual-level, calculated fit was asignificant predictor of individual outcomes. In cross level analyses, however, calculated P-O fit did not explain significant variance in the dependent variables even though this direct cross-level relationship is relatively well established in the literature. Organizational culture demonstrated an important effect for all three outcome variables, so situationists' belief that behavior is predicted by characteristics of organizations is supported. However, individual values had low effect on outcomes.

As explored briefly in Chapter 2, the study of Westerman and Cyr (2004) contributed to P-O fit literature by extending the research in two distinct ways: first, by examining whether P-O fit was multidimensional through utilizing different approaches to fit on a single data set; second, by testing whether the relationship between P-O fit and outcome variable was more complex than direct relationships. 105 employees in six organizations in the western United States participated in the study. Organizational Culture Profile was used for measuring values. Work Environment Scale (Moos, 1994) was used for measuring work environment congruence; NEO-FFI Form S (Cost and McCrae, 1991) was used for personality

congruence; Short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was used for measuring satisfaction; Items developed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) were used for organizational commitment and items developed by O'Reilly et al. (1991) were used for measuring intent to remain. It has been noted previously in Chapter 2 that the multidimensional nature of P-O fit had been demonstrated. Another contribution of the study was to demonstrate the relationship between fit measures and outcome variables are more complex than direct relationships. It was hypothesized that employee satisfaction and organizational commitment would mediate the relationship between three fit measures and employees' intention to remain with the organization. Results indicated that satisfaction and commitment fully mediated the relationship between work environment congruence and intention to remain and partially mediated the relationship between values congruence and intention to remain. However, no significant mediation effect was found for personality congruence. Thus, mixed results were obtained in terms of mediation.

The outcomes of high levels of fit have been questioned at the organizational level. Arygris (1957) argued that when organizations are made up of too many people of the right type, lack of innovation as a result of myopic perspectives, an inability to adapt to the changing environment are the potential organizational outcomes. Likewise, Schneider et al. (1995) warn that high levels of P-O fit can potentially result in a harmful homogeneity in an organization. He argues that while high levels of P-O fit may result in increased satisfaction, increased commitment and fewer conflicts, excessive fit may lead to conformity and lack of innovation. Schneider and his colleagues argue that homogeneity of this kind can be beneficial in the early stages of organization in terms of enhancing coordination and communication, but can result in inflexibility and resistance to change in later stages of organizational life. Therefore, dark side of fit should also be considered.

2.2.6. Discussion of the Literature Findings

All reviewed studies demonstrated a significant relationship between person-organization fit and some positive and negative individual outcomes, except for

Ostroff's (1993) study. Therefore, almost all studies verified the relationship between person-organization fit and a positive or negat ive individual outcome. The reviewed studies can be mainly categorized as follows; studies that focused on employee attitudes, intentions and behaviors as consequences of P-O fit and studies that focused on job seekers', applicants' and new employees' attitudes, intention and behaviors and organizational recruitment and selection activities as consequences of P-O fit.

Studies that used various employee attitudes, intentions and behaviors demonstrated that congruence between a person and the organization is positively related to the individual's adjustment to the firm, satisfaction, and negatively with intention to quit (Chatman, 1991), is a predictor of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover (O'Reilly et al., 1991), is directly related to positive work attitudes (Posner, 1992), is positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction and negatively related to intention to quit (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991), is associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and reporting to work on time (Meglino et al., 1989), result in a preference for staying with the organization during early employment period (Vandenberghe, 1999), is a predictor of task and contextual performance (Goodman and Svyantek, 1999), is positively associated with job satisfaction, willingness to recommend the organization and intent to remain (Tepeci, 2001), is positively related to both self-appraised work performance (Tziner, 1987) and performance as measured by percent salary increased or promotions (Downey et al.), has a direct effect on organizational satisfaction, organizational tenure and an indirect effect on job promotions and salary level (Bretz and Judge, 1994).

Two studies investigating the effect of moderators on the relationship between P-O fit and work-related variables differed from each other in terms of the moderator variables used. One study demonstrated that demographic variables do not moderate the relationship (Posner, 1992) and one study demonstrated that the extent to which job required the individual to work closely with others moderated the relationship between work value congruence and performance and individual's tenure with the organization moderated the relationship between work value congruence and facet satisfactions and attendance (Adkins et al., 1992). One study investigated the effect of

mediation (Westerman and Cyr, 2004) and found out mixed results such that work attitudes (organizational commitment and job satisfaction) had a full mediation effect for the relationship between intention to remain and work environment congruence; partial mediation effect for values congruence and no significant mediation effect for personality congruence. Ostroff' s (1991) study differed from others in that climate-person interactions did not significantly explain variance in individuals' behaviors and attitudes beyond that explained by the main effects of climate and personal orientations.

Two studies investigated whether the direction of congruence (measure of supplies is in excess of measure of values or vice versa) has an effect on outcomes in addition to examining the relationship between congruence and outcome variables. One study demonstrated that noncongruence is linked to job dissatisfaction and tension and insufficient supplies were related to job dissatisfaction at all levels of importance of values, while excess supplies was related to dissatisfaction only when importance level was moderate or high (Edwards, 1996). Another study demonstrated that value congruence is positively related with well-being of individuals and excess level of supplies over values results in higher levels of well-being (Edwards and Rothbard, 1999).

Studies focusing on job seekers', applicants' and new employees' attitudes, intentions and behaviors and organizational recruitment and selection activities as consequences of P-O fit demonstrated that P-O fit is positively related to attractiveness of pay policies (Cable and Judge, 1994), plays a role in higher attraction of employees (Ash et al., 2002), and related with job choice (Judge and Bretz, 1992).

Apart from these, Arygris (1957) and Schneider et al. (1995) argued that high levels of fit can result in myopic perspectives and an inability to adopt to the changing environment at the organizational level.

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CHAPTER 3

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

3.1. Individual Outcome Variables

      The review of the consequences of P-O fit literature revealed that work attitude variables such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been extensively used as outcome variables. On the other hand, the use of behavioral outcome measures such as performance has been relatively rare.

      Because of their importance for practitioners and popularity in organizational settings, this study used job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job performance as individual outcome measures, which are reviewed below.

3.1.1. Job Satisfaction

      Job satisfaction is defined as "the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs (Spector, 1997, p.2). this definition implies that job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their jobs.

      Job satisfaction is one of the most frequently measured organizational variables in both research and applied settings for several reasons. First, organizations often want to know the state of the employee morale over time because of its influence on employee behavior and job performance and thus, some form of job satisfaction measurement is often included in employee opinion surveys. Second, much work has been done to understand the antecedents of job satisfaction from three lines of reserach in organizational behavior; the dispositional, situational and interactional perspective.

As cited above, a significant relationship between P-O fit and job satisfaction has been empirically shown in interactional research (Downey et al. 1975; Meglino et al., 1989; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991; Tepeci, 2001).

While most of the researchers and practitioners measure global job satisfaction, some researchers are interested in measuring different facets or dimensions of satisfaction. Measuring satisfaction on the basis of different facets enables researcher to make a more comprehensive examination of this work attitude with regard to critical job factors such as co-workers, pay, job conditions, supervision, nature of the work and benefits.

Reliable and valid measures of both global and facet job satisfaction have been developed. Widely used measures include: The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1997); the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969); the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist, 1967); and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist, 1967) will be used in this study. The instrument was translated into Turkish and its reliability and validity was established for Turkish participants by Bilgiç (1998). This instrument will be used for measuring global job satisfaction by averaging the responses for facet satisfactions. Although the aim of the study is to obtain a global job satisfaction score and use it in the analyses, the supervisors working in the organization especially stated that they were interested in the level of facet satisfactions. Thus, independent of the aim of the study, in order to provide supervisors with data on facet satisfactions of employees, this instrument was selected for use.

3.1.2. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is another popular attitudinal variable in the work domain. It is defined as the extent to which one identifies with and is involved in an organization. It is also conceptualized as an acceptance and internationalization of organization's goals, a willingness to work hard to achieve those goals, and the desire to stay with the organization. Meyer and Allen (1991) state that organizational

commitment is "a psychological state that a) characterizes the employee's relationships with the organization, and b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization" (p. 67). Other researchers use similar definitions that refer to an employee's attachment, goal congruency, identification, loyalty and allegiance to their organization.

Researchers generally agree there are three "foci" used to classify types of organizational commitment as conceptualized by Meyer and Allen (1991), which are affective, continuous, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to employees' perceptions of their emotional attachment to or identification with their organization. Continuance commitment refers to employees' perceptions of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Finally, normative commitment refers to employees' perceptions of their obligation to their organization. For instance, if an organization is loyal to the employee or has supported his/her educational efforts, the employee may report higher degrees of normative commitment. This three-way classification enables the identification of the underlying basis for each type of commitment and researchers have clarified the unique antecedents and outcomes related to each type (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky, 2002). This study will use this three-way classification of organizational commitment.

Like job satisfaction, reliable measures of the three types of commitment have also been developed and validated (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993). Items developed by Meyer et al. (1993) were revised with the addition of emic items, translated into Turkish by Wasti (1999) and reliability and validity of the items were established for Turkish public sector employees. Moreover, the etic-emic scales demonstrated enhanced psychometric properties when administered in Turkey.

As cited previously, a significant relationship between P-O fit and organizational commitment has been empirically shown in interactional research (Meglino et al., 1989; Chatman, 1991; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991). On the other hand, apart from O'Reilly et al. (1991)'s study, this three-way classification of organizational commitment was not used in the reviewed studies above; instead a global measure of organizational commitment was investigated. Even in O'Reilly et al.'s (1991) study, a measure of normative commitment was obtained by

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factor analysing the overall organizational commitment measure without having a prior preference for using normative commitment as a work attitude variable. However, normative commitment was defined differently in O'Reilly et al.'s (1991) study, as the attachment to the organization based on value congruence. So, it can not be directly compared with this study's findings.

3.1.3. Job Performance

An evaluation of employee performance is necessary for several reasons such as compensation, promotion, employee training and feedback and personel research.

There is a wide agreement that job performance is a multidimensional construct (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, Gasser, and Oswald, 1996). Two general factors have received the most attention among the dimensions of performance that have been discussed, which are task performance and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994). Task performance includes behaviors that contribute to the core transformation and maintenance activities in an organization, such as producing products, selling merchandise, acquiring inventory, managing subordinates, or delivering services (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999). On the other hand, contextual performance refers to behaviors that contribute to the culture and climate of the organization, in other words, the context within which transformation and maintenance activities are carried out (Beffort and Hattrup, 2003). Volunteering for extra work, persisting with enthusiasm, helping and cooperating with others, following rules and procedures, and supporting or defending the organization are examples of contextual performance behaviors (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999). Contextual performance is important for organizations because it facilitates the meeting of organizational goals and organizational performance.

The nature of job performance in an organization depends on the demands of the job, the goals and mission of the organization, and beliefs in the organization about which behaviors are most valued (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999; Murphy and Shiarella, 1997). Thus, research has established that the relative importance given to task versus contextual behaviors has important implications for the definition of performance that is

used in formulating human resource decisions. For example, Murphy and Shiarella (1997) showed that the validity of selection procedures depends on the relative values placed on task and contextual performance.

There are two main criteria used in performance appraisal, namely objective and subjective criteria. Objective criteria include the assessment of quantity of work, quality of work, attendance and safety. On the other hand, subjective criteria include supervisor evaluations by which employees are evaluated individually, employee comparison methods by which employees are compared with one another, peer ratings, self-appraisal and customer and subordinate ratings.

Beacuse of its importance for organizations, several studies included performance as an individual outcome measure and found out significant relationships between P-O fit and peformance (Downey et al., 1975; Tziner, 1987; Bretz and Judge, 1994; Goodman and Svyantek, 1999). Among these studies, only Goodman and Svyantek, (1999) measured both task and contextual performance through supervisor ratings. Tziner (1987) used self-report performance; while Downey et al.(1975) and Bretz and Judge (1994) used more objective measures of performance such as the number of promotions and percent salary increases for managers. And only Bretz and Judge (1994) used supplementary fit in their study, while others used complementary fit.

The most common type of performance appraisal is the supervisor rating. Lacho, Stearns and Villere (1979) estimated that 95% of all performance appraisals are conducted using supervisor's ratings of performance. Whereas, allowing an employee to evaluate his/her own behaivor and performance is a performance-appraisal technique used by 12% of a sample of organizations. However, employee self-appraisals tend to suffer from leniency and only moderately correlate (.29) with actual performance. Self-appraisals of performance appear to be most accurate when the purpose of the self-appraisal is for research or use in performance appraisal review interviews rather than for administrative purposes such as raises or promotions and when the employee believes that an objective record of his/her performance is available with which the supervisor can compare the self-appraisal (cited by M.G. Aamodt,1990, p.243 and 250).

The organization in which the study will be conducted uses supervisor ratings for appraising performance and since this is a field study, the performance measure used in the study should be the same. In addition to this, performance will also be assessed by self-appraisal. Thus, both supervisor rating and self-appraisal will be used and their level of association will be investigated in this study. Job performance measure will involve two major dimensions of the job performance construct as discussed above; task performance and contextual performance.

3.2. Control Variables

It is argued in literature on organizational demography that demographic characteristics can have an effect on employee outcomes through self-categorization and social identification processes like employee who experience P-O fit (Wharton, 1992). Review of P-O fit literature has demonstrated significant relationships between gender, age and organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Based on the argument of organizational demography literature, they will be controlled for performance variable as well to find out the unique contribution of P-O fit. Thus, age and gender were controlled for every dependent variable in the study.

Moreover, the theory of human capital states that individuals' innate characteristics as well as the extent to which they acquire new characteristics have an effect of how well they fare in organizations (Jarrell, 1993). In accordance with this, empricial research suggests that employees' human capital has an effect on organizational outcomes (Singer and Bruhns, 1991; Cable and Judge, 1996). Based on the these and the fact that employers value investments in education and work experience, tenure with the organization and educational level of employees were controlled as well.

3.3. Purpose of the Study and Hypotheses

As presented in detail in previous sections, the review of the literature revealed significant relationships between person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance. The purpose of this study was to analyze the influence of person-organization fit, which was operationalized as value congruence between the

employee and the organization, on job satisfaction, organizational commitment andperformance of employees working in a public organization at both individual-level and cross-level analysis through using different measures of fit. Specifically, this study aims to find out:

- if there is a significant relationship between P-O fit (as measured by direct and indirect fit) and employee job satisfaction. Interactional research provided significant positive relationships between P-O fit and job satifaction (e.g. Downey et al. 1975; Meglino et al., 1989; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991; Tepeci, 2001). Consistent with these findings:

HYPOTHESIS I: *There is a significant positive relationship between P-O fit (as measured by direct and indirect fit) and job satisfaction beyond the effects of control variables.*

- if there is a significant relationship between P-O fit and job performance which is measured on two dimensions, namely, task performance and contextual performance. Empirical evidence has shown that P-O fit is related to task and contextual performance (Goodman and Svyantek, 1999), self-report work performance (Tziner, 1987) and objective measures of work performance (Downey et al., 1975; Bretz and Judge, 1994). Following these findings, the hypotheses for employee performance were as follows:

HYPOHESIS II/a: *There is a significant positive relationship between P-O fit (as measured by direct and indirect fit) and overall performance as rated by supervisors beyond the effects of control variables.*

HYPOHESIS II/b: *There is a significant positive relationship between P-O fit (as measured by direct and indirect fit) and task performance as rated by supervisors beyond the effects of control variables.*

HYPOHESIS II/c: *There is a significant positive relationship between P-O fit (as measured by direct and indirect fit) and contextual performance as rated by supervisors beyond the effects of control variables.*

It has been argued in literature that contextual performance is different from task performance in terms of its underlying reasons. It is highly likely that behaviors such as volunteering, helping, persisting are better predicted by volitional variables related to

individual differences in motivational characteristics and predisposition (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993) or person-organization fit as opposed to task performance which is role-prescribed, related with task sufficeny of employees and behaviors that employees exchange for pay.   Following this argument, the following hypothesis will be developed:

HYPOHESIS II/d: *P-O fit explains more variance in contextual performance than task performance after controlling for the effects of control variables.*

- if there is a significant relationship between P-O fit and overall organizational commitment as well as three dimensions of organizational commitment; affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. The literature provides support for the positive relationship between P-O fit and organizational commitment (eg. Meglino et al., 1989; Chatman, 1991; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991). The relationships between three types pf organizational commitment will be explored in the study without formulating any hypothesis. However, a hypothesis for organizational commitment was developed following the findings in the interactional research:

HYPOTHESIS III: *There is a significant positive relationship between P-O fit (as measured by direct and indirect fit) and overall organizational commitment beyond the effects of control variables.*

- if there is a significant association between direct fit and indirect fit and the relative predictive power of direct fit over indirect fit in predicting the outcome variables. The review of the literature demonstrated that studies that investigated this relationship has been rare (Enz, 1988; Cable and Judge, 1996, 1997; Tepeci, 2001).

- the relative predictive power of different types of fit measures in predicting dependent variables and if there exists differences between study findings at individual-level analysis and cross-level analysis as recommended by Kristof (1996) and Tepeci (2001).

3.4. Significance of the Study

This study is important for several reasons: First, this study enabled the analysis of the relationship between P-O fit and several outcome variables in a Turkish public organization context. To my knowledge, no studies analyzing person-organization fit based on value congruence have been conducted in a Turkish public organization up to now.

Second, it took into account major issues regarding the measurement of P-O fit by focusing on analyses at both the individual-level and cross-level as well as measuring fit by using different measurement methods in the literature; correlation, sum of differences, sum of absolute value of differences, sum of squared differences.

Third, the study investigates the effect of P-O fit on both attitudinal and behavioral outcome variables. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are attitudinal outcome variables, while job performance is a behavioral outcome variable.

Fourth, it analyzes organizational commitment at three different levels; affective, normative and continuance commitment. By this way, whether each type of commitment is affected uniquely by the match between personal and organizational values can be analyzed. As noted previously, unique antecedents for each type of commitment has been clarified by some researchers.

Fifth, it analyzes job performance at two levels; task performance and contextual performance. By this way, whether each type of performance is affected uniquely by the match between personal and organizational values can be analyzed.

Sixth, up to now, studies investigating the relationship between direct and indirect fit and their relative power in explaining the outcome variables has been rare (Enz, 1988; Cable and Judge, 1996,1997; Tepeci, 2001). This study contributed to P-O fit literature in this regard.

Seventh, performance variable was measured by collecting data from both the employees themselves and supervisors so that perceptions of different parties could be analyzed and whether there is a significant level of agreement between the parties can be figured out.

Lastly, the determination of the level of the P-E fit as P-O fit could have added to the strength of the study by increasing the precision of the construct's definition.

There are several problems in measuring the interaction between person and situation variables (Ostroff, 1993). Firstly, measures of personal and situational factors that are not commensurate can reduce the methodological strength of the study. Secondly, generally, the level of specificity for person and situation variables are not correspondent. Thirdly, it has been difficult to determine the appropriate conceptualization and measurement of both environment and person variables. Choosing P-O fit as a form of P-E fit enables the use of organizational culture and work-related personality variables which can eliminate most of the operationalization and measurement problems listed above.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

This study investigates whether the match between employee and organizational values affects job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance of employees of a public organization. This chapter first sets the conceptual framework for the study and states the research questions. Then, sections devoted to sampling data collection, survey questionnaire and instruments detail the methodology.

4.1.Conceptual Framework

Figure 2 shows the conceptual framework of the study. Accordingly, the study investigates the effect of P-O fit on the three individual outcomes after controlling for the demographic varibles that are significantly correlated with dependent variables. In addition to this, the relationship between direct and indirect fit and their relative power in predicting the three individual outcomes will be analyzed. As indicated in Chapter 3, there are limited studies that investigated the relationship between direct and indirect fit where small or moderate correlations were reported.

Personal Values

Control Variables
1. Gender
2. Age
3. Tenure
4. Education level

Direct Person-Organization Fit

Indirect Person-Organization Fit
- Individual Level
$\sum D, \sum |D|, \sum D^2, Q$
- Cross level
$\sum D, \sum |D|, \sum D^2, Q$

Individual Values

Job Satisfaction

Organizational
Commitment
- Affective
- Continuance
- Normative

Performance
- Task
- Contextual
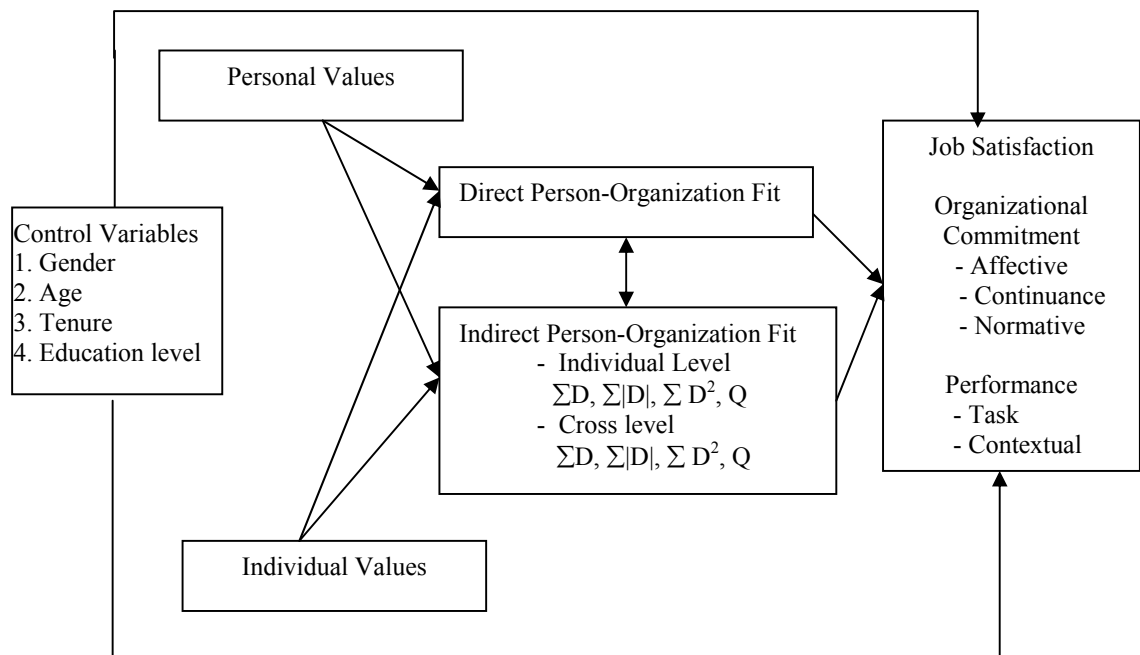
Figure 2. Conceptual framework of the study

Note : $\sum D$ = Sum of difference between organizational and personal values

$\sum |D|$ = Sum of absolute difference between organizational and personal values

$\sum D^2$ = Sum of squared difference between organizational and personal values

Q = Correlation between organizational value and personal value profiles

4.2. Sampling

      The organization where the study was conducted is a public organization, however, it is a somehow non-traditional public organization because of its certain attributes. It is a relatively small public organization when compared to others and it is mainly composed of white-collar employees with high education levels. The sample of the present study consisted of 180 employees working in a public organization and descriptive information regarding the participants are provided in detail in Section 5.2.

      Questionnaire was distributed to three groups of employees: administrative staff, who are responsible for carrying out the office management activities; junior (having a tenure of less than 3 year) and senior (employees with tenure above 3 years) professional staff with job titles of assisstant specialists, specialists, senior specialists and assistant department heads; and technical staff, who are responsible for carrying out technical activities of the organization. It should be noted that

department heads were only asked to evaluate performance of the employees; so they did not respond to the survey.

It was observed that employees, especially the ones working in small-sized departments, were not willing to provide their job titles with the fear of being identified. As a result of this, the job titles of the respondents were not asked in the questionnaire in order to maintain anonymity in the eyes of respondents. Since data regarding the title of respondents is not available, an exact classification of respondents could not be made on the basis of job title. However, administrative staff constitutes a very small portion of the total number of employees in the departments. Based on this fact, it can be argued that administrative staff constitutes a relatively small portion of the sample. Likewise, among 180 participants, only 13 of them represent technical staff. So, it can be argued that the sample mainly represents professional staff of the organization.

4.3. Process of Data Collection

The author was present at the organization during the data collection. There were two phases in the process of data collection. In the first phase, data were collected for the pilot study within two months, between November 2004 and December 2004. There were two aims of the pilot study: First, to assess the reliability of the scales and to find out if there are any deficiencies that may negatively affect the original study. Second, to compare the participants' responses to original version of the Organizational Culture Profile involving the rank ordering of the values and responses to the same value items using a five point Likert-type scale. Kristof (1996) suggested using a likert type scale instead of using the Q-sort technique because of several difficulties associated with using a Q-sort technique such as the long time it takes for respondents to rank order the items. Also, Tepeci (2001) and Sarros et al. (in press) incorporated a likert-type scale into OCP in their studies.

Sampling of the pilot study included 60 employees. Of the 60 participants, 35 of them were female and 25 of them were male. Whereas, the mean age of the participant was 29. Moreover, 58 of the participants were univesity graduates and 2

of them had master's degree. Lastly, the average tenure of the participants was 4 years.

After the pilot study variables were examined and reliabilities of the scales were assessed. Satisfactory reliabilities were obtained for the survey items such that job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance sclaes had reliabilities of .89, .70 and .78, respectively. While organizational values scale had a reliability of .77 when Q-sort method was utilized, its reliability was .78 when likert-type scale was utilized. On the other hand, while personal values scale had a reliability of .70 when Q-sort method was utilized, its reliability was .83 when likert-type scale was utilized. The pilot study revealed that most of the questions were understood but some of the items and questions were not clear enough. Accordingly, several corrections and modifications regarding the understandibility and clarity of the some survey questions and survey items were made.

In addition to this, participants' responses to the original version of the OCP involving rank ordering and the version involving five-point likert-type scale were correlated to find out if both types of answer formats reveal the similar results. The findings revealed a moderate-to-high level of correlation ($r = .56$, p<.01) between answers given by using Q-sort method and five point likert-type scale. Apart from this, nearly all of the respondents state that likert-type scale format was much more user friendly than the other and it should be used in the original study. Taking these responses and statistical findings into consideration, a five-point likert-type scale was chosen as the answer format of the OCP and was used in the original study.

The second phase of the study constituted the original study and was conducted between January 2005 and March 2005. Data were collected from nine departments of the organization, each involving different number of employees, ranging from 14 to 57. Before collecting data the aim of the study was explained to each department head and their support was obtained.

The anonymity of the participants was especially important to enhance the objectivity of the answers. On the other hand, In order to enable a matching between supervisor's rating of performance and participants' ratings of performance as well as maintain the anonymity of the respondents, each respondent was assigned a

number by a third person from each department. While distrubuting the questionnaires, that person handed the questionnaire on which that person's assigned number is written. That person was supposed to keep that list of number assignment and in no way share with another person. After the time given for filling out the questionnaires finished, that list was given to department head showing the employees who participated in the study and department heads write the number of each participant at the top of the performance evaluation form before filling it. By this way, the researcher matched the two forms on the basis of numbers.

4.4. Survey Questionnaire

The questionnaire package consisted of seven main parts:

- The first part consisted of a brief explanation of the study to participants (Appendix A)
- The second part consisted of items about organizational values (Appendix B).
- The third part consisted of items about personal values (Appendix C).
- The fourth part consisted of items about job satisfaction (Appendix D).
- The fifth part consisted of items items measuring organizational commitment in three dimensions; affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment (Appendix E).
- The sixth part was consisted of items about self-rated performance in two dimensions; task performance and contextual performance (Appendix F).
- The eighth part was consisted of items about direct fit (Appendix G).
- The ninth part included items about demographic characteristics of the individuals; gender, age, education level and tenure (Appendix H).

Means, standard deviations, possible item response ranges and reliabilities of the measures are shown in Table 3 of Section 5.5.

4.4.1. Measurement of Individual and Organizational Values

The 54-item Organizational Culture Profile (OCP; O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991) was used to measure individual and organizational values. It is a validated instrument for assessing P-O fit. OCP contains 54 value statements that can generically capture individual and organizational values. These value statements can be used to idiographically assess both the extent to which certain values characterize a target organization and an individual's preference for that particular configuration of values. The instrument is comprised of eight factor dimensions; innovation, attention to detail, outcome orientation, aggressiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation and decisiveness. Detailed information about OCP including the psychometric properties and its revised versions was provided in section 3.3.3.1.

The items were translated into Turkish by following a 3-step procedure: First, the items were e-mailed to three people and they were asked to translate the items into Turkish. In addition to them, the author translated the items as well, making a total of four people. Second, these translations were e-mailed to three people who were asked to give points to every item translation on scale of 1 to 10 and make any corrections and suggestions whenever needed. In the final step, the items with the highest ratings among the three translations were selected to be included in the final questionnaire. Apart from this, some items were revised so that conceptual equivalence between the English and Turkish versions of the scale was obtained.

To develop a profile of an organization's culture, respondents were asked to rate the 54 value items according to the extent to which the items are characteristic of the current organization on a five-point likert-type scale. On the other hand, for individual preferences, individuals were also asked to rate the same items based on the extent to which these values are characteristic of their ideal organization. The five-point likert-type scale ranged from "1-least characteristic" to "5-most characteristic".

4.4.2. Computation of P-O Fit Scores

In accordance with the recommendation of Kristof (1996), multiple measures of P-O fit was used in this study for the sake of comparing them in terms of their power in predicting dependent variables. P-O fit was measured five ways; four indirect fit measures and a direct fit measure were used. Three difference scores and a correlation score comprised four measures of indirect fit. Difference between the value profiles was computed by subtracting personal value scores from organizational value scores. The first difference score was computed by summing these differences, which will be denoted as D. The second difference score measure will be computed by summing the absolute differences between personal and organizational value profiles, which will be denoted as |D|. The last difference score was computed by taking the squared differences of personal and organizational values, which will be denoted as D^2. In addition to these, correlation between personal and organizational value profiles was calculated for each individual as a measure of indirect fit, which will be denoted as Q. On the other hand, 3-items used by Cable and Judge (1996) were translated into Turkish and used to measure direct fit.

4.4.3. Measurement of Job Satisfaction

The translated version of the short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist, 1967) was used in the study. The instrument consists of 20 items each of which measure a different aspect of job satisfaction. Respondents were required to rate each item based on the extent to which the respondent is satisfied with that aspect of the job on a five point likert type scale.

4.4.4. Measurement of Performance

Performance of employees was measured in two dimensions: task performance and contextual performance and separate items were used for measuring these dimensions. Turkish-translation of 4 items developed by Beffort and Hattrup (2003) and 2 items developed by the author taking job duties, and responsibilities of

the employees in the organization into account were used for measuring task performance. On the other hand, 5 items were developed for measuring contextual performance. Each item corresponds to the five aspects of contextual performance defined by Borman and Motowidlo (1993). And an overall performance variable was computed by averaging all 11 items.

Performance was rated by employees themselves and supervisors of employees on a five point likert type scale, ranging from "never" to "always". The respondents were asked to rate the extent of display of the behavior. Performance was rated by both employees and supervisors to find out the degree of agreement between the parties and obtain a more meaningful result.

4.4.5. Measurement of Organizational Commitment

As noted previously, organizational commitment was measured in three dimensions: affective, continuance and normative commitment. A total of 9 items were used for measuring organizational commitment. All of the items were selected from organizational commitment scale used by Wasti (1999) in her doctoral dissertation. Wasti (1999) used a total of 20 items, some of them being Turkish translated versions of items developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) and some of them being developed by Wasti (1999). In order to provide participants with a shorter scale and ease the process of filling out the survey, three items for each commitment dimension, making a total of 9 items were selected from those 20 items. The items thought to best represent each type of commitment were selected to be included in the study.

Among the 9 items used in this study, the first 3 items were used to measure affective commitment; the second 3 items were used for measuring continuance commitment and the last 3 items measured normative commitment. Specifically, the first, second, fourth and ninth items were Turkish versions of items developed by Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) and the rest of them were the items developed by Wasti (1999).

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The results of the study are presented in this chapter. First, several issues regarding data screening are explored. Second, descriptives for the participants are provided. Third, conditions required for making a cross-level analysis are tested. Fourth, descriptive statistics for independent variables are provided. Fifth, descriptive statistics for dependent variables are provided. Sixth, intercorrelations between the variables are evaluated. Seventh, two levels of fit, namely, underfit and overfit were developed and dependent variables were compared based on these two levels of fit. Finally, the results of regression analyses are presented.

5.1. Data screening

Prior to conducting analyses, several issues were investigated to ensure reliability. These issues were (1) accuracy of data entry, (2) treatment of missing values, (3) the extent to which the data set meet the multivariate assumptions of normality, linearity, independence of error terms and homoscedasticity.

Accuracy of the data was investigated through the examination of minimum and maximum values of each variable and several inaccurate data entries that resulted from entering the respective value twice were corrected.

While examining data for missing values, six cases having a high number of missing data points were identified and all of them were deleted. Also, the supervisory performance rating of five cases were missing and they were deleted as well, making a total of eleven deleted cases. As a result of this, sample size decreased from 191 to 180. Apart from these, there were several missing data points in the whole data set. However, missing data had a random pattern scattered throughout different respondents and items and none of the variables had a missing data point above 5% of the respective

distribution. Specifically, for 54 organizational value items, only 27 missing data points existed out of 9720 data points which were replaced with the organizational mean value of that particular item. For 54 personal value items, there were a total of 50 missing data points out of 9720 data points, which were replaced with the organizational mean value of that particular item as well. In addition to these, 20 data points out of 7740 data points for dependent variables were missing. All of them were replaced with the individual mean value of that particular subcscale. There were no missing data points among demographic variables.

Normality of variables was investigated through the examination of skewness and kurtosis values. On the average, skewness and kurtosis values were smaller than one and deviations from normality were minor. Three variables, namely, supervisor ratings of first, second and fourth items had relatively higher kurtosis values (3.79, 4.51 and 2.56, respectively) than the rest of the variables. However, data transformations did not lessen these deviations, so, the original form of the data was retained. Relatively higher deviations from normal distribution that existed in these variables were taken into consideration in the interpretation of results.

5.2. Descriptives of Participants

The final sample consisted of 180 employees working in different departments of a public organization. Among 180 employees, 74 were female and 106 were male, which constituted 41% and 59% of the sample respectively. Eighty nine employees had an age between 20 and 30 (49.40%); 73 employees had an age between 31 and 40 (40.6%); 15 of them had an age between 41 and 50 (8.3%) and only 3 of them had an age between 51 and 60 (1.7%). This shows that the majority of the employees were within the age range of 20 to 40, constituting 90% of the sample. In terms of education level, only 2 employees were high school graduates (1.1%); 5 of them were graduates of collegiate school (2.8%); 122 of them were university graduates (67.8%); 46 of them had a masters degree (25.60%) and 5 of them had a doctorate degree (2.8%). This reveals that participants have a relatively high education level. Finally, 2 employees had a tenure less than 1 year (1.1%); 72 employees had a tenure between 1 and 5 years (40%); 61 of them had a tenure between 6 and 10 years (33.9%); 16 of them had a

tenure between 11 and 15 years (8.9%) and 29 of them had a tenure above 15 years (16.1%). Thus, the majority of the sample consisted of employees who have been working for 1 to 10 years, comprising 73.9% of the sample.

Table 1. **Descriptives for Participants**

N=180	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	106	41
Female	74	59
Age		
20-30	89	49
31-40	73	41
41-50	15	8
51-60	3	2
Above 60	-	-
Education		
Secondary School	-	-
High School	2	1
Collegiate School	5	3
University	122	68
Masters Degree	46	25
Doctoral Degree	5	3
Tenure		
Less than 1 year	2	1
1-5 year	72	40
6-10 year	61	34
11-15 year	16	9
More than 15 year	29	16

5.3. Cross-Level Sample Analysis

As explained previously in Chapter 3, there are two levels of fit; individual-level and cross-level. While individual-level fit is the comparison of each employee's preferred organizational value and that employee's perceived organizational value, cross-level fit compares each employee's preferred organizational value and the aggregate of employee perceptions of organizational value. So, for making a cross-level analysis an organizational profile should be formed by aggregating the individual

perceptions of every employee. However, there should be a certain level of agreement between the employees regarding perceived organizational values. Consistent with Chatman (1991) and Tepeci (2001), the reliability of the aggregate profile was assessed by average inter-rater reliability, which should be above .70. The average inter-rater reliability for the sample was .38, which was below the required value indicating an idaquate level of agreement among the employees regarding organizational values. The highest correlation was .68. As a result of this, cross-level analysis could not be made.

5.4. Descriptives for Person-Organization Fit Scores

As explained in Chapter 5, five different methods of calculating P-O fit were used in this study. Table 2 reports means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values for each of the measures.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Person Organization Fit Scores

	Indirect Fit Measures				Direct Fit
	D	|D|	D^2	Q	
Mean	75.04	90.19	232.39	-.11	2.63
Standard Deviation	45.55	40.27	152.52	.33	.84
Minimum	-51	0	0	-.70	1
Maximum	179	181	677	1	5

Note: For \|D\| and D^2 smaller numbers indicate greater fit.

Direct fit is a three-item scale in the questionnaire. It has an alpha value of .84. The mean perceived fit score of 2.63 indicate that employees perceive a low level of fit with their organizations, on the average.

For D, small positive and negative numbers indicate greater fit and large negative and large positive numbers indicate lower fit. Unlike \|D\| and D^2 values, D values provide knowledge about the direction of difference. Although one main disadvantage of this measure is that positive and negative differences offset each other, it is used in the analysis to find out the direction of fit on the average. As mentioned

previously, difference scores were computed from substracting preferred organization value scores from present perceived organizational value scores. So, the mean value of 75.04 indicates that on the average, the level of actual organizational values fall short of preferred level of organizational values. Whereas, for $|D|$ and D^2, larger numbers indicate lower fit and smaller numbers indicate greater fit. Taking square of differences result in large differences between $|D|$ and D^2 values.

For Q, large and positive numbers indicate greater fit; whereas, large and negative numbers indicate lower fit. An average correlation of $r = -.11$ demonstrates a low and negative relationship between employees and the organization, implying a dissimilar pattern of personal and organizational profiles

5.5. Descriptives for the Dependent Variables

Table 3 reports reliabilities, means, standard deviations, and possible item ranges for the eight dependent variables. The reliabilities of all scales were high, thus for each variable, the combination of items into a composite measure was justified. The mean scores suggest that majority of employees had low levels of satisfaction; continuance commitment and normative commitment. The average level of affective commitment was somewhat higher but still it represented a low to moderate level. It has been noted previously that the organization is heavily composed of white-collar employees, who are graduates of well-known universities of Turkey and a high proportion of whom have masters degree. As a result of this, it is highly likely that their expectations regarding work attributes and work conditions are high, which could have resulted in a discrepancy between what they expect and what they experience when the mostly routine nature of jobs in the organization is taken into account.

On the average, employees rated their levels of task performance at a moderate level, whereas, supervisor ratings of task performance was much higher, representing a high level of task performance. Mean scores of self-rated and supervisor-rated contextual performances were same, representing a moderate level. Thus, employees and supervisors had a perceptual difference in terms of task performance. Altough, a reverse pattern of mean scores would be expected, in this study, supervisors rated task performances of employees much more favorably when compared to employees

themselves. This difference may be explained by employees' perception performing below their potential. Since performance reviews are not conducted and as a result of this supervisors' views regarding employees' performances are not known by the employees, they could have developed different views about their performances.

Table 3. Alphas, Means, Standard Deviations and Possible Item Ranges for the Dependent Variables

	Alpha	Mean	SD	Possible Item Range
Job Satisfaction (20 item)	.90	2.96	.62	1-5
Overall Organizational Commitment (9 item)	.81	2.82	.73	1-5
Affective Commitment (3 item)	.76	3.19	.95	1-5
Continuance Commitment (3 item)	.77	2.91	.93	1-5
Normative Commitment (3 item)	.79	2.37	1.01	1-5
Overall Self-Rated Performance (11 item)	.85	3.61	.60	1-5
Self-Rated Task Performance (6 item)	.81	3.85	.62	1-5
Self-Rated Contextual Performance(5 item)	.80	3.32	.89	1-5
Overall Supervisor-Rated Performance (11 item)	.93	4.32	.60	1-5
Supervisor-Rated Task Performance (6 item)	.89	4.39	.62	1-5
Supervisor-Rated Contextual Performance (5 item)	.89	4.24	.70	1-5

5.6. Developing Levels of Fit and Comparison of Variables According to Levels of Fit

As noted previously, P-O fit was measued four ways; one of which was the computation of a difference score for every respondent by subtracting preferred organizational value ratings from perceived organizational value ratings. This measure was computed especially for the purpose of forming two levels of fit, namely, underfit and overfit. These levels of fit were developed such that negatively signed D values were labeled as "overfit", whereas, D values with values above zero were labeled "underfit". Underfit implies that on the average the organization falls short of meeting the demands of employees in terms of organizational values. On the other hand, overfit implies that the organization provides more than desired by the employee in terms of organizational values. Among 180 respondents, only 13 had overfit values, 3 had a D score of zero, indicating complete fit with the organization, and 164 had underfit values.

T-tests were conducted to find out if there were significant differences in dependent variebles in the study as a function of these two levels of fit. Results revealed that employees with overfit scores had significantly higher normative commitment (t = -3.21, p < .01); reported higher contextual performance (t = -3.08, p < .01); and had lower supervisor ratings of task performance (t = 3.58, p < .01). Table 4 reports the mean scores for group differences.

Table 4. Mean Scores for Significant Group Differences in Dependent Variables as Function of Levels of Fit

	Normative Commitment	Self Ratings of Contextual Performance	Supervisor Rating of Task Performance
Underfit	2.29	3.26	4.41
Overfit	3.21	3.95	3.83
t-value	-3.21	-3.08	3.58

5.7. Intercorrelations Between Variables

For the purpose of examining relationships among variables the intercorrelations among the demographic and major variables investigated in the study are presented in Table 5. The correlations between the variables will be reported in the following order;

(1) significant associations between demographic variables and other variables, (2) significant associations between independent variables, (3) significant associations between dependent variables, (4) significant associations between independent and dependent variables.

One point should be noted before detailing the relationships: a positive correlation indicates an association between two variables in which a high value on one variable is associated with a high value on the other, or vice versa. However, since larger $|D|$ and D^2 values indicate lower degrees of fit, the relationships between these measures and other variables are interpreted in reverse in this study such that a negative correlation between one of these measures and another variable actually indicates a positive association.

Table 5. Correlations Between Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Gender	1.000														
2. Age	-.015	1.000													
3. Education	.117	.151*	1.000												
4. Tenure	-.081	.717**	.206**	1.000											
5. Q	-.055	.077	-.158*	.038	1.000										
6. D	-.103	-.131	.220**	-.105	-.615**	1.000									
7. |D|	-.084	-.079	.173*	-.088	-.694**	.928**	1.000								
8. D^2	-.073	-.062	.157*	-.076	-.626**	.909**	.971**	1.000							
9. Direct Fit	.152*	.030	-.073	-.031	.367**	-.417**	-.469**	-.488**	1.000						
10. AC	.048	.153*	-.123	.056	.357**	-.409**	-.437**	-.463 **	.503**	1.000					
11. CC	.055	-.036	-.056	.010	.303**	-.250**	-.300**	-.289**	.303**	.219**	1.000				
12. NC	.131	.107	-.053	.105	.348**	-.450**	-.453**	-.420**	.444**	.384**	.467**	1.000			
13. OC	.105	.101	-.102	.077	.445**	-.491**	-.526**	-.517**	.552**	.705**	.735**	.827**	1.000		
14. Self-TP	-.075	.123	.149*	.153*	.059	-.009	.005	.024	.152*	.165*	.041	.224**	.193**	1.000	
15. Self-CP	-.010	.181*	-.060	.100	.349**	-.349**	-.360**	-.365**	.484**	.400**	.159*	.468**	.458**	.536**	1.000
16. Self-OP	-.047	.175*	.046	.143	.239**	-.211**	-.210**	-.203**	.370**	.327**	.116	.400**	.377**	.866**	.886**
17. Sup-TP	.008	-.197**	.053	-.088	-.070	-.121	.077	.037	.188*	.116	.068	.011	.084	-.005	.059
18. Sup-CP	.041	-.290**	.013	-.254**	.060	-.061	-.111	-.153*	.249**	.106	.128	.100	.147*	-.062	.126
19. Sup-OP	.026	-.261**	.036	-.182*	-.007	.035	-.016	-.060	.235**	.120	.105	.059	.124	-.036	.099
20. JS	.162*	.040	.067	.038	.343**	-.370**	-.466**	-.504**	.579**	.440**	.378**	.398**	.535**	.202**	.497**

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

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

For \|D\| and D^2 greater numbers indicate lower degree of fit.

5. P-O fit score computed as correlation (Q), **6**. P-O fit score computed as sum of differences (D), **7.** P-O fit score computed as sum of absolute differences (\|D\|), **8.** P-O fit score computed as sum of squared differences (D2), **9.** Subjective P-O fit score, **10.** Affective Commitment (AC), **11.** Continuance Commitment (CC), **12.** Normative Commitment (NC), **13.** Organizational Commitment (OC), **14.** Self-ratings of task performance (Self-TP), **15.** Self-ratings of contextual performance (Self-CP), **16.** Self-ratings of overall performance (Self-OP), **17.** Supervisor-ratings of task performance (Sup-TP), **18.** Supervisor-ratings of contextual performance (Sup-CP), **19**. Supervisor-ratings of overall performance (Sup-OP), **20.** Job Satisfaction.

Table 5 (continued).

	16	17	18	19	20
16. Self-OP	1.000				
17. Sup-TP	.032	1.000			
18. Sup-CP	.040	.716**	1.000		
19. Sup-OP	.039	.930**	.922**	1.000	
20. JS	.405**	.228**	.267**	.267**	1.000

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

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

For |D| and D^2 greater numbers indicate lower degree of fit.

5. P-O fit score computed as correlation (Q), **6**. P-O fit score computed as sum of differences (D), **7.** P-O fit score computed as sum of absolute differences (|D|), **8.** P-O fit score computed as sum of squared differences (D2), **9.** Subjective P-O fit score, **10.** Affective Commitment (AC), **11.** Continuance Commitment (CC), **12.** Normative Commitment (NC), **13.** Organizational Commitment (OC), **14.** Self-ratings of task performance (Self-TP), **15**. Self-ratings of contextual performance (Self-CP), **16.** Self-ratings of overall performance (Self-OP), **17.** Supervisor-ratings of task performance (Sup-TP), **18.** Supervisor-ratings of contextual performance (Sup-CP), **19**. Supervisor-ratings of overall performance (Sup-OP), **20**. Job Satisfaction.

<u>5.7.1. Relationships Among Demographic Variables and Other Variables</u>

There was a significant but low association between gender and direct fit ($r = .15$, $p < .05$) and job satisfaction ($r = .16$, $p < .05$). Age correlated significantly positively with affective commitment ($r = .15$, $p < .05$), self-rated contextual performance ($r = .18$, $p < .05$), self-rated overall performance ($r = .17$, $p < .05$), negatively with supervisor rated task performance ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$), supervisor rated contextual performance ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$), supervisor rated overall performance ($r = -.26$, $p < .01$). Tenure had a significant negative association with supervisor ratings of contextual performance ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$), and supervisor ratings of overall performance ($r = -.18$, $p < .05$). That is, as the number of years spent in the organization and age increased, supervisors reported lower levels of contextual performance and overall performance. Education had a significant association with self-rated task performance ($r = .15$, $p < .05$) and was significantly correlated with all indirect fit measures; $r = -.16$, $p < .05$ for Q, $r = .22$, $p < .01$ for D, $r = .17$, $p < .01$ for |D|; $r = .16$, $p < .05$ for D^2. Apart from these, age and tenure ($r = .72$, $p < .01$); age and education level ($r = .15$, $p < .05$) and tenure and education level ($r = .21$, $p < .01$) were significantly correlated with each other.

Results revealed that men reported significantly higher levels of perceived fit than women ($t = -2.05$, $p < .05$) and they experienced significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than women ($t = -2.18$, $p < .05$). The significant differences for satisfaction supported Tepeci (2001) and Tidball (1988). Table 6 presents the results.

Table 6. Mean Scores for Significant Group Differences in Direct Fit and Job Satisfaction Based on Gender

	Subjective Fit	Job Satisfaction
<u>Gender</u>		
Female	2.47	2.84
Male	2.73	3.04
t-value	-2.05	- 2.18

5.7.2. Relationships Among Person-Organization Fit Scores

There were five independent variables in this study; each of them representing a different method of computing person-organization fit score. Among these, one of them represented a measure of direct fit; whereas, four of them represented measures of indirect fit. The relationships between these five measures were of particular interest in this study and they are presented below.

Direct fit had a significant association with |D| ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$) and D^2 ($r = -.49$, $p < .01$). That is, as the self-reported fit increased, the level of two indirect fit measures decreased. These associations are not suprising in the sense that an increase in the level of self-reported fit implies lower difference scores. Direct fit significantly correlated with D ($r = -.42$, $p < .01$) and Q ($r = .37$, $p < .01$) as well. That is, as the level of self-reported fit increased, sum of difference between personal and organizational values decreased and the level of correlation between the two value profiles increased, as expected.

The correlation between the difference measures were very high since they are the derivative of the same numbers; the correlations between |D| and D^2; between D and |D|; between D and D^2 were $r = .97$, $p < .01$, $r = .93$, $p < .01$ and $r = .91$, $p < .01$, respectively. On the other hand, Q was also highly correlated with D ($r = -.61$, $p < .01$), |D| ($r = -.69$, $p < .01$) and D^2 ($r = -.63$, $p < .01$). Its correlation with direct fit was relatively lower $r = .37$, $p < .01$.

5.7.3. Relationships Among Dependent Variables

Job satisfaction correlated moderately with all types of commitment; affective commitment ($r = .44$, $p < .01$); continuance commitment ($r = .38$, $p < .01$) and normative commitment ($r = .40$, $p < .01$). This is not surprising since each of the variables is a measure of employee work attitude.

Job satisfaction had a moderate correlation with self-reported contextual performance ($r = .50$, $p < .01$); while the amount of correlation between self-reported task performance and job satisfaction was relatively much lower ($r = .20$, $p < .01$). This can be explained by the argument that contextual performance involves more of an attitude component than task performance. That is, when the employee has more

positive attitudes about the job and the organization, he or she is more likely to be voluntarily involved in activities beyond the scope of his/her job. On the other hand, task performance is much more related with the extent to which the employee posesses the required knowledge, skills and abilities.

On the other hand, job satisfaction had somewhat low correlation with supervisor contextual performance ratings ($r = .27$, $p < .01$) and supervisor task performance ratings ($r = .23$, $p < .01$). A lower correlation between job satisfaction and supervisor ratings of contextual performance when compared to self-report ratings of performance may be due to the restriction in range of supervisor ratings of contextual performance. Supervisors mainly rated their employees' contextual performance as high, and as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) a narrow range of scores on the variable could have limited potential correlation with other variables.

All types of commitment were significantly correlated with each other. The degree of association between affective commitment and continunance commitment; affective commitment and normative commitment and continance commitment and normative commitment were $r = .22$, $p < .01$; $r = .38$, $p < .01$ and $r = .47$, $p < .01$, respectively. However, the degree of association between affective commitment and contiunance commitment was relatively much lower and the degree of association between continuance and normative components being the highest.

Only affective commitment was significantly correlated with self-report task performance ($r = .17$, $p < .05$) and none of the commitment types had a significant association with supervisor rated task performance. Whereas, each type of commitment had a significant association with self-rated contextual performance, with $r = .40$, $p < .01$ for affective commitment; $r = .16$, $p < .05$ for continuance commitment; and $r = .47$, $p < .01$ for normative commitment.   This reveals that the degree of association is moderate with normative and affective commitment; but low with continuance commitment. This can be due to the different types of intrinsic motives involved in these three types of commitment. While continuance commitment is mainly related with the motive to maintain the current position without taking risks elsewhere; normative and affective commitment involve more of an attachment component. Apart from these,

overall organizational commitment correlated significantly with supervisor ratings of contextual performance ($r = .15, p < .05$).

The degree of corelation between self-rated performance ratings and supervisor-rated performance ratings as well as the degree of association between task performance and contextual performance were also of particular interest to this study. Interesting results were obtained such that there was almost zero association ($r = -.005$) between self-rated and supervisor-rated task performance and the direction of relationship was negative. On the other hand, the magnitude of correlation between self-ratings and supervisor-ratings of contextual performance was higher than task performance ratings but still insignificant, $r = .13$ This suggests that, although at a low level, employees and supervisors had somewhat agreement on contextual performance; but almost no agreement on task performance. However, as noted previously, supervisors seemed to inflate task performance ratings producing a negatively skewed distribution; whereas, employees tend to give lower ratings to themselves for task performance when compared to supervisor ratings. This resulted in different performance profiles. Both types of measures were subjective in nature, but supervisor ratings had one superiority over the other in the sense that they were used for appraising performance in the organizational setting where the study was conducted. Thus, in order to reflect the real organizational practices as much as possible, supervisor ratings were used as a measure of performance of employees in the study.

Regarding the relationship between task performance and contextual performance, self-rated task performance and contextual performance were moderately correlated ($r = .54, p < .01$); whereas, supervisor-rated task performance and contextual performance were highly correlated ($r = .72, p < .01$).

5.7.4. Relationships Between Independent and Dependent Variables

Direct fit correlated significantly with job satisfaction ($r = .58, p < .01$); affective commitment ($r = .50, p < .01$); continuance commitment ($r = .30, p < .01$); normative commitment ($r = .44, p < .01$); self-rated task performance ($r = .15, p < .05$); self-rated contextual performance ($r = .48, p < .01$) ; overall commitment ($r = .55, p < .01$); self-rated overall performance ($r = .37, p < .01$); supervisor-rated overall

performance ($r = .23$, $p < .01$);   supervisor-rated task performance ($r = .19$, $p < .05$) and supervisor-rated contextual performance ($r = .25$, $p < .01$)   . Thus, direct fit had a significant association with each dependent variable. All variables except supervisor-rated task and contextual performance are the same individual's perceptual measures, and this may be cited as a reason of significant relationships.

Q correlated significanly with affective commitment ($r = .36$, $p < .01$); continuance commitment ($r = .30$, $p < .01$); normative commitment ($r = .35$, $p < .01$); overall commitment ($r = .44$, $p < .01$); self-rated contextual performance ($r = .35$, $p < .01$); self-rated overall performance ($r = .24$, $p < .01$); job satisfaction ($r = .34$, $p < .01$).

D correlated significantly with job satisfaction ($r = -.37$, $p < .01$); affective commitment ($r = -.41$, $p < .01$); continuance commitment ($r = -.25$, $p < .01$); normative commitment ($r = -.45$, $p < .01$); overall commitment ($r = -.49$, $p < .01$); self-rated contextual performance ($r = -.35$, $p < .01$); self-rated overall performance ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$).

|D| was significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$); affective commitment ($r = -.42$, $p < .01$); continuance commitment ($r = -.30$, $p < .05$); normative commitment ($r = -.45$, $p < .01$); self-rated contextual performance ($r = -.36$, $p < .01$); overall commitment ($r = -.53$, $p < .01$); self-rated overall performance ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$);

D^2 had a significant association with job satisfaction ($r = -.50$, $p < .01$); affective commitment ($r = -.46$, $p < .01$); continuance commitment ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$); normative commitment ($r = -.42$, $p < .01$) and supervisor-rated contextual performance ($r = -.15$, $p < .05$); overall commitment ($r = -.52$, $p < .01$); self-rated overall performance ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$).

Accordingly, for |D| and D^2 the sign of correlations with dependent variables were negative as expected. In addition to this, D, |D| and D^2 had nearly the same level of associations with dependent variables except for the pattern of associations with supervisor ratings of contextual performance. Among these difference scores, only D^2 correlated significantly with supervisor ratings of contextual performance. Supervisor

ratings of overall performance and supervisor rating of task performance did not correlate significantly with indirect fit measures.

5.8. Regression Analyses

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the role of person-organization fit in explaining employee job satisfaction, three types of organizational commitment; namely affective, continuance and normative commitment as well as overall organizational commitment, and two dimensions of performance, namely task performance and contextual performance as well as overall performance. Of particular interest was whether different types of P- O fit measures differ in the extent of variance explained in dependent variables and whether direct fit explained variance beyond that explained by indirect fit. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for each dependent variable to determine the variance explained by each independent variable after controlling for the influence of significantly correlated variables as well as to find out if direct fit significantly explained variance over and above indirect fit measures.

5.8.1. Prediction of Job Satisfaction

Hierarchical Regression Analysis was employed in order to determine the influence of direct and indirect P-O fit measures as predictors of job satisfaction and to find out if direct P-O fit contributed to explanation of job satisfaction over and above indirect P-O fit measures after controlling for the effect of gender, which correlated significantly with job satisfaction. A seperate 3-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for each of the indirect fit measures. The order of entry was as follows for each regression analysis: 1) gender, 2) indirect fit measure, 3) direct fit measure. On the other hand, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, a 2 step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. The order of entry was as follows: 1)gender, 2) direct fit measure.

Table 7 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), which shows the significance and relative importance of that variable in the equation; R^2, which is the

variance explained in the outcome variable; the change in R^2 as a result of the lastly added variable and F statistic showing the significance of the change for each step.

At first step, gender explained 3% of the variance ($F = 4.75$, $p < .05$) in all regression equations. When D was entered as the indirect fit measure at step 2, D explained an additional 13% variance ($F = 26.48$, $p < .01$) and gender became insignificant. And finally at step 3, direct fit explained an additional 21% variance ($F = 53.69$, $p < .01$). The amount of variance explained by D decreased at step 3 but remained significant with $\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$. Direct fit explained the highest amount of variance at step 3, with $\beta = .50$, $p < .01$.

When |D| was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained an additional 21% variance in job satisfaction at step 2 beyond gender ($F = 47.71$, $p < .01$); whereas, gender became insignificant. In the final step, direct fit explained additional 16% variance ($F = 45.57$, $p < .01$), with a $\beta = .45$, $p < .01$. |D| explained a lower of amount of variance when compared to step 2, with $\beta = -.25$, $p < .01$. Again, direct fit explained the highest amount of variance at step 3, with $\beta = .45$, $p < .01$.

For D^2, a similar pattern or results were obtained such that D^2 explained an additional 25% variance beyond gender ($F = 59.44$, $p < .01$). At step 3, direct fit explained an additional 14% ($F = 40.68$, $p < .01$) over and above D^2 and gender while the contribution of D^2 decreased but still remained significant ($\beta = -.30$, $p < .01$), but, gender did not have a significant contribution. The contribution of direct fit was again the highest with $\beta = .43$, $p < .01$.

When Q was entered as the indirect fit measure, Q explained an additional 11% of variance after gender at step 2 ($F = 22.89$, $p < .05$). At step 3, R^2 increased from .14 to .36 and direct fit explained an additional 22% ($F = 61.17$, $p < .01$) over and above Q and gender, while, the contribution of gender decreased and became insignificant. The highest amount of variance was explained by direct fit, with $\beta = .51$, $p < .01$; and the amount of variance explained by D^2 decreased but remained significant, with $\beta = .15$, $p < .05$.

Finally, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, it explained an additional 32 % variance in job satisfaction beyond gender ($F = 84.41$, $p < .01$) with

$\beta = .57$, $p < .01$. Results revealed that all fit measures were significantly predictive of job satisfaction, and among all fit measures, perceived fit made the highest additional contribution in explaining variance after controlling for gender. These resullts support the first hypothesis and revealed that direct fit explained variance over and above indirect fit measures.

Table 7. The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Set of Predictors of Job Satisfaction

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Step 1: Demographics		.03	.03	4.75*
Gender	.16*			
Indirect fit measure: D				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.15	.13	26.48**
Gender	.13			
D	-.36**			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.37	.19	53.69**
Gender	.07			
D	-.16**			
Direct Fit	.50**			
Indirect fit measure: |D|				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.48	.21	47.71**
Gender	.13			
|D|	-.46**			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.39	.16	45.57**
Gender	.08			
|D|	-.25**			
Direct Fit	.45**			
Indirect fit measure: D^2				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.27	.25	59.44**
Gender	.13			
D^2	-.50**			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.41	.14	40.68**
Gender	.08			
D^2	-.30 **			
Direct Fit	.43 **			
Indirect fit measure: Q				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.14	.11	22.89**
Gender	.15*			
Q	.34**			

Table 7 (continued).

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.36	.22	61.17**
Gender	.08			
Q	.15*			
Direct Fit	.51**			
Direct fit measure				
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.34	.32	84.41**
Gender	.08			
Direct Fit	.57**			

** p<.01 and * p<.05.

5.8.2. Prediction of Overall Organizational Commitment

All fit measures were significantly correlated with overall organizational commitment so hierarchical regression analysis was employed in order to determine the influence of each direct and indirect P-O fit measure as predictors of organizational commitment and to find out if direct P-O fit contributed to explanation of organizational commitment over and above indirect P-O fit measures. None of the demographic variables correlated significantly with overall organizational commitment, so no control variables were used. A seperate 2-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted for each of the indirect fit measures. The order of entry was as follows for each regression analysis: 1) indirect fit measure, 2) direct fit measure. On the other hand, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, a standard regression analysis was conducted to find out its influence on organizational commitment. Table 8 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), which shows the significance and relative importance of that variable in the equation; R^2, which is the variance explained in the outcome variable; the change in R^2 as a result of the lastly added variable and *F* statistic showing the significance of the change for each step.

When D was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 24% variance (*F*=56.64, *p*< .01). At step 2, direct fit explained an additional 15% variance (*F*=42.11, *p*< .01). The amount of variance explained by D decreased at step 2 but remained significant with β = -.32, *p*< .01. Direct fit accounted for most of the variance explained at step 2, with β = .42, *p*< .01.

When |D| was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 27% variance in organizational commitment ($F = 68.26$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.53$, $p < .01$. In the final step, direct fit explained an additional 12% variance ($F = 34.97$, $p < .01$), with a $\beta = .39$, $p < .01$. |D| explained a lower of amount of variance at step 2 when compared to step 1 but remained significant, with $\beta = -.34$, $p < .01$. Again, direct fit explained the highest amount of variance at step 2, with $\beta = .39$, $p < .01$.

When D^2 was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 27% variance ($F = 65.10$, $p < .01$). At step 2, direct fit explained an additional 12% variance ($F = 33.88$, $p < .01$) over and above D^2, while the contribution of D^2 decreased but still remained significant ($\beta = -.33$, $p < .01$). The contribution of direct fit was again the highest at step 2 with $\beta = .39$, $p < .01$.

When Q was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 20% variance ($F = 43.63$, $p < .01$). At step 2, R^2 increased from .20 to .37 and direct fit explained an additional 17% variance ($F = 48.99$, $p < .01$) over and above Q. At step 3, the highest contribution was made by direct fit, with $\beta = .45$, $p < .01$; while the contribution of D^2 decreased but remained significant, with $\beta = .28$, $p < .01$.

Finally, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, it explained 30% variance in organizational commitment ($F = 77.98$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = .55$, $p < .01$.

To sum up, results revealed that all fit measures were significantly predictive of organizational commitment and among all fit measures, direct fit explained the highest amount of variance in organizational commitment. These results support the third hypothesis. Moreover, direct fit explained variance in organizational commitment over and above all indirect fit measures.

Table 8. The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Set of Predictors of Overall Organizational Commitment

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Indirect fit measure: D				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.24	.24	56.64**
D	- .49**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.39	.15	42.11**
D	-.32**			
Direct Fit	.42**			
Indirect fit measure: |D|				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.27	.27	68.26**
|D|	-.53**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.40	.12	34.97**
|D|	-.34**			
Direct Fit	.39**			
Indirect fit measure: D^2				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.27	.27	65.10**
D^2	-.52**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.38	.12	33.88**
D^2	-.33 **			
Direct Fit	.39 **			
Indirect fit measure: Q				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.20	.20	43.63**
Q	.44**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.37	.17	48.99**
Q	.28**			
Direct Fit	.45**			
Direct Fit Measure	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	F	
Direct Fit	.55**	.30	77.98**	

** p<.01 and * p<.05.

5.8.3. Prediction of Affective Commitment

All fit measures were significantly correlated with affective commitment, so all of them were used as predictors in regression analyses. Also, age was significantly correlated with affective commitment. Thus, hierarchical regression analyses were employed in order to determine the influence of direct and indirect P-O fit measures on organizational commitment beyond age and to find out if direct P-O fit contributed to

explanation of organizational commitment over and above indirect P-O fit measures age. Seperate 3-step hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for each of the indirect fit measures. The order of entry was as follows: 1) age, 2) indirect fit measure, 3) direct fit measure. On the other hand, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, a 2-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to control for the effect of age.

Table 9 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), which shows the significance and relative importance of that variable in the equation; R^2, which is the variance explained in the outcome variable; the change in R^2 as a result of the lastly added variable and F statistic showing the significance of the change for each step.

Age explained 2% variance in organizational commitment in all regression equations. When D was entered at step 2, it explained an additional 15% variance in affective commitment ($F = 33.05$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.39$, $p < .01$; whereas, the contribution of age became insignificant. At step 3, direct fit explained an additional 14% variance ($F = 34.81$, $p < .01$). The amount of variance explained by D decreased at step 3 but remained significant with $\beta = -.22$, $p < .01$. Direct fit made the highest contribution at step 3, with $\beta = .41$, $p < .01$.

When the same analysis was conducted for |D| , it explained an additional 18% variance in affective commitment at step 2 ($F = 40.36$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.25$, $p < .01$; whereas, age became insignificant. In the final step, direct fit explained an additional 11% variance ($F = 29.61$, $p < .01$), with a $\beta = .38$, $p < .01$. The contribution of |D| remained the same at step 3, however, again direct fit accounted for much of the variance explained.

D^2 explained 21% variance ($F = 47.33$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.45$, $p < .01$ at step 2, whereas, age did not make a significant contribution. At step 3, direct fit explained an additional 10% variance ($F = 26.49$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = .36$, $p < .01$ over and above D^2 and age. The contribution of D^2 decreased but still remained significant in the final step ($\beta = -.28$, $p < .01$).

When Q was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained an additional 12% variance ($F = 24.68$, $p < .01$), with $\beta = .35$, $p < .01$, and age became insignificant. At

step 3, R^2 increased from .14 to .30 and direct fit explained an additional 16% variance ($F = 40.96$, $p < .01$) over and above Q and age. The contribution of Q decreased but remained significant at step 2. Again, the highest amount of contribution was made by direct fit in the final step, with $\beta = .43$, $p < .01$.

Finally, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, it explained 25 % variance in affective commitment ($F = 60.40$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = .50$, $p < .01$. Results revealed that all fit measures were significantly predictive of affective commitment and among all fit measures, direct fit explained the highest amount of variance in affective commitment. These resullts revealed that P-O fit is predictive of affective commitment such that as employees have greater levels of fit, they have higher levels of affective commitment. Moreover, direct fit explained variance in affective commitment over and above indirect fit measures.

Table 9. The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses for the Set of Predictors of Affective Commitment

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Step 1: Demographics		.02	.02	4.29*
Age	-.15*			
Indirect fit measure: D				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.18	.15	33.05**
Age	.10			
D	-.39**			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.31	.14	34.81**
Age	.11			
D	-.22**			
Direct Fit	.41**			
Indirect fit measure: |D|				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.20	.18	40.36**
Age	.12			
|D|	-.25**			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.32	.11	29.61**
Age	.12			
|D|	-.25**			
Direct Fit	.38**			

Table 9 (continued).

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Indirect fit measure: D^2				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.23	.21	47.33**
Age	.12			
D^2	-.45**			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.33	.10	26.49**
Age	.12			
D^2	-.28**			
Direct Fit	.36**			
Indirect fit measure: Q				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.14	.12	24.68**
Age	.13			
Q	.35**			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.30	.16	40.06**
Age	.12			
Q	.19**			
Direct Fit	.43**			
Direct fit measure				
Step 2:		.27	.25	60.40**
Age	.14*			
Direct P-O Fit	.50**			

** $p<.01$ and * $p<.05$.

5.8.4. Prediction of Continuance Commitment

Seperate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the influences of each indirect P-O fit measures on continuance commitment as well as the influence of direct fit measure over and above indirect fit measures. Since none of the demographic variables significantly correlated with continuance commitment, no control variables were used. A standard regression analysis was employed to find out the influence of direct fit on continuance commitment. Table 10 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), $\underline{R}^2$, F values and significance of F values.

When D was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 6% variance ($F = 11.84$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.25$, $p < .01$; whereas, in the final step, direct fit explained an additional 5% variance over D ($F = 9.50$, $p < .01$), with a $\beta = .25$, $p < .01$. D did not

explain significant amount of variance at step 2. So, direct fit was the only significant predictor at step 2.

|D| explained 9% variance in continuance commitment at step 1 ($F = 17.60$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.30$, $p < .01$; whereas, in the final step, direct fit explained an additional 3% variance over |D| ($F = 6.80$, $p < .01$), with a $\beta = .21$, $p < .01$. |D| explained a lower of amount of variance at step 2 when compared to step 1 but remained significant, with $\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$. As can be observed, direct fit and |D| explained almost same amount of variance in continuance commitment at step 2.

D^2 explained 8% variance ($F = 16.18$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.29$, $p < .01$. At step 2, direct fit explained an additional 3% variance ($F = 6.90$, $p < .05$) over and above D^2 with $\beta = .21$, $p < .01$, while the contribution of D^2 decreased but still remained significant   ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$).

When Q was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 9% variance ($F = 17.89$, $p < .01$), with $\beta = .30$, $p < .01$. At step 2, direct fit explained an additional 4% variance ($F = 8.64$, $p < .01$) over and above Q. The contribution of Q decreased at step 2 but remained significant. At step 2, direct fit and Q explained the same amount of variance, with $\beta = .22$, $p < .01$.

Finally, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, it explained 9% variance in continuance commitment ($F = 17.97$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = .30$, $p < .01$. Results revealed that all fit measures were significantly predictive of continuance commitment and among all fit measures and except for D, all fit measures explained almost the same amount of variance in continuance commitment. These resullts revealed that P-O fit is predictive of continuance commitment such that as employees have greater levels of fit, they have higher levels of continuance commitment. Moreover, direct fit explained variance in continuance commitment over and above indirect fit measures.

Table 10- The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Set of the Predictors of Continuance Commitment

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Indirect fit measure: D				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.06	.06	11.84**
D	-.25**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.11	.05	9.50**
D	-.15*			
Direct Fit	.25**			
Indirect fit measure: |D|				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.09	.09	17.60**
|D|	-.30**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.12	.03	6.80**
|D|	-.20**			
Direct Fit	.21**			
Indirect fit measure: D^2				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.08	.08	16.18**
D^2	-.29**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.12	.03	6.90*
D^2	-.18*			
Direct Fit	.21*			
Indirect fit measure: Q				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit		.09	.09	17.89**
Q	.30**			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.13	.04	8.64**
Q	.22**			
Direct Fit	.22**			
Direct fit measure	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	F	
		.09	17.97**	
Direct P-O Fit	.30**			

** p<.01 and * p<.05.

5.8.5. Prediction of Normative Commitment

Seperate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the influences of each indirect P-O fit measures on normative commitment and the influence of direct fit measure over and above indirect fit measures. Since none of the demographic variables significantly correlated with normative commitment, no control variables were used. A standard regression analysis was employed to find out the

influence of direct fit on normative commitment. Table 11 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2, F values and significance of F values.

When D was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 20% variance (F = 45.08, p< .01) with β = -.45, p < .01; whereas, in the final step, direct fit explained an additional 8% variance over D (F = 19.56, p < .01), with a β = .31, p < .01. The amount of variance explained by D decreased but remained significant at step 2 with β = -.32, p < .01. Thus, both fit measures explained almost the same amount of variance at step 2.

|D| explained 21% variance in normative commitment at step 1 (F = 46.04, p < .01) with β = -.45, p< .01; whereas, in the final step, direct fit explained an additional 7% variance over |D| (F = 16.67, p < .01), with a β = .30, p < .01. |D| explained a lower of amount of variance at step 2 when compared to step 1 but remained significant, with a β = -.31, p < .01. Similar to the case in D, direct fit and |D| explained very close amount of variance in normative commitment at step 2.

D^2 explained 18% variance (F = 38.10, p < .01) with β = - .42, p < .01. At step 2, direct fit explained an additional 7% variance (F = 17.64, p < .05) over and above D^2 with β = .31, p < .01, whereas, the contribution of D^2 decreased but still remained significant (β = -.27, p < .01). So, direct fit explained higher amount of variance in normative commitment.

When Q was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained 12% variance (F = 24.46, p < .01), with β = .34, p < .01. At step 2, direct fit explained an additional 11% variance (F = 26.56, p < .01) over and above Q. The contribution of Q decreased at step 2 but remained significant. At step 2, direct fit explained the highest amount of variance, with β = .36, p < .01.

Finally, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, it explained 20% variance in normative commitment (F = 43.60, p < .01) with β = .44, p < .01. Results revealed that all fit measures were significantly predictive of normative commitment and D, |D| and direct fit explained the highest amount of variance in normative commitment. These results revealed that P-O fit is predictive of normative commitment such that as employees have greater levels of fit, they have higher levels of normative

commitment. In addiditon to this, direct fit explained variance in normative commitment over and above indirect fit measures.

Table 11- The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Set of the Predictors of Normative Commitment

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Indirect fit measure: D				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit D	-.45**	.20	.20	45.08**
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit D	-.32**	.28	.08	19.56**
Direct Fit	.31**			
Indirect fit measure: |D|				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit |D|	-.45**	.21	.21	46.04**
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit |D|	-.31**	.27	.07	16.67**
Direct Fit	.30**			
Indirect fit measure: D^2				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit D^2	-.42**	.18	.18	38.10**
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit D^2	-.27**	.25	.07	17.64**
Direct Fit	.31**			
Indirect fit measure: Q				
Step 1: Indirect P-O Fit Q	.34**	.12	.12	24.46**
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit Q	.21**	.24	.11	26.56**
Direct Fit	.36**			
Direct fit measure	Beta (stcoef)	R^2		F
Direct P-O Fit	.44**	.20		43.60**

** p<.01 and * p<.05.

5.8.6. Prediction of Supervisor Ratings of Overall Performance

Among fit measures, solely direct fit was significantly correlated to overall performance. Because of this, only direct fit was used in the regression analysis. Overall

performance was also found to be correlated with age and tenure of employees. Thus, a 2-step hierarchical regression was conducted in order to determine the influence of direct fit on overall performance beyond age and tenure. The order of entry was as follows: 1) age and tenure, 2) direct fit. Table 12 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), which shows the significance and relative importance of that variable in the equation; R^2, which is the variance explained in the outcome variable; the change in R^2 as a result of the lastly added variable and F statistic showing the significance of the change for each step.

At step 1, age explained 7% of variance in overall performance ratings ($F = 6.48$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.27$, $p < .01$ and tenure did not make any significant contribution. Whereas, direct fit explained an additional 6% variance ($F = 12.02$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = .24$, $p < .01$. On the other hand, the contribution of both age and tenure increased at step 2 however only age made a significant contribution. Age made the highest contribution at step 2.

These findings indicate that as the age of employees decreased and they perceive higher levels of fit between their values and organizational values, their supervisor ratings of performance increased. Since none of the indirect fit measures were significantly correlated to overall performance measure and only direct fit was a significant predictor of supervisor ratings of overall performance, hypothesis II/a was supported for only direct fit measure.

Table 12- The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Relationship Between Direct Fit and Supervisor Ratings of Overall Performance

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Step 1: Demographics		.07	.07	6.48**
Age	-.27**			
Tenure	.01			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.13	.06	12.02**
Age	-.29**			
Tenure	.04			
Direct Fit	.24**			

** p<.01 and * p<.05.

5.8.7. Prediction of Supervisor Ratings of Task Performance

Similar to supervisor ratings of overall performance, only direct fit among the fit measures was significantly correlated with supervisor ratings of task performance. Task performance was also correlated with age. A hierarchical regression analysis was employed to find out the influence of direct fit beyond age. Table 13 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), R^2 and F statistic.

As seen from table, age explained 4% variance at step 1 ($F = 7.17$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$. Beyond that direct fit explained an additional 4% variance ($F = 7.20$, $p < .01$) with $\beta = .19$, $p < .01$. The influence of age did not change at step 2. Age and direct fit were equally accountable for the variance explained at step 2.

Thus, as the age of employees decreased and they perceived higher levels of fit between their values and organizational values, their supervisory ratings of task performance increased. Since none of the indirect fit measures were significantly correlated to task performance and only direct fit was a significant predictor of supervisor ratings of task performance, a partial support for hypothesis II/b was obtained.

Table 13- The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Relationship Between Direct Fit and Supervisor Ratings of Task Performance

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Step 1: Demographics		.04	.04	7.17**
Age	-.20*			
Step 2: Direct P-O Fit		.08	.04	7.20**
Age	-.20*			
Direct Fit	.19**			

** p<.01 and * p<.05.

5.8.8. Prediction of Supervisor Ratings of Contextual Performance

Correlation analyses revealed that only D^2 and direct fit significantly correlated with supervisor ratings of contextual performance. A 3-step hierarchical regression

analysis was conducted in order to control for the effects of significantly correlated demographic variables and to find out if direct fit had an influence over and above indirect fit measures. The order of entry was as follows: 1) age and tenure, 2) indirect fit measure, 3) direct fit measure. In addition to this, a 2-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to find out the influence of direct fit on contextual performance after controlling for age and tenure. Table 14 displays the standardized regression coefficients (β), which shows the significance and relative importance of that variable in the equation; R^2, which is the variance explained in the outcome variable; the change in R^2 as a result of the lastly added variable and F statistic showing the significance of the change for each step.

In all regression equations age and tenure explained 9% variance ($F = 8.56$, $p < .01$) at step 1. However, age accounted for most of that variance with β = -.22, $p < .01$ while tenure did not have a significant contribution. Shared variance between age and tenure could have accounted for this. When D^2 was entered as the indirect fit measure, it explained an additional 3% variance beyond age and tenure ($F = 6.05$, $p < .05$) with β = -.17, $p < .05$. The contribution of tenure increased at step 2 but still remained insignificant. At step 3, direct fit explained an additional 4% variance ($F = 7.71$, $p < .01$) with β = .22, $p < .01$ over and above D^2, age and tenure, while the contribution of D^2 decreased and became insignificant, whereas, the contribution of age increased, with β = -.25, $p < .01$. Thus, age and direct fit accounted for the variance explained at step 3, with age having a higher beta coefficient.

Finally, when direct fit was used as the only fit measure, it explained an additional 6 % variance beyond age and tenure ($F = 13.35$, $p < .01$) with β = .25, $p < .01$. Tenure remained insignificant, whereas, the contribution of age did not change. Age and direct fit were equally accountable for the amount of variance explained at step 3.

Results revealed that both direct fit and D^2 explained significant amount of variance beyond demographic variables at step 2, while direct fit explained higher amount of additional variance. However, the amount of variance explained by D^2 decreased and became insignificant when direct fit was entered into the equation. That is, D^2 did not have a unique contibution in explaining contextual performance after

direct fit was entered into the equation. Moreover, age consistenly and increasingly predicted contextual performance in every step. Since both indirect and direct fit measure significantly predicted contextual performance over and above age and tenure, it can be concluded that hypothesis II/c was supported. That is, employees with higher levels of fit receive higher supervisor ratings on contextual performance. In addition to this, direct fit explained higher amount of variance in contextual performance after controlling for significantly correlated variables, which supported hypothesis II/d.

Table 14- The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for the Set of Predictors of Supervisor Ratings of Contextual Performance

	Beta (stcoef)	R^2	R^2 Change	F for Change
Step 1: Demographics		.09	.09	8.56**
Age	-.22*			
Tenure	-.09			
Indirect fit measure: D^2				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.12	.03	6.05*
Age	-.22*			
Tenure	-.11			
D^2	-.17*			
Step 3: Direct P-O Fit		.16	.04	7.71**
Age	-.25*			
Tenure	-.07			
D^2	-.06			
Direct Fit	.22*			
Direct Fit Measure				
Step 2: Indirect P-O Fit		.15	.06	13.35**
Age	-.25*			
Tenure	-.07			
Direct Fit	.25**			

** p<.01 and * p<.05.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted to examine the effects of P-O fit on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and performance beyond the effects of control variables as depicted in Figure 2. In addition to this, the relationships between different measures of P-O fit were analyzed and they were compared for their power of predicting the dependent variables. Findings are discussed below in terms of the conceptual framework depicted in Figure 2.

6.1. Relationship between P-O Fit and Outcome Variables

A total of six hypotheses were developed regarding the relationship between P-O fit and outcome variables and among these six hypotheses, three of them were supported and three of them were partially supported. This supported other study findings, which demonstrated that value congruence is a consistent and effective predictor of employee outcomes (Boxx et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Verquer et al., 2001; Westerman and Cyr, 2004).

** Prediction of Job Satisfaction

The first hypothesis indicating a positive and significant relationship between P-O fit and job satisfaction beyond the effects of control variables was supported, which is consistent with other study findings (Downey et al. 1975; Meglino et al., 1989; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991; Tepeci, 2001). Therefore, greater levels of value congruence between employee and the organization is associated with greater levels of job satisfaction.

** Prediction of Supervisor Ratings of Overall Performance, Task Performance and Contextual Performance

Analysis of the data revealed a partial support for Hypothesis II/a stating that there is a significant and positive relationship between P-O fit and overall performance as rated by supervisors beyond the effects of control variables. Because among fit measures only direct fit was significantly correlated to overall performance.

This limited correlation of performance variable with other variables can be due to the negatively skewed distribution of the two components of the variable. Supervisors mainly rated their employees contextual and task performances high with mean scores of 4.24 and 4.39, respectively. A narrow range of scores could have limited potential correlation with other variables as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001). It was observed that transformation of the variable did not improve the situation, so no transormations were done.

Another interesting finding was the insignificant and very low correlation of supervisor rated and self rated overall performance (r=.04) as well as task and contextual performance. This finding indicates that employees and supervisors have different perceptions regarding the performance of employees, mean score of supervisor ratings being higher. On the average, supervisors tend to engage in excessive leniency in rating subordinates, which can be labeled as leniency error. It occures when raters held an inappropriate judgmental standard. One reason for this may be a desire on the part of supervisors to convey a positive image for themselves and their departments by presenting a positive picture for their subordinates' performance level. It can be argued that they equate thier subordinates' performance with their performance ("I'm a good supervisor, so my subordinates are high performers as well").

On the other hand, subordinates tend to give lower ratings for themselves. In relation to this, it can be argued that subordinates engaged in face saving (Earley, 1997). That is, thinking that their self-ratings would be made available to their supervisors they could have preferred not presenting their performances at extreme levels and gave modest ratings to themselves. An alternative explanation could be that since majority of participants were white-collar employees with high education levels and the nature of tasks are mostly routine, they could have perceived themselves as performing below

their potential. That is, participants could have thought that their current tasks and duties do not necessiate the complete use of their skills and abilities and rated performance items from this perspective.

However, since the study was conducted in a real organizational setting and that organization uses supervisor ratings for appraising performance of employees, it was used a measure of performance in the study as well. Performance reviews are not conducted in the organization, rather, such issues are kept secret and not disclosed to employees. A more open communication on this issue through performance reviews could have made each party's view salient and thereby could have contributed to lessening the discrepancy in views about performance.

Regarding the relationship between P-O fit and supervisor ratings of task performance, among the fit measures only direct fit was a significant predictor of task performance. So, Hypothesis II/b foreseeing a significant positive relationship between P-O fit and supervisor ratings of task performance beyond the effects of control variables was partially supported. As cited above, narrow range of scores on this variable could have accounted for insignificant correlations with other variables.

Whereas, the Hypothesis III/c stating that P-O fit and contextual performance are significantly and positively related beyond the effects of control variables was partially supported such that significant relationships were obtained only for direct fit and D^2. Different from task performance, contextual performance was correlated with D^2 as well. This may be due to a less negatively skewed pattern of contextual performance. Therefore, employees with higher levels of fit had higher ratings of contextual performance. It can be argued that since contextual performance is an extra-role behavior and more associated with personal willingness, value similarity between the employee and organization could foster a willingness toward helping others, and volunteering for extra-role behaviors.

Based on the argument that behaviors such as volunteering, helping, persisting are better predicted by volitional variables related to individual differences in motivational characteristics and predisposition, it was hypothesized that P-O fit explains more variance in contextual performance than task performance after controlling for significantly correlated demographic variables. Analysis revealed support for this

hypothesis such that direct fit explained more variance in contextual performance when compared to task performance, which has been argued by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) as well as Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994).

As a result, this study revealed a positive relationship between P-O fit and different types of performance which is consistent with other findings (Downey et al., 1975; Tziner, 1987; Bretz and Judge, 1994). In addition to this, a higher level of relationship between direct fit and contextual performance was observed when compared to task performance.

** Prediction of Overall Organizational Commitment, Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment

Results supported Hypothesis III stating that P-O fit is significantly and positively associated with organizational commitment beyond the effect of control variables, which is consistent with other findings (Meglino et al., 1989; Chatman, 1991; Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991).

Results revealed a significant effect of all fit measures on affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, as well. Accordingly, as employees had higher levels of fit, they experienced higher levels of affective, continuance and normative commitment. Solely O'Reilly et al.(1991) found a significant positive relationship between P-O fit and normative commitment as a result of factor analysing the overall organizational commitment measure in their study. However, normative commitment was defined differently as the attachment of employee to the organization based on value congruence. Therefore, none of the reviewed studies investigated the relationship between P-O fit and three-way classification of organizational commitment.

The underlying reasons for a positive relationships between fit and affective commitment can be explained as follows: Affective commitment occurs when employees perceive an emotional attachment to the organization or identify with the organization. A congruence between personal and organizational values can be cited as one of the most important factors underlying such an emotional attachment or identification. Thus, greater levels of fit is expected to foster such an emotional

attachment and thereby, result in greater levels of affective commitment. In addition to this, because of its underlying basis affective commitment can be expected to have greater levels of relationship with P-O fit when compared to other types of commitment. In accordance with this argument, D^2 and direct fit consistently explained the highest amount of variance in affective commitment, followed by normative commitment and continuance commitment.

Results also revealed a significant positive relationship between P-O fit and continuance commitment. That is, as employees experience higher levels of fit, they perceive greater levels of cost associated with leaving the organization. One reason for such a relationship could be as follows; as employees experience greater levels of fit between their personal values and organizational values, they could perceive this value similarity as one of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Finally a significant and positive relationship between P-O fit and normative commitment implies that as employees had greater levels of fit, they perceive higher levels of obligation to the organization.

6.2. Relationship Between Control Variables and Dependent Variables

Results revealed that men experienced significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than women, which is consistent with other study findings (Tepeci, 2001; Tidball, 1988). However, gender did not significantly contributed to the explanation of job satisfaction when entered together with fit measures into the equation.

Age was significantly correlated with affective commitment and made a significant unique contribution to the explanation of affective commitment only when entered together with direct fit into the equation. It did not make a significant contribution to explanation of affective commitment when entered with other fit measures. The reason for this could be an interaction effect that occur between direct fit and age in the explanation of affective commitment.

Age was also significantly negatively correlated with supervisor ratings of task performance, contextual performance and overall performance. And, it came out as a consistent significant predictor of both types of performance as well as overall measure of performamce in all regression analyses. Age continued to make significant

contributions after other variables are added. This finding indicated that as the age of employees increased, they received lower ratings of contextual performance. The nature of promotion procedures of the organization could be one explanation for this. According to the promotion procedures, three years after the entry of the organization an occupational sufficiency examination is done for assisstant specialists after which the successful assistant specialists become specialists. During this 3-year period, the performance of assistant specialists is evaluated by the specialists they work with and department heads and these ratings contribute to their scores for occupational sufficiency. Because of this, assistant specialists could have presented themselves more favorable in terms of contextual performance in order to have good images in the eyes of department heads. Specialists, on the other hand, do not need to look that much good in the eyes of the supervisors because, after becoming an specialist they achieve a high level of job security and since promotion alternatives are very limted in public sector they generally don't have promotion motive.

However, the above argument brings the effect of "reward" component on the contextual performance of employees. In their study Goodman and Svyantek (1999) found out that "reward" dimension of organizational culture was a significant predictor of both task performance and contextual performance. This implied that contextual performance is not as "free" as thought. It was believed that a psychological contract rather than a work contract underlies contextual performance of employees. But there is a growing belief that the nature of psychological contract between organizations and employees is changing (Rousseau, 1995). Valid performance appraisals, immediate rewards and the de-emphasize of long-term organizational commitment on the part of employees and organizations could have become the focus of psychological contracts. A low level of organizational commitment but a high level of contextual performance of the participants of the study is supportive of the argument that employees with lower ages perform extra-role behaviors with a reward motive. An alternative explanation could have been a higher level of motivation in the early years of employment in the organization, which decreases as age and tenure increases.

Apart from age, tenure was also significantly negatively correlated with the overall measure of supervisor rating of performance. However, it did not have

significant contribution to predicting performance when entered with age into regression equation because of its shared variance with age. The same argument made for the association with age can also be made for tenure.

6.3. Comparison of Different Measures of P-O Fit

One purpose of the study was to compare different measures of fit, both direct and indirect fit, in terms of their predictive power and to examine whether there is a significant association between direct and indirect fit measures. Results revealed a moderate level of correlation between all types of indirect fit measures and direct fit; $r = -.42$ for D; $r = -.47$ for |D|; $r = -.49$ for D^2 and $r = .37$ for Q. Higher correlations were obtained in this study when compared to other findings on this relationship, except for Tepeci's (2001) findings for indirect fit measures of |D| and D^2. Cable and Judge (1996, 1997) reported $r = .26$, $p < .01$ and $r = .25$, $p < .01$ in two of their studies in which they used correlation between Q-sort profiles of personal and organizational values as the indirect fit measure; whereas, Enz (1988) reported a moderate correlation of $r = .37$, $p < .05$ in his study in which he calculated a similarity score based on an index of net difference measure for measuring latent value congruity. Similar to this study, Tepeci (2001) investigated the level of association between direct fit and indirect fit seperately for multiple fit measures such that he reported a correlation of $r = -.52$, $p < .01$ for |D|; $r = -.53$, $p < .01$ for D^2 and $r = .14$, $p < .05$ for Q. The level of correlations obtained for |D| and D^2 in Tepeci's (2001) study were very close to this study's findings, whereas, correlation between Q and direct fit was much more high in this study. On the other hand, Q was used as a measure of indirect fit in Cable and Judge's (1996, 1997) study as well; however, the level of correlations obtained were lower. Enz (1988) utilized a different objective fit measure and he reported a moderate level of correlation between direct and indirect fit. Although relatively higher level of correlations were obtained in this study when compared to others, they still represent moderate level of associations. Thus, it can be argued that direct fit and indirect fit measures are related but nonetheless distinct constructs. Further investigation can help in clarifying the issue.

In terms of predictive power of different fit measures, except for normative commitment, direct fit ranked first. But even for normative commitment amount of variance explained by direct fit was almost the same with other fit measures. This finding is consistent with Enz (1988) who found that direct fit was a better predictor than indirect fit. However, as noted by Kristof (1996) and Edwards (1993, 1994), since the direct fit scale does not explicitly describe what values to consider, it is impossible to ensure that respondents considered commensurate dimensions. Thus, a consistency bias ("I think that I fit well, so I must be satisfied with my job.") could potentially inflate the correlation. What is more, direct fit always explained variance over and above indirect fit measures for all dependent variables. That is, direct fit made a unique contribution in the explanation of all dependent variables. And this unique contribution was the highest among other predictors in the last step of hierarchical regression analyses. This finding can also be regarded as a sign that direct fit and indirect fit are distinct constructs.

If a comparison between indirect fit measures is to be made in terms of their predictive power, it should be indicated that D^2 explained the highest amount of variance in three of the five dependent variables that were significantly correlated with all indirect fit measures. Thus, it can be argued that on the average D^2 was the most important indirect fit measure in terms of predictive power. Further investigation could reveal whether D^2 should be preferred over others as a measure of indirect fit in terms of its predictive power.

6.4. Comparison of Overfit and Underfit

Results revealed that employees with overfit scores, which occurs when the level of organizational value is above the preferred level, had significantly higher normative commitment, reported higher contextual performance and had lower supervisor ratings of task performance when compared to employees with underfit scores. Therefore, when the actual level of values exceeds the preferred level, which can also be regarded as a "misfit" situation, positive individual outcomes such as higher normative commitment and self-ratings of contextual performance can be observed. However, it is also associated with low levels of supervisor ratings of task performance.

So, mixed results were obtained in terms of the consequences associated with overfit and underfit. This finding does not support Edwards (1996) and Edwards and Rothbard (1999) who found excess supplies over values, which can be regarded as an overfit situation to be consistently related to positive outcomes.

6.5. Limitations of the Study

There are four main limitations of the study. First, data was collected from only one organization operating in public sector and the majority of the respondents were white-collar employees. Thus, generalizability of the results of the study is limited. Future research could avoid this limitation by collecting data from multiple organizations and industries which could allow for investigation of validity across different work contexts.

Second, data were collected at a single time point, which hindered the investigation of possibility of reverse causality between fit and individual outcomes. For instance, it is possible that organizational commitment can cause employees to alter their values towards beter fit. However, there are theoretical reasons to believe that similarity in personal and organizational values can result in changes in attitudes and behaviors. As noted by Rokeach (1973), values and beliefs influence attitudes and behaviroal intentions since they are more general and stable when compared to attitudes and behavioral intentions, which are more time specific and directed more toward particular objects. Thus, future studies could be longitudinally designed in order to investigate for reverse causality.

Third, the present study relied on supervisory judgments for measures of task and contextual performance. Although it is presumed that supervisory judgments are good measures of performance there is always the potential for bias in perceptual processess. Therefore, future research might address this issue by including both superivisor and peer ratings in their studies or using more objective performance measures if available.

Fourth, common method variance is a potential limitation of the study. Since data regarding personal values and organizational values were collected from the same source, results obtained about the relationship between P-O fit measures and outcome

variables could be a reflection of this. Future research could address this limitation by collecting data on personal and organizational values seperately from different groups of organization members. For instance, data on organizational values could be collected from employees with relatively high tenures or top managers who are presumed to have a satisfactory level of knowledge on organizational culture, whereas, another group of employees could be asked only to provide data on their personal values.

6.6. Strengths of the Study

Three of them being partially supported, all of the hypotheses of the study were supported. Therefore, the study contributed to P-O fit literature by providing verified relationships between the P-O fit and important individual outcome variables in organizational settings.

To the author's knowledge, this study is the first study that investigated the relationship between fit and several individual outcomes in an organization in Turkey. On the other hand, the literature on P-O fit mostly belongs to western context. In this sense, it has contributed to the literature by providing an example from a different context.

Analysis of the data revealed high reliabilities for organizational commitment and performance variables, which were measured using relatively low number of items. Taking the fact that individuals are not willing to fill out long surveys and answer many questions, items used for measuring organizational commitment and performance can be used in subsequent studies and their reliabilities and validities can be tested on a study-by-study basis.

Operationalizing fit on the basis of value congruence has contributed to the strength of the study because of its fundamental and relatively enduring effect on behavior and attitudes which has been demonstrated in prior reserach through its consistent and significant effect on employee outcomes. Taking value congruency as the basis for fit measurement also enables measuring personal and organizational values on commensurate dimensions, which has been empirically demonstrated to be superior over non-commensurate measures (Cherrington and England, 1980) and eliminates problems that result from using non-commensurate measurement.

Conducting the study in a real environment also adds to the strength of the study by improving its generalizability. However, as noted above, collecting data from only one organization composed of highly qualified employees is one limitation in this regard.

Moreover, the present study contributed to P-O fit literature by comparing different fit measures in terms of their predictive power of individual outcome variables and analyzing their association with each other. Studies involving such comparisons, especially the ones that compare direct and indirect fit measures have been relatively rare in literature.

Finally, studies investigating the relationship between contextual performance and P-O fit has been relatively rare as well. Thus, it contributed to the litearture by focusing on a different type of performance measure.

6.7. Implications for Human Resource Management Practices

These demonstrated results have important implications for human resource management activities in organizations. The lack of a coherent and unique conceptualization and operationalization of P-O fit has been emphasized before. Because of this, while discussing the implications of demonstrated consequences of P-O fit for human resource management activities, Kristof's (1996) comprehensive definition that incorporate both complementary and supplementary fit will be taken as a reference point. In accordance with this, the findings of the literature can be phrased as the following: When individuals in organizations have values, goals, personality and attitudes similar with organization's culture, climate, values, goals and norms (referred to as complementary fit) or when at least one entity- the person or the organization- provide what other needs in terms of resources, opportunities or knowledge, skills and abilities (referred to as supplementary fit), positive work-related individual outcomes or organizational outcomes are likely to occur. Because of this, human resource management should assume an important role in ensuring P-O fit.

In terms of selection practices, P-O fit in addition to P-J fit should be used as a selection criterion as proposed by Bowen, Ledford and Nathan (1991) as a "new model of selection" which is based on the idea of hiring a "whole" person who will fit well

into the specific organization's culture. Accordingly, recruiters can ensure P-O fit by tailoring recruitment strategies such that only individuals who share the fundamental characteristics of the organization such as values and goals are attracted and selected. Ash et al. (1992) demonstrated this in the context of Web-based recruitment. At the least, the values and goals of the organization can be made clear and salient in recruitment ads or realistic job previews can be conducted, for instance, in campus presentations. By this way, candidates can have a prior knowledge about the valued characteristics or behaviors and assess the congruence between his/her values in determining the attractiveness of the organization. In addition to these, a questionnaire assessing the fit between the values of the person and the organization can be filled out by individuals in the attraction stage, and individuals with misfit can be eliminated from the candidate pool. Moreover, human resource management can develop socialization programs in order to maintain or improve the level of P-O fit of employees.

A distinction between organization-level work value congruence and group-level work value congruence is appropriate in the context of organizational culture. Sub-units in organizations can have different values when compared to the whole organization or other sub-units. That is sub-cultures can exist in organizations. In such situations, the identification of each unit's values and being aware of this difference are important in terms of selection and placement activities.

Another point that is worth noting regarding the relationship between P-O fit and organizational-level outcomes is the potential threat of being too myopic, losing creativity and an inability to adopt to changing environments as a result of creating a very homogenous organization made up of same people. This point was argued by Arygris (1957). Therefore, human resource management should be aware of such a threat especially when the rapidly changing nature of today's work environments that require higher flexibility and creativity is considered.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

BRIEF EXPLANATION OF THE STUDY TO PARTICIPANTS

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Bölümü Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Müge KARAKURUM tarafından Doç. Dr. Reyhan BİLGİÇ'in danışmanlığında yürütülen tez çalışması kapsamında yapılmaktadır.

Bu araştırmanın amacı, çalışanların değerleri, işlerine karşı tutumları ve iş performansı ile kurum kültürü hakkında bilgi edinmek ve elde edilen verileri bilimsel yöntemlerle analiz etmektir.

Bu anketten elde edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Araştırma sonuçlarında araştırmanın yapıldığı kurumun adı ile anketi dolduran çalışanların isimleri kullanılmayacaktır. Bu nedenle isminizi belirtmenize gerek yoktur. Vereceğiniz cevaplar kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır. Çalışanın iş performansı bağlı bulunduğu birimin yöneticisi tarafından da birim yöneticisine ayrı olarak verilecek performans değerlendirme formunun doldurulmasıyla değerlendirilecek ve bu şekilde çalışanların anket bilgileri yönetici tarafından görülmeyecektir. Yönetici-çalışan eşleştirmesi ise modern istatistik yöntemlerinin uygulanması suretiyle yapılarak kişilerin kimlik bilgileri hiçbir surette araştırmacı tarafından bilinmeyecektir. Talep edildiği takdirde araştırma sonuçları grup ortalaması bazında açıklanabilecektir.

Soruları cevaplarken göstereceğiniz dikkat ve içten cevaplar vermeniz araştırmanın sağlıklı ve güvenilir olabilmesi bakımından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Soruları yanıtlamak için ayırdığınız zaman ve gösterdiğiniz çaba ile araştırmaya sağladığınız katkılar için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla,

Müge KARAKURUM

APPENDIX B

ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES SCALE

Aşağıda 54 tane değer sıralanmıştır. Sizden istenen, her bir değerin **çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumun kültürünü** yansıtma derecesini değerlendirmenizdir.

Kurum kültürünü oluşturan değerler <u>neyin önemli olduğu, çalışanlarca ne tür davranışlar gösterilmesi gerektiği, çalışanların ne tür tutumlara sahip olması gerektiği</u> konularında kurum çalışanlarını yönlendiren normlar veya beklentiler olarak nitelendirilebilir.

Bu doğrultuda, her değer için aşağıda yer verilen soruyu kendinize sorunuz ve cevaplarınızı uygun rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

" Bu değer, çalışmakta olduğum kurumun kültürünü ne ölçüde yansıtıyor? "

Hiç yansıtmıyor	Az yansıtıyor	Orta derecede yansıtıyor	Büyük ölçüde yansıtıyor	Tamamen yansıtıyor
1------------------2------------------3------------------4------------------5				

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Esneklik	1	2	3	4	5
2. Şartlara ve çevreye uyum sağlama yeteneği	1	2	3	4	5
3. İstikrar	1	2	3	4	5
4. Belirsizliğin minimum düzeyde olması	1	2	3	4	5
5. Yenilikçi olmak	1	2	3	4	5
6. Fırsatlardan yararlanmak konusunda hızlı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
7. Yeni tecrübeler edinme konusunda isteklilik	1	2	3	4	5
8. Risk almak	1	2	3	4	5
9. Dikkatli olmak	1	2	3	4	5
10. Yöneticinin yakın gözetimi olmaksızın iş ile ilgili kararlar alabilmek	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kuralcı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
12. Analitik olmak	1	2	3	4	5
13. Detaya önem vermek	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kesin ve net olmak	1	2	3	4	5
15. Takım odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
16. Bilgiyi serbestçe paylaşmak	1	2	3	4	5
17. Kurumun bütününe hakim olan bir kurum kültürünün oluşmasına önem verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
18. İnsan odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
19. Hakkaniyet	1	2	3	4	5
20. Kişi haklarına saygı	1	2	3	4	5
21. Hoşgörü	1	2	3	4	5

" Bu değer, çalışmakta olduğum kurumun kültürünü ne ölçüde yansıtıyor? "

Hiç yansıtmıyor	Az yansıtıyor	Orta derecede yansıtıyor	Büyük ölçüde yansıtıyor	Tamamen yansıtıyor
1----------------------2----------------------3----------------------4----------------------5				

	1	2	3	4	5
22. Resmiyete önem vermemek	1	2	3	4	5
23. Uyumlu olmak	1	2	3	4	5
24. Soğukkanlı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
25. Destekleyici olmak	1	2	3	4	5
26. Mücadeleci olmak	1	2	3	4	5
27. Kararlılık	1	2	3	4	5
28. Eylem odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
29. İnisiyatif almak	1	2	3	4	5
30. Özeleştiri yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
31. Başarı odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
32. Talepkar olmak	1	2	3	4	5
33. Bireysel sorumluluk almak	1	2	3	4	5
34. Performans konusundaki beklentilerin yüksek olması	1	2	3	4	5
35. Profesyonel gelişim için fırsatların olması	1	2	3	4	5
36. İyi performans için yüksek ücret verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
37. İş güvenliği	1	2	3	4	5
38. İş performansının takdir edilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
39. Fikir ayrılıklarının düşük düzeyde olması	1	2	3	4	5
40. Anlaşmazlıklarla doğrudan yüzleşmek	1	2	3	4	5
41. İş yerinde arkadaşlıklar kurmak	1	2	3	4	5
42. Kişi ile yaptığı iş ve bulunduğu çalışma ortamı arasında uyum olması	1	2	3	4	5
43. Başkaları ile işbirliği içinde çalışmak	1	2	3	4	5
44. Yapılan işe karşı heves duymak	1	2	3	4	5
45. Uzun saatler çalışmak	1	2	3	4	5
46. Çok fazla kural ile kısıtlanmamak	1	2	3	4	5
47. Kaliteye önem verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
48. Farklılık yaratabilmek	1	2	3	4	5
49. Kurumun ve çalışanların itibarına önem verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
50. Toplumsal sorumluluk sahibi olmak	1	2	3	4	5
51. Sonuç odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
52. Kurumun yol gösterici net bir felsefesinin olması	1	2	3	4	5
53. Rekabetçi olmak	1	2	3	4	5
54. Çok düzenli ve planlı olmak	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

PERSONAL VALUES SCALE

Aşağıda 54 tane değer sıralanmıştır. Sizden istenen, her değerin **sizin için ideal olan kurum kültürünü** yansıtma derecesini değerlendirmenizdir.

Kurum kültürünü oluşturan değerler <u>neyin önemli olduğu, çalışanlarca ne tür davranışlar gösterilmesi gerektiği, çalışanların ne tür tutumlara sahip olması gerektiği</u> konularında kurum çalışanlarını yönlendiren normlar veya beklentiler olarak nitelendirilebilir.

Bu doğrultuda, her değer için aşağıda yer verilen soruyu kendinize sorunuz ve cevaplarınızı uygun rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

" Bu değer, benim için ideal olan kurum kültürünü ne ölçüde yansıtıyor? "

Hiç yansıtmıyor	Az yansıtıyor	Orta derecede yansıtıyor	Büyük ölçüde yansıtıyor	Tamamen yansıtıyor
1----------------------2----------------------3----------------------4----------------------5				

1. Esneklik	1	2	3	4	5
2. Şartlara ve çevreye uyum sağlama yeteneği	1	2	3	4	5
3. İstikrar	1	2	3	4	5
4. Belirsizliğin minimum düzeyde olması	1	2	3	4	5
5. Yenilikçi olmak	1	2	3	4	5
6. Fırsatlardan yararlanmak konusunda hızlı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
7. Yeni tecrübeler edinme konusunda isteklilik	1	2	3	4	5
8. Risk almak	1	2	3	4	5
9. Dikkatli olmak	1	2	3	4	5
10. Yöneticinin yakın gözetimi olmaksızın iş ile ilgili kararlar alabilmek	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kuralcı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
12. Analitik olmak	1	2	3	4	5
13. Detaya önem vermek	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kesin ve net olmak	1	2	3	4	5
15. Takım odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
16. Bilgiyi serbestçe paylaşmak	1	2	3	4	5
17. Kurumun bütününe hakim olan bir kurum kültürünün oluşmasına önem verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
18. İnsan odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
19. Hakkaniyet	1	2	3	4	5
20. Kişi haklarına saygı	1	2	3	4	5
21. Hoşgörü	1	2	3	4	5
22. Resmiyete önem vermemek	1	2	3	4	5

" Bu değer, benim için ideal olan kurum kültürünü ne ölçüde yansıtıyor? "

Hiç yansıtmıyor	Az yansıtıyor	Orta derecede yansıtıyor	Büyük ölçüde yansıtıyor	Tamamen yansıtıyor
1----------------------2----------------------3----------------------4----------------------5				

23. Uyumlu olmak	1	2	3	4	5
24. Soğukkanlı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
25. Destekleyici olmak	1	2	3	4	5
26. Mücadeleci olmak	1	2	3	4	5
27. Kararlılık	1	2	3	4	5
28. Eylem odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
29. İnisiyatif almak	1	2	3	4	5
30. Özeleştiri yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
31. Başarı odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
32. Talepkar olmak	1	2	3	4	5
33. Bireysel sorumluluk almak	1	2	3	4	5
34. Performans konusundaki beklentilerin yüksek olması	1	2	3	4	5
35. Profesyonel gelişim için fırsatların olması	1	2	3	4	5
36. İyi performans için yüksek ücret verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
37. İş güvenliği	1	2	3	4	5
38. İş performansının takdir edilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
39. Fikir ayrılıklarının düşük düzeyde olması	1	2	3	4	5
40. Anlaşmazlıklarla doğrudan yüzleşmek	1	2	3	4	5
41. İş yerinde arkadaşlıklar kurmak	1	2	3	4	5
42. Kişi ile yaptığı iş ve bulunduğu çalışma ortamı arasında uyum olması	1	2	3	4	5
43. Başkaları ile işbirliği içinde çalışmak	1	2	3	4	5
44. Yapılan işe karşı heves duymak	1	2	3	4	5
45. Uzun saatler çalışmak	1	2	3	4	5
46. Çok fazla kural ile kısıtlanmamak	1	2	3	4	5
47. Kaliteye önem verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
48. Farklılık yaratabilmek	1	2	3	4	5
49. Kurumun ve çalışanların itibarına önem verilmesi	1	2	3	4	5
50. Toplumsal sorumluluk sahibi olmak	1	2	3	4	5
51. Sonuç odaklı olmak	1	2	3	4	5
52. Kurumun yol gösterici net bir felsefesinin olması	1	2	3	4	5
53. Rekabetçi olmak	1	2	3	4	5
54. Çok düzenli ve planlı olmak	1	2	3	4	5

JOB SATISFACTION SCALE

Bu bölümde kendi kendinize "**İşimin bu yönü beni ne kadar tatmin ediyor**?" sorusunu sorunuz ve cevaplarınızı uygun rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

"İşimin bu yönü beni ne kadar tatmin ediyor?"

Hiç tatmin etmiyor	Genelde tatmin etmiyor	Tarafsızım	Genelde tatmin ediyor	Hep tatmin ediyor
1----------------------2----------------------3----------------------4----------------------5

	1	2	3	4	5
1. İşimle sürekli meşgul olabilme fırsatı	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimde bağımsız bir şekilde çalışma fırsatı	1	2	3	4	5
3. Zaman zaman farklı şeylerle meşgul olma şansı	1	2	3	4	5
4. Toplumda, işim sayesinde bir yer edinme olanağı bulma	1	2	3	4	5
5. Amirlerin çalışanlara karşı gösterdiği davranış biçimi	1	2	3	4	5
6. Amirimin karar vermede yeterli olması	1	2	3	4	5
7. Vicdanıma ters düşmeyen şeyleri yapabilme olanağı	1	2	3	4	5
8. Güvencesi olan bir işe sahip olma şansı	1	2	3	4	5
9. Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabilme şansı	1	2	3	4	5
10. Diğer insanlara ne yapacaklarını söyleme fırsatı	1	2	3	4	5
11. Yeteneklerimi kullanabilme imkânı bulma	1	2	3	4	5
12. İş kurallarının uygulamaya konulma tarzı	1	2	3	4	5
13. Yapılan işe karşılık aldığım ücret	1	2	3	4	5
14. İşte ilerleme şansı elde etme	1	2	3	4	5
15. İşimde kendi kararımı verme özgürlüğü	1	2	3	4	5
16. İşimi yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi deneme imkânı bulabilmek	1	2	3	4	5
17. Çalışma koşulları	1	2	3	4	5
18. Çalışma arkadaşlarımın birbirleriyle olan ilişki düzeyi	1	2	3	4	5
19. Yaptığım iyi işten dolayı aldığım övgü	1	2	3	4	5
20. İşimden edindiğim başarı duygusu	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, kişilerin çalıştıkları kurumlar hakkında çeşitli duygu ve düşüncelerini yansıtmaktadır. Aşağıda sunulan 9 ifadeye şu anda çalıştığınız kurum açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı verilen ölçek üzerinde uygun rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

Hiç yansıtmıyor	Az yansıtıyor	Orta derecede yansıtıyor	Büyük ölçüde yansıtıyor	Tamamen yansıtıyor
1----------------------2-----------------------3------------------------4-----------------------5				

1. Bu kuruma karşı güçlü bir aidiyet hissim yok.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kendimi bu kuruma duygusal olarak bağlı hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu kurumun bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Şu anda bu kurumdan ayrılacak olsam hayatım büyük ölçüde alt üst olur.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Yeni bir işyerine alışmak benim için zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Başka bir işyerinin buradan daha iyi olacağının garantisi yok, burayı hiç olmazsa biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp burada kurduğum kişisel ilişkileri bozmam doğru olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Bu kuruma sadakat göstermenin görevim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bu kurumdan şimdi ayrılsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5

PERFORMANCE SCALE

Aşağıdaki cümleler kişilerin çalıştıkları kurumda sergiledikleri performans hakkındaki düşüncelerini yansıtmaktadır. Aşağıda sunulan 11 ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı her ifadenin yanında verilen ölçek üzerinde uygun rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

Hiç yansıtmıyor	Az yansıtıyor	Orta derecede yansıtıyor	Büyük ölçüde yansıtıyor	Tamamen yansıtıyor
1---------------------	2----------------------	3----------------------	4----------------------	5

1. Yüksek kalitede iş ortaya koymaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimin esasını oluşturan ana görevlerimi başarıyla yerine getirmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşimi yaparken zamanı verimli bir şekilde kullanabilmekte ve iş planlarına bağlı kalmaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. İşi başarılı bir şekilde yapabilmek için gerekli teknik bilgiyi görevlerimi yerine getirirken etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken sözlü iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Görevlerimi yerine getirirken yazılı iletişim becerisini etkili bir şekilde kullanabilmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kendi işimin bir parçası olmayan işleri de yapmak için gönüllü olmaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kendi işlerimi yaparken büyük bir heves ve gayret içerisindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Gerektiğinde çalışma arkadaşlarıma yardım etmekte ve onlarla işbirliği içerisinde çalışmaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Kurum kurallarını ve prosedürlerini onaylamakta ve bunlara uyum göstermekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kurum hedeflerini onaylamakta, desteklemekte ve savunmaktayım.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

DIRECT FIT SCALE

Bu bölümde kişilerin çalıştıkları kurumla aralarındaki uyum hakkındaki düşünceleri ortaya konmaya çalışılmaktadır. Aşağıda sunulan 3 ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı her ifadenin yanında verilen ölçek üzerinde uygun rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

Hiç yansıtmıyor	Az yansıtıyor	Orta derecede yansıtıyor	Büyük ölçüde yansıtıyor	Tamamen yansıtıyor
1----------------------2----------------------3----------------------4----------------------5				

1. Kendi değerlerim ile çalıştığım kurumun değerleri örtüşüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kendi değerlerim ile kurumdaki diğer çalışanların değerleri örtüşüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çalıştığım kurumun değerleri ve kişiliği, benim değerlerimi ve kişiliğimi yansıtıyor.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H

THE DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Lütfen aşağıdaki kişisel bilgileri doldurunuz.

Cinsiyet: **K** ___   **E** ___

Yaş: **20 – 30**   ☐

                 31 – 40   ☐

                 41 – 50   ☐

                 51 – 60   ☐

                 61 +   ☐

Eğitim durumunuz: _____

Kaç yıldır bu kurumda çalışıyorsunuz?   **1 – 5**   ☐

                                             5 – 10   ☐

                                           10 – 15   ☐

                                           15 +   ☐

Anketin içeriği, anlaşılırlığı ve uygulaması ile ilgili <u>yorum ve önerileriniz</u> varsa aşağıda belirtebilirsiniz.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Çalışmama sağladığınız değerli katkılar için teşekkür ederim.