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HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT & DEVELOPMENT BİLİM DALI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSON-ORGANIZATION VALUE FIT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

GÖKÇE COŞKUN

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Danışman: DOÇ. DR. MELİHA DENİZ BÖRÜ

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ÖZET

BİREY-ORGANİZASYON DEĞER UYUMU İLE ORGANİZASYONEL BAĞLILIK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

Geçmişte yapılan araştırmalar organizasyonlarına bağlılığı yüksek olan çalışanların daha verimli çalıştıklarını, daha az stres yaşadıklarını, daha az devamsızlık yaptıklarını ve daha az işten ayrıldıklarını ortaya koymuştur. Bu nedenle günümüz iş dünyasında şirketler daha başarılı olabilmek için organizasyonel bağlılık konusuna ayrı bir önem vermektedir ve onu arttırmanın yollarını aramaktadırlar. Bu yollardan biri de birey-organizasyon değer uyumunu sağlamaktan geçmektedir. Çalıştıkları organizasyonda var olan değerlerle kendi sahip oldukları değerler arasındaki uyumun artması ortak bir paylaşımın varlığı nedeniyle çalışanların organizasyonlarına daha fazla bağlı olmasına yol açacak ve organizayonlar için iş anlamında güzel çıktılar doğuracaktır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı; birey-organizasyon değer uyumu ile organizasyonel bağlılık arasındaki ilişkiyi tanımlamaktır. Bu kapsamda Cable ve Judge'ın 1996'da revize ettiği 40 maddelik Organizasyon Kültür Profili Ölçeği ile Meyer ve arkadaşlarının 1993'te revize ettiği 18 maddelik Organizasyonel Bağlılık Ölçeği ve demografik verileri elde etmeye yönelik soruların bulunduğu anket bir telekomünikasyon firmasında çalışan 121 kişiye uygulanmıştır. Araştırmanın sonuçlarına gore; birey-organizasyon değer uyumu ile organizasyonel bağlılık arasında olumlu yönde anlamlı bir ilişki saptanmıştır. Organizasyonel bağlılığın üç faktörü ve birey-organizasyon değer uyumu arasındaki ilişki incelendiğinde ise; literatürdeki bulgularla benzer sonuçlar gözlenmiştir. Birey-organizasyon değer uyumu ile ilkesel bağlılık ve duygusal bağlılık arasında olumlu yönde anlamlı bir ilişki gözlenmiş olup devamlılık bağlılıkla anlamlı bir ilişki gözlenememiştir. Literatürdeki bulgulardan farklı olarak birey-organizasyon değer uyumu ile ilkesel bağlılık arasında duygusal bağlılığa gore daha kuvvetli bir ilişki saptanmıştır.

GENERAL KNOWLEDGE

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSON-ORGANIZATION VALUE FIT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Past researches indicated that employees with high levels of organizational commitment tend to work more efficiently, tend to experience less stress, tend to make less absenteeism and tend to quit their jobs less than do employees with low levels of commitment. That is why in order to be successful in today's work life, organizations give a special importance to organizational commitment topic and try to find ways to keep it high. One of these ways is maintaining person-organization value fit. If the compability of values between individuals and organizations is high, because of this common sharing individuals tend to be more committed to their organizations and that will result with good work outputs.

The aim of this study is to explain the relationship between person-organization value fit and organizational commitment. In this context, a questionnaire consists of Cable & Judge (1996) 's revised 40 items OCP Scale, Meyer et.al.(1993)'s revised 18 items Organizational Commitment Scale and demographic questions were applied to a sample of 121 employees in a telecommunication company. According to the results of the study, a significant positive correlation was found between person-organization value fit and organizational commitment. When the relation between dimensions of organizational commitment and person-organization value fit was examined, findings were consistent with past researches' findings. While a significant positive correlation between person-organization value fit and normative commitment and affective commitment was found, no significant relation was found between person-organization value fit and continuance commitment. Contrary past researches' findings, the relationship between person-organization value fit and normative commitment was stronger than the relationship between person-organization value fit and affective commitment.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Today, the organizations operate in a very competitive global environment. It is really important for organizations to manage costs efficiently in this kind of environment. The major expense for most organizations is the cost of labor, any steps that can be taken to reduce these costs will beneficial.

Lack of commitment among employees is extremely costly to organizations. Employees with low levels of commitment tend to mistakes on the job, tend to absent, ten to experience stress and tend to quit more than do employees with high levels of commitment. Each of these undesirable outcomes can quite costly. That is why organizations must give importance to employee commitment. One construct that may provide organizational commitment is person- organization fit. P-O fit can be defined as the compability between people and organizations that occur when they share similar fundamental characteristics or one of them provides what the other needs. P-O fit can be defined in terms of goal congruence, in terms of environmental congruence, in terms of personality congruence and in terms of value congruence. However, P-O fit defined as value congruence (the congruence between values of people and organizations) tends to have stronger effects on outcomes including organizational commitment.

The importance of P-O fit for organizations is indicated by significant relationships between P-O fit and turnover, work attitudes, teamwork, stress, work performance, socialization and hiring decisions. The higher employees have P-O fit, the higher their performances, their organizational commitment, their job satisfaction will and the lower stress and turnover rate will be.

The aim of this study was to explain the relationship between P-O fit and organizational commitment and its dimensions affective, normative and continuance commitment. In the first chapter of this study; the definitions of the P-E and its dimensions were given and conceptualizations, operationalizations and measurement of P- O fit was mentioned. The first chapter was finalized with the review of P-O fit literature.

In the second chapter of this study; organizational commitment topic was investigated with definitions and review of organizational commitment literature.

In the third chapter of this study; past researches on the relationship between P-O value fit and organizational commitment were mentioned.

In the forth chapter; the information about methodology of study was given and the findings of the study were shared.

2. PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT

In this chapter of this study, a depth information on Person-Organization Fit will be given. It will begin by giving definition of the P-O fit and then will continue discussing P-O fit theory, including key conceptualizations and operationalizations, measurement of P-O fit. In the final section of this chapter, review of past P-O fit researches will be presented.

2.1. Definition and Dimensions of Person-Environment Fit

Studies of person-environment (PE) fit have been prevalent in the management literature for almost 100 years. (eg. Parsons, 1909; Pervin, 1968; Schneider, 1987) Person-environment fit (PE) is broadly defined as the compability between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are matched well. Several distinct types of fit are existed in literature. Individuals' compatibility with their jobs, organization, work group and supervisors are seen as important research domains by scholars. (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005, pg.281-282)

Scholars have previously described five dimensions of PE fit in their studies. These are person-vocation fit, person-job fit, person-group fit, person-person fit and person-organization fit. The research on ***person-vocation(PV)*** fit includes vocational choice theories that propose matching people with compatible career options. (Jansen and Kristof-Brown, 2006, pg. 194) Related to PV fit but defined more narrowly as the relationship between a person's characteristics and those of the job or tasks that are performed at work is the research on ***person-job (PJ) fit. Person-group fit(PG***) or person-team fit focuses on the interpersonal compability between individuals and their work groups. This fit is the most nascent of all types of fit. ***Person-person fit*** emphasizes the the compability between particular pairs of individuals within a work setting. An importance body of research has developed on the fit between an applicant and an interviewer, supervisor and subordinate, mentor and protégé. By far the most well-researched area is the match between supervisors and subordinates. (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005, pg. 284-287)

The definition and the primary types of person-enviroment fit excluding the person-organization fit (PO) was briefly reviewed in this section. In the following sections of this chapter; the person-organization fit concept will be emphasized .

2.2. Multiple Conceptualizations of Person-Organization Fit

The research on person-organization fit emphasizes the antecedents and consequences of compability between people and entire organizations. This fit is seen as a key of maintaining a flexible and committed workforce that is necessary in today competitive business environment. (Westerman and Cyr, 2004, pg. 252) P-O fit concept is important for recruiters while making hiring decisions for the company. Because past research findings indicate significant relationships between P-O fit and turnover, stress, work performance, work attitudes, organizational citizenship behaviors etc. In the following sections, various conceptualizations, most common operationalizations, measurement, literature and consequences of P-O fit will be explained widely.

Most researchers broadly define P-O fit as the compability between individuals and organizations. However, compability may be conceptualized in a variety of ways. Two distinctions were found to help clarifying these multiple conceptualizations. The first distinction is between supplementary and complementary fit and the second perspective on P-O fit is offered by the needs-supplies and demand-abilities distinction. (Kristof, 1996, pg.3)

2.2.1. Supplementary Fit & Complementary Fit

Supplementary fit; occurs when a person "supplements, embellishes or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals in an environment. (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, pg.269 as cited in Westerman, 1997, pg. 5) Supplementary fit examines the "match" between an individual and a group of people who comprise an environment. Individuals perceive themselves as "fitting in" because they are similar to other people in the environment. In the supplementary model of person-organization fit, the environment is defined primarily by the people in it. Supplementary fit is an employee-centered approach, whereby the individual makes an assessment of the other people in the environment, decides whether he or she would be

compatible with them and whether he or she would be likely to experience comfort and success in such an environment. (Westerman, 1997, pg.8)

Complementary fit refers to the match between an individual's talents and the corresponding needs of the environment. Complementary fit is an employer centered approach whereby the strengths of the individual are viewed as complementing the needs of the environment, and represents the logic behind the traditional person-job fit decisions. The environment is described according to its demands and requirements that are discerned. A person's abilities and characteristics are matched to the environment's needs. (Westerman, 1997, pg.8-9)

2.2.2. Needs-Supplies & Demand-Abilities

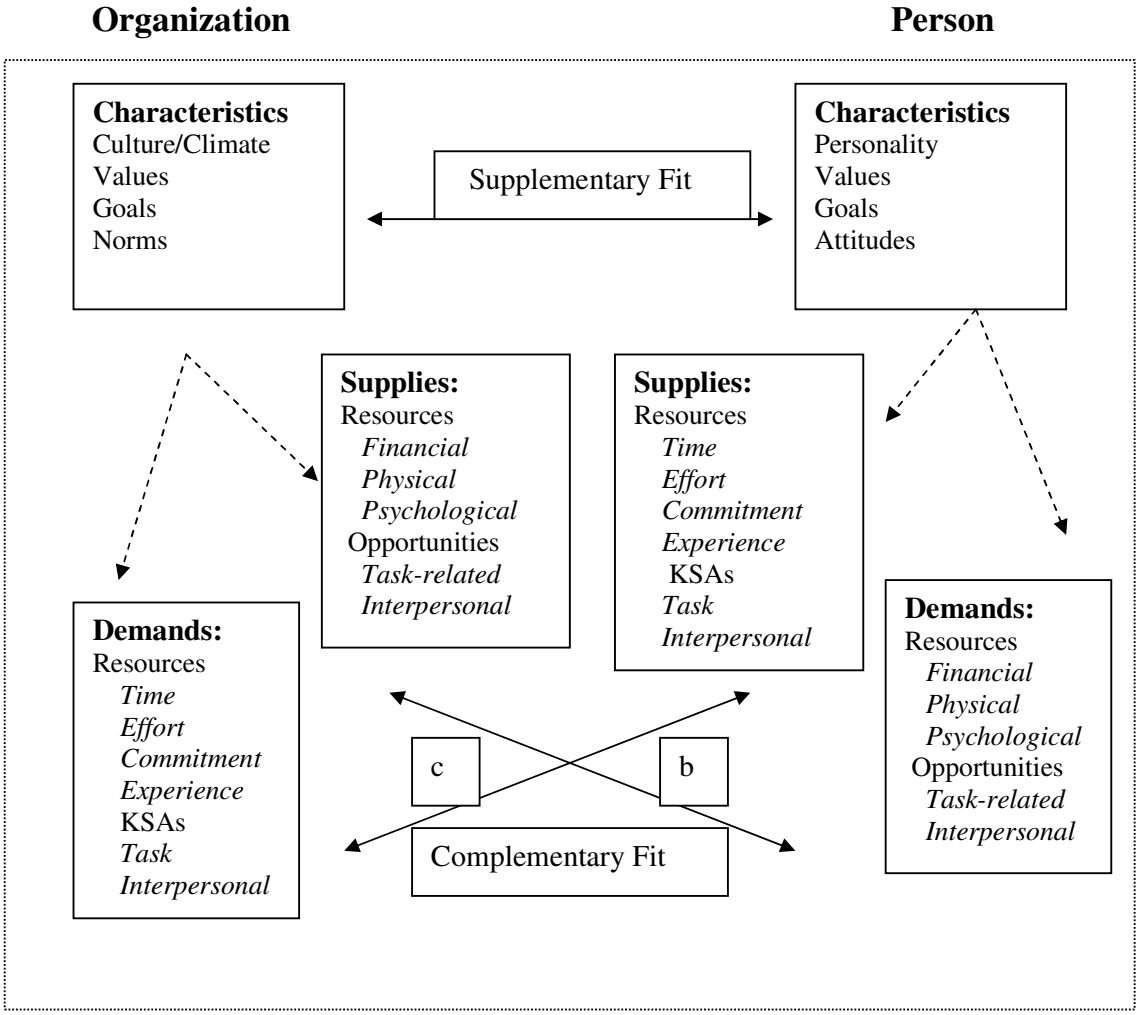
From the needs-supplies perspective, P-O fit occurs when an organization satisfies individuals' needs, desires or preferences. (Kristof, 1996, pg.3) Similar to supplementary fit, ***needs-supplies fit*** details what the environment can provide in relation to the individual's needs/preferences. Needs-supplies fit approach pertains to employees' perceptions about 'what can they get out of their jobs and organizations'. (Piasentin, 2003, pg. 11)

In contrast, the **demands-abilities** perspective suggests that fit occurs when an individual has the abilities required to meet organizational demands. (Kristof, 1996, pg.3) It is similar to complementary fit. Demand-abilities fit approach pertains to employees' perceptions about 'what they are expected to provide to the organization in order to keep their job'. (Piasentin, 2003, pg. 11)

Both complementary fit and demand-abilites fit refer to traditional skill-based person-job fit, whereas supplementary fit and needs-supplies fit suggest a larger set of fit variables. These multiple conceptualizations of fit reasonably explain the variety of operationalizations that have been used to examine P-O fit.

Various conceptualizations of person organization fit figure below may assist clarifying the definitions of these conceptualizations.

Figure 1: Various Conceptualizations of Person-Organization Fit



Source: Kristof, 1996, pg.4

In this figure, supplementary fit is represented as the relationship between the fundamental characteristics of an organization and a person. These characteristics for the organization is culture, values, goals and norms. On the person side, the characteristics most often studied are values, goals, personality and attitudes. When there is similarity between an organization and a person on these characteristics, supplementary fit is said to exist.

In addition to this, organizations and individuals can also be described by what they supply and demand in employment agreements. These demand and suppliers are likely to be influenced by underlying characteristics of both entities as it is indicated by the dotted arrows in the figure. Organizations supply financial, physical and psychological resources as well as task-related, interpersonal and growth opportunities that are demanded by employees. When these organizational supplies meet employees' demands, need supplies fit is achieved. (arrow b in the figure) Similarly, organizations demand contributions from their employees in terms of time, effort, commitment, knowledge, skill and abilities. Demand-abilities fit is achieved when these employee supplies meet organizational demands. (arrow c in the figure.) Both of these demand-supply relationships can be a description for complementary fit. (Kristof, 1996, pg.4)

2.3. Operationalizations of Person- Organization Fit

The literature has focused primarily on four operationalizations of P-O fit. Two of these reflect supplementary fit and one stems from the need-supplies conceptualization. The fourth operationalization may be interpreted with either of these two perspectives. (Kristof, 1996, pg.5)

2.3.1. Value Congruence

As it was mentioned before, investigations of supplementary fit have focused on measuring the similarity between fundamental characteristics of people and organizations. The most frequently used operationalizations of this perspective on fit is the congruence between individual and organizational values. That is also the definition of value congruence.

Before speaking on value congruence, it will be meaningful to mention the concept of organizational culture. Drawing on theories from anthropology, sociology and social psychology, researchers have made a number of efforts to understand the behavior of individuals and groups in organizations using cultural concepts such as semiotics, rituals, ceremonies, stories and language. This process has generated a series of debates over issues such as the definition of culture, the appropriate methodology for investigating it, and the proper level of analysis for its study. (O'Reilly, Chatman and

Caldwell, 1991, pg.491) In fact; there is no single or widely agreed upon definition or conceptualization of culture. For instance; Davis (1984) defines organizational culture as "the pattern of shared beliefs and values that give members of an institution meaning, and provide them with the rules for behavior in their organization". According to Deal & Kennedy (1982) organizational culture is "the dominant values espoused by an organization". Another definition from Denison(1990) is" organizational culture refers to the underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization's management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviors that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles. O'Reilly and Chatman (1996) defines the organizational culture as" a system of shared values defining what is important and norms, defining appropriate attitudes and behaviors, that guide members' attitudes and behaviors". (Metzler, 2006, pg. 6-7) These definitions can be raised. From these definitions it can be said that research on culture usually begins with a set of values and assumptions.

Values represent a form of social cognition that facilitates an individual's adaptation to his/her environment, and are defined as internalized normative beliefs that can guide behavior. On the individual side, values are described as guiding individual's actions, attitudes and judgments. On the organizational side, value systems provide the framework for the norms of behavior of members, and for the activities and functions of the system. These value systems are created through the formation of social expectations resulting from the employees' shared values. Norms make explicit forms of behavior appropriate for members of the system. (Westerman, 1997, pg. 36) Thus, both individuals and organizations possess value systems. Individuals use values to make choices, including those regarding their participation in organizations. Organizations use values to develop a culture that maintains guidelines for acceptable employee beliefs and behaviors. The correspondence between the individual's values and organization's existing value systems represents a measure of person-organization fit-compability between the system's cultural patterns and an individual's basic beliefs. (Westerman and Cyr,2004, pg.253)

Studies examining person-organization value congruence show congruence is related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, Schneider (1987) proposed that individuals may be attracted to organizations they perceive as having values similar to their own. In addition, organizations attempt to select recruits who are likely to share their values. New entrants are then further socialized and assimilated and those who don't fit, leave. (Schneider, 1987 as cited in O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell,1991, pg.492) O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) controlled for demand/abilities fit and found independent effects for person-organization value congruence on individual commitment, job satisfaction and intention to remain with the organization. Finally research on the influence of value congruence on recruiting has demonstrated a relationship between value congruence and applicants' choice decisions. (Judge and Bretz 1992) and recruiters' perceptions of applicant-organization fit, applicant general employability, recruiter hiring recommendations and recruiter selection decisions (Cable and Judge, 1996) (Westerman, 1997, pg.37)

In the following sections, studies of researchers on person-organization value fit will be explained widely.

2.3.2. Goal Congruence

Guided by B. Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework, several researchers have used individuals' goal congruence with operational leaders and peers to operationalize P-O fit. Organizational goals reflect the values and commitments of the founders and leaders of organizations and to some extent, the people who make up the organization. Schneider's (1987) ASA model stated that individuals are attracted to, selected by and remain with organizations whose goals are similar to their own or will enable them to attain their individual goals. (Kristof, 1996, pg 5)

Goal congruence can be examined in two types. One of the type of goal congruence consists of assessing the congruence in goals held by members of different hierarchical positions in the organization's structure; this is called supervisor-subordinate goal congruence. In this type of congruence; the relationship between the

leader and each of his/her subordinates are examined. (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991, pg.336)

Past research findings indicate that supervisor-subordinate congruence has effects on individuals' attitudes. According to a study made by Ulrich, Brockbank and Yeung (1988); participation in key organizational activities would lead to an increase in commitment to and acceptance of these activities. Furthermore, participation would increase job satisfaction both directly and through the acceptance of organizational goals. Goal acceptance was operationalized as a single question asking the respondent to indicate the degree to which the goal is appropriate considering the challenges facing the company. They found that goal acceptance is related to satisfaction. (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991, pg.337)

The other type of goal congruence is the agreement between an individual and all the other individuals within a single constituency regarding the importance of various goals; this is called member-constituency goal congruence. Member-constituency goal congruence is similar to group cohesiveness. "Group cohesiveness" has been defined as agreement with group norms, the attraction of member to the group, intention to stay and commitment to the goals of the group. Member-constituency goal congruence is the agreement of one member of the group with all the other members of his/her group. Most members of a cohesive group will tend to be congruent with each other, but some individuals may not be. Member-constituency goal congruence is sensitive to these aberrant individuals. Thus, aberrant members in a cohesive group are likely to feel dissociated from work and the organizations. (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991, pg.339)

There were studies which examined the relationship between the member-constituency goal congruence and organizational attitudes in the literature. One of the definition of cohesiveness is that members are attracted to the goals of the group and derive satisfaction from the group and the realizations of those goals. Without a purpose the group is not likely to be satisfying to its members. For instance; Wheless and Dickson-Markman (1982) found a high correlation between perceptions of group

cohesion and self-reports of satisfaction with the group. (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991, pg.340)

2.3.3. Work-Environment Congruence

The third common operationalization of fit reflects a strict needs-supplies perspective by defining fit as the match between the individual preferences or needs and organizational systems and structures. This operationalization has its roots in theory of work adjustment. According to this theory, a person will be satisfied with work if his or her needs are fulfilled by the environment. (Kristof, 1996, pg.6)

Moos is one of the important researchers who had studies on this congruence when considering P-O fit literature. He had developed Work Environment Scale. Moos' conceptual work describes how perceptions of collective human environments (particularly social climate) influence behavior. Climate has been defined as a summary perception of the organization's work environment. Moos' social climate framework is particularly valuable to person-organization congruence research in that it provides commensurate measurement scales that examine the congruence between an individual's "real" perceptions of the environment (reinforcements provided by the organization) with the individual's " ideal" perceptions of an environment (an individual's needs) Moos states in his research that WES climate measure help matching people to the environment in which they are most likely to adjust and perform well also help looking at a person in context, identify different aspects of person-environment congruence, and consider their potential effects (Moos, 1994 as cited in Westerman, 1997, pg.41) WES also may be used for identifying organizational factors that may be problematic or may help to guide interventions that can reduce employee stress in health care and other types of setting. Lastly, as a standardized multidimensional scale, The WES may also contribute to the continuous monitoring of an organization's work settings and improve the database necessary for making ongoing changes in managerial, recruitment and training practices. (Billings and Moos, 1982, pg.15)

Similar to other two operationalization of P-O fit past research findings indicate that work environment congruence has an effect on employee attitudes. Locke's (1976) research on the nature and causes of job satisfaction provides a foundation for linking work environment congruence with attitudes. According to Locke, employees value physical surroundings and the basic principles underlying the employee's preference for pleasant working conditions are: the desire for physical comfort, based on his physical needs and the desire for conditions that facilitate the attainment of his/her work goals. Locke's work suggests that the congruence between an employee' preferences for a work environment and the existing work environment in an organization has a direct effect on attitudes. (Locke, 1976, pg.1325 as cited in Westerman, 1997, pg.50)

2.3.4. Personality Congruence

Fit defined in terms of personality congruence is based on the subjective factor theory of recruiting that emphasizes the congruence between personality patterns and perceived organizational image as a major determinant of organizational choice by applicants. An individual's choice of organization represents a means of implementing an individual's self-concept.

Many studies' findings indicate that there is a positive correlation between the extent to which an individual is attracted to another person or group and the extent to which the individual describes that person or group as similar to himself/herself. Tom (1971) found that people preferred organizations that were most similar to their self-descriptions. (Tom, 1971, pg. 581)

Recent discussions in the person-organization fit literature have suggested a revisitation of the fit construct in terms of personality through the utilization of commensurate measurement using modal personality types. Defining individuals and organizations can cause problems. Because organizations are different than people, therefore same adjective may have a different meaning when applied to an organization rather than a person. That is why it is a better way to obtain two personality profiles, one representing the individual's personality, and one representing the profile of a

successful member. Correspondence between an individual's personality and the organization's ideal personality type may provide a measure of the compatibility between the individual and the organization and provide an alternative approach to person-organization fit. (Chatman, 1991, pg.477)

Past researches suggest that personality congruence is related to individual attitudes. A meta-analysis conducted by Assouline and Meir (1987) have found that congruence between a subject's personality type and the modal personality type in his/her environment was significantly correlated with satisfaction. A more recent meta-analysis of 15 P-O fit studies by Verquer, Beehr and Wagner (2001) found that personality congruence was significantly correlated with employee satisfaction and organizational commitment. Further, the potential for the use of a commensurate measurement instrument utilizing the "big five" personality factors (extraversion/surgency, conscientiousness, agreeableness, emotional stability /neuroticism, openness to experience/intellect) provides advantages in that the factors are quite robust (across longitudinal and across observer studies in different age, sex, race and language groups). (Westerman and Cyr, 2004, pg. 253)

Although this fourth operationalization of P-O Fit can be viewed as reflecting supplementary fit, because it describes congruence between the two entity's personalities (personality of individual and organizational climate), its measurement also suggests a needs-supplies perspective. Organizational climate is frequently operationalized in terms of organizational supplies (such as reward system, communication patterns) and individual personality is often constructed in terms of needs. (Kristof, 1996, pg.6)

2.4. Measurement of Person-Organization Fit

The construct of P-O fit not only varies in conceptual and operational meaning, but also among measurement domains, as the methods used to capture P-O fit vary widely across the literature. This section begins with a description of commensurate measurement. Following this description; this section will be concluded with the presentation of subjective-objective and direct-indirect measurement.

2.4.1. Commensurate Measurement

Commensurate measurement instruments that represent both individual and the situations in the same conceptual dimensions have recently been developed. In classical approach people were described with one language or set of variables, the situations were described with a totally different language. The results of these approaches at the organization level were inconclusive and because of this researches became stagnated. (Westerman, 1997, pg.18)

Commensurate measures have become relatively widespread in studies of person-environment fit and they have had a particularly significant impact on the recent development of research in the area of person-organization fit. Commensurate measures of person-organization fit are now available in the areas of values congruence (Chatman 1989; Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins, 1989), personality congruence (Costa and McCrae, 1991), work environment congruence (Moos, 1994). (Westerman, 1997, pg.18) Commensurate measures of person-organization fit describe both employee and organization using the same content dimensions, strengthening the conceptual links between the measures and allowing for direct comparison of the person and the organization. As a result, commensurate measurement approaches provide more specific conclusions than when separate sets of variables are used.

On the other hand, although a construct may have similar characteristic at the individual and organizational levels, there will still be some inherent differences, resulting in non-identical measures. This leaves the interpretation of commensurate up to debate, as researchers strive to define how similar measures must be to meet the standard of commensurability. For narrowly defined, directly measured characteristics such as pay level, fit can easily be assessed with commensurate questions such as "How much pay do you receive?" and "How much pay would you like to receive?" Fit on broader, some characteristics because of their inherent multidimensionality may not be assessed with commensurate measures. For instance; there are many things that an organization can do to meet people's need for achievement, such as offering merit bonuses, commission-based pay and formal recognition ceremonies. Because of the

multiple ways for need for achievement to be satisfied, strictly commensurate measures is nor necessary. (Kristof, 1996, pg.10)

2.4.2. Subjective & Objective Measures of Fit

Subjective fit (also called perceived fit) is measured by assessing individuals' perceptions of how well they fit into their organization. With this method, individuals may be explicitly asked to consider their personal values as well as their perceptions of the organization' values. Conversely, ***objective fit (also called actual fit)*** is measured by assessing organizational characteristics (independent of individual perceptions) by obtaining information about the environment. In other words, the O part of P-O fit is derived from aggregate ratings of others in the organization, such as supervisors and coworkers. Thus, because measurement of the organization's characteristics does not come from the individual's perceptions, this latter method is considered to be more objective. (Piasentin, 2003, pg.12)

There is a long-standing debate over whether objective fit is more or less important than subjective fit. Some individuals argue that, regardless of reality, if an individual perceives that he or she fits into an organization, his/her work attitudes and behaviour will be influenced accordingly. (Judge and Cable, 1997, pg.369) Indeed, compared to objective, subjective fit is a more proximal determinant of attitudes and behaviours, it is often better predictor of work outcomes. (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005, pg.292)

On the other hand, many other researchers contend that actual indices of fit provide much more reliable estimates of P-O fit because they can eliminate human bias. Furthermore, it is argued that objective fit is especially important for assessing participants who are not able to judge their own fit. For example, in a recruitment and selection context, recruiters want to predict applicant's future fit with the organization, while most applicants do not have a good perception of the existing organizational culture. In that case, they need to establish actual fit by comparing applicants' culture preferences with the culture of organization. (Vianen, 2000, pg. 117)

In actuality, measures of subjective fit and objective fit do not always predict the same outcomes. When considering perceived fit, the construct closely resembles an attitude. For instance, if a person perceives that he or she fits well in an organization, then it is likely that satisfaction, commitment and low intent to leave will result. Similarly, if an interviewer perceives that a job applicant fit well with the company, then it is likely that the interviewer will have a positive reaction to the applicant and offer a favorable evaluation. Actual fit, however, may be predicted to have somewhat different effects. Actual fit between people and organizations may result in improved process outcomes, such as communication, group functioning or work coordination, even if the perception of fit does not exist.

On the other hand, some researchers have demonstrated that both measures of fit may predict same outcomes, and they are related. For instance, Cable and Judge(1997) found that both measures of fit predict organizational attractiveness. Also they stated that the prediction that subjective fit should lead to objective fit is derived from the attraction component of Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition model, which suggests that job seekers base their fit perceptions on correspondence between their values and those of organizations. (Judge and Cable, 1997, pg.368) Besides this, both measure of fit predict same outcomes depending on how actual fit is measured. For example, if actual is measured at an individual level (an individual completes a self-evaluation of values and an evaluation of organizational values), then perceptions still play an important role in the construct. Because of this, actual fit measured only at the individual level, will have outcomes similar to those of measured perceived fit. (Kristof, 1996, pg.34)

2.4.3. Direct & Indirect Measures of Fit

One of the measurement issues frequently discussed in the person-organization fit literature is whether to use direct or indirect measures of fit. ***Direct measurement*** involves asking people explicitly whether they believe that a good fit exists. Direct measures are beneficial if the construct under investigation is subjective or perceived fit, that is, if fit is conceptualized as the judgment that a person fits well in an organization. Using this conceptualization, good fit is said to exist as long as it is perceived to exist,

regardless whether or not the person has similar characteristics to or complements/is complemented by the organization.

However, several criticisms have been leveled against the use of direct measurement of fit. Edwards (1991) denounced direct measures primarily because they confound the constructs of the person and environment, thereby preventing estimation of their independent effects. Additionally, when the questions do not explicitly describe what values or other characteristics are to be considered in the respondents' answers, it is difficult to ensure that commensurate dimensions are being considered. For example, a question directly measuring fit might ask an individual "do you fit the work environment of your organization?". The employee might think that his or her high need for achievement fits well with the existing reward structure of the organization, representing consideration of two distinct non-commensurate constructs in assessing fit. Further, when direct measures are used in conjunction with measures of other work-related attitudes such as satisfaction or commitment a consistency bias (i.e., "I think that I fit well, so I must be satisfied with my job") could influence the results. (Kristof, 1996, pg.11)

In consideration of these drawbacks, some researchers rely on indirect measures to assess actual or objective fit. ***Indirect measures of fit*** involve an explicit comparison between separately rated individual and organizational characteristics. This type of measurement strategy is said to reflect actual fit because it allows a verifiable assessment of similarity without asking for implicit judgments of fit by employees, thus avoiding the consistency bias. (Kristof, 1996, pg.11)

Similar to direct measures, indirect measures tend to be equally criticized for their failure to consider individuals' opinion about whether or not they fit. For instance, even though an individual's reported values and perceived values of the organization are considered to match, it does not mean that individual will perceive he or she fits. Direct and indirect measures of fit each measure some type of fit, yet the results derived from each measure tend to differ. Based on findings from their meta-analysis, Verquer et. Al (2001) suggested that direct measures of fit tend to be better predictors of job

satisfaction and intentions to quit, whereas indirect measures tend to predict organizational commitment over other criteria. (Piasentin, 2003, pg.15)

2.4.4. Indirect Actual and Indirect Perceived Measures of Fit

The indirect approach to measuring person-organization fit perceptions (that separately and commensurately measures perceptions of the employee and the organization (rather that asking directly "do you fit" question) has been further decomposed into indirect actual and indirect perceived measurements of fit. ***Indirect perceived fit*** examines the relationship between the employee's self-perceptions and perceptions of their organization at an individual level in predicting outcome variables. ***Indirect actual fit*** aggregates employee perceptions of the organization to determine the "reality" of the organization that is compared to self-perceptions in predicting outcome variables. (Westerman, 1997, pg.22)

For instance; the measurement of person-organization fit on the dimension of values congruence using indirect perceived fit would examine the congruence between individual's rating of his/her own value set and his/her ratings of the value set of the organization. Using indirect actual fit, values congruence would be measured comparing the individual's ratings of his/her own value set with a composite value set consisting of the combined value sets of multiple members of the organization, to more closely approach an objective reality of the values of the organization. Indirect perceived fit is posited to have stronger relationships with outcome variables as differences more directly reflect reality specifically for the focal individual.

2.4.5. Level of Analysis for the Organization

The appropriate level at which to aggregate fit perceptions has been a point of discussion. The level of analysis issue, whether perceptions should be aggregated at the group, department or total organization level, has been a concern for person-organization fit researchers.

The level of analysis issue is parted into two approaches in person-organization fit literature. One of these approaches is ***cross-levels measurement*** which involves

assessing the compatibility of individuals with verifiable organizational characteristics. On individual part of this approach, individuals' characteristics are assumed to be independent. The values, goals, personality or needs of one individual in an organization are assumed to be independent of these characteristics in others. Answering questions such as "What do you value?" each respondent describes him or herself. Because of their hypothesized independence, variability reflecting individual differences should exist in their responses. (Kristof, 1996, pg.12)

Organizational part of this approach is more complicated. One type of organizational-level measure is "global data not divisible across individuals" such as organizational ownership or structure. This type of measure is not perceptual in nature, as it can be verified by examining organizational charts or records. Measures of organizational variables that are perceptual require the aggregation of data based on a composite of lower-level (individual) scores. In P-O fit research, the organizational construct of interest are often values, goals, climate or culture variables that are most frequently measured by perceptions. (Kristof, 1996, pg.12)

There is a controversy whether a sufficient level of agreement should be shown before individual data can be aggregated to create an organizational level variable. James and colleagues (1982, 1988) argued that when the organizational variable is perceptual in nature, one true organizational score may not exist. Their argument is based on the idea that variance between individuals' perceptions may not be simply error, but representation of differences within the organization regarding that variable. For example if a mechanic does not perceive customer service as a value in an organization, but CEO perceives it as one of the organization's primary values, then it may not be valid to assert that an organizational value for customer service exists at the organizational level. To use the mean of these two individuals' value ratings would mask the existence of different values for customer service in the two organizational sub-units (the mechanical division and the top management team) (Kristof, 1996, pg.13)

Because of the perceptual nature of the organizational characteristics most often examined in studies of P-O fit, James and his colleagues' study is important. In this study, it is suggested that agreement (although not perfect homogeneity) between

individual responses to organizational level questions(i.e. “What does your organization value?”) must be demonstrated to establish the organizational variable. It is important to note that individuals are not required to respond similarly to the individual-level question (e.g. “What do you value?”), only that they agree on the values of the organization as a whole. For example, Chatman (1989) describes organizational values as those that “ are a group (organization) product; even though all members of the group would not have the same values, a majority of active members would agree on them and members of the group would be aware of the group’s support for a given value.” (Chatman, 1989, pg.339) Thus if an organization does not have a culture that is agreed upon by its members, then it does not make sense to assess an individual’s fit with that culture. It is more appropriate in this case, as in the customer service value used above , to measure P-G fit with particular sub-units of that organization, rather than the organization as a whole.

The other approach to level of analysis issue is ***individual level measurement***. Whereas in cross-level studies organizational characteristics were assumed to be homogeneous, in individual-level of investigations of fit, the organization construct is no longer verifiable organizational characteristics, but individuals’ perceptions of those characteristics. Measures typically consist of each respondent answering parallel questions such as “What do you value? and “What does your company value?” The similarity of the answers to these questions is then calculated. (Kristof, 1996, pg.14)

Because many fit theories discuss congruence with organizational characteristics rather than with individuals’ perceptions of them, why would researchers elect to use individual level measures? Similar to the reason behind the importance of perceived fit, a primary reason is that people’s perceptions of reality drive their reactions to specific situations. Therefore, the perception of organizational characteristics may have a stronger influence on individual outcome variables such as stress, satisfaction or commitment than would fit organization’s actual characteristics. This may be true for fit on characteristics that are difficult to verify, such as values or goals. (Kristof, 1996, pg.14)

In summary, whether researchers use objective or subjective measure of fit and whether the fit is measured directly or indirectly, it is important them to recognize the link between those measures and constructs, research questions they are investigating.

2.5. Review of Person-Organization Fit Literature

The Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, 1987, pg. 441 as cited in Shantz, 2003, pg. 15) has been impetus for much of the research on person-organization fit. The ASA framework predicts that individuals are attracted to organizations with values similar to their own, organizations select individuals with congruent values and thirdly that individuals whose values are not similar to those of the organization exit the organization.

The bulk of P-O fit research can be categorized into three main areas of focus which are similar to the three components of ASA model, 1) recruitment and selection (which relates to both attraction and selection components of the ASA model but with the focus on the organization's point of view), 2) organizational attraction (which relates to the attraction and selection component of the ASA model from the job seeker's point of view) and 3) work outcomes(such as job satisfaction, intention to quit, organizational commitment and performance which encompasses the attrition component of the ASA model). (Shantz, 2003, pg. 15)

This section will summarize past P-O fit research according to the three categories mentioned earlier. Each study implanted different conceptualizations and measures of P-O fit.

2.5.1. Recruitment and Selection

One important area of P-O fit research is focused on fit from the organization's (recruiter) perspective. However, studies of P-O fit from a recruitment and selection standpoint are limited.

Rynes and Gerhart (1990) conducted early research on the role of person-organization fit in selection. The researchers looked at interviewer perceptions of applicant fit by collecting assessment information on 348 graduating MBA students

from interviewers and academic records. Results showed that although interviewers typically agreed on general employability of applicants, they were more variable in their judgments of firm-specific employability of applicants. To further examine the differences between interviewers, the researchers assessed interrater reliability. Interviewers were paired either with other interviewers from the same firm or with other interviewers from different firms in calculating interrater reliability estimates. The interrater reliability were higher for within firm interviewers than for between firm interviewers on firm-specific employability. This indicates that interviewers were making some judgments about the applicant's fit their organization that went beyond his /her qualifications to perform the job. (Rynes and Gerhart, 1990, pg. 13-35)

In 1991 Bowen, Ledford and Nathan advocated an organizational selection model called "hiring for person-organization fit". Their model has four steps. In step one, the work environment is assessed using organizational and job analyses. Then the type of person that is required to match the organization in terms of KSAs (knowledge, skill, ability), values, needs and personality traits is inferred. The organization and individual assess the match or extent of fit with realistic job preview, interviews, personality and skill tests. Finally, the last step is to reinforce person-organization fit at work through orientation, training, task and organization design. (Bowen, Ledford Jr. and Nathan, 1991, pg. 37-41) Though cases are used to illustrate the application of their hiring model, Bowen et al. do not empirically test the model.

In another study, Adkins, Russell and Werbel (1994) examined the relationship between applicant-recruiter work value congruence, applicant- organization work value congruence, recruiter perceptions of P-O fit and incidence of the candidate being invited to a second interview. The degree of actual applicant-organization congruence, they found, did not significantly predict recruiters' judgments of candidate P-O fit. However, the degree of applicant-recruiter work value congruence did predict recruiter's perceptions of fit, which in turn predicted invitations for a second interview. (Adkins, Russell and Werbel, 1994, pg. 605-623)

Cable and Judge (1997) compared recruiters' judgments of candidate-organization value congruence with objective (actual) applicant-organization work

value congruence. Their research examined whether or not the perceptions of fit differed between the applicant and the interviewer, and if they did, what impact these differing perceptions of fit had on interview outcomes. Along with the applicant's direct judgment about how well his or her values matched the values of the organization, the interviewer correspondingly made a direct judgment about how well the applicant would fit with their organization. The researchers hypothesized that the relation between person-organization fit and work outcomes would differ depending on whether person-organization fit was assessed from the perspective of the interviewer or the applicant. In this study, 38 university recruiters provided measures of their organization's values, the perceived values of the applicant, person-organization fit assessment and recommendations for hire. Applicants were also asked to rate their own values. The result supported the hypotheses. Actual person-organization fit, measured as the congruence between the applicants' perception of their values and the organization's values as perceived by the interviewer, only had a weak, albeit significant, effect on the interviewer's hiring recommendations. Moreover, the interviewer's perception of the applicant's fit had a stronger impact on interview outcomes than actual fit. (Cable and Judge, 1997, p. 359-394)

2.5.2. Organizational Attraction

A number of studies of P-O fit have examined fit as it relates to organizational attractiveness. Most of the earlier research in this area attempted to identify individual characteristics that would predict organizational attractiveness. Various individual attributes were measured, and then the extent to which individual differences on those attributes predicted preferences for organizations with different characteristics, were examined. (Shantz, 2003, pg.18)

Bretzt, Ash and Dreher (1989) found that differences in individuals' need for achievement were associated with preferences for hypothetical organizations with individualistic versus group-oriented reward systems. Individual need for affiliation was not significantly related to organizational preference.

In another study of Turban and Keon (1993), the researchers tested organizational attractiveness, hypothesizing that the effects of organizational characteristics of reward structure, centralization, size and geographical dispersion would be moderated by the individual characteristics of self-esteem and the need for achievement. Turban and Keon found main effects for reward structure and centralization on attractiveness but no main effects for size and geographical dispersion. They found that the need for achievement moderated the effects of reward structure and size on attractiveness. People high in need for achievement were more attracted to organizations that based pay on merit than those low in need for achievement. Those high in need for achievement were more attracted to large and small organizations than medium sized ones, while those low in need for achievement were more attracted to medium sized organizations to large or small ones. Turban and Keon also found that self-esteem moderated the effects of size and centralization on attractiveness. Low self-esteem individuals preferred large organizations to medium sized organizations, whereas high self-esteem individuals preferred medium sized organizations to large ones. Finally, low self-esteem individuals were more attracted to decentralized organizations than were high self-esteem individuals. (Turban and Keon, 1993, pg. 184-193)

Burke and Deszca (1982) assessed the degree to which graduating students exhibited Type A and Type B behaviors. Characteristics of Type A behavior include time urgency, impatience, hostility, aggressiveness, competitiveness and setting excessively high performance standards. On the other hand, individual's characterized as having a Type B personality is described as much as more easy-going, patient, relaxed, less aggressive and soft-spoken. The researchers found that those students exhibiting high levels of Type A characteristics preferred working environments characterized by high standards, spontaneity, toughness and ambiguity. (Shantz, 2003, pg.18)

An applicant is hypothesized to be attracted to an organization when the values of the organization are similar to the values of the individual. One of the first investigations into this aspect of the ASA framework was a laboratory study conducted

to examine whether individuals were attracted to organizations described as having work values consistent with their values. Judge and Bretz (1992) found that individuals preferred organizations with dominant work values similar to their own. (Judge and Bretz, 1992, pg. 261-271 as cited in Gill, 1999, pg.4)

In a longitudinal study, Cable and Judge (1996) surveyed students seeking employment. They examined job seeking students' degree of perceived value congruence with various recruiting organizations. Students went through several interviews with different perspective employees. After each interview, they provided information about their perceived fit with the organization and their perception of that particular organization's values. Upon completion of the recruiting cycle, information regarding applicant demographics, the importance of person-organization fit and job choice decision was collected. The final survey was mailed six months after the students started working and asked about their perceived person-organization fit and work attitudes. The results indicated that job seeking students were more attracted to organizations with which they perceived they had a higher degree of value congruence. The relationship, however, was mediated by job seekers' perception of subjective P-O fit with the organization. In other words, perceived values congruence did predict organizational attractiveness , but only through the subjective perception of P-O fit. The results imply that subjective P-O fit perceptions may play a more central role in organizational attractiveness than actual (objective) fit. (Cable and Judge, 1996, pg. 294-311 as cited in Gill, 1999, pg.5)

Judge and Cable (1997) reexamined the relation between person-organization fit and job choice but this time explored whether a direct measure of fit predicted job choice differently than fit calculated using a profile comparison method. Using a longitudinal design similar to Cable and Judge (1996), the researchers collected information about individuals' preferences prior to any interview sessions (time 1). Following an interview, participants were asked to complete a second survey assessing their attractiveness to and perception of the organization's values (time 2). The last survey was filled out three months after time two and assessed how attracted participants were to the organization with which they had been interviewed three

months prior (time 3). Direct person-organization fit was assessed simply by asking participants how well they fit with the organization. The profile comparison measure of person-organization fit compared the individual's value preferences with an aggregate of other applicants' perceptions of the organization's values. The researchers found that both measures of fit predicted the individual's attraction to the organization. (Judge and Cable, 1997, pg. 546-561)

In a recent study conducted by Turban, Lau, Ngo, Chow and Si (2001) , organizational attractiveness was studied in non-western setting. Results showed that individual differences, such as level of risk aversion, moderated effects of organizational attributes, such as type of ownership, on a company's attractiveness. Findings revealed that participants were more attracted to state-owned versus foreign-owned companies when the participants had higher levels of risk aversion and lower need for pay. Results of this study give support to the generalizability of previous findings, that individual differences moderate the relationship between organizational attributes and organizational attractiveness, by replicating such findings in a non-western setting. This is somewhat limited, however, by the fact that the study was conducted in an artificial setting using students rather than actual job seekers. (Turban, Lau, Ngo, Chow, Si, 2001, pg.194-206)

Another study was conducted by Costa and McCrae (1992) on active job seekers, which examined the relationship between job seekers' ratings on Big Five personality traits, their perceived values congruence with various recruiting organizations, and organizational attractiveness. First they found that individual differences on the Big Five were significantly related to preferences for specific organizational cultures. Job seekers who scored high on Neuroticism were less attracted to innovative and decisive organizations. Those who scored high on Extroversion were more attracted to aggressive and team-oriented organizational cultures, and were less attracted to supportive cultures. Results showed that job seekers were more likely to accept a job with the recruiting organizations that they perceived to have a culture they preferred. (Costa and McCrae, 1992 as cited in Shantz, 2003, pg. 20)

2.5.3. Socialization

Before reviewing the studies that are related to the final phase of the ASA cycle attrition, it will be meaningful to mention a variable that has been mentioned in the literature quite often as being likely to influence fit levels. This variable is organizational socialization.

Organizational socialization is the process by which an individual comes to appreciate the values, abilities, expected behaviors and social knowledge essential for assuming an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member. (Mcmillan and Lopez, 2001, pg.21) Newcomers have many opportunities to make sense of their organizational experience through socialization activities. These socialization activities also serve as opportunities for the organization to affect the newcomer. A number of activities have been identified as opportunities for a newcomer to become socialized, including: Spending time with a mentor or experiences colleague, spending time with a supervisor, formal training, spending time with co-workers and participation in company social events. These socialization experiences have been found to have many positive outcomes including getting along with co-workers, understanding and internalizing the organization's culture, higher job satisfaction and lower intention to quit. (Shantz, 2003, pg.29)

Although the literature from the socialization domain and the P-O fit domain propose that socialization activities will have a positive effect on an individual's level of P-O fit, very few have explicitly tested that relationship. Morrison (1993) examined the influence of newcomers' information and feedback seeking activities (which are considered to be a facet of soacialization). Results showed a relationship between the amount of feedback seeking activities a newcomer engaged in and the subsequent degree of work values congruence with the organization. However, no significant relationship existed between information-seeking behaviors and the degree of subsequent work values congruence. This may be due to the fact that fit was measured as the objective degree of values congruence between the employee and the organization rather than subjective degree of values congruence.(Morrison, 1993, pg. 173-183)

Chatman (1991) also examined potential influences on objective work value congruence. In her study, supplementary fit on values and goals was proposed to mediate the relationship between socialization and outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Results indicated that socialization, particularly mentorship activities and attendance at firm related social events, had positive effects on levels of P-O fit within one year of organizational entry. (Chatman, 1991, pg. 476)

In a recent study, Cable and Parsons (2001) examined the impact of types of socialization tactics and their impact on establishing P-O fit between newcomers and the employing organization. When controlling for congruence between newcomers' personal values and their perceptions of their organization's values, newcomers were more likely to report positive P-O fit perceptions when they experiences socialization. Further, results showed that newcomers would report higher levels of perceived P-O fit after interaction with supportive organizational members. In addition to this, the results suggested that newcomers who experienced these types of socialization tactics actually showed a change in values toward the perception of organizational values. These results were consistent with Chatman (1991), who found that newcomers were more likely to internalize the values of their organization if they spent social time with organizational members. (Cable and Parsons, 2001, pg.1-23)

2.5.4. Work Outcomes

After devoting resources to attracting, selecting and socializing employees for high levels of P-O fit, managers start hoping for positive results. A number of the previous studies looking at P-O fit have focused on the organizational consequences of fit. Some of the work outcomes that have been studied including employee job satisfaction, intention to remain in the organization, organizational commitment, performance and actual turnover. In this section, some of these studies by excluding studies that were focused on organizational commitment will be mentioned. In the next chapter the studies that have focused on the relationship between P-O value fit and organizational commitment will be reviewed.

2.5.4.1. Performance

Researchers have investigated whether organizations with employees who have a good person-organization fit would be more effective than organizations with employees who do not fit. Ostroff (1993) conducted a study with teachers in the public school system. She wanted to examine whether teachers with greater person-organization fit also demonstrated better performance. Performance was measured within five areas: academic achievement, administrative performance, student behaviour, constituency satisfaction (students and parents) and intention to turnover. The results of the study demonstrated that overall fit was positively related to performance. (Ostroff, 1993, pg.103-122 as cited is Gill, 1999,pg 9)

Goodman and Svyantek (1999) studied the relationship between ft and performance. They found that the amount of discrepancy between employees' ideal organizational culture and perceptions of their actual organization's culture significantly predicted task performance.(Goodman and Svyantek, 1999, pg. 254-275)

2.5.4.2. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, defined as employees' subjective perception of how much they like their job, is one of the most studied dependent variable in industrial/organizational psychology. Therefore, it is not surprisingly that the majority of research in this area has focused on the impact of P-O fit on employees' job satisfaction.

Boxx, Odom and Dunn (1991) used self-report data collected from public sector employees to investigate the effect of organizational values and value congruency on employee job satisfaction. The values they used in their research included "superior quality and service, being the best, innovation, the importance of informality to enhance communication, the importance of profit orientation and goal accomplishment". After analysis of survey, respondents were classified into poor fit, good fit and excellent fit groups with respect to value congruency. Those in the excellent fit group were significantly more satisfied than those in the other two groups. (Boxx, Odom and Dunn, 1991, pg. 195-206 as cited in McConnell, 2006, pg.23)

Bretz and Judge (1994) study was one of the few studies to examine the effects of multiple conceptualizations of fit on work outcomes. They operationalized fit in four ways. 1- value congruence (supplementary), 2- individual personality and organizational image similarity (supplementary), 3- the degree to which organizational reinforcement systems met individuals' needs (needs-supplies) and 4- the extent to which individual KSAs(knowledge, skill and ability) met job requirements (more indicative of PJ). Their results showed powerful direct effects of P-O fit on organizational satisfaction and organizational tenure. In addition to results of this study, they also found indirect effects of P-O fit on job promotions and salary level. (kristof, s. 27) Both the studies of Boxx (1991) and Bretz and Judge (1994) support that the more the individual's values are congruent with the values of the organization the greater the individual's job satisfaction. (Bretz and Judge, 1994, pg. 32-54 as cited in Gill, 1999, pg. 10)

Saks and Ashforth (1997) examined the relationship between employees' subjective P-O fit perceptions and work outcomes and found that employees' who perceived themselves to have a higher degree of fit with the organization showed higher levels job satisfaction, less stress, lower intent to quit and less turnover than did employees who perceived themselves to have a lesser degree of P-O fit. (Saks and Ashforth, 1997, pg. 395-426)

The finding that P-O fit significantly and positively relates to job satisfaction has been further supported by research conducted by Chatman (1991) and O 'Reilly et al. (1991) in both studies value congruence has been well supported as a determinant of job satisfaction by using a sample of junior-level accountants for the first study and MBA students, senior accountants and middle-level managers for the second study.

2.5.4.3. Intention to Remain and Turnover

Other work outcomes that are predicted by P-O fit is intention to remain and turnover. A research conducted by O'Reilly et al. (1991) indicated that value congruence was a significant determinant of actual employee turnover within 2 years of the initial assessment of fit. (a negative correlation between P-O fit and turnover)

Similarly, Chatman (1991) reported that levels of value congruence measured both at entry (initial) and after one year of employment and socialization (resulting) significantly predicted turnover. (employees with lower P-O fit were more likely to report an intention to leave the organization than employees who reported greater P-O fit.) Bretz and Judge (1994) also found that P-O fit has a strong direct effect on organizational tenure. (Kristof, 1996, pg.28)

3. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

In this chapter of the study, Organizational Commitment construct will be emphasized. The chapter will begin with the definition of organizational commitment and will continue with review of organizational commitment literature and will end with antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment.

3.1. Definition of Organizational Commitment

Over the years, commitment has been defined and measured in many different ways. This lack of consensus in the definition of commitment contributed greatly to its treatment as a multidimensional construct. (Meyer & Allen, 1991) In Table 1, a set of definitions taken form the work commitment literature is provided.

Table 1: Definitions of Commitment

In general
"…..engagement which restricts freedom of action." (Oxford English Dictionary, 1969)
" Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous with a consistent line of activity." (Becker, 1960, p.32)
"…..a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of his own involvement." (Salancik, 1977, p.62)
"…..an obliging force which requires that the person honor the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims." (Brown, 1996, p.241)
Organizational Commitment
"….the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al, 1974, p.604)

"….the psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization; it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization." (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 493)

"….a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization (i.e., makes turnover less likely)" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.14)

"….a bond or linking of the individual to the organization." (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p.171)

Source: Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 302

A review of the definitions in Table 1 reveals both points of agreement and disagreement. All of the definitions of commitment make reference to the fact that commitment a) is a stabilizing or obliging force, that b) gives direction to behavior. Differences in the definitions exist when theorists explain the nature or the origin of the stabilizing force that gives direction to behavior. (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301)These differences will be discussed in the next section while considering the issue of dimensionality.

3.2. Review of Organizational Commitment Literature

When reviewing different theories on organizational commitment, it is observed that some of the researchers view organizational commitment as a uni-dimensional concept(Becker, 1960; Mowday. Porter and Steers, 1979; Buchanan, 1974) and some of the researchers view it as a multidimensional concept. In this section, different theories of organizational commitment, antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment will be discussed.

3.2.1. Theories of Organizational Commitment

3.2.1.1. Becker's (1960) Side Bet Theory of Organizational Commitment

Becker (1960) proposed that sociologists use commitment to explain consistent human behavior because they are not satisfied with other explanations of consistent

human behavior. He said that commitment comes into being when an individual links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity by making a side bet. Individuals make " side bets" in anticipation of payoffs from organizations, payoffs which will satisfy their needs if they maintain relationships, but payoffs which will be foregone along with the side bets if relationships are discontinued. (Becker, 1960, p. 32)

3.2.1.2. Etzioni's (1961) Three Form Model of Organizational Commitment

In an early three form model of organizational commitment, Etzioni (1961) agreed that some individuals' commitment might indeed stem from the expectation of rewards from an exchange relationship as Becker (1960) suggested; Etzioni referred to this form of commitment as calculative. However, Etzioni believed that for other individuals, sources of commitment could be either morel involvement (identification with the organization and internalization of its goals, values and norms) or alienative involvement (negative affect toward the organizations) (Etzioni, 1961 as cited in McConnell, 2006, p. 29)

3.2.1.3. Kanter's (1968) Three Form Model of Commitment

According to Kanter (1968), " commitment may be defined as the process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which are seen as fulfilling those interests, as expressing the nature and needs of the person". (Kanter, 1968, p. 500). Kanter proposed three forms of commitment, Continuance, Cohesion and Control.

According to Kanter (1968), continuance commitment is the commitment of actors to participate in or remain members of a social system. Cohesion commitment is the commitment to the group and social relationships. Positive affect toward other members and mutual enjoyment of the relationship reinforces the commitment to stick together. Control commitment is the commitment to uphold norms and obey the authority of the group results from positive evaluative orientations. (Kanter, 1968, p.501) High levels of value congruence between the individual and the social system should be associated with high levels of control commitment.

3.2.1.4. Buchanan's (1974) Three Component Organizational Commitment Scale

Buchanan (1974) conceptualized commitment as " a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth."(Buchanan, 1974, p. 533) Combining Hall et al's (1970) organizational identification scale, Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) job involvement scale, and Buchanan's own " specially constructed" index of organizational loyalty, Buchanan introduced a " three-part commitment scale". However, due to intercorrelations among the items, he collapsed the components into a single dimension for use in multiple regression analyses. (Buchanan, 1974, p. 639)

3.2.1.5. Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1979) Organizational Commitment (OCQ)

Mowday, Steers and Porter developed a 15-item, single dimensional, attitudinal organizational scale called Organizational Commitment Questionaire (OCQ). In order to develop this instrument, Mowday et al., operationally defined organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization", noting that organizational commitment could be characterized by at least three related factors: 1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; 2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and 3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226)

3.2.1.6. O'Reilly and Chatman's Organizational Commitment Model

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed their multidimensional framework based on the assumption that commitment represents an attitude toward the organization. O'Reilly and Chatman argued that commitment could take three distinct forms, which they labeled compliance, identification and internalization. Compliance occurs when attitudes and corresponding behaviors are adopted in order to gain specific rewards. Identification occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or

maintain a satisfying relationship. Finally, internalization occurs when influence is accepted because the attitudes and behaviors one is being encouraged to adopt are congruent with existing values. (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986, as cited in Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001, p. 305)

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) provided support for the three-dimensional structure of their commitment measure. However, researchers had some difficulty in distinguishing identification and internalization. Consequently in their more recent research, O'Reilly and his colleagues combined the identification and internalization items to form what they called normative commitment (this construct correspond more closely to affective commitment in Meyer and Allen's (1991) model.)

Compliance is clearly distinct from identification and internalization especially with its relation to turnover. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) found that compliance correlated positively rather than negatively with turnover. This finding has raised some question about whether compliance can be considered a form of organizational commitment. Examination of the items used to measure compliance suggests another possible interpretation. Rather than measuring commitment to remain, O'Reilly and Chatman's compliance measure might assess commitment to perform. (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986, as cited in Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001, p. 305)

3.2.1.7. Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment

Since the mid 1980's, Meyer and Allen have found support for a multiple component model of organizational commitment, in which one component (affective commitment) is highly correlated with Mowday et al's (1979) OCQ. While testing Becker's (1960) side bet theory of organizational commitment, Meyer and Allen (1984) proposed that affective commitment is distinguished from continuance commitment, with affective commitment reflecting an emotional attachment to an organization and continuance commitment reflecting the perceived costs of leaving an organization. In 1990, Allen and Meyer proposed a third component of commitment-normative

commitment, which reflected a perception of obligation to an organization. (Jeffery, 2006, p.35)

In 1991, Meyer and Allen developed, and in 1993, Meyer, Allen and Smith revised, scales for measuring the affective, continuance and normative components of organizational commitment. Common to the three approaches is the view that commitment is a psychological state that a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization. However, the nature of the psychological state for each form of commitment is quite different. Employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to, those with a strong continuance commitment remain because they need to, and those with a strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to do so. Meyer and Allen argued that one can achieve a better understanding of an employee's relationship with an organization when all three forms of commitment are considered together. Consequently they developed a three-component model of organizational commitment. According to the model , employees can experience varying degrees of all three forms of commitment. Meyer and Allen hypothesized that each component develops as the result of different experiences and has different implications for on the job behavior. (Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993, p. 539)

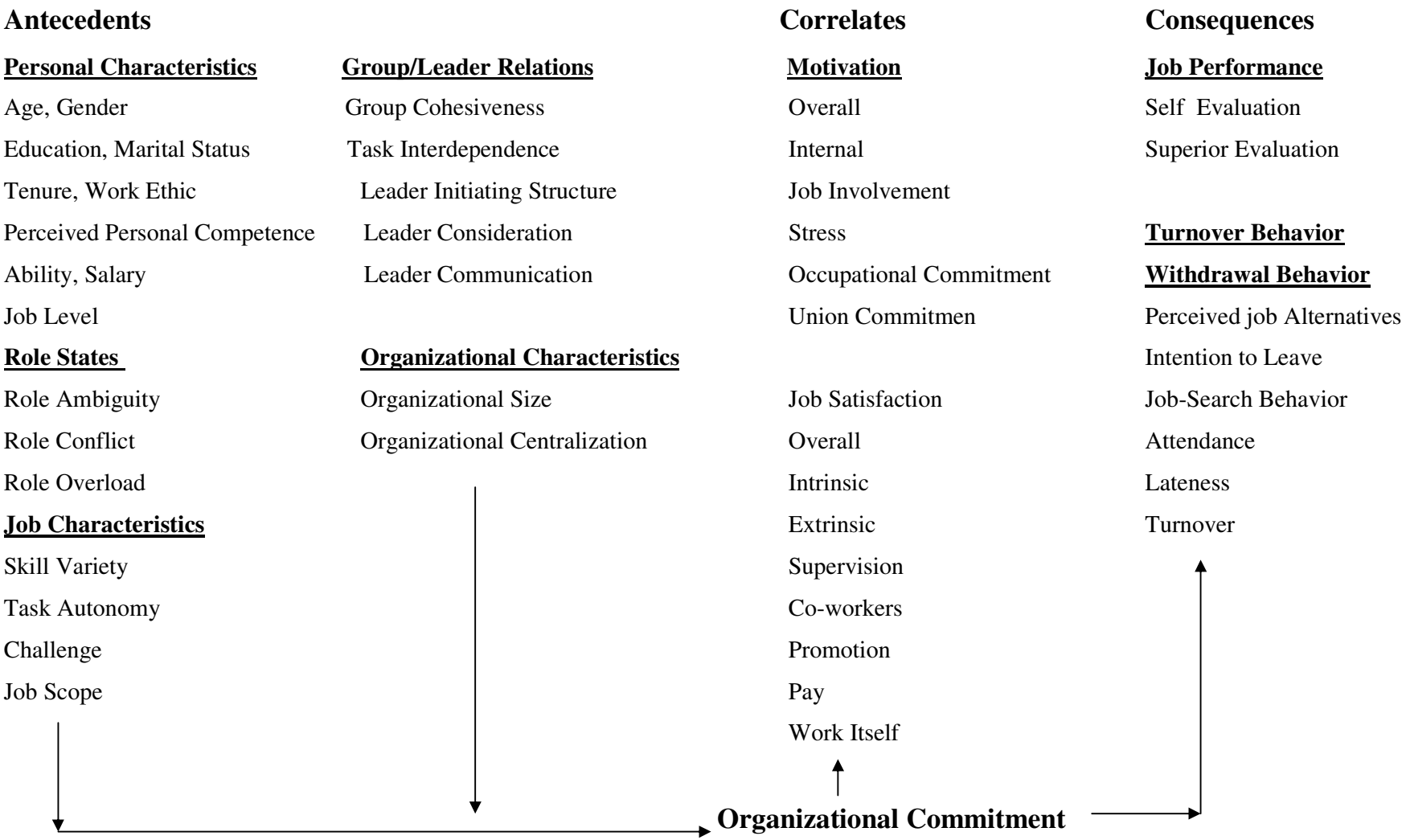
3.3. Antecedents, Correlates and Consequences of Organizational Commitment

There are a number of studies in organizational commitment literature that have identified the antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment since 1977. Antecedents of OC include an individual's personal characteristics and factors related to the organization or the individual's role within the organization that are hypothesized to influence the development of OC and correlates of OC. The primary difference between antecedents and correlates is their temporal development in relation to OC. That is, the development of antecedents is thought to be precede the development of OC, while correlates are formed at approximately same time, or in conjunction with, the development of OC. Once developed through

antecedents and correlates, OC is then hypothesized to affect behavioral consequences, such as performance, withdrawal behavior and actual employee turnover, which are important to the organization. (Ketchand and Strawser, 2001, p.231)

In Figure 2, a model of antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment is shown.

Figure 2: Model of Antecedents, Correlates and Consequences of Organizational Commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990, p. 174)



3.3.1. Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

Theoretically, OC is hypothesized to result from two broad types of factors. ***Personal factors*** represent the characteristics and experiences of individuals prior to their entry into the organization; in contrast, ***situational or organizational factors*** originate within organization and include elements of the work environment and the nature of the experiences encountered by individuals during their the term of their employment with the organization. (Ketchand and Strawser, 2001, p. 231)

In Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta analysis the antecedents found to be positively associated with organizational commitment were age, organizational tenure, work ethic, job level, task autonomy, challenge, group cohesiveness , leader initiating structure, leader consideration, organizational centralization and personal perceived competence. The antecedents that Mathieu and Zajac found to be negatively related to organizational commitment were gender(women tend to be more commitment than men, but the magnitude of the effect was small.) , education, organizational size, role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. (Jeffery, 2006, p. 36-37)

Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta analysis also found that three personal antecendents (age , position tenure and education) were more strongly related to affective commitment than continuance commitment, , although relationships with both dimensions were statistically significant. (Ketchand and Strawser, 2001, p. 234)

Previous research found that situational antecendents that reflect employees' comfort and competence in their roles are more highly related to affective than to continuance commitment. These factors include positive job characteristics/work experiences, job quality degree of participative leadership and level of coworker commitment.

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky(2002) conducted a meta-analysis to determine the true correlations among antecedent, consequence and correlate variables and Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective commitment scale, continuance commitment scale and normative commitment scale. Meyer et al. (2002) examined four

categories of antecedents; demographics, individual differences, alternatives/investments and work experiences. Generally, the demographic antecedent variables were not highly correlated with the commitment scales. Within the individual differences antecedent category, locus of control was negatively correlated with ACS and self-efficacy was positively correlated with ACS. In the alternatives/investments category, alternatives, transferability of education and skills were all negatively correlated with CCS, and relatively uncorrelated with ACS and NCS whereas the investments variable was positively correlated with ACS and NCS uncorrelated with CCS. In the work experience category of antecedents, the correlations were stronger than in the other three categories. Organizational support, transformational leadership, interactional, distributive and procedural justice was positively correlated with ACS, NCS; role ambiguity and role conflict was negatively correlated with ACS; role ambiguity was also negatively correlated with NCS but role conflict was uncorrelated with NCS. (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky, 2002 as cited in McConnell, 2006, p. 38)

3.3.2. Correlates of Organizational Commitment

Previous meta-analyses have identified significant relationships between OC and five correlates (job satisfaction, job involvement, stress, occupational/professional commitment and motivation) The strongest and most consistent relationship noted by researchers is a significant, positive relationship between OC and job satisfaction. (Ketchand and Strawser, 2001, p. 236)

The correlates that Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found to be consistently, positively associated with organizational commitment included internal motivation, job involvement, occupational commitment, union commitment, overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisors, coworkers, promotion, pay and work itself. Stress was the single correlate found to be consistently, negatively associated with organizational commitment. (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990, p.183) With respect to relationships between different dimensions of OC and correlates. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that job involvement and job satisfaction were more positively related to affective commitment than continuance commitment. (Ketchand and Strawser, 2001, p. 236)

In Meyer et al. (2002) meta analysis, correlates that were consistently positively associated with commitment (ACS more than NCS and CCS) included job involvement occupational commitment, overall job satisfaction with pay, coworkers, promotions, supervision, work, intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. These findings were largely consistent with those of Mathieu and Zajac (1990). (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky, 2002 as cited in Jeffery, 2006, p. 38)

3.3.3. Consequences of Organizational Commitment

With respect to consequences, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found organizational commitment to be positively related to job performance ratings and negatively related to perceived job alternatives, intention to research, intention to leave and turnover. (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990, p.14-15) In examining the relationship of different dimensions of OC with consequences, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that affective commitment was more negatively related to turnover intentions than was continuance commitment.

Absenteeism is another variable that is negatively related to affective commitment. Somers (1995) in a study of nurses found a significant negative relationship between affective commitment and absenteeism. While absenteeism is negatively related to affective commitment, several researches have shown that absenteeism does not seem to be significantly related to continuance commitment. (Gellatly, 1995; Hackett etal, 1994; Meyer et al., 1993; Somers, 1995) (Chay Hoon Lee, 1999, p. 19)

In Meyer et al. 2002 study, correlations with consequences ended to be higher for the ACS than for the NCS and CCS. Consequences that were positively associated with commitment included job performance (overall, self-reported and supervisor-rated) and organizational citizenship. Negatively related consequences included turnover, withdrawal cognition, absence, stress and work-family conflict. (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnytsky, 2002 as cited in Jeffery, 2006, p. 38)

4. REVIEW OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND PERSON-ORGANIZATION VALUE FIT LITERAUTE

While reviewing person-organization fit literature in earlier sections of this study, studies focused on the relation between work outcomes such as performance, job satisfaction etc. and person organization fit was mentioned. But, the relation between organizational commitment and person-organization fit was not mentioned in that section. Because of being the main topic of the study, the earlier studies examining effects of person-organization value fit on organizational commitment will be reviewed in this section.

4.1. O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991)

Using longitudinal data from MBA students, new-senior-public accountants and middle level managers O'Reilly et. al (1991) developed and validated 54 value item instrument (OCP- Organizational Culture Profile) for assessing person-organization fit. In that study O'Reilly et. al (1991) found that P-O fit measured with the OCP (Organizational Culture Profile) predicted job satisfaction, organizational commitment and actual turnover. O'Reilly et al. measured organizational commitment one year after measuring P-O fit and turnover two years after measuring P-O fit. The commitment was measured by O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) 12-item scale. (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991, p. 487-516)

4.2. Sims and Kroeck (1994)

In a study of 66 hospital workers, Sims And Kroeck (1994) found ethical P-O fit was significantly related to turnover intentions, continuance commitment and affective commitment. They used Ethical Climate Questionnaire as a measure of P-O fit and McGee and Ford's (1997) Affective and Continuance Commitment Scale. They found that affective commitment was significantly related to P-O fit in caring and independence work climates, whereas continuance commitment was significantly related to P-O fit in an instrumental climate. P-O fit in law and rules climates was not

significantly related to organizational commitment. (Sims and Kroeck, 1994, p. 939-947)

4.3. Sims and Keon (1997)

Sims and Keon (1997) conducted a study with undergraduate and MBA students in which they used different scores with respect to ethical climate preferences to measure P-O fit and the Intention to Turnover scale to measure organizational commitment. One of the hypotheses in this study was "greater organizational commitment would be reported when the perceived ethical values of the organization were similar to the ethical values of the employee". However this hypothesis was not supported by the adapt in this study. (Sims and Keon, 1997, p. 1095-1105)

4.4. Lok and Crawford (1999)

Lok and Crawford (1999) examined the relationship between organizational culture types and organizational commitment. They used Wallach's 1983 Organizational Culture Index (OCI) which categorizes corporate culture as bureaucratic, innovative and supportive to test several hypotheses among 251 nurses in the vicinity of Sdyney. They used Mowday et al.'s (1979) OCQ to capture organizational commitment. Lok and Crawford found that supportive and innovative hospital cultures would be positively correlated with commitment and bureaucratic hospital cultures would ne negatively correlated with organizational commitment. In contrast to previous research findings, education, position tenure and organizational tenure were not significantly correlated with commitment in their study. (Lok and Crawford, 1999, p. 365-376)

4.5. Kalliath, Bluedorn and Strube (1999)

Kalliath et al. (1999) used Quinn and Spreitzer's (1991) competing values instrument and Mowday et al.'s (1979) OCQ to examine both main effects and values congruence effects on organizational commitment. The hypotheses included; "the greater the congruence between individuals' internal process, open systems, human relations and rational goal values and their perception of these values in the organization, the higher their levels of organizational commitment. They found that

main effects are powerful, but congruence effects were largely absent. Main effects for internal process, open systems, human relations and rational goal values were strong both when the person held the values and when the person perceived that the organization reflected the values. (Kalliath, Bluedorn and Strube, 1999, p. 1175-1198)

4.6. Finegan (2000)

Finegan (2000) examined both the interaction effect between person and organization values and the direct effects of each on the organizational commitment of 121 employees of a petrochemical plant. She used Meyer at al.'s (1993) affective, normative and continuance commitment scales and McDonald and Gandz's (1991,1992) 24 value taxonomy. In this individual level analysis, organizational values are representes by the individual's perception of the organization's values, as opposed to the cross levels approach advocated by Chatman (1989) and her colleagues O'Reilly et al. (1991)

Finegan (2000) discovered three-dimensional relationships. Individual values did not directly affect affective organizational commitment, but two organizational values did. When individuals perceived humanity or vision factors as being characteristic of the organization, their affective commitment was higher. Finegan (2000) found that humanity and vision factors also produced positive main effects on normative commitment. Additionally, individuals who highly valued obedience, cautiousness and formality were highly normatively committed and when individuals perceived that the organization either highly valued or did not value at all obedience, cautiousness and formality, they were less normatively committed.

Humanity and vision factors did not produce main effects on continuance commitment, but when individuals perceived that the organization highly valued obedience, cautiousness and formality, they were highly continuatively committed. Finegan concluded that individual values and P-O fit were less important predictors of commitment than were organizational values. (Finegan, 2000, p. 149-169)

4.7. Valentine, Godkin and Lucero (2002)

Valentine et al. (2002) found that P-O fit and organizational commitment were positively related, and that ethical context as signified by corporate ethical values was positively related to both P-O fit and organizational commitment. In their study of 304 young working adults, Valentine et al. measured P-O fit directly with a four-item scale developed by Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian (1997), corporate ethical values with a five item scale developed by Hunt, Wood and Chonko (1989), and organizational commitment with Mowday et al.'s (1979) OCQ. Though their model diagram indicated that ethical context was a direct antecedent to both organizational commitment and P-O fit and that organizational commitment was also a mediating variable between ethical context and P-O fit. Valentine et al. did not measure individual values, nor did they separate the variance in organizational commitment explained by corporate ethical values from that explained by P-O fit, they merely determined that P-O fit, organizational commitment and corporate ethical values were positively related with one another. (Valentine, Godkin and Lucero, 2002, p. 349-360)

4.8. Silverthorne (2004)

Silverthorne (2004) studied the impact of organizational culture and P-O fit on organizational commitment and job satisfaction in Taiwan. Silverhorne operationalized the constructs using: 1) Wallach's (1983) OCI for organizational culture; 2) Mowday et.al's (1979) OCQ for organizational commitment 3) the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (Weiss, Davis, England, Lofquist, 1967) for job satisfaction 4) a difference score based on rankings of organizational and individual needs for P-O fit. Sample of the study consists of 360 corporate employees (120 at each three companies). Silverthorne found that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were among employees in a supportive corporate culture and job satisfaction and organizational commitment were lowest among employees in a bureaucratic corporate culture. Silverthorne also found P-O fit to be positively correlated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. (Silverthorne, 2004, p. 592-599)

5. METHODOLOGY AND FINDINGS

In this chapter of the study, methodology and findings of the study will be discussed.

5.1. Methodology

In this section, the purpose of the study will be explained, variables, instruments, procedure of the study, the statistical methods that were used for data analysis and study limitations will be mentioned.

5.1.1. The Purpose and Main Hypothesis of the Study

In today's working environment, organizations can be successful with a productive and committed work force. One of the variables that provides organizational commitment is P-O value fit. Organizations have to know which values are important in organizations and select employees whose values are similar to organizations' and maintain P-O value fit in organizations. The purpose of this study is to explore the effects of person-organization value fit on organizational commitment, affective, normative and continuance components of organizational commitment.

The main hypothesis of the study is; "Person-organization value fit will be positively related to organizational commitment."

5.1.2. Variables

The dependent variables in this study are affective, normative and continuance organizational commitment. They were defined as they were by Meyer and Allen(1991): Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to identification with and involvement in the organization. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment.(Meyer and Allen, 1991, p.67 as cited in McConnell, 2006, p. 56)

The independent variables in this study are P-O value fit. P-O value fit was defined as the value congruence between individuals and the organization in which are they are employed. P-O value fit was measured as indirect perceived fit on individual level as the correlation between individuals' preferences of values in an organization and individuals' perceptions of their employing organizations' values.

Finally demographic variables of this study are gender, age, marital status, level of education, total experience, tenure, department and position.

5.1.3. Instruments

Affective, normative and continuance commitment were measured with Meyer et. al's(1993) revised ACS, NCS and CCS scales. This scale contains 18 items, 6 items (1, 5, 7, 10, 11, 15) measuring affective commitment, 6 items(3, 6, 9, 12, 16, 18) measuring continuance commitment and 6 items(2, 4, 8, 13, 14, 17) measuring normative commitment. For these items, response choices along a 5 point scale range from strongly agree to strongly disagree with four items reverse-coded(2, 7, 10, 15) . Meyer et.al (1993) reported a coefficient alpha reliabilities of .82 for ACS, .83 for NCS and .74 for CCS. Turkish version of Meyer et. al's (1993) Organizational Commitment Scale was adapted from S. Arzu Wasti's unpublished doctoral thesis. (Wasti, 1999)

The independent variable P-O fit was measured with Cable and Judge's (1996) revised 40 item OCP (Organizational Culture Profile). The original OCP contains 54 value items. (O'Reilly et. al, 1991) Cable and Judge (1996) had 10 experienced doctoral students reduce the OCP by grouping similar values together but retaining those that were unique. Only the values that respondents agreed were very similar were removed. Chatman (1991) reported .73 reliability for the original 54 item OCP. Cable and Judge reported a .87 reliability for the revised 40 item OCP.

Turkish version of OCP was adapted from Elif Yıldırımbulut's unpublished master thesis. When constructing the OCP scale items, the researcher asked Marmara University Organizational Behaviour Department's master program students to translate the original items, then reviewed and compared those items to translations in previous studies (Erdoğan et al., 2004; Yahyagil, 2005) (Yıldırımbulut, 2006, p. 44)

The respondents completed the OCP twice, once before and once after completing ACS, NCS and CCS. The first time respondents rated values according to their own preferences in their ideal organization. (How much important is each value for them in their ideal organization?) The second time they rated values according to how much importance are given to each value in their actual organization. (How much important is each value in their actual organization?) The rating scale was 5 point scale from very important to not important at all.

The literature review has shown that, this instrument was mostly used by using Q-sort methodology (Cable and Parsons, 2001, Judge and Cable, 1997, Erdoğan and Bauer, 2005) and thus is regarded as an ipsative and ordinal measure. Despite their wide-spread use in the fit literature, difference scores have been criticized for variety of problems. Edwards (1993) asserted that this kind of measurement can't provide information regarding the magnitude of the differences between the individual and the organization. Kristof(1996) proposed using Likert-type rating scales to assess values, contrary to the indication by the value literature that these scales are prone to social desirability. (Kristof, 1996, pg. 16) This proposal is taken into consideration by Sarros ,Gray, Densten and Cooper (2005), Chow, Harrison, Mc Kinnon and Wu (2001).

5.1.4. Procedure

The participants of this study are employees of an international firm in telecommunication sector. 200 questionnaires were distributed to every department of the firm by the researcher herself with explaining the aim of the study to employees. The questionnaires were collected after a 2 weeks period by the help of the department assistants. The response rate was % 62 (124), 121 of them are complete and usable.

5.1.5. Data Analysis

The SPSS 15.0 (Statistical Program for Social Sciences) for Windows was used in all data analyses. All research instruments were analyzed for reliability, reliability of each scale was determined by using Cronbach Alpha. The correlations among variables were calculated by Pearson's Correlation. T and Anova test were used to test the effects of demographic variables on study variables. Also descriptive

statistics were calculated on dependent and independent and demographic variables. Because of the fact that true factor structures of Organizational Commitment questionnaire, were not captured by conducting factor analysis, original factor structures of Allen, Meyer and Smith's (1993) Organizational Commitment questionnaire were preferred to use in the study..

5.1.6. Limitations

This study has some limitations related to the sample and methodology. The sample was not large enough to capture true factor structures and detect small effect sizes. P-O value fit did not explain a statistically significant amount of the variance in continuance commitment. However, this does not mean that no relationships exist between P-O value fit and continuance commitment. The effects of these relationships, if they do exist, may be too small in size to have been detected with the sample size of this study.

Owing to the fact that the items in OCP are short and open to different interpretations, study participants may have assigned different meanings to same item.

Participants with similar characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, education probably affected the normal distribution of responses. Limiting to sample to only one organization may have produced the same biased distribution of survey results.

The study methodology also introduced some limitations. The independent and dependent variables were all measured at the same time using a single survey. The study had no longitudinal aspects. Additionally, responses to the survey questions were all based on individual level perceptions. No objective measures were used for any variable. However, individual level organizational commitment may be more a function of individual level subjective perceptions of reality than of objective measures reality. It may be beneficial to measure P-O value fit with two different way of measurement in order to understand it better.

5.2. Findings

In the findings section, study findings will be presented with frequency analysis of demographic variables, descriptive statistics associated with dependent, independent and demographic variables, correlation analyses of variables and T and Anova tests for demographic variables.

5.2.1. Study Participants Characteristics

475 employees work in the firm that this study has been conducted. 275 of these employees work in Turkey and the rest is working on telecommunication projects in the different countries around the world. Most of the employees in the firm are male and have an engineering background.

Table 2: Frequency Distribution of Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Women	31	25,6	25,6	25,6
Men	90	74,4	74,4	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

The sample of our study consists of 121 employees and %25,6 of the employees was female (31) and %74,4 of the employees was male (90).

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Age

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
22-34	64	52,9	52,9	52,9
35-55	57	47,1	47,1	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

As the average age of study participants is 35, age variable set was divided into two subsets (22-34 and 35-55). %52,9 of the study participants' age was between 22-34 years old (64) and %47,1 of the study participants' age was between 35-55 years old.

Table 4: Frequency Distribution of Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	61	50,4	50,4	50,4
Single	53	43,8	43,8	94,2
Divorced/Widowed	7	5,8	5,8	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

%50,4 of the study participants were married (61), %43,8 of them were single (53) and %5,8 of them were divorced/widowed (7).

Table 5: Frequency Distribution of Education Level

Education Level	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
High School	7	5,8	5,8	5,8
University	84	69,4	69,4	75,2
Master	30	24,8	24,8	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

Owing to that fact that the study was applied is a international firm and a large scale firm, the level of education of the study participants were high. the% 5,8 of the study participants had a high school degree (7), % 69,4 of the study participants had a university degree (84) and %24,8 of the study participants had a master degree.

Table 6: Frequency Distribution of Total Working Experience

Total Working Experience	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-13	66	54,5	54,5	54,5
14-38	55	45,5	45,5	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

As the average of total working experience of study participants were 13 years, total working variable set was divided into two subsets (1-13 and 14-38). % 54,5 of the

study participants had total working experience between 1-13 years(66) and %45,5 of the study participants had total working experience between 14-38 years.(55).

Table 7: Frequency Distribution of Tenure

Tenure	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-8	69	57,0	57,0	57,0
9-24	52	43,0	43,0	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

As the average of tenure of study participants were 9 years, tenure variable set was divided into two subsets (1-18 and 9-24). %57 of the study participants had tenure between 1-8 years (69) and %43 of the study participants had tenure between 9-24 years.

Table 8: Frequency Distribution of Departments

Department	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Service	66	54,5	54,5	54,5
Sales	8	6,6	6,6	61,2
Finance	8	6,6	6,6	67,8
Human Resources	6	5,0	5,0	72,7
Procurement	4	3,3	3,3	76,0
Order Administration	6	5,0	5,0	81,0
Quality/Documentation	4	3,3	3,3	84,3
Project Management	13	10,7	10,7	95,0
Account Management	6	5,0	5,0	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

%54,5 of study participants work at Service department (66). Most of the employees in the firm work at this department. (300 of 475). %6,6 of study participants work at Sales department (8), %5 of study participants work at HR department. (6), %3,3 of study participants work at Procurement department (4), %5 of study participants work at Order Administration department (6), %10,7 of study participants work at Project Management department (13), %6,6 of study participants work at Finance department (8), %3,3 of study participants work in Quality/Documentation department (4) and %5 of study participants work at Account Management department (6).

Table 9: Frequency Distribution of Positions

Position	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Assistant	9	7,4	7,4	7,4
Specialist/Engineer	68	56,2	56,2	63,6
Team Leader/Executive	21	17,4	17,4	81,0
Manager	23	19,0	19,0	100,0
Total	121	100,0	100,0	

% 7,4 of study participants work as an department assistant (9), %56,2 of of study participants work as a speacialist or engineer (68), %17,4 of study participants work as a team leader or executive (21) and %19 of study participants work as a manager. (23)

5.2.2. Descriptive Statistics of All Study Variables

The descriptive statistics of demographic, organizational commitment and person-organization value fit variables are presented below.

Table 10: Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	121	1	2	1,74	,438
Age	121	22	55	35,36	8,585
Maritalst	121	1	3	1,55	,605
Education	121	2	4	3,19	,521
Tot. Tenure	121	1	38	12,74	8,896
Tenure	121	1	24	8,955	8,1922
Department	121	1	9	3,07	2,817
Position	121	1	4	2,4793	,88599
Valid N (listwise)	121				

Table 11: Descriptive Statistics of Organizatonal Commitment Variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Continuance	121	1,00	5,00	2,4380	,79470
Affective	121	1,33	5,00	3,5716	,75884
Normative	121	1,17	5,00	3,1336	,73775
Valid N (listwise)	121				

Table 12: Descriptive Statistics of Person-Organization Value Fit Variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
OCP (Individual)	121	3,23	4,78	4,0767	,33569
OCP (Organization)	121	1,65	4,83	3,5709	,61405
Valid N (listwise)	121				

OCP-Organizational Culture Profile

When means and standard deviations of dependent and independent variables are examined, it is seen that organizational commitment and its dimensions have medium scores(means ranging from 2,4380 to 3,5716) while person-organization value fit variables have higher scores(means ranging from 3,5709 to 4,0767). The minimum and maximum scores for organizational commitment are similar to each other, while the minimum and maximum scores of OCP (individual) and OCP (organization) differ from each other. The minimum and maximum scores for OCP (individual) are 3,23 4,78 and for OCP(organization) 1,65 4,83 respectively.

5.2.3. Reliability Analysis

Cronbach alpha reliability for OCP questionnaire which indicated individual value preferences for ideal working environment and which indicated existed values in the actual firm was found as 0,883 and 0,957 respectively in this study. According to Chatman (1991) test-retest reliability averages 0,73 for the original 54-item OCP. Cable and Judge reported a 0,83 reliability for the revised 40- item OCP.

For Organizational Commitment questionnaire cronbach alpha reliability is found as 0,832 and when looking at the components of organizational commitment, cronbach alpha reliability for Affective Commitment, Normative Commitment and

Continuance Commitment was found as 0,7585, 0,6954 and 0,7142 (when item 3 and 6 was deleted) in this study respectively. Meyer et.al (1993) reported alpha reliabilities of 0,82 for the Affective, 0,83 for Normative and 0, 74 for Continuance Commitment Scales.

5.2.4. Hypothesis Analysis

As measurement of person-organization fit was discussed in earlier sections, different methods were given for measurement. (actual-perceived, indirect-direct and individual level-cross level measurement.) In the study, indirect perceived fit method in an individual level analysis was applied. That means; the participants in the study firstly displayed their preferences of values in an organization and next displayed their perceptions of existed values in their employing organization.

In order to use person organization fit variable in analyses, scores of OCP (individual) and OCP (organization) are computed. After that these two scores are subtracted from each other. This difference between preferred values (OCP individual) and perceived values (OCP organization) of participants were used in analyses. Less the differences between two scores will be, the more person-organization value fit will be.

Pearson's correlation method was used for the analysis of study hypothesis.

Table 13: Correlations Among "Difference Between Personal-Organizational Values" and "Three Components(Continuance, Affective, Normative) of Organizational Commitment"

		AC	NC
Difference	Pearson Correlation	-,304(**)	-,420(**)
	Sig. (1-tailed)	,000	,000
	N	121	121

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).
AC- Affective Commitment
NC- Normative Commitment
Difference- Difference between personal-organizational values

As it is seen in Table 13, a significant negative relationship was found between Affective Commitment, Normative Commitment and Difference between Personal-

Organizational Values as -,304 and -,420 respectively. That means if difference between personal and organizational values is low in other words person-organization value fit is high, affective and normative organizational commitment will be high. The main hypothesis of the study "Person-organization value fit will be positively related to organizational commitment" was supported with the finding above.

When comparing correlation scores, it was seen the relationship between normative commitment and person-organization value fit was stronger than the relationship between affective commitment and person-organization value fit. No significant correlation was found between Continuance Commitment and Difference between Personal-Organizational Values.

Values in the questionnaires are also inserted in correlational analysis severally to understand which perceived and preferred values are overlapped. A significant relationship was found between 10 values. These values were given below in Table 14.

Table 14: Individual and Organizational Values Which Are Overlapped

		Perceived Values								
Preferred Values	Being Analytical	Informality	Being Calm	Being Supportive	Being Reflective	Working long hours	Not being constrained by many rules	An emphasis on quality	Having a good reputation	Being highly organized
Being Analytical	,271(*)									
Informality		,275 (**)								
Being Calm			,298(**)							
Being Supportive				,237 (**)						
Being Reflective					,254(**)					
Working long hours						,274 (**)				
Not being constrained by many rules							,252(**)			
An Emphasis on quality								,340 (**)		
Having a good reputation									,242 (**)	
Being highly organized										,252 (**)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

5.2.5. Comparison of Person-Organization Value Fit and Organizational Commitment According to Demographics

After the dependent variables and P-O value fit scores were calculated, the analyses continued by investigating if differences in P-O value fit or the dependent variables existed as a function of the demographic variables.

As detailed in Table, mean scores for each demographic category were compared using independent sample T-test and one way Anova test. Also demographic variables were inserted in correlational analysis that was made between dependent and independent variables in order to understand if there were differences between demographic groups.

According to T tests; significant effects of some demographic variables on organizational commitment were found. No significant effect of demographic variables on person-organization value fit was found in the analysis. Comparing by age, older group had higher continuance commitment (t=-4,522, p< .05). Comparing by total working experience, the group who had longer total working experience had higher continuance commitment (t=-4,873, p<.05). Comparing tenure in the organization, the employees who had longer tenure in the organization had higher continuance commitment (t=-5,037, p<.05). According to one way Anova test, it was found that marital status had a significant effect on continuance commitment (F= 6,544, p<.05). Divorced/widowed employees had higher continuance commitment. Single employees had lower continuance commitment than married and divorced/widowed employees. None of the differences based on gender, education, department and position employed were significant.

In order to see if the relationship between organizational commitment and person-organization value fit differs for demographic variables, the demographic variables were splitted and inserted to the correlational analysis between person-organizational value fit and organizational commitment.

Significant relations found between variables for gender demographic variable were presented below at Table 15.

Table 15: Correlation Analysis with Gender

			AC	NC
Female	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-	-,512(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,003
		N		31
Male	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-,302(**)	-,386(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,004	,000
		N	90	90

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

In Table 15, it was seen that the relationship between normative commitment and person-organization value fit was stronger for female employees (-,512) than male employees (-,386). No significant correlation between affective commitment and person-organization value fit was found for female employees while a significant negative correlation was found for male employees. (-,302) No significant correlation between continuance commitment and person-organization value fit was found neither male nor female employees.

Significant relations found between variables for age demographic variable were presented below at Table 16.

Table 16: Correlation Analysis with Age

			AC	NC
22-34	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-,410(**)	-,453(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	,000
		N	64	64
35-55	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation		-,390(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,003
		N		57

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

No significant correlation was found between affective commitment and person-organization value fit for older age group (35-55). The relationship between normative commitment and person-organization value fit was stronger for younger age group than older age group. (-,453 and -,390 respectively)

Significant relations found between variables for marital status demographic variable were presented below at Table 17.

Table 17: Correlation Analysis with Marital Status

			AC	NC
Single	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	- ,435(**)	-,510(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,001	,000
		N	53	53

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

No significant correlation was found between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit for married and widowed/divorced employees The relationship between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit was found for single employees (-,453 and -,510 respectively)

Significant relations found between variables for education level demographic variable were presented below at Table 18.

Table 18: Correlation Analysis with Education Level

			AC	NC
University	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-,296(**)	-,379(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,005	,000
		N	84	84
Master	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation		-,494(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,005
		N		30

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

No significant correlation was found between affective commitment and person-organization value fit for employees who had highschool and master degree. The relationship between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit was found for employees who had university degree (-,296 and -,379 respectively). The relation ship between normative commitment and person-organization value fit was stronger for the employees who has a master degree than those who had university degree.

Significant relations found between variables for total working experience demographic variable were presented below at Table 19.

Table 19: Correlation Analysis with Total Working Experience

			AC	NC
1-13	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-,433(**)	-,470(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000
		N	66	66
14-38	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation		-,385(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)		,004
		N		55

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

No significant correlation was found between affective commitment and person-organization value fit for employees who had a longer total working experience. (14-38 years) The relationship between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit was found for employees who had a shorter total working experience (-,433 and -,470 respectively). The relationship between normative commitment and person-organization value fit was stronger for the employees who had a shorter total working experience than those who had a longer working experience.

Significant relations found between variables for tenure demographic variable were presented below at Table 20.

Table 20: Correlation Analysis with Tenure

			AC	NC
1-8 years	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-,443(**)	-,493(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000
		N	69	69

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

No significant correlation was found between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit for employees who had a longer tenure. (9-24 years) The relationship between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit was found for employees who had a shorter tenure (-,443 and -,493 respectively). The strongest relationship was found between normative commitment and person-organization value fit for the employees who had a shorter tenure. (1-8 years)

Significant relations found between variables for department employed demographic variable were presented below at Table 21.

Table 21: Correlation Analysis with Department

			AC	NC
Service	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-,491(**)	-,423(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	,000
		N	66	66

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

Only significant correlation was found between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit for employees who work at service department. The strongest relationship was found between affective commitment and person-organization value fit. (-,491)

Significant relations found between variables for position demographic variable were presented below at Table 22.

Table 22: Correlation Analysis with Position

			AC	NC
Specialist/Engineer	**Difference**	Pearson Correlation	-,331(**)	-,426(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	,006	,000
		N	68	68

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

Only significant correlation was found between affective commitment, normative commitment and person-organization value fit for employees who work in a speacialist/engineer position. The strongest relationship was found between normative commitment and person-organization value fit. (-,426)

6. CONCLUSION

In the final section of this study, previous research results and the findings of this study will be discussed and recommendations for further research are presented.

6.1. Discussion

Previous empirical research that examined relationships among P-O value fit and organizational commitment was mentioned in earlier sections. (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Finegan, 2000; Kalliath et al., 1999; Silverthorne, 2004; Sims and Kroeck, 1994; Valentine et al., 2002) Affective commitment tended to be highly correlated with organizational commitment measured as a single dimension. (Meyer et al., 2002) Silverthorne (2004) and Valentine at al. (2002) both found P-O value fit to be positively correlated with a single dimensional operationalization of organizational commitment. However, Kalliath et al. (1999) did not find incremental effects of P-O fit on a single dimensional operationalization of organizational commitment. Finegan (2000) found incremental effects of P-O fit on affective commitment. Sims and Kroeck (1994) found that P-O fit was significantly related to both continuance and affective commitment. McConnell (2006) found that P-O fit was significantly related to both affective and normative commitment. O'Reilly et al. (1991) found that P-O value fit was significantly correlated with what they termed "normative commitment" which resembles Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective commitment.

It was expected that current study would agree with preponderance of previous empirical findings, that data would reflect significant positive effects of P-O value fit on affective, normative and continuance commitment. It was also expected P-O value fit would effect affective commitment more than normative commitment and effect normative commitment more than continuance commitment.

The findings of the study supported main hypothese of this study. P-O value fit was found to be positively correlated with affective and normative organizational commitment. This finding was consistent with previous research findings. However, contrary previous research findings, the relationship between normative commitment and person-organization value fit was stronger than the relationship between affective

commitment and person-organization value fit. No significant relationship was found between continuance commitment and person-organization value fit. The last finding about continuance commitment was consistent with previous research findings.

The findings indicate that age was positively associated with continuance commitment. This finding was consistent with Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta analysis. Contrary to Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) age was strongly related to continuance commitment and no significant effect of age was found on affective commitment. Total working experience and tenure were positively associated with continuance commitment and these findings were consistent with Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta analysis. Another finding about demographic variables was about marital status. According to this finding, divorced/ widowed employees had higher continuance commitment while single employees had lower continuance commitment than married and divorced/widowed employees. This was an expected result. Married and divorced/widowed employees mostly have more responsibilities than single employees. That is why they mostly could not quit their jobs easily as single employees could.

The study findings also show that for female employees the relationship between P-O value fit and normative commitment was stronger than for male employees. According to this finding, the commitment of female employees can be raised easier by P-O value fit strategies than male employees. For younger age group the relationship between normative commitment and P-O value fit was stronger than older age group. When younger employees' values and their employing organizations' values are in congruence with one another, the feeling of obligation to stay is stronger. For the employees who had a master degree the relationship between P-O value fit and normative commitment was stronger than for the employees who had a university degree.

Compared to other employees, those employees who are high in affective organizational commitment tend to have better job performance, tend to be a better organizational citizens, tend to have lower absenteeism, less stress and they tend to remain with their organizations longer because they want to stay. Compared to other employees, those employees who are high in affective organizational commitment also

tend to have high levels of job involvement, satisfaction with their jobs, pay, coworkers and supervision. Compared to other employees, those employees who are high in normative commitment tend to remain with their organizations out of sense of obligation.

The findings of this study indicate that when the values of employees and the values of their organizations are congruent, both affective and normative components of organizational commitment are higher. These findings are consistent with previous findings.

P-O value fit is certainly an important criterion for selecting and retaining employees. Managers, Human Resources professionals, recruiters should be eager to recruit those individuals with similar values to those of the organization. After recruitment process, socialization activities to make new hires similar to organizational values are also important too. The higher P-O value fit will be, the more committed and productive work force the organizations will have. And having such kind of a work force in this competitive working environment will be a good advantage for the organizations.

6.2. Recommendations

Future research should aim to reach a larger and a more diverse sample in order to achieve a better distribution of responses. Besides those, a longitudinal approach and using measures that are both objective and perception based would alleviate the major limitations.

Besides P-O value fit, future research can also consider the other constructs goal congruence, work environment congruence and personaliyt congruence to understand P-O fit better and explore which operationalization of P-O fit can describe organizational commitment better. Thus, considering the other dimensions of person- enviroment fit, person-person fit, person-group fit, person-vocation fit or person-job fit could be beneficial.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Cover Letter- Demographic Questions

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, Marmara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Kamu Yönetimi Ana Bilim Dalı İnsan Kaynakları Yönetimi ve Gelişimi Yüksek Lisans Programı bünyesinde yürütülen kişilerin kendi önem verdiği değerlerle, çalıştığı kurumda önem verildiğini gözlemlediği değerler arasındaki uyumu ve bu uyumun çalışanın örgütsel bağlılığına olan etkisini tanımlamaya yönelik bir çalışmadır.

Bu araştırma için hazırlanmış olan anket formlarına cevaplarınızı işaretlemeden once **lütfen açıklamaları ve soruları dikkatlice okuyunuz.**

Araştırmadan sağlıklı sonuçlar elde edilebilmesi için **hiçbir sorunun boş bırakılmaması çok önemlidir**. Bu nedenle değerlendirmenizi yaparken **hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmamaya özen gösteriniz.**

Vereceğiniz yanıtlar sadece akademik amaçlı kullanılacaktır, hiçbir sekilde farklı kurum ve kişilere sonuçlar yansıtılmayacaktır. Bu yüzden kimliginizi belli edecek herhangi bir yazı yada işaret koymanıza gerek yoktur.

Bu araştırmaya sağlayacağınız katkı için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederim.

Gökçe COŞKUN

Demografik Sorular:

1. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek

2. Yaşınız : _____

3. Medeni Durumunuz: ( ) Evli ( ) Bekar ( ) Dul/Boşanmış

4. En son mezun olduğunuz eğitim kurumu

( ) İlk öğretim ( ) Lise ( ) Üniversite ( ) Yüksek Lisans ( ) Doktora

5. Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatındasınız? _____

6. Şu anki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz? _____

7. Çalıştığınız kurumdaki departmanınız nedir?

( ) Servis ( ) Satış ( ) Finans ( ) İK ( ) Satın alma ( ) Sipariş Yönetimi ( ) Kalite/Dokümantasyon ( ) Proje ( ) Müşteri İlişkileri Yönetimi ( )

8. Çalıştığınız kurumdaki pozisyonunuz nedir?
Asistan ( ) Uzman/Mühendis ( ) Yönetici/Takım Lideri ( ) Müdür ( ) Direktör ( )

Appendix 2: Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) Questionnaire

	Lütfen çalışmak isteyebileceğiniz, ideal bir kurumu hayal edin. Aşağıdaki özellikleri dikkatlice okuyarak, bu özelliklerin çalışmayı hayal ettiğiniz kurumda veya o kurumda çalışan kişilerde bulunmasının **sizin için** ne derece önemli olduğunu yandaki ölçek üzerinde belirtiniz	**Çok Önemli**	**Oldukça Önemli**	**Biraz Önemli**	**Pek Önemli Değil**	**Hiç önemli değil**
1	Değişikliklere adapte olması					
2	Dengeli olması					
3	Yenilikçi olması					
4	Fırsatlardan çabuk yararlanması					
5	Risk alması					
6	Bağımsız olması					
7	Kural odaklı olması					
8	Analitik olması					
9	Detaylara dikkat etmesi					
10	Takım çalışması yapması					
11	Bilgiyi serbestçe paylaşması					
12	İnsan odaklı olması					
13	Adil olması					
14	Hoşgörülü olması					
15	Resmi olmaması					
16	Sakin olması					
17	Destekleyici olması					
18	Hırslı olması					
19	Kararlı olması					
20	Düşünceli olması					
21	Başarı odaklı olması					
22	Bireysel sorumluluk alması					
23	Performansa yönelik yüksek beklentilere sahip olması					
24	Profesyonel gelişim için fırsatlar yaratması					
25	İyi performansa yüksek ücret vermesi					
26	İş güvencesi sunması					
27	İyi performansı övmesi					
28	Çatışma ile doğrudan yüzleşmesi					
29	İş yerinde arkadaşlık geliştirilmesi					
30	İşlerin hevesle yapılması					
31	Uzun saatler boyunca çalışılması					
32	Kurallarla kısıtlamaması					
33	Kalite odaklı olması					
34	Diğerlerinden farklı olması					
35	Saygın bir üne sahip olması					
36	Sosyal sorumluluk sahibi olması					

37	Sonuç odaklı olması					
38	Açık, yol gösterici bir düşünce yapısına sahip olması					
39	Rekabetçi olması					
40	İyi derecede organize olması					

Appendix 3: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

	Aşağıda bireylerin çalıştıkları kurumlar hakkındaki olası hislerini belirten bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz. **<u>Halen çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumu</u>** göz önüne alarak bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınıza ilişkin görüşünüzü ölçek üzerinde belirtiniz.	**Tamamen katılıyorum**	**Oldukça katılıyorum**	**Biraz katılıyorum**	**Pek katılmıyorum**	**Hiç katılmıyorum**
1	Kariyerimin kalan kısmını bu kuruluşta geçirmekten mutluluk duyarım.					
2	Şu anda çalıştığım kuruluşta çalışmaya devam etmek için herhangi bir mecburiyet hissetmiyorum.					
3	Çalıştığım kuruluştan ayrılmamın az sayıdaki olumsuz sonuçlarından biri dışarıdaki uygun alternatiflerin azlığı olabilir.					
4	Benim için avantajlı dahi olsa, kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmayacağını hissediyorum.					
5	Çalıştığım kuruluşun sorunlarını gerçekten de kendi sorunlarımmış gibi hissediyorum.					
6	Şu anda çalıştığım kuruluşta kalmaya devam etmem mecburiyettendir.					
7	Bu kuruluşta kendimi " ailenin bir parçası" gibi hissetmiyorum.					
8	Çalıştığım kuruluşa çok şey borçluyum.					
9	İstesem dahi, şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu.					
10	Kendimi bu kuruluşa " duygusal olarak bağlı" hissetmiyorum.					
11	Bu kuruluşun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.					
12	Şu anda çalıştığım kuruluştan ayrılmaya karar versem hayatımın çok büyük bir kısmı altüst olurdu.					
13	Kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılsaydım kendimi suçlu hissederdim.					
14	Çalıştığım kuruluş sadakatimi hakediyor.					
15	Kuruluşuma karşı güçlü bir " aitlik" hissim yok.					
16	Bu kuruluşu bırakmayı düşünemeyecek kadar az seçeneğim olduğuna inanıyorum.					
17	Şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmazdım çünkü buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülüklerim olduğunu hissediyorum.					
18	Eğer bu kuruluşa kendimden bu kadar çok şey vermiş olmasaydım, başka bir yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.					

Appendix 4: Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) Questionnaire

	Lütfen halen çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumu düşünün. Aşağıdaki özellikleri dikkatlice okuyarak, bu özelliklerin **halen çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumda** ne derece önemli görüldüğünü yandaki ölçek üzerinde belirtiniz	**Çok Önemli**	**Oldukça Önemli**	**Biraz Önemli**	**Pek Önemli Değil**	**Hiç önemli değil**
1	Değişikliklere adapte olmak					
2	Dengeli olmak					
3	Yenilikçi olmak					
4	Fırsatlardan çabuk yararlanmak					
5	Risk almak					
6	Bağımsız olmak					
7	Kural odaklı olmak					
8	Analitik olmak					
9	Detaylara dikkat etmek					
10	Takım çalışması yapmak					
11	Bilgiyi serbestçe paylaşmak					
12	İnsan odaklı olmak					
13	Adil olmak					
14	Hoşgörülü olmak					
15	Resmi olmamak					
16	Sakin olmak					
17	Destekleyici olmak					
18	Hırslı olmak					
19	Kararlı olmak					
20	Düşünceli olmak					
21	Başarı odaklı olmak					
22	Bireysel sorumluluk almak					
23	Performansa yönelik yüksek beklentilere sahip olmak					
24	Profesyonel gelişim için fırsatlar yaratmak					
25	İyi performansa yüksek ücret vermek					
26	İş güvencesi sunmak					
27	İyi performansı övmek					
28	Çatışma ile doğrudan yüzleşmek					
29	İş yerinde arkadaşlık geliştirmek					
30	İşini hevesle yapmak					
31	Uzun saatler boyunca çalışmak					
32	Kurallarla kısıtlamamak					
33	Kalite odaklı olmak					
34	Diğerlerinden farklı olmak					
35	Saygın bir üne sahip olmak					
36	Sosyal sorumluluk sahibi olmak					

37	Sonuç odaklı olmak					
38	Açık, yol gösterici bir düşünce yapısına sahip olmak					
39	Rekabetçi olmak					
40	İyi derecede organize olmak					

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