



**T.C.
YEDİTEPE UNIVERSITY
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**THE INFLUENCE OF PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT
ON CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE
AND ITS IMPACT ON ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS:
THE MODERATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE**

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ÖZET

İşletmelerin sürekli değişen çevre şartlarına uyum sağlayabilmeleri, dinamik, karmaşık ve rekabetçi niteliği artan iş dünyasında uzun süreli var olabilmeleri örgütsel etkinliğin yüksek düzeyde olmasıyla mümkündür. Örgütsel etkinlik, organizasyonların amaçlarına ulaşma, rakipleri ile başa çıkma, karlılıklarını ve başarılarını artırma stratejilerini açıklamaktadır. Organizasyonlar, satış rakamlarının kısa vadeli faydalarını uzun vadede müşteri ihtiyaçları ile birleştirmek üzere teşvik edilirler. Bu doğrultuda örgütsel etkinlik, kurumsal başarıyı satış rakamları, kazanç gibi kısa vadeli sonuçlarla ölçümlemek yerine, uzun dönem bütünsel perspektiften ele almaktadır. Günümüz ekonomisinde organizasyonların varlıklarını sürdürebilmeleri ve başarılı olabilmeleri için örgütsel etkinlik üzerine odaklanmaları gerekmektedir. Şirketler, hızlı değişen koşullar içerisinde rekabet yönünden avantaj sağlayabilmek, hedeflerine ulaşabilmek ve en önemlisi örgüt etkinliğini artırabilmek için kurum kültürüyle uyum sağlayabilen bireylere ihtiyaç duymaktadırlar. Birey-organizasyon uyum düzeyinin bilimsel olarak saptanması gerek örgüt kültürü profiline belirlenmesinde, gerekse işe alım süreçlerinde doğru adayların doğru işe seçilmeleri açısından anahtar rol oynamaktadır. Birey-organizasyon uyum düzeyinin önemi şirketler için bu noktada ortaya çıkmaktadır. Ayrıca, bağlamsal performans organizasyonların hedeflerine ulaşabilmeleri ve örgüt etkinliğini artırabilmeleri için son derece önem taşımaktadır.

Kurum kültürüyle uyumlu bir örgüt iklimi, çalışanların her türlü iş aktiviteleri ve genel performansları üzerinde ve organizasyonların etkinliğini artırmada olumlu bir fonksiyona sahiptir. Örgüt iklimi, bir organizasyonun tüm iş stratejileri ve süreçleri, uygulamaya yönelik her türlü kural ve düzenlemeyi içeren ayırt edici özellikleri yansıtmaktadır. Bu nedenle bu çalışmada birey-örgüt uyumu, bağlamsal performans ve örgüt etkililiği arasındaki ilişki ve örgüt ikliminin birey-örgüt uyumu ile bağlamsal performans arasındaki ilişkisi üzerindeki rolü incelenmiştir. Çalışma, birey-örgüt uyumunun örgüt etkinliğine katkısını inceleyen ilk çalışma olup ilgili çalışmalara örnek teşkil etmesi bakımından önem taşımaktadır. Araştırma üç farklı şirkette olmak üzere toplam 200 beyaz yaka çalışan üzerinde uygulanmıştır. Araştırmanın sonucu bağlamsal performans, işe tutkunluk, örgüt iklimi ve birey-örgüt uyumunun örgütsel etkinlik üzerinde etkili olduğunu ve özellikle örgüt iklimi ve birey-örgüt uyumunun örgütsel etkinliği çok daha kuvvetli olarak açıkladığını ortaya koymuştur. İşe tutkunluk ve bağlamsal performans örgüt iklimi ile örgüt etkinliği arasındaki bu ilişkiye ılımlı olarak etki etmektedir. Ayrıca işe tutkunluğun bu ilişki üzerindeki etkisi bağlamsal performansın etkisinden çok daha yüksek çıkmıştır.

ABSTRACT

In a dynamic and increasingly complex and competitive global environment, organizations' current effectiveness is necessarily a predictor of future success. The concept of organizational effectiveness was an important innovation in business management. Organizational effectiveness defines strategies of organizations to achieve targets, to succeed, to increase competitiveness and their profits. Organizations are encouraged to couple profit with a concern for the environment, to combine the short-term benefit of sales with the long-term needs for customer service. Instead of defining corporate success by a few short-term measures such as profit sales or profit, it fostered a holistic long-term perspective. The expanded perspective that resulted from a focus on the overall effectiveness of an organization has become central to corporate survival and success in today's economy. In order to gain competitive advantages in this fast changing environment, to achieve their targets and to increase organizational effectiveness, companies need individuals who can be congruent with organizational culture. Scientifically, defining of person-organization fit level plays a critical role for understanding the organizational culture profile and in hiring flexible, congruent and committed employees. The importance of person-organization fit for organizations emerges at this point. Contextual performance is also important for organizations because it helps to achieve of organizational goals and organizational performance.

Organizational climate created by the individuals who have high level of person-organization fit effect on contextual performance and organizational effectiveness. Organizational climate reflects the distinctive features of an an organization and increase organizational effectiveness. With this in mind, the aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between person-organization fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness and the moderating effect of organizational climate on the relationship between pperson-organization fit and contextual performance. This is the first study exploring the effect of person-organization fit on organizational effectiveness, thus making an important contribution to the relevant literature. The sample of the study was composed of 200 white-color employees working in three different organizations. The results of the study indicated that contextual performance, job engagement, organizational climate and person-organization fit have influences on organizational effectiveness. Especially, organizational climate and person-organization fit explained organizational effectiveness more than other variables. Job engagement and contextual performance significantly moderated the relationship between organizational climate and contextual performance. The results also showed that job engagement had more variance on the relationship between organizational climate and organizational effectiveness than contextual performance.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ASA	Attraction-selection-attrition
OCP	Organizational Culture Profile
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
CPE	Criteria for Performance Excellence
KMO	Keiser-Meyer-Olkin
MBNQA	The Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award
P-O FIT	Person-Organization Fit
P-E FIT	Person-Environment Fit
P-J FIT	Person-Job Fit
P-G FIT	Person-Group Fit
P-V FIT	Person-Vocation Fit
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SPSS	Statistical Program for Social Sciences
TQM	Total Quality Management
UWES	Utrecht Work Enthusiasm Scale

1. INTRODUCTION

In a dynamic and increasingly complex global environment, an organization's current performance level may be taken as a predictor of future success. Organizations have their own particular visions, missions, objectives etc. They divide overall work into tasks to function effectively. Tasks differ in their requirements. Likewise, people differ in their attitudes, abilities and interests, and along many other dimensions (Cascio, 1991). Friedlander and Pickle (1968) point out that "to become effective in terms of survival and growth, an organization must fulfil the needs and demands of it's employees, it's owners and the relevant members of the society with which it transacts (it's community, it's governments, it's customers, it's suppliers and it's shareholders)".

An organization's capabilities to survive and progress are indicators of its level of success. Organizational effectiveness explains how to achieve organizational targets, how to compete, how to bring new products to market, how to manage reputation as well-known employer, and their profitability. Organizational effectiveness is also important to cope with changes in the environment. Employees fit with organizations are one of the most important criteria to achieve organizational goals and effectiveness.

The aim of person-organization (P-O) fit is to hire employees whose personalities fit with the organizational culture. If individuals' values and personalities are coherent with culture of organizations, the research indicates that there is strong P-O fit in those organizations (Kristoff, 1996). Strong P-O fit results positive organizational outcomes and increases job satisfaction, individual performance, organizational effectiveness, tenure, prosocial behaviors, team cohesion, and commitment in organizations and decreases turnover and intention to quit (Kristof, 1996; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Chatman, 1989). Chatman (1989) also advocated that high levels of P-O fit were beneficial both for individuals and organizations. High P-O fit increases the likelihood that both extra-role behaviors will occur and individuals will feel more comfortable and competent in organizations that have similar values (Morse, 1975). Therefore, it is important to choose employees whose personal values fit with their organizations and this fit creates strategic advantages (Morewitz, 2009; Chatman, 1991).

The focus on internal dynamics of organizations leads us to identify the effectiveness criteria. One of such criteria is organizational performance is an important and necessary outcome of organizational operations. Organizational performance results better compensation and benefits, promotions, employee training, etc. Contextual performance is one of the valuable dimensions of organizational performance. Contextual performance contributes to effectiveness of organizations. Richard and his colleagues (2009) state that organizational effectiveness contains organizational performance, the numerous internal performance outcomes related with effective and efficient operations and some other external measures that are broader than simply associated with economic valuation.

Another contextual performance related term is organizational climate is which can be defined as an organizational work atmosphere which has influence on employees' attitudes and their level of performance. Bock and his colleagues (2005) point out that organizational climate relates to contextual situations and it depends on the ideas, feelings, and employees' behaviors. Schneider and Reichers (1983) argue that organizational climates are shared perceptions among employees about their organizational context (such might be defined by the organization's practices and policies), and they serve to mediate the relationship between the context itself and responses to the context such as behaviours.

In order to achieve increased and sustainable business results, organizations engage their employees. Therefore, job engagement concept is included in the study as an outcome variable related with the individual state of employees toward their jobs. Findings of the literature review show that engaged employees' values match well with the organization's values (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003).

The present study is an attempt to examine the relationships between all of the above mentioned five concepts: organizational effectiveness, person-organization fit, contextual performance, organizational climate and job engagement.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to understand the nature of the association between the concepts of P-O fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness. It also aimed at the examination of the moderating role of organizational climate on the relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance.

1.2 Research Questions

1. What is the nature of the relationship between the concepts of P-O fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness?
2. Which dimensions of P-O fit explain the majority variance in the dependent variable of organizational effectiveness?
3. Does the organizational climate have an influence on the level of job engagement?
4. Is there a relationship between job engagement and organizational effectiveness?

1.3 Importance of the Study

Business life is becoming more complex and competitive. Such developments as shortened product life cycles, increasing customer demands, quality initiatives and growing globalization of markets have made it more difficult for organizations to survive. The meaning of traditional job has been redefined and scholars now emphasize the importance of the selection of employees for organizations, not just for job positions (Lawler, 2000; O'Reilly et al, 1991). In today's business life, human resource departments are not only interested in attracting qualified people with high level of experience, know-how, capabilities etc., but also for people whose personal values fit well with the distinctive characteristics and values of organizations (Lawler, 2000; Schneider, 1987).

Organizational performance comprises the actual output or results of an organization as measured against its intended outputs. However, organizational performance is not only the consideration of the results; it also includes identification of organizational goals, monitoring progress toward the goals, and making modification to achieve those goals more effectively and efficiently. Employees' perceptions of the organizational climate might increase or decrease their level of performance as they spend most of their time at work (Momeni, 2009). Affirmative perception of organizational climate has a positive effect on the profitability of organizations (Neal et al, 2000), whereas negatively perceived organizational climate can reduce employees' motivation and engagement (McMurray et al, 2004). Employees are not engaged to their organizations when they perceive unclear role clarity, inequality of employees, and overall negative organizational climate (Shadur et al, 1999).

Job engagement is related to intrinsic motivation and has become subject to greater attention in the literature. According to Salanova and Schaufeli (2008), job engagement involves the main dimensions of intrinsic motivation (Kimura, 2011).

Organizational effectiveness has traditionally attracted a great deal of organizational success. "It is the long-term abilities of a company to achieve consistently its strategic and operational goals" (Fallon and Brinkerhoff, 1996, p.14). This study also attempts to demonstrate the relationship between P-O fit, contextual performance, and perceived organizational effectiveness.

2. FIT THEORIES AND VALUES

Our time is frequently referred to as the human resource management era. Employers and human resource managers focus on the concepts such as person-organization fit, person-job fit, person environment fit, person-group fit. Human resource management needs to provide pleasant work environment for their employees. (Chernyshenko et al, 2009).

Schneider (1987) found a strong relationship between the concepts of behavior, person and environment. He linked behavior to the function of person and environment, which is " $B=f(P, E)$ ", and the environment to the function of the person and behavior, which is " $E=f(P, B)$ " in organizations. These links underline the organizational perspective related to people who are attracted to, selected by, and remain in a certain setting. Attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework supports this aspect and emphasize the importance of realizing organizational practices such as technology and structure organization uses, and environment of the organization are the consequences of individual's behaviors and characteristics (Schneider, 1983, 1987). In practice, organizations recruit, select, and retain people whose personality fit with their job environment.

According to Pervin (1968), person-environment (P-E) fit is the conceptualization that is matching between employees and working environment. Appropriate matching raises performance and decreases stress. Holland (1985) thought that employees' job satisfaction increase when they feel that their personality types matched with working environment. There are different concepts of P-E fit defined in organizations. Consequently, employees' personal values may match with their jobs that are called as person-job fit, with their organizations that is called as person-organization fit, with their work groups that is called as person-group fit, and with their supervisors that is called as person-supervisor-fit (Kristof, 1996).

Person-vocation (P-V) fit is the coherence between an individual's vocational interests and skill requirements of the vocation. For P-V fit, Holland (1985) suggested that individuals

look for residences that are coherent with their personality type which consist of practical, inquisitive, social, entrepreneurial, traditional, etc.

Person-group (P-G) fit is described by Kristof (1996) as the compatibility between employees and work groups. Researchers think that P-G fit is different mode of P-E fit. Differences of work groups cause different group norms and applications (Jermier et al, 1991; Schneider and Bowen, 1985).

Person-job (P-J) fit is another category of P-E fit which is one of the most studied types. P-J fit is matching between employees and jobs (Morewitz; 2009). P-J fit is also defined as demands-abilities fit which are matching of individual knowledge, skills, and abilities with the job requirements. Cable and DeRue (2002) assume that P-J fit is known as need-supply fit. Need-supply fit is matching of individual needs and organizational awards presented to individuals.

The final category of P-E fit is person-organization (P-O) fit (Kristof, 2004). P-O fit is the coherence between people and organizations. Also, the effectivity of P-O fit is based on the coherence between an organization and the employee's values, interests, demands and beliefs (Arthur et al, 2006). The ASA (attraction selection-attrition) model is a person based model and indicates that organizations attract individuals by matching their values and interests (Schneider, 1987). P-O fit involves both characteristics of individual personality and characteristics of an organization. There is no consideration for a specific task or responsibility. In this study, P-O fit is described as the degree of matching between individual abilities and organizational requirements, to be able to achieve the organizational goals.

P-O fit has also been studied as complementary fit and defined as the similarity of values, needs, goals, or personality between employees and their organizations (Kristof, 1996; 2000; Piasentin and Chapman, 2006). Many researchers emphasized that values specify distinctive features of employees and organizations and they show similarities and differences between them (Chatman, 1989; 1991). Additionally, it is emphasized that values are the primary concept by which organizational culture is translated into organizational norms, practices, and procedures.

As a result, individuals are attracted to the environment, selected by the environment, and stay with a certain organization (Schneider, 1987). The fit between the individual and the environment is a predictor of specified outcomes, which posits that the P-O fit is a predictor of job performance and turnover (Arthur et al, 2006). As explained above, there are different types of fit, including P-G fit, P-V fit, and P-J fit. However, this study focused only on P-O fit because of its use in personnel selection and the unique issues relating to the use of the P-O fit in employment decision-making.

The impact of organizational membership on people is predicted through information collected about people and the impact of people on organizations is predicted through information collected about organizations. It is important to consider about the conditions of people and conditions of organizations. However, Katz and Kahn (1978) thought that even though, conditions of people and conditions of organizations are important in behavior definition (such as capability, work requisition, personality characteristics etc.), a primary and permanent aspect of both organizations and people are their values. On the person aspect, individual values are descriptive of enduring beliefs. Values are a kind of social cognition that expedites people's adaptation to their environment, and have containment for their behavior (Rokeach, 1973). On the organization aspect, value systems ensure a detailed and generalized justification both for eligible behaviors of members and for the functions and activities of the system (Enz, 1988; Katz and Kahn, 1978; McCoy, 1985).

There are different value descriptions in the literature. Many researchers agree that values are standards or criterias for judgements and preferences in many different ways (Kilmann, 1984) to choose goals or guide action and are permanent and stable over time (Meglino et al, 1989). According to Schwartz (1992, p.2), "values are desirable states, objects, goals or behaviors, transcending specific situations and applied as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behavior".

Another common definition belongs to Rokeach who (1973, p.5) defined value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state of existence".

Rokeach underlined some important views of values in his definition. These are “personally preferable” and “socially preferable”. “Personally preferable” indicates an individual’s values and the reference to “socially preferable” specifies values shared by the members of social group or organization. This means that values can be both an individual and social phenomenon. Second point is the reference to “mode of conduct” and “end state”. These terms indicate the distinction between instrumental values and terminal values which is respectively reference to means and ends (Kalliath et al, 1999, p.1176).

Many theorists state that values are relatively enduring, but may be changed under specific situations through out life (Meglino et al, 1989). In this view, they are similar to the communities or social systems that support them. If communities were not stable, social order would not be possible. If they were completely stable, evolution would not be possible (Rokeach, 1985).

Values were named as work values for business environment. One of these work values is instrumental work value which is related to ensure to achieve targets and refers to work benefits, work security, and success at work. Another work value is cognitive work value which is related to belief system about eligible behaviors and refers to contributing to society, and having significant process. The last work value is affective work value which is regarded to feelings and emotions, and refers to happiness, well-relationship, and friendship at work.

Researchers provided the difference between values and attitudes and they underlined the importance of values compared to attitudes. Accordingly, values are standards which are not attached to a specific object or situation but attitudes correspond to particular objects and are not standards. Also, values affect motivation more and occupy a more central position in the cognitive system. A study of values indicates the intensity for collaboration as a result of that values play an important role in social sciences.

It is considered that values are determinants of attitudes and behaviors, but, individuals have fewer values than attitudes. “This is explained by the argument that values are translations of individual needs into a socially acceptable form that can be presented and

defended publicly. Since they are cognitive presentations of biological and social needs, they are few in number (Grube et al, 1994, p.75)". "Rokeach argued that when values are challenged or frustrated, when people are confronted by difficult moral choices, when they are involved in different kinds of conflicts and when their values are met, people usually feel strongly about their fundamental values" (Feather, 1994, p.130).

Norms are strongly related to values in that they make explicit the forms of behavior that are eligible for members of the system (Kilmann et al, 1985). Every group members do not have the same values and norms. However, organizational values and norms are a group effect and group members would be aware of the group support for a given value (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Weiner, 1988).

In addition to a description of their content, both organizational and individual values can be defined in terms of their potential, endurance or relation to other values. Also, organizational value systems can be defined in terms of crystallization, or their domain (Jackson, 1966; O'Reilly, 1983). Many researchers define strong culture as both intensely held and widely shared cultures (Davis, 1984; Deal and Kennedy, 1982). Mischel (1977) explained organizations that have intense and crystallized values as strong situations.

3. THE KEY CONCEPTS

This study contains theoretical histories and correlational application of five concepts, namely, P-O fit, contextual performance, organizational climate, job engagement and organizational effectiveness.

3.1 The Concept of Person-Organization Fit

P-O fit is a concept in management's field since 1950s (Muthusamy, 2009) and P-O fit has been paid more attention by researchers nowadays to be able to increase performance, decrease turnover or intention to turnover. (Chernyshenko et al, 2009).

Studies have shown that people adapt to and perform best in their jobs and have positive work-related behaviors and attitudes when there is a good P-O fit (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Cable and Judge, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al, 2005; Chen et al, 1998). Westerman and Vanka (2005) noted that most employee attitudes and behaviors are not determined only by the person or the work environment. They are also determined by the relationship between these two factors.

P-O fit was described as the "compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when at least one party provides what the other needs or they share similar fundamental characteristics or both" by Kristof-Brown and his colleagues (2005, p.298). Kristof (1996) described that P-O fit occurs when organizations satisfy employees' needs from demands-abilities aspect. There is congruence between employees and organizations they work, when the employees possess and evidence their abilities to satisfy demands of the organization. Edwards (1991) integrated these aspects and proposed that needs and abilities form the "person" perspective, and supplies and demands form the "job" perspective of the P-O fit studies. He defined needs "in terms of employees' desires, goals, values, interests and preferences, and abilities in terms of aptitudes, experience and education".

It was detailed that P-O fit ensures harmony of an employee's personality, goals, values and goals and values of the organization (Van Vianen et al, 2007). Individuals' values are important values that refer to install their fit.

To be able to define the effects that organizational membership will have on an individual's values and behaviors and the effects that an individual will have on an organization's norms and values, it must be determined the degree of agreement between the person's and organization's values. Additionally, many researches have examined personality traits as important determinants of behaviors. However, there is a risk of misrepresenting organizations if personality traits are compared directly to organization contexts. Therefore, particular traits (self-monitoring) are seen as determinants of the particular behavioral appearance of P-O fit.

According to many researchers, P-O fit is the harmony of an employee and an organization. However, there is a discussion on that because harmony can be conceptualized in different ways and each way results different perspectives on P-O fit. There are different explanations to clarify these multiple conceptualizations.

The first explanation is between supplementary and complementary fit. It is said that "supplementary fit occurs when a person supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals in an environment" (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987, p.269, Kristof, 1996), and complementary fit occurs "when a person's characteristics make whole the environment or add to it what is missing" (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987, p.271).

In complementary fit, one side will meet the other ones needs. Therefore, it can be called as win-win situation which exists when the employees complement the organization's demands by applying their abilities in terms of demands-abilities fit. Cable and Edwards (2004) explained that both supplementary fit and complementary fit are interrelated, and both individual and organizational outcomes are affected by these fits.

Kristof (1996) extended the definition of the concept and integrated the different conceptualizations to each other by providing a new model. He defined the relationship between the fundamental characteristics of employees and fundamental characteristics of their organizations as “supplementary fit” (arrow “a”) in this new extended model. Personalities, attitudes, goals and values are some of the examples of fundamental characteristics of a person and climate, culture, goals, and values are some examples for fundamental characteristics of an organization. Supplementary fit takes place when organizational and personal characteristics are similar to each other. There is also another description for individual perspective based on their supplies and demands in employment agreements. These demands and supplies are impacted by the underlying characteristics of individuals and organizations as specified by the dotted arrows. Nevertheless, they demonstrate different dimensions. Fit or misfit might occur on these dimensions.

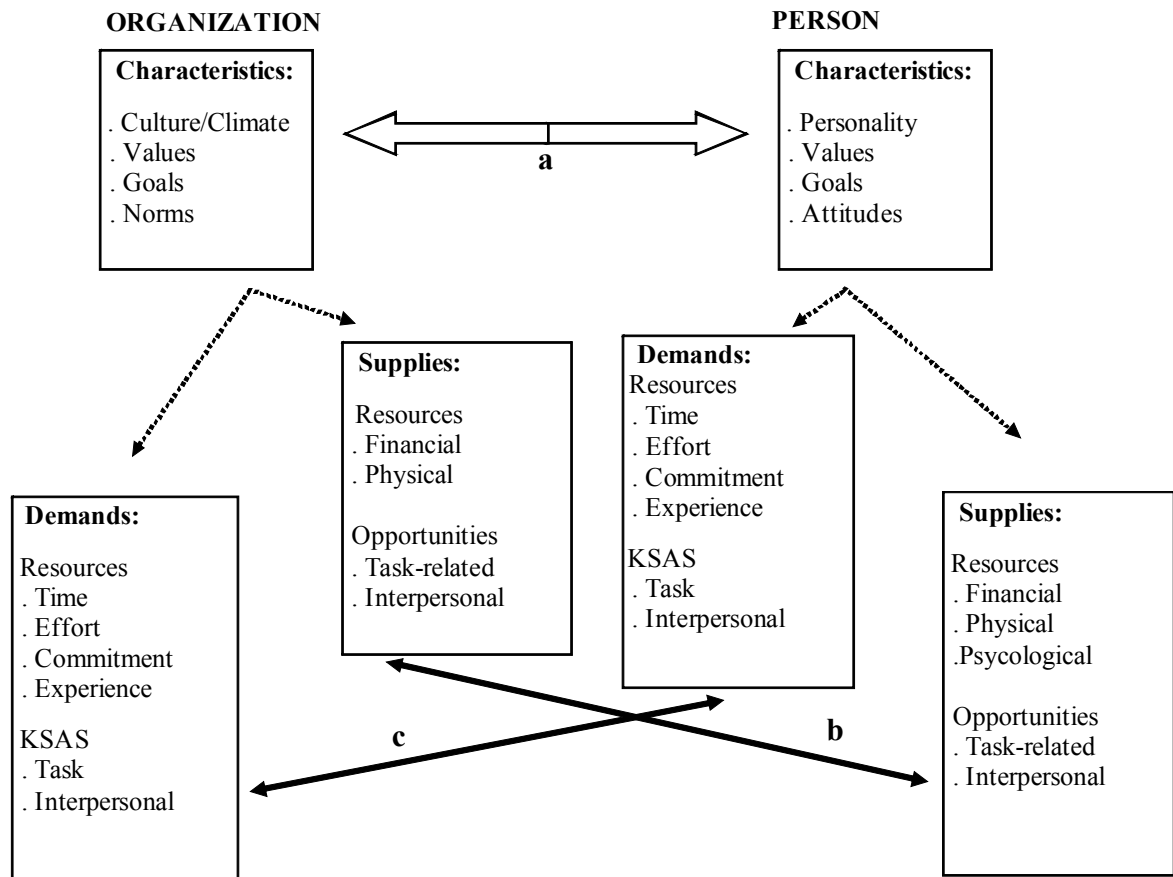


Figure 3.1. Conceptualization of Person-Organization Fit

(Source: A.L. Kristof (1996), "Person-Organization Fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement and implications, Journal of Personnel Psychology, Vol.49, p. 4").

Another perspective of P-O fit is "needs-supplies" and "demands-abilities" distinction. Kristof (1996) explained that complementary fit can be divided into two approaches, which are demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit. These are already mentioned during the part of P-O fit concept explanation above. Particularly, organizations supply physical, psychological and financial resources to their employees and demand the task-related activities, interpersonal, and growth opportunities such as time, effort, commitment, knowledge, skills, and abilities from their employees. When employees' psychological needs are fulfilled by their organization, needs-supplies fit is achieved (arrow "b"). When the employees complete the demands of their organization by performing their abilities (arrow "c"), demands-abilities fit is achieved. Demands-abilities approach underlines the

importance of an individual's abilities and knowledge for the high level of individual success in situations (Pervin, 1989).

In the meantime, organizations fulfill employees' needs by paying wages and ensuring compensation and benefit that indicate person-organization needs-supplies fit. Demands-abilities fit is described as the degree of match between individual abilities with the organization requirement (Kristof, 1996). Edwards (1991) examined the term abilities in the demands-abilities fit as having specific knowledge, skills, and abilities that fulfill the needs of work environment. Demand-abilities is used to fulfill missions and visions of organizations.

Some researchers also defined four different operationalizations of P-O fit. First operationalization is measurement of similarity between fundamental characteristics of people and organizations which explained above. Chatman (1989; 1991) said that P-O fit is a form of supplementary fit and defined as congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of individuals. Different dimensions of supplementary fit were studied, such as personality congruence and goal congruence (Westerman and Cyr, 2004). Value congruence was found as the most suitable predictor of important outcomes such as commitment, organizational identification, job satisfaction, citizenship behavior, and intention to quit (Schneider, 1987; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al, 1991; Schneider et al, 1995; Kristof, 1996; Saks and Ashforth, 1997; Werbel and Gilliland, 1999; Cable and Edwards, 2004; Zoghbi-Manrique de Lara, 2008).

Value congruence has already explained in details at the previous section and value similarity is an important topic in organizational research because values are components of organizational culture that direct individuals' attitudes (Kristof, 1996). Also, person-organization value congruence provides an important perspective in measuring organizational culture and understanding its effects because an organization's culture is a function of shared values (Strike and Posner, 1992).

The second operationalization of P-O fit is goal congruence between managers and employees (Vancouver et al, 1994; Kristof, 1996). Goal congruence is based on Schneider's ASA framework (Kristof, 1996). Schneider's (1987) ASA framework was accepted as the first milestone of P-O fit research. Employees look for situations that are attractive to them instead of being assigned to situations randomly based on this framework. Finally, employees are selected to be members of these circumstances and support to identify the circumstances by surviving in these circumstances. Schneider used this framework to explain how to remain in an organization. He explained that organizations try to be attractive for individuals and select well qualified individuals and if there is a good fit between individuals and organizations, employees stay in. If there is misfit, then employees leave or intend to leave their organizations. In the attraction phase, organizations attract individuals differently for the purpose of their interests, needs, preferences and personality (Lievens et al, 2001; Schneider, 1987). Actually, recruitment and selection processes allow an organization to attract and select individuals whose characteristics best fit needs and expectations of the organization (Lievens et al, 2001).

Selection process was extended for overseas assignments across borders (Baruch, 2002). This is a managerial decision making process to select the best individuals to provide an overseas position is further regarded to the past experimentation, knowledge, relevance, necessities, expectations, and characteristics of potential applicants. Edwards and Cooper (1990) proposed that individuals seek for employers whose values and goals are similar to their personalities and organizations seek for employees whose characteristics are most similar to their organizations (Morley, 2007; Schneider, 2001). ASA framework proposes that people and organizations attract each other based on similarity Therefore, it can be placed within supplementary fit.

The third operationalization is the match between individual requirements or needs and organizational systems and structures (Bretz et al, 1989; Cable et.al, 1994). This operationalization of P-O fit is based on needs-press theory (Kristof, 1996). According to the theory, needs are motivational tendencies to reach goals and press are directional tendencies which relate to these needs and there is an appropriate press for each kind of

need. For example, needs for achievement would be appreciated in an environment which emphasizes success, high quality work and competition (Gardner, 1975).

The last operationalization of P-O fit defines as the match between the characteristics of individual personality and organizational climate (Bowen et al, 1991, Burke and Deszca, 1982; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1984). This operationalization is similar to supplementary fit because it underlines the match between personalities of two entities. In contrast, it reflects a complementary needs-supplies perspective because organizational climate is mostly operationalized in terms of organizational supplies and individual personality is operationalized in terms of needs (Kristof, 1996).

In summary, P-O fit takes place when employees' needs, requirements, expectations are met by their organizations and it is linked to recruiters and candidates. Candidates may meet an appropriate organization based on P-O fit (Cable and Judge, 1997; Saks and Ashforth, 1997), and recruiters may meet appropriate employees via a sense of fit (Cable et al, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000). P-O fit may influence employees' intention to quit (Cable and Judge, 1996) and therefore, it can be a strategy utilized by the organization. Emphasizely, fit is closely associated with decisional factors that help the organization notices determinations of employees (Cable et al, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 1996; Cable and DeRue, 2002).

According to Sutarjo (2011), there are ten methods of managing effective P-O fit to guarantee organizational and individual goals like "employee turnover, profitability, sustainability, market leadership, having safe and meaningful work environment, appreciation, career, well-being, good human relationship at work".

1. Process of recruitment: Organizations should understand the importance and necessity of P-O fit and recruit employees who well engaged to the organization and demonstrate high level of performance (McCulloch and Turban, 2007). ASA model of P-O fit should be used by human resource management during hiring processes and suitable candidates should be selected by deciding fit with their personality characteristics and the

organization's values. Organizations need to improve P-O fit to increase the appropriate outcomes. (Westerman and Cyr, 2004).

2. Deliver communication / message during recruitment: Communication process need to be well managed by organizations during recruitment process and should be continued through long-term employment for recruitment success. Organizations seek for individuals who should be provided certain statement regarding training opportunities, responsibility of positions, values, policies, and culture of the organizations to identify their P-O fit (Kristoff-Brown et al, 2005). That is related to the findings that perceived P-O fit affect initial attraction.

3. Socialization: New employees are foreign to the culture of their new organizations. Therefore, the organizations should adapt their new employees to the culture. Robbins and Judge (2009) called this adaptation phase as "socialization". All values, assumptions, and attitudes are transferred from the old employees to the new employees during socialization process. Socialization of new employees encourage and emphasize the importance of the "fit" between employees and the culture of the organization. Employees who feel belonging to their organizations after socialization have more satisfaction and engagement and increase organizational effectiveness through well P-O fit (Tepeci and Bartlett, 2002).

4. Intervening culture: Many researchers think that it is possible to intervene and change organizational culture (O'Reilly et al, 1991). The best influential method to change employees' values and beliefs is to change their behavior (intervention 1). Employees should understand the natural values in behaving in a new way with their managers' support because employees are disposed to rationalize in terms of external causes. Eventhough, employees essentially believe in what they have been expected to do, occasionally they cooperate just for the impetus (intervention2) (Sathe, 1985). Normally, communication (intervention3) is a method to motivate the new behaviors. Socialization of new members is another intervention (intervention 4) and dismiss of existing employees who have misfit with the culture (intervention 5) is a different intervention.

5. Comprehensive training: Training is the process that teaches employees how to do specific work-related activities. This also helps employees to improve their skills and knowledge and helps organizations to increase performance and effectiveness. Organizations need to select the appropriate training programs which are inline with the strategic objectives of organizations and that will have impact on employees' perceptions of P-O fit (Autry and Wheeler, 2005).

6. Measurement of “ideal” and “actual” organizational culture and values: P-O fit researchers investigated that the mismatch between “actual” and “ideal” organizational culture may affect important organizational criteria (Chatman, 1991).

7. Career planning and development management process: Career is “the development of business experiences during time”. It is important for orgaizations to perform well-organized career management and development processes for high potential employees. Organizations may apply some human resources tools such as “selection processes, socialization processes and tactics followed by career development” to accomplish P-O fit. It was examined that a career path process has high impact on achieving personal and organizational goals (Atkinson, 2002).

8. Maintain diversity in the organization: Organizations usually separated their employees in different subgroups either job-related or non-job related conditions. Job-related differences and similarities are such as different types of responsibilities, organizational structure and diagram, work groups etc. On the other hand, non-job-related differences and similarities are the concepts regarded to culture, ethnicity, socio-economics, sex, and race and those come from individuals' personal background (Newstrom, 2010).

P–O fit is not only related to work attitudes but also related to other positive and negative outcomes that are at the individual, organizational and group levels. Similarity improves group task performance. In contrast, if it is too much, it decreases decision-making group performance by reducing the diversity in ideas and processes. Therefore, flexibility is necessary for organizational survival. (Verquer et al, 2002).

9. The role of the leader: Newstrom (2010) stated that a leader's role has effect on employees and leadership styles have positive effect on employees' motivation, well-being, engagement and employee's trust in the leader. Low interactive leadership style such as laissez-faire decreases P-O value fit. Interactive and team-oriented leader behaviours have positive impacts on P-O value fit as well as on employees' trust in their leaders (Li, 2006). In summary, leaders should not only manage their employees in organizations but also manage their fit with their organization (Van Vianen et al, 2007).

10. Focus on the individual and organizational culture: "The change process emphasizes the importance of the individual in creating and supporting the organization culture, and of the organization culture in creating and supporting the individual. Through this process, a synergy and interdependence is developed that can assure the success of both employee and the organization" (Allen, 1985, p. 338). The positive outcomes of P-O fit remain at the individual and group levels with congruence among members potentially impeding organizational functioning. A balance is necessary where the level of fit necessary is determined by group function and the time in the organization's life (Verquer et al, 2002). At the end, an employee who shares the values of his organization perhaps helps the larger causes of the organization (Yaniv and Farkas, 2005).

According to Arthur et al, (2006), P-E fit is a predictor of particular outcomes, which shows that the P-O fit is a predictor of job performance and turnover. As already mentioned that there are many types of fit, including person-group fit, person-vocation fit, and person-job fit (Kristof, 1996). This study was only focused on P-O fit because P-O fit focuses on decision making processes (Verquer et al, 2002), employee selection processes (Arthur et al, 2006) etc.

3.1.1 Conceptual Dimensions of Person-Organization Fit

In order to investigate person-organization fit, O'Reilly et al, (1991) developed an instrument is called Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), "that contains a set of value statements that can be used to idiographically assess both the extent to which certain values

characterize a target organization and an individual's preference for that particular configuration of values” (p. 494). OCP has 54 items and divided into eight ordered categories namely “innovation, attention to detail, outcome orientation, aggressiveness, supportiveness, and emphasis on rewards, team orientation and decisiveness”. The categories depend on whether the characteristics of an organization or the value preferences of a specific individual are to be assessed, categories range from most to least characteristic or desirable, respectively (O'Reilly et al, 1991).

There is shorter version of OCP that consists of 40 value items and the short version of the instrument is widely used in the literature. Sarros and his colleagues (2002) studied on, further modified and developed a new abbreviated version of this shorter version. The new version consists of a 28 items and seven factor structure as follows; competitiveness, social responsibility, supportiveness, innovation, emphasis on rewards, performance orientation and stability. This new version was also used in this study.

P-O fit influences job performance by meaning work attitudes of the members of an organization in an indirect way. Moreover, P-O fit has a direct effect on job performance as a result of climatic features of organizations. Additionally, P-O fit could express opinions on other probabilities related to organizational effectiveness. Therefore, P-O fit is used by human resource departments to select employees. Detailed information about contextual performance, organizational climate and organizational effectiveness are given in the following sections.

3.2 The Concept of Contextual Performance

Organizational performance comprises the actual output or results of an organization as measured against its intended outputs. Organizational performance is not only the consideration of the results that also includes identification of organizational goals, monitoring progress towards the goals, and making modification to achieve those goals more effectively and efficiently. Organizational performance is a multidimensional construct (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, Gasser, and Oswald, 1996) and has

two dimensions called task performance or in-role performance and contextual performance or extra-role performance.

In the literature, there is argument that contextual performance is different from task performance with behaviors such as volunteering, helping, persisting are predicted by volitional variables related to individual differences in motivational characteristics and tendency (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993). Task performance is described as task related behaviors that contribute to core technical process and maintenance activities in organizations, such as producing products, stocking inventory, selling products, managing employees, and delivering services (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999). In contrast, contextual performance is more emergent behaviors and do not directly contribute to core technical process in organizations (Motowidlo, et al, 1997). However, these behaviors contribute to the organizations by encouraging a social and psychological environment that helps for success of technical cores of organizations.

Contextual performance is described as non-task related behaviors that contribute to the culture and climate of the organization (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Beffort and Hattrup, 2003). Following rules and procedures, volunteering for extra works, persisting with enthusiasm, helping and cooperating with others, supporting the organization and various other discretionary behaviors are some of the examples of contextual performance behaviours (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999). These behaviours are necessary for organizations to be successful in the long-term period (Allen and Rush, 1998; Ostroff, 1992).

Some researchers (Rotundo and Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran and Ones 2000) examined that job performance is a function of both task performance and contextual performance such as Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) which are connected in opposite directions (Bennet and Stamper, 2001; Organ and Paine, 1999).

Borman and Motowildo (1993) underlined that contextual performance consists both of organizational citizenship behaviors and prosocial work behaviors. Organ's (1997) findings supported this taxonomy and he said that contextual performance is similar to organizational citizenship behavior. On the other hand, conceptual performance is different than organizational commitment and job involvement that are more cognitive and attitudinal constructs. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) said that contextual performance definition was based on organizational citizenship behavior, extra role behavior and prosocial organization behavior.

Researchers have examined several taxonomies of contextual performance. Borman and Motowildo's (1993) taxonomy is as follows;

- To finalize task activities successfully by progressing with excitement and extra effort as necessary
- To be volunteer for extra task activities that are not part of formal job
- To help and cooperate with others
- To follow organizational rules and procedures
- To support and endorse organizational objectives
- Interpersonal facilitation
- Job dedication

Contextual performance relates to employees' positive behaviors that facilitate the social and psychological situation of organizations. Employees' contextual performance increases when they are energetic at their work. Based on that contextual performance is described as performance that is not an officially part of job description but that is needed to shape the social and psychological situation of organizations (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997).

Contextual performance is under the individuals' motivational control and it was theorized that if individuals are willingness, they engage in contextual activities. However, that is not always possible to engage in those activities because sometimes tasks are difficult and individuals have to dedicate their resources to task performance. Therefore, it was emphasized that it may not be possible to show contextual behaviors in each situation

(Griffin et al, 2000). On the other hand, Borman and Motowidlo (1997) indicated that the relationship between contextual performance and effectiveness is stronger when the individuals are asked to have high levels of task activities.

Contextual performance has emerged as an important and necessary appearance of overall job performance. Job performance is not evaluated as task related performance any longer. In contrast, employees look for much more opportunities than the requirements listed in their job descriptions in the increasingly competitive business market. Contextual performance could be defined activities that encourage psychical and social side of organizations. Contextual performance is an important concept for organizations because it allows achieving of organizational goals and organizational performance. It is also very important concept to increase and contribute to task performance in organizations. The concept of contextual performance has been progressively an important concept and area of interest among researchers recently (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). Therefore, in the current study, only contextual performance and its contribution to business life was studied.

There are antecedents of contextual performance and these are basically “the job-related characteristics attitudes of organizational justice, job satisfaction, and leader supportiveness”. It is indicated that when employees have job satisfaction, supportive supervisors or leaders, and have the feeling of fair treatment, their contextual performance increases. These antecedents are important because they are controlled by organizations. Thus, it can be said that it is possible to enhance contextual performance of employees by improving certain job-related characteristics. Procedural justice defines the fairness and researchers found a positive relationship between procedural justice and two facets of contextual performance, interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. It is said that interpersonal facilitation is predicted by both workplace political interaction and agreeableness. Contextual performance is influenced by both individual differences and situational constraints.

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) investigated two separate views of contextual performance: “interpersonal facilitation and job dedication”. Interpersonal facilitation is interpersonally oriented behaviors and job dedication is self-disciplined behaviors. Interpersonally oriented behaviors such as openness, extraversion, and agreeableness contribute to achieve organizational goals, improve ethics, team work, and support the social state in which task performance occurs. Self-disciplined behaviors is working hard, following rules, and tending to solve problems at work.

Researchers (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997) think that different traits and abilities are important to select employees who will engage in contextual performance. Therefore, it is necessary for organizations to establish the traits that will engage employees in contextual performance. Intelligence is described as a predictor of technical knowledge that defines how to do a task that predicts contextual performance. Researchers have also investigated non-cognitive predictors of performance such as personality. The results show that the personality trait, openness to experience and extraversion have weak relationship with contextual performance.

Contextual performance has influence on employees’ behaviors. Therefore, the personality traits of conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness predict contextual performance in a team setting. Research shows that there is a stronger relationship between dependability, work orientation, cooperativeness and contextual performance than the relationship between dependability, work orientation, cooperativeness and task performance.

3.2.1 The Relationship between Person-Organization Fit, Contextual Performance and Organizational Variables

Research shows that there is a relationship between contextual performance and overall employee job performance. Actually, the findings of contextual performance are related to turnover. Well engaged employees have high level of contextual performance behaviors and their turnover rate is less than the employees who have low level of contextual performance behaviors. In summary, organizational commitment is an outcome of

contextual performance. Organizational commitment is predicted by the facet of interpersonal facilitation. Recently, the constructs of organizational willingness and personal attempt have been defined as important views of work behavior. Contextual performance includes key aspects of these constructs to define a wider dimension of organizational performance differences from task actions. Eventhough, these behaviors have been defined as necessary behaviors for organizations, their roles have recently been defined interms of idividual performance and differences from cognitive and attitudinal constructs (Griffin et al, 2000).

Performance is very important and necessary concept for organizations. Therefore, researchers included performance to their studies to measure outcome of organizations and found that there is a significant relationship between P-O fit and peformance, between P-O fit and task and contextual performance (Goodman and Svyantek, 1999), between P-O fit and self-report job performance (Tziner, 1987), and between P-O fit and objective measures of job performance (Downey et al, 1975; Bretz and Judge, 1994).

As Saks and Ashforth (1997) stated that congruence between employees and organizational values creates close link between employees and their organizations. Employees who feel membership about their organizations produce organizational identity (Turner, 1984). P-O fit is related to perceived organizational support and with these beliefs, employees have the feeling of organizational interest about them (Eisenberger, et al,1986). According to researchers, P-O fit is associated with extra-role behaviors (Chatman, 1989; Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Cable et al, 1997) and the intention of turnover (Schneider, 1987; Cable et al, 1994; Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Cable et al, 2002). Organizations can select employees by evaluating P-O fit and thereby evaluating of personal traits, values, and demands of candidates (Bowen et al, 1991). When there is congruence between individuals and oganizational values, employees produce positive outcomes like organizational citizenship behaviors which has a positive influence on organizational performance.

P-O fit has positive association with job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005), turnover intention, and contextual performance (Ambrose et al, 2008). Thereby, P-O fit increases the relationship between employees and their organizations, and the similarity of personal and organizational values and goals may improve employees' trust and understanding toward the organization (Sekiguchi, 2007). Furthermore, an organization may recruit employees who have similar values via selection, affect personal values of employees via socialization (e.g., orientation, on-job training), and then make their individual values transform into long-existing beliefs (Chatman, 1991). The same values (e.g. fairness, voluntariness, information sharing, etc.) are between employees and an organization may contribute to employees' positive attitudes and behaviors such as high involvement, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Judge and Bretz, 1992). Therefore, the fit between personal traits and organizational values have influence on organizational identification and performance.

P-O fit is a useful predictor of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, which has significant influence on organizational performance. Therefore, congruence between organizational and individual values may be particularly relevant to organizations (Marmenout, 2007).

Goodman and Svyantek, (1999) showed the positive affect of ideal culture (i.e. what the individual values) on contextual performance above and beyond organizational culture (i.e. perceived organizational values).

Researchers showed the positive correlation between P-O fit and organizational performance. (Goodman and Svyantek, 1999; Tziner, 1987; Downey et al, 1975; Bretz and Judge, 1994). As already explained above contextual and task performance are different than each other but it is evident that both of them contribute to overall job performance ratings (Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994) and managers evaluate both dimensions of performance when making overall performance results (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). It was specified the positive correlation between P-O fit and contextual performance (Goodman and Svyantek, 1999; Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001). Meta-analyses

indicated that significant correlation between P-O fit and contextual performance is generalized (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al, 2005).

Based on the above research results and comments the first hypothesis of the study was formulated.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between person-organization fit and contextual performance.

Both dimensions of organizational performance also contribute to effectiveness of organizations. Both task and contextual performance define individuals' behaviors which are separated from effectiveness (Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). As a result of that performance is described by behaviour itself while effectiveness is the consequence of behaviour (Campbel 1990; Campbel et al, 1996).

Organizational effectiveness focuses on organizational competition rate, new goods production speed in market, organizational status in the community, organization's attractiveness to potential employees, and organizational profitability. In summary, organizational effectiveness is the concept that focuses on how successful organizations perform their business and the concept will be discussed in details in the following section.

3.3 The Concept of Organizational Effectiveness

Eventhough, organizational effectiveness became more important concept since 1980s, the roots of organizational effectiveness are based on the beginning of management science. There are three main historical constructs of organizational effectiveness: “of the American mechanical engineer Frederick Winslow Taylor (March 1856–March 1915); of the French mining engineer Henri Fayol (July 1841–November 1925); and of the Australian psychologist, sociologist and organization theorist George Elton Mayo (December 1880 – September 1949)”.

Frederick Taylor studied on scientific management, “a form of industrial engineering that established the organization of work”. Taylor’s form removed management theory from early management theory to today’s management techniques. According to Taylor, organizational effectiveness is identified by the factors “production maximization, cost minimization and technological excellence”.

Henri Fayol is the father of the school of systematic management. He developed five functions of: “planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling.” He described organizational effectiveness as “a function of clear authority and discipline in organizations”.

Elton Mayo is known as the founder of the “Human Relations Movement”. He specified the importance of group effect on individuals’ behaviors in the workplace. He defined organizational effectiveness as “a function of productivity that results from employee satisfaction”.

According to Federman (2006), organizational effectiveness is related to the abilities of organizations to reach essential resources to be able to accomplish the targets. Cameron (1978) also agreed with Federman and noted that organizational effectiveness is adequacy of organizations to reach necessary sources. Nevertheless, McCann (2004) pointed out that organizational success is only possible to reach the organizational objectives through their core strategies.

Vinitwatanakhun (1998) found out that to be able to control environment where organizations try to survive is important for security and support and organizations can control their environment via their employees. Therefore, organizational effectiveness ought to consider human resource activities in organizations which have limited resources to improve their effectiveness. Managers must be innovative and attempt to solve the problems of the organizations and improve the organizational effectiveness (Baker and Branch, 2002).

Organizational effectiveness is usually defined as the extent to which an organization is able to achieve its strategic and operational goals. “Organizational effectiveness is long-term abilities of a company to achieve consistently its strategic and operational goals (Fallon and Brinkerhoff, 1996, p.14)”. Mott (1972) described organizational effectiveness as “the ability of an organization to mobilize its centers of power, for action, production and adaptation” (p.17). Indeed, effective organizations are disposed to produce high quality products and are flexible against difficulties. Three major aspects which are productivity, adaptability and efficiency have been described as primitive to evaluate the organizational effectiveness (Mott, 1972), and found to be most frequently used in various models related to effectiveness (Steers, 1977; Luthans and Peterson, 2001; and Sharma and Samantara, 1995). Reserachers found a positive relationship between organizational effectiveness and climate and individual positive attitudes and behaviors like organizational commitment, OCB etc. (Organ and Paine 1999; Podsakoff and Mackenzie, 1997; and Gelade and Gilbert, 2007).

The concept of organizational effectiveness is an important innovation in business management. It does not describe corporate success with short term measurement instruments like sales or profit. Instead, it focuses on the long term benefits. For instance, organizations try to integrate their short-term benefits of sales with the long-term needs of customers. It is very essential to focus on overall effectiveness for surviving in this competitive environment. How well your business performs is the outcome of an effective organizational effectiveness.

In the literature, there are many models of organizational effectiveness. However, four of them are the main models in the literature and was discussed in details below.

3.3.1 Main Models and Dimensions of Organizational Effectiveness

3.3.1.1 The Goal Approach

The goal approach is the first approach of organizational effectiveness. It focuses on the outputs of the organization such as profit, innovation and product quality etc. (Schermerhorn, et al, 2004). There are some fundamental conjectures of the goal approach. The first conjecture is that there should be specific goals of organizations and employees must be involved in decision making process to achieve those goals. The other one is that the organization needs certain necessary resources to achieve those goals (Robbins, 2009).

3.3.1.2 The System Resource Approach

The system resource approach is the second approach of organizational effectiveness and focuses on inputs of an organization. The approach explains that organizations can achieve effectiveness during getting necessary resources from their environments. (Schermerhorn et al, 2004). This approach is considered that the organization is a part of a larger group. Mullins (2008) said that the approach brings the idea that any part of the activities of an organization has effect on all the other parts.

3.3.1.3 The Process Approach

The process approach is the third approach of organizational effectiveness and focuses on the transformation process of organizations. The approach explains the processes that produce goods or provide services in organizations (Schermerhorn et al, 2004). It considers that the members are fully part of the systems and organizations can achieve effectiveness by using these processes very well. The relationship between the members is based on trust, honesty, and goodwill. In an effective organization, there should not be stress and strain. According to Cameron (1981), the flow of information is on a horizontal and vertical basis. Kleijnen and his colleagues (2009) emphasized the importance of the information collection methods and communication management methods in organizations.

3.3.1.4 The Stakeholder Approach (The Strategic Constituency Approach)

The stakeholder approach is the last approach of organizational effectiveness. Schermerhorn and his colleagues (2004) said that this model focuses on the main effect of organizations by including stakeholders and their interests. Based on this model, effectiveness refers to the minimal satisfaction of all of the strategic constituencies of the organization. Strategic constituency involves each individual who has connection with the organization (Cameron, 1981). This approach evaluates the factors in the environment and also considers social responsibility in the organization. Social responsibility is also paid attention in this approach.

All the most common approaches for assessing organizational effectiveness explained above and the most favorite and commonly used model is the goal approach (Hall, 1980; Herman and Renz, 1999; Rojas, 2000). The approach describes effectiveness in terms of organizational goal attainment and defines clearly organizational goals. The goals can be achieved through the manipulation of human and material resources. Therefore, the model suggests that the way to assess organizational effectiveness is to establish measures of how well the organization is achieving its goals in terms of its desired level of outputs (Price, 1972). It is based on the fact that organizations have goals they are expected to achieve. The goal model is applied in organizations because outputs of goals can be easily measured (Daft, 2003).

The above approaches explain the importance of organizational effectiveness from different perspectives. However, in this study, it was not focused only one of the above explained models of organizational effectiveness because organizational effectiveness focuses on how well organizations compete, how quickly they bring products to market, their status in the community, their attractiveness to potential employees, and their profitability. In other words, organizational effectiveness considers how well an organization performs business. Therefore, this study evaluated organizational performance in terms of strategy, structure, capacity and capability, leadership, people systems and processes, values and culture, employee engagement, customer experience elements.

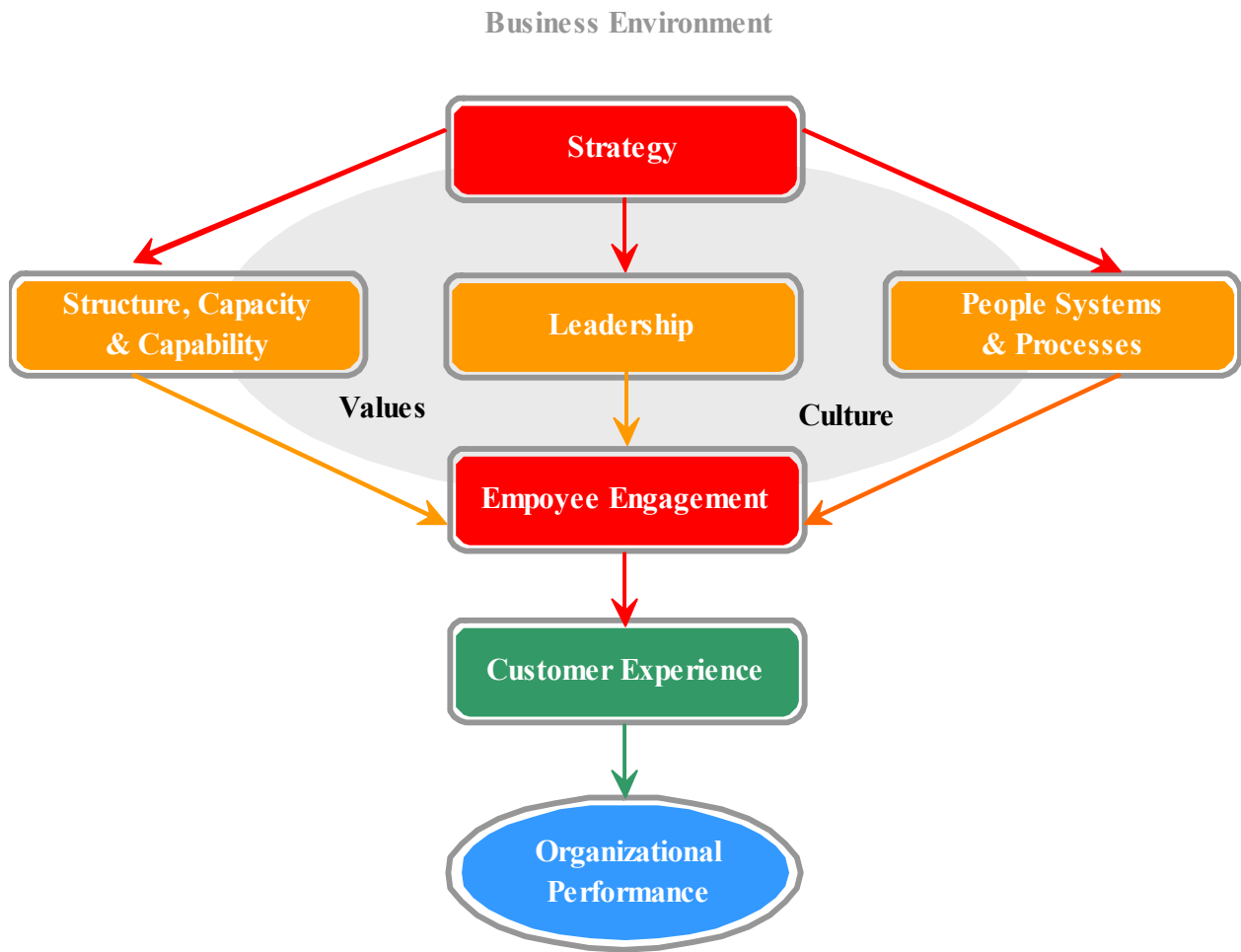


Figure 3.2 Organizational Effectiveness Framework

Strategy is the role, aim, and strategic direction that briefs the work of the organization clearly.

Structure, capacity and capability means that capable employees do the right work through a structure and clear defined role maps.

Leadership is to have the capability and capacity to achieve sustainable business success.

People system and process needs to support leaders, share information, and make decisions in the organization.

Culture and values is a set of shared, basic assumptions about how to behave and perform work within the organization. Culture and values must be aligned to business strategy. Additionally, systems, symbols, and behaviors must align to the desired culture to succeed the business strategy.

Employee engagement implies that employees whose hearts and minds are aligned with both their jobs and organizations. Engaged employees are satisfied with, committed to, and willing to positively talk about their jobs and the organizations. Customer experience is achievement of high levels of customer satisfaction and loyalty by understanding customer needs, acting on customer feedback, fulfilling customer requirements. Integration of these elements produces powerful and strengthens results performance-based culture. Only one individual item can not create organizational effectiveness. Excellence is also necessary for the complete set of organizational effectiveness.

The Malcolm Baldrige Criteria for Performance Excellence (CPE) is patterned to support organizations to increase competitiveness and improve overall organizational performance and capabilities (Jung et al, 2008).

According to Gupta and Govindarajan (2000), one of the principal reasons for multinational organizations to sustain in business is their ability to transfer innovative knowledge more effectively than others. Total quality management (TQM) is known as an innovative management methodology for improving operational performance and also it enhances customer satisfaction through high quality products and services.

Researchers found that TQM elements affect performance of organizations (Samson and Terziovski, 1999; Hendricks and Singhal, 2001). The Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA, 1995) framework has reasonably most improved standardized task to define the appropriate elements of TQM between the other frameworks. Curkovic et al, (2000) and Black and Porter (1996) reported inseperable relationships between the MBNQA elements and organizational performance.

There are seven elements of MBNQA are as follows; leadership, strategic planning, customer and market focus, measurement analysis and knowledge management, human resources focus, process management, and business results which are very parallel to the items of above organizational effectiveness framework except measurement analysis and knowledge management and process management.

According to the all above findings, the below items was studied as the dimensions of organizational effectiveness in this study.

- 1- Leadership
- 2- Strategic Planning
- 3- Customer and Market Focus
- 4- Human Resources Focus
- 5- Business Performance

3.3.2 The Relationship between Organizational Effectiveness and Other Organizational Variables

It is recommended that situational factors can restrict an individual's choice to attract in different work activities, and that facultative work activities should be particularly sensitive to situational demands. This implies that the relationship between contextual performance and effectiveness should decline as situations become more demanding (Werbel and Gilliland, 1999).

Hypothesis 2 therefore, can be stated as follows;

Hypothesis 2: Contextual performance will be positively associated with organizational effectiveness.

P-O fit increase job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and decreased turnover intentions. This could be a function of individuals' attitudes and perceptions of the environment. Consequently, when individuals sense of positive feelings about their job,

they show high rates of P-O fit to be coherent with these perceptions. This is similar to cognitive dissonance theory that employees struggle to decrease the perception of inconsistency, making it unlikely that an individual would report a poor P-O fit but show high levels of positive work attitudes, such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction (Morewitz; 2009).

Cultural “fit” or congruence is a theme espoused by Nadler and Tushman (1980), Quinn and Hall (1983), Kotter (1980), Schein (1984), Albert and Whetten (1985), and others who suggest that a multiplicity of cultural attributes produce organizational effectiveness.

With this in mind, it is appropriate to suggest that P-O fit will be positively related to organizational effectiveness.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between P-O fit and organizational effectiveness.

3.4 The Concept of Organizational Climate

Climate is defined as “atmosphere” on dictionaries. However, the etymological dictionary meaning that has a Greek origin is tendency (Özdemir, 2006). Organizational climate is defined as an organizational atmosphere that can guide and affect employees’ behaviors that influence their performance. Bock et al, (2005) said that organizational climate relates to contextual situation and it depends on the ideas, feelings, and employees behaviors.

According to Taguiri and Litwin (1968) climate is “the relatively enduring quality of the total environment that (a) is experienced by its members, (b) influences their behavior, and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attributes) of the organization” (p.25).

Schneider (1975) described organizational climate as “psychologically meaningful molar (environmental) descriptions that people can agree characterize a system’s practices and procedures” (p. 474). Reichers and Schneider (1990) stated that “organizational climate

pertains to the shared perceptions of the way things are around here rather than being shared judgments about the way things should be” (p. 22). Schneider et al, (1992) defined organizational climate as “employees’ perceptions of events, practices, and procedures as well as their perceptions of behaviors that are rewarded, supported and expected” (p.705). He also specified that climate is the outcome of an organization’s practices and procedures. Therefore, varied organizational climates are produced by varied organizational practices and procedures.

Moran and Volkswien (1992) defined climate more exhaustively; “a relatively enduring characteristic of an organisation which distinguishes it from other organisations: and (a) embodies members’ collective perceptions about their organisation with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation and fairness; (b) is produced by member interaction (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the prevalent norms values and attitudes of the organizational culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behaviour” (p. 20).

Nowadays, it is thought that the state of mind of organizations differs. A firm is felt like an energetic and exciting place to work. In contrast, the other one is felt cumbersome and inefficient. The “feel” of an organization reflects its climate and culture. The climate of an organization is made inferences by its employees. These inferences are organized based on two topics. 1. How the organization goes about its daily business? That means is it flexible, innovative, and cumbersome? 2. What goals does the organization carry on? That means what is its quantity, cost containment, market share?

Employees’ conclusions about climate are related to the policies, practices, procedures, and routines of the organization. Changing the climate from cumbersome to innovative, the organization have to stop their certain practices and start new practices like rewarding speed of implementation of new services, or reducing paperwork or empowering employees and reducing approval authority lines on daily business. For example, Saturn had to reward and support dealers and stick to a fixed-price selling idea to change customer perceptions and feelings to purchase a new car. In the literature, many researchers define

climate, and climate changes only when most of these everyday policies, practices, procedures, and routines change.

There are different perspectives of the climate concept. There are different researchers categorized them under different names. In this study, it was categorized in four groups “psychological climate, collective climate, organizational climate, and organizational culture”.

Psychological climate was formed as the basic concept of organizational structures, processes, and events. Psychological climate includes individuals’ psychologically meaningful actings (James, et al, 1988; Rousseau, 1988). Origin of the psychological climate concept is based on the Lewin’s (1936) “life space” theory which explains employees’ motivational and emotional responses to change. Psychological climate sensations help employees for evaluation and measurement of their activities (James and Jones, 1974). Researchers (James and Sells, 1981) stated that these activities are exhibitions of organizational conditions related to employees’ experience based on individuals’ knowledge structures. Additionally, it is mentioned that individuals’ characteristics represent psychological climate (James and Jones, 1974; Reichers and Schneider, 1990; Rousseau, 1988). This statement is agreed by Dansereau and Alutto (1990) and they said that organizational climate and organizational culture refer to characteristics of groups.

Eventhough, collective climate, organizational climate, and organizational culture are examined at the individual level, these constructs are frequently analyzed according to employees’ feelings about their business environment. Therefore, collective climate, organizational climate, and organizational culture are all group-level constructs which are analyzed based on psychological climate perceptions. Second perspective is if it is “psychological climate” or “organizational climate” (Denison, 1996; p.623). The perceptual measurements of individual attributes and cognitively based description of work environment were defined as psychological climate, and the perceptual measurements of organizational attributes and more objective measurements were regarded as organizational climate (Jones and James, 1979). Additionally, James and Jones (1974) defined climate as

a variable expected to reflect individual characteristics involved in the processes of perception and concept formation as well as characteristics of the work environment.

Collective climate is formed to generate groups of employees who have similar psychological climate perceptions (Joyce and Slocum, 1984). Scholars studied to examine if collective climate presents groups which have sociopsychological significance (Gonzalez-Roma, et al, 1999; Patterson, et al, 1996; Young and Parker, 1999).

According to some researchers (Ekval, 1987; Glick, 1988; James, et al, 1988; Rousseau, 1988) organizational climate have two perspectives; subjective and objective perspectives. Parker et al. (2003, p.391) defined that “from subjective focus organizational climate is an aggregated main establishment, considering the sense-making processes which group members understand and share their experiences of organizational events. These expositions are characteristics of a social collective in that they are linked to employee interaction processes. From objective focus, organizational climate is characteristic of the organization and demonstrate employees’ focus points or organizational operations such as customer service, innovation, transfer of training”.

Organizational culture has normative focus that initiates to contain members’ values, opinions, and conjectures as methods to evaluate, operate, and treat (Rousseau, 1990; Sackmann, 1991; Schein, 1990) as oppose to the descriptive focus of organizational climate. Schein defines organizational climate as the surface-level appearance of organizations’ cultures. Members’ values and settled opinions are encoded to organizational structures, processes and methods that direct the treatment that are measured as organizational climate sensations.

Lewin’s research resulted in many implementations of the climate concept to business and industry. For instance, Douglas McGregor handled climate concept in his classic book namely *The Human Side of Enterprise*. He advocated that supervisors create a climate that reflects their beliefs about subordinates. “Theory X” climate is created by supervisors when they believe that subordinates feel organizational citizenship behavior to their organizations and more involved in decision making process. “Theory Y” climate is

created when supervisors believe the natural maturity and creativity of subordinates and trust their proficiency to make sufficient decisions for the benefit and development of the organization.

It is supposed that organizational climate contains shared perceptions about organizational norms, beliefs, values, practices, and procedures that are followed at the common or certain levels (Van Muijen, 1998; Guldenmund, 2000).

Researchers have generally focused on the meaning of incorporated climate ranks of individual members at organizational climate studies. Even though, consensus of members' feelings is usually investigated to decide whether members have the same or shared perspectives related to the organization's practices, until recently the amount of agreement has been an "unattended scientific construct" (Gonzalez-Roma, et al, 2002).

Although, employees of a company might have similar feelings and ideas, variance among their feelings might still exist. This variance ensures significant information about the strength organizational climate (Lindell and Brandt, 2000; Schneider, et al, 2002). Strength organizational climate is meaningful and necessary for organizations because it does not only effect important organizational outcomes such as customer sales reports, customer service quality, etc. (Schneider et al, 2002) but it also might moderate the relationship between mean climate ratings and diversity of individual and organizational outcomes (Lindell and Brandt, 2000).

Schneider and Reichers (1983) proposed that structural characteristics, employee interaction patterns, and socialization practices etc. affect organizational climate. Burns and Stalker (1961) agreed with this proposal and stated that these elements probably affect perceptions of organizational climate. Burns and Stalker's mechanistic-organic model ensures a wide view on organizational modes of operation that addresses structural characteristics, management practices, and employee interaction patterns. Furthermore, some research (e.g., Cable and DeRue, 2002; Turban and Keon, 1993) found a link between perspective of organizational structure and P-O fit and types of socialization practices used by organizations (e.g., Ashforth et al, 1998), which employees have high level of engagement.

All at once, these operations probably influence employees of mechanistic and organic organizations improving dissimilar feelings of how their organizations process.

Furthermore, Burns and Stalker (1961) emphasized that characterization of organizations was the collaboration between employees of organizations has different foundations depending on the organizations' forms. They discussed that employees effectively work together as a result of clearly defined rules, job descriptions and jobs sharings in mechanistic organizations. It might be summarized that organizational climate is stronger in mechanistic organizations. Burns and Stalker stated that rules, job descriptions are much less clear. Therefore, there is weak climate in organic organizations. Moreover, they examined that employees are disposed to be agreement on the overall goals of their organization and this ensures the collaboration between employees in organic organizations.

Some researchers (Patterson et al, 1997; West and Patterson, 1999) demonstrated that organizational climate is shown to predict organizational effectiveness, job satisfaction and performance, employee motivation, and organizational commitment. Organizational climate creates a significant link between organizational characteristics and work outcomes such as employee attitudes, motivation, and psychological well-being etc. (Parker, 1999). Researchers (Mumford and Gustafson, 1988; Amabile, 1988) mentioned that organizational effectiveness reduces if organizational climate is characterized by absence of communication, mistrust, individual antipathy, personal self-determination, uncertain goals. As a result of the strong relationship between organizational climate and organizational performance, both researchers and managers pay attention on organizational climate concept.

3.4.1 Dimensions of Organizational Climate

After evaluation all of the results of literature findings, Schneider and his colleagues (1996) identified four key dimensions of climate, the first three related to function and the last one is related to goals.

First dimension is the nature of interpersonal relationships. It checks if there are agreement and confidence, if there are relationships between different departments (for example between research and development and sales) and if relationships are cooperative or competitive, if the organization become a mentor for new employees to adapt rapidly, if employees have the feeling of personal welfare which is important for their colleagues and management of the organization.

The second dimension is the nature of the hierarchy. Do decisions affect work? And Do only top management make decisions or do all employees participate to the decision making process? Is there a team approach or individualistic competitive approach in the organization? Does management have special perquisites that separate them from their subordinates, such as special parking area or separated restaurant, food etc.?

The third dimension is the nature of work. Is the work challenging or boring? Are the methods of jobs defined that means does everyone use the some way to do works or can employees create their own methods and ways? Does the organization provide necessary equipments, messages, information, consultant etc. for employees to be able to meet the requirements of the job?

The last one is the focus of support and rewards. Is the management of the organization shares the targets of the organization with the whole organization? What gets supported: being warm and friendly to customers or being fast? Are the employees rewarded when they achieve extra outcomes or are their extra performance appraised? On what bases are people hired? What targets and standards are they focused?

Many scholars examined different subjects in their climate studies because climate concept includes extensive situations across different organizational activities. It is not easy to change the climate of an organization because of these differences. Regardless of the focus of an organization's goals for change, the probability of actually having the change take root is improved when people feel that their work is challenging, when they can be a part of decision making process, and when there is mutual trust on their relationships with colleagues.

In summary, senior managers of organizations should focus on the degree to which change in the focus of people's energies and competencies will be sustained. Organizations can not produce sustainable differences in their behaviors by just changing their reward system or challenging jobs, or increasing the nature of relationships between employees, or participating employees in their decision making. All of those activities must proceed together. Only by performing to the full range of these concerns will the psychology or feel of the organization be altered and the change takes root.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) mentioned about four dimensions which are cultural, perceptual, structural and interactive of the concept of organizational climate. These dimensions are, in act, complementary depending upon the viewpoint of researchers. Schein's definition of the climate concept is "the feeling that is conveyed in a group by the physical layout and the way in which members of the organization interact with each other, with customers or with other outsiders" (p.9). If organizational climate analyze on individual level, it is called as psychological climate which is basically form the organizational climate (Isaksen et al, 2000; 2001).

Ostroff (1993) classified climate dimensions as affective (concerning people involvement), cognitive (concerning psychological involvement), or instrumental (concerning task involvement) facets of the work environment.

James and his colleagues (James and Sells, 1981; James and Jones, 1974) defined "five primary domains of work environment perceptions: job characteristics (e.g., autonomy, challenge, and importance), role characteristics (e.g., ambiguity, conflict, and overload), leadership characteristics (e.g., goal emphasis, support, and upward influence), work group and social environment characteristics (e.g., cooperation, pride, and warmth), and organizational and subsystem attributes (e.g., innovation, management awareness, and openness of information)". They exclude the organizational and subsystem category in their models (James et al, 1990; James and McIntyre, 1996).

Anderson and West, (1998) emphasized that employee involvement and security are the two most important elements of climate. In addition to that, West and Richter (2007)

underlined the importance of a support climate where individuals feel free from threats and pressures.

Schneider and his colleagues (1996) developed a measurement instrument including fifty items and discuss about ten dimension of the concept of organizational climate namely, support, reward, human relations, freedom, decision making, formalization, communication, hierarchy, nature of work, and innovativeness.

Litwin and Stringer's (1968) organizational climate questionnaire had nine dimensions of the concept of organizational climate: structure, responsibility, reward, risk taking, support, warmth, standards, conflict and identity.

Yahyagil (2006) was operationalized some of the above conceptual dimensions in his study. Accordingly, he categorized organizational climate into ten dimensions which are named; formalization, support, nature of work, reward, interpersonal relations, risk taking, communication, innovation, decision making and team-work. These ten dimensions were used in this study.

As it can be understood from the above different categorized dimensions from different scholars, there is an ongoing argument among researchers regarding the dimensions of organizational climate concept. These dimensions are mainly considered to be employee perceptions of organizational procedures, operations and practices.

3.4.2 The Relationship between Organizational Climate and Organizational Variables

Momeni (2009) said that employees spend most of their time at work, so their feelings and their judgments about their organizations that means the perceptions of the organizational climate influence their performance. He found that the interactions between managers and employees formed seventy percent of employees' perceptions about their works. Freedman (2005) also found a significant relationship between employees' feelings and their performance. Neal et al, (2000) and Shadur et al, (1999) found that supportive organizational climate with teamwork and good communication between employees

increases the revenue of the organization. On the other hand, McMurray et al, (2004) found that nonsupportive organizational climate have disengaged, dissatisfied employees and that decrease the outcome of the organization. Shadur et al, (1999) confirmed these findings and underlined that nonsupportive organizational climate brings the lack of role clarity, feelings of inequality, and disengaged employees.

Brown and Leigh (1996) proposed the influence of psychological climate on organizational performance. Parker and his colleagues (2003) also examined the relationships between psychological climate and employee motivation and between psychological climate and performance. Moreover, employee work attitudes and motivation mediated these relationships.

Scholars indicated the relationships between employees' perceptions of their work environment and outcomes such as job satisfaction (Schneider and Snyder, 1975), burnout (McIntosh, 1995), job involvement (Brown and Leigh, 1996), organizational citizenship behavior (Moorman, 1991), and job performance (Pritchard and Karasick, 1973) at the individual level of analysis. Employee climate perceptions are used to predict group-level outcomes such as accident rates (Zohar, 2000), customer satisfaction, and financial performance (Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Schneider et al, 1998) when gathered to the group or organization level. As a result, employee perceptions have significant effects on both individual and organizational outcomes (Burke et al, 1992; Church and Wacławski, 1998; Kraut, 1996; Ricci, et al, 1998).

Zander (1994) said that in strong climates employees who fit with the organization are more successful than employees who do not fit with the organization. On the other hand, employees' expectations do not influence organizational performance in weak climates in which responsibilities, procedures, instructions are not clearly defined.

In an organizational climate which is not strong, there are plenty of ways that individual's personalities, skills, and interests produce appropriate outcomes because expectations are not defined well for different behaviors. Therefore, it can be said that P-O fit can only have a strong relationship with work-related outcomes in strong organizational climates.

Some researchers found the moderating role of organizational climate on the relationship between climate rates and organizational outcomes. For instance, Colquitt and his colleagues (2002) underlined that climate moderated the relationship between procedural-justice climate level and both organizational performance and the levels of employee absenteeism. Similarly, Gonzalez-Roma et al, (2002) stated that strength of climate for innovation moderated the relationship between climate level and unit-level averages of work satisfaction and organizational commitment, and strength of climate related to goal orientation moderated the relationship between climate level and organizational commitment. Furthermore, Schneider and his colleagues (2002) examined that strength of service climate perceptions moderated the relationship between mean climate level and customer perceptions of service quality. Rousseau, and Hunt, (1995) found a moderating effect of organizational climate between P-O fit and organizational performance. It was demonstrated the moderating effect of psychological climate adjustment on the relationship between P-O fit and an innovative climate (Su, 2009).

This study extended previous researches by examining the moderating role of organizational climate between P-O fit and contextual performance and the third hypothesis is suggested that;

Hypothesis 3: Organizational climate will moderate the relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance.

3.5 The Concept of Job Engagement

Engagement is a new concept of the latest decade and there are different definitions of the concept from different perspectives in the literature. The most commonly used definition is that job engagement is emotional and intellectual commitment to organizations (Baumruk, 2004; Richman, 2006; Shaw, 2005) or the amount of discretionary effort exhibited by employees in their jobs (Frank et al, 2004).

Schaufeli and his colleagues (2002) described engagement as an energetic state in which one is dedicated to excellent performance of work and confident of one's effectiveness.

Maslach et al, (2001) described it as a persistent, positive, affective, motivational, fulfilling, work-related state of mind and obviously being filled with energy, being involved with and dedication to one's work, and feeling efficacious in performing one's work tasks and a direct opposite of burnout which is a response to chronic work-related stress manifested as depleted emotional resources, cynical attitudes toward work, and reduced professional efficacy. Schaufeli and his colleagues agreed on Maslach and his colleagues and defined job engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication and absorption. Engagement refers to more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that is not focused on any particular, object, event, individual or behavior” (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004, p.4).

Researchers who studied burnout defined job engagement as the opposite or positive antithesis of burnout (Maslach et al, 2001). Gonzalez-Roma and his colleagues (2002) have explained that exhaustion and cynicism which are the dimensions of burnout and vigor and dedication which are the dimensions of job engagement are the opposites of each other.

Rothbard (2001, p. 656) described engagement “as psychological presence but goes further to state that it involves two critical components: attention and absorption. Attention refers to cognitive availability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role while absorption means being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one’s focus on a role.”

Kahn (1990, p. 694) described personal engagement as “the harnessing of organization members’ selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances. Personal disengagement refers to the uncoupling of selves from work roles; in disengagement, people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively, or emotionally during role performances”. Accordingly, engagement means psychological existence while employing and fulfilling an organizational role. Job engagement is positive feelings of employees concerning their organizations and organizational values. Job engagement concept represents the active allocation and application of resources to individuals’ role performances. Therefore, it is a motivational construct (Kahn, 1990; 1992).

There are relationships between job engagement and other concepts in organizational behavior but job engagement is a different concept from them. For example, Robinson and his colleagues (2004, p. 8) stated that “engagement contains many elements of both commitment and organizational citizenship behavior, but is by no means a perfect match with either. In addition, neither commitment nor organizational citizenship behavior reflect sufficiently two aspects of engagement – its two-way nature, and the extent to which engaged employees are expected to have an element of business awareness”.

Organizational commitment is different from job engagement because organizational commitment is related to personnel attitudes towards their organizations. However, job engagement is not an attitude. It is the degree to which an employee is thoughtful, espoused and embraced on their role performance. Among other things, organizational citizenship behavior involves voluntary and informal behaviors that could help the other employees and organization. Nevertheless, job engagement focuses on individuals’ formal role performance rather than extra-role and voluntary behavior.

Additionally, job engagement is different from job involvement. According to May and his colleagues (2004, p.12) “job involvement is the result of a cognitive judgment about the need satisfying abilities of the job and is tied to one’s self-image. Engagement has to do with how individuals employ themselves in the performance of their job. Furthermore, engagement involves the active use of emotions and behaviors in addition to cognitions. Also job engagement may be thought of as an antecedent to job involvement in that individuals who experience deep engagement in their roles should come to identify with their jobs.”

In summary, job engagement description frequently overlaps with the other concepts in the practitioner literature. However, job engagement is another unique construct that consists of cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components that are associated with individual role performance in the academic literature. Moreover, job engagement differs from some similar constructs which are organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and job involvement.

Job engagement explores the importance of the positive aspects of an individual's job. Job engagement is also described as the relevance with and enthusiasm for work. Little and Little (2006, p.115) said that "job engagement is individual willingness and ability to help their company succeed, largely by providing discretionary effort on a sustainable basis".

It was argued that job engagement contains the basic dimensions of intrinsic motivation, which ensures goal oriented behaviour and persistence in attaining objectives along with high levels of activation (i.e. vigour) as well as feeling enthusiastic, identifying with and being proud of one's job (i.e. dedication). Therefore, it is thought that job engagement might be a part of intrinsic motivation (Salanova and Schaufeli, 2008). Engaged employees are supposed to have a sense of effective and energetic link to the business operations and they have the feeling that they can be successful at all the demands of work.

There are two different schools of thought on the relationship between burnout and engagement. As agreed with many researchers, Maslach and his colleagues (2001) said that burnout and engagement are two opposite facets of the continuum. According to that view, engagement is characterized by energy, involvement, and efficacy which are opposed to the dimensions of burnout; exhaustion, cynicism, and lack of professional efficacy. Consequently, low level of exhaustion and cynicism and high level of professional would be determinative for engagement.

The second school emphasizes that job engagement is the opposite of burnout but, it also describes and operationalizes engagement in its own way (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). A splitted operationalization of job engagement allows situational investigation in which employees feel high or low burnout and engagement. However, it does not mean that employees are deeply engaged to their jobs when they have low responsibility or vice versa. It is considered that, they are independent concepts or they are negatively related.

Schaufeli et al, 2002 explained that job engagement concept contains a state of well-being that includes high levels of energy, but the concept makes reference to involvement that somebody is dedicated, enthusiastic and inspired to their work and commitment which is engrossed and attached to one's work. Kanungo (1979) said that job engagement is differed

from job involvement and Allen and West (1998) said that it is differed from organizational commitment.

As already mentioned above job engagement is substantially an important construct that refers the allocation of personal resources in the workplace. (Christian et al, 2011). There are some reasons for job engagement is important and necessary concept for employee well-being. First, job engagement is a positive concept in itself (Schaufeli et al, 2002). Second, it is a positive feeling about the job (Bakker et al, 2011; Rothbard, 2001). Third, job engagement creates opportunities for individuals to make advantages from hard-press job (Britt et al, 2001). Fourth, there is a significant correlation between job engagement and organizational commitment (Demerouti et al, 2001; Maslach et al, 2001) and it is supposed to influence employee performance and organizational performance (Kahn, 1990).

The engagement concept developed from role theory and specified as an experiential state including engaging behaviors which people employ and express themselves physically, emotionally and cognitively during work performances (Kahn, 1990, p.694). Kahn (1990, p.700) defined engagement “as the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's preferred self iniask behaviors that promote connections to work and others, personal presence (physical, emotional and cognitive) and active, full role performances”.

In his view, people need self expression and self employment in their business environment. Employing and conveying an individual's self produce behaviors that bring alive the relation of self to role. People who are individually engaged keep their selves within a role, without sacrificing one for the other. People become involved in their work physically, become alert cognitively and connect to others empathically (Kahn, 1990, p.694).

Hackman and Oldham (1980) said that job engagement developes inspired positive feeling for the organization and employees who feel engaged would like to keep staying on their jobs. Engaged employees increases the customers’ experience and, that increases

ultimately the overall organizational performance in terms of productivity and profitability.

Frost (2003) found a relationship between leaders' behaviors and engagement. He reported that relays when leaders do not treat their workers equally and do not serve them and address their emotional needs and filter their toxic emotions; these individuals would often burnout and intend to leave the company. Therefore, work environment has an important role in job engagement and respect, compassion and empathy are necessary to create an environment where values alignment between the employee and employer takes place. Schaufeli and Salanova (2006) also agreed with Frost and emphasized the idea that work environment that consists of the policies, procedures and human resource management practices (Richardsen et al, 2006) plays a central role in levels of engagement.

Schaufeli and Salanova (2006) supported Frost's finding about the relationship between leaders' behaviors and engagement and explained that leadership creates a positive socioemotional climate. Sirota et al, (2004) supported Frost's findings and provided evidence that to be able to have and keep engaged employees, they should feel equity, achievement and friendship. Equity or fair treatment comes from justice at work, fair pay, respect and job security. Achievement comes from the company reputation or pride, resources and support. Friendship comes from team work, and participative decision making. Maslach and his colleagues (2001) also said that organizations fairness and transparency are some of the factors that contribute to job engagement.

3.5.1 Job Engagement Theory and Models

Kahn (1990) found that three psychological conditions associated with engagement or disengagement at work: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. In other words, workers were more engaged at work in situations that offered them more psychological meaningfulness and psychological safety, and when they were more psychologically available. May and his colleagues (2004) supported Kahn's finding and indicated that there is significantly relationship between meaningfulness, safety, availability and job engagement. Further they obtained that meaningfulness is positively predicted by job

enrichment and role fit; safety is positively predicted by rewarding co-worker and supportive supervisor relations while adherence to co-worker norms and self-consciousness were negative predictors; psychological availability is positively predicted by resources while participation in outside activities was a negative predictor.

Another job engagement model was stated from the burnout literature which defines job engagement as the positive antithesis of burnout and defines burnout as a response to chronic work-related stress manifested as depleted emotional resources, cynical attitudes toward work, and reduced professional efficacy (Maslach et al., 2001). Maslach and his colleagues (2001) examined that there are six factors of work-life guide to burnout and job engagement “workload, control, rewards and recognition, community and social support, perceived fairness, and values”. They discussed that “job engagement is associated with a sustainable workload, feelings of choice and control, appropriate recognition and reward, a supportive work community, fairness and justice, and meaningful and valued work”. It is supposed that job engagement mediate the relationship between these six work-life areas and different work outcomes.

Both Kahn (1990) and Maslach and his colleagues (2001) demonstrated the essential psychological conditions or antecedents for job engagement in their models. However, these models do not completely describe the reasons of individuals’ responses to these conditions with different levels of engagement. More descriptive theoretical justification to clarify job engagement is found in social exchange theory (SET).

SET examines that obligations are generated through a series of interactions between parties who are in a state of reciprocal interdependence. A basic tenet of SET is that relationships evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments as long as the parties abide by certain “rules” of exchange (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Rules of exchange usually involve reciprocity or repayment rules such that the actions of one party lead to a response or actions by the other party. For instance, when employees are satisfied by economic and socioemotional resources of their organizations, they have a sense of gratitude and would like to repay the organization (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). This

is parallel to Robinson and his colleagues' (2004) definition of job engagement as a reciprocal relationship between the organizations and individuals.

The degrees of engagement show the willingness of employees to repay their organizations. Dedicating themselves into work activities and responsibilities is one of the ways for employees to respond to the actions of organizations. It is not easy for individuals to differ their degree of job performance evaluated and used as the basis for compensation and other administrative decisions. Therefore, employees' engagements depend on the resources and benefits they receive from their organizations.

Shortly, SET introduces a theoretical basis to describe why individuals prefer to become well engaged or less engaged in their jobs and organizations. The conditions of engagement in both Kahn's (1990) and Maslach et al.'s (2001) model can be considered economic and socioemotional exchange resources within SET. When organizations provide these economic and socioemotional exchange resources to their employees, they feel high levels of engagement and look for the opportunities to repay their organizations. According to Kahn's (1990, p.697) description of engagement "employees feel obliged to bring themselves more deeply into their role performances as repayment for the resources they receive from their organization". Employees are less engaged and withdraw themselves from their jobs and organizations when the organization does not provide necessary resources to their employees. In this way, the amount of cognitive, emotional, and physical resources of employees' in their role performance vary based on the economic and socioemotional resources provided by their organizations.

Recent studies about job engagement have demonstrated a three factor model using confirmatory factor analysis. In the next section, dimensions of work engagement are discussed.

3.5.2 Conceptual Dimensions of Job Engagement

As it is already explained in the previous section, Schaufeli and his colleagues (2002) defined job engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized engagement by three dimensions which are vigor, dedication and absorption. Vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental flexibility while working and willingness to spend effort on the job and it is being energetic and persevering even in difficult circumstances. Dedication is related with involvement in job and feeling a sense of important excitement, inspiration, pride and challenge at work. “Absorption is a pleasant state of being immersed in one’s work experiencing time passing quickly, and being unable to detach from the job and absorption also consists of being fully concentrated, happy and deeply engrossed in work” (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003, p.5). For example, an employee feels that time passes quickly and the employee can not give up working (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003). Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) said that vigor and dedication are the main core dimensions of job engagement and absorption the consequence of job engagement.

It is considered that engagement is a motivational concept and is also shared by employees in the workplace (Bakker et al, 2011; Schaufeli et al, 2003). According to Robert and Davenport (2002), job engagement is an individual's enthusiasm for an involvement in their job. From their point of view, engaged employees identify themselves personally with their jobs and become motivated by the work itself. It has been shown that employees who have job engagement are more motivated in their jobs and more committed to their organizations or vice versa. Also, these employees work for longer hours with high level of productivity and organizational results.

According to Schaufeli and his colleagues (2002) dedication can be confused by involvement because involvement is usually described for its psychological identification with individual's work and there are differences between involvement and dedication both qualitatively and quantitatively. In quantitative terms, dedication includes strong involvement which is beyond the usual identification. In qualitative terms, dedication has a broader scope includes a specific cognitive or state, and affective dimension.

Vigor, the first dimension of job engagement is considered as the opposite of exhaustion dimension of burnout. The second dimension dedication is considered as the opposite of the other dimension of burnout which is cynicism. However, opposite of the third dimension of burnout which is decreased organizational efficacy is not a counter definition of any job engagement dimension. There are two reasons for that. The first reason is the lack of professional efficacy does not have a different and an important role whereas exhaustion and cynicism are evidenced empirically that they compose the core of burnout concept. Second reason is the results of research show that job engagement is characterized by absorption rather than by efficacy. So, absorption is a significantly important dimension of job engagement and it is not the opposite of decreased professional efficacy (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2003).

It is already discussed about values at the beginning of the study and said that values have an important role in individual motivation and they affect the emotional and a cognitive relationship that individuals develop with their work. When, employees have disharmony with the values of the organization, they may experience motivation problems and they may have difficulty in keeping themselves within their work role (Mankoff, 1974). Therefore, value congruence between the individual and the organization gains are important in engaging individuals to their work.

3.5.3 The Relationship between Job Engagement and Organizational Variables

Research results indicated that job engagement is one of the main concepts that has a direct effect on organizational success and organizational performance. Engaged employees place their energy, involvement and absorption to perform organizational objectives. Scholars suggested the relationship between engagement and workforce efficiency and productivity.

Many studies have showed the relationship between job engagement and organizational performance. For example, Salanova and his colleagues (2003) found the positive impact of engagement on task performance. They found that engaged employees increase service climate, and that increase customer-assessed employee performance. When there is a well engagement of individuals the occurrence of behaviors that promote efficient and effective

functioning of the organization increase. These behaviors are known as OCB which can be defined as individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly and explicitly recognized by the formal reward system. OCB promotes the efficient and affective functioning of the organization as well as employee performance (Kahn, 1990).

Salanova et al, (2003) revealed that engagement has a positive impact on task performance. They found that engaged employees improve service climate, and then enhance customer-assessed employee performance.

Based on these evidences, it is suggested that;

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between contextual performance and job engagement.

Lockwood (2007) found that poor job engagement decreases the organizational effectiveness and success. He also studied that job engagement can be considered of asset of organizations because engaged employees are more enthusiastic to stay in organizations, show more organizational citizenship behaviors, and high level of motivation than those who are not engaged. Job engagement and organizational climate affect organizational success and effectiveness (Van Vianen et al, 2007).

According to the research findings organizational environments which consist of “supportive management, role-clarity, self-expression, job challenge, recognition, and contribution” climate considerations is positively related to and job engagement that has an influence on organizational effectiveness. Shortly, the safe and meaningful working environments through high level of job engagement contribute to the effective functioning of organizations (Kataria et al, 2013).

Wollard and Shuck (2011) agreed with Kataria and his colleagues (2013) found that engaged employees have positive behaviors and increase the psychological climate of their organizations. Thus, it enhances organizational effectiveness. Specifically, engaged employees frequently have positive feelings (Bindl and Parker, 2010; and Bakker et al, 2011), which result positive outcomes in organizations like helping behaviors, being

cooperative etc. (Cameron et al, 2003). The positive feelings increase individuals' pride in organization, work pleasure and job satisfaction that have effect on the managerial success and organizational excellence (Fineman, 1996; and Cameron et al, 2003). Some researchers also stated that engaged workforce impact variables such as financial profit (Harter et al, 2003), managerial effectiveness (Luthans and Peterson, 2001) and greater business unit performance (Harter et al, 2003).

Well engaged employees have high connectivity with their business roles. Individuals purpose to reach toward task-related objectives that enlase with job descriptions and scenarios. Engaged employees aim to accomplish extra role behaviors by performing business that are out of their role definitions because they are able to "free up" resources to achieve objectives and perform tasks effectively. Furthermore, engaged employees consider all parts of business as a whole and go beyond of their tasks to accomplish organizational goals.

Employee engagement included goal oriented behaviors that also one of the fundamental dimensions of intrinsic motivation. Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) found that engaged employees behave more proactively interms of personal initiative.

Individuals' judgment about their fit with the organizational values may satisfy or dissatisfy them in their work or they may desire to stay or leave the organizaiton. Employees contribute to the goals of their organization and their requirement and performance are very important to reach the goals. Engaged employees are more energetic and have a sense of efficient relation with their work activities and they feel that they are able to achieve the demands of their job (Schaufeli et al, 2002). It is not easy for employees to engage personally in performing work requirements when organizational values and personal values do not fit to each other. To be able to deal with such issues, people become already engaged in inner debates for not to leave any space for external engagements (Kahn, 1990). On the other hand, when individuals experience do not match or are not congruent with the organization for which they work in terms of values or goals, their disagreement may restrict their engagement to their job.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) found that structural qualitative interviews with heterogeneous employee groups, engaged employees' values match well with values of their organizations and also employees seem to be engaged in any other organizational activities out of their job.

Guneser (2007) has found that partial support with the finding of the positive relationship between P-O fit and vigor with respect to commitment value and P-O fit and mental engagement factor of job engagement with respect to teamwork value.

Lewin's (1951) Field Theory explains the relationship between P-J fit and P-O fit on job engagement. The theory mentioned that work environment affects employee's behaviors towards their jobs. When the employees perceive positive emotion with their work environment, they demonstrate positive behaviors. Consequently, when there is a fit between employees and their jobs and organizations, employees perform more effectively for their goals towards organizational objectives, mission and vision. (Hamid and Yahya, 2011).

The hypothesis five is formulated based on the above literature findings.

Hypothesis 5: P-O fit will be positively related to job engagement.

4. THE PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL

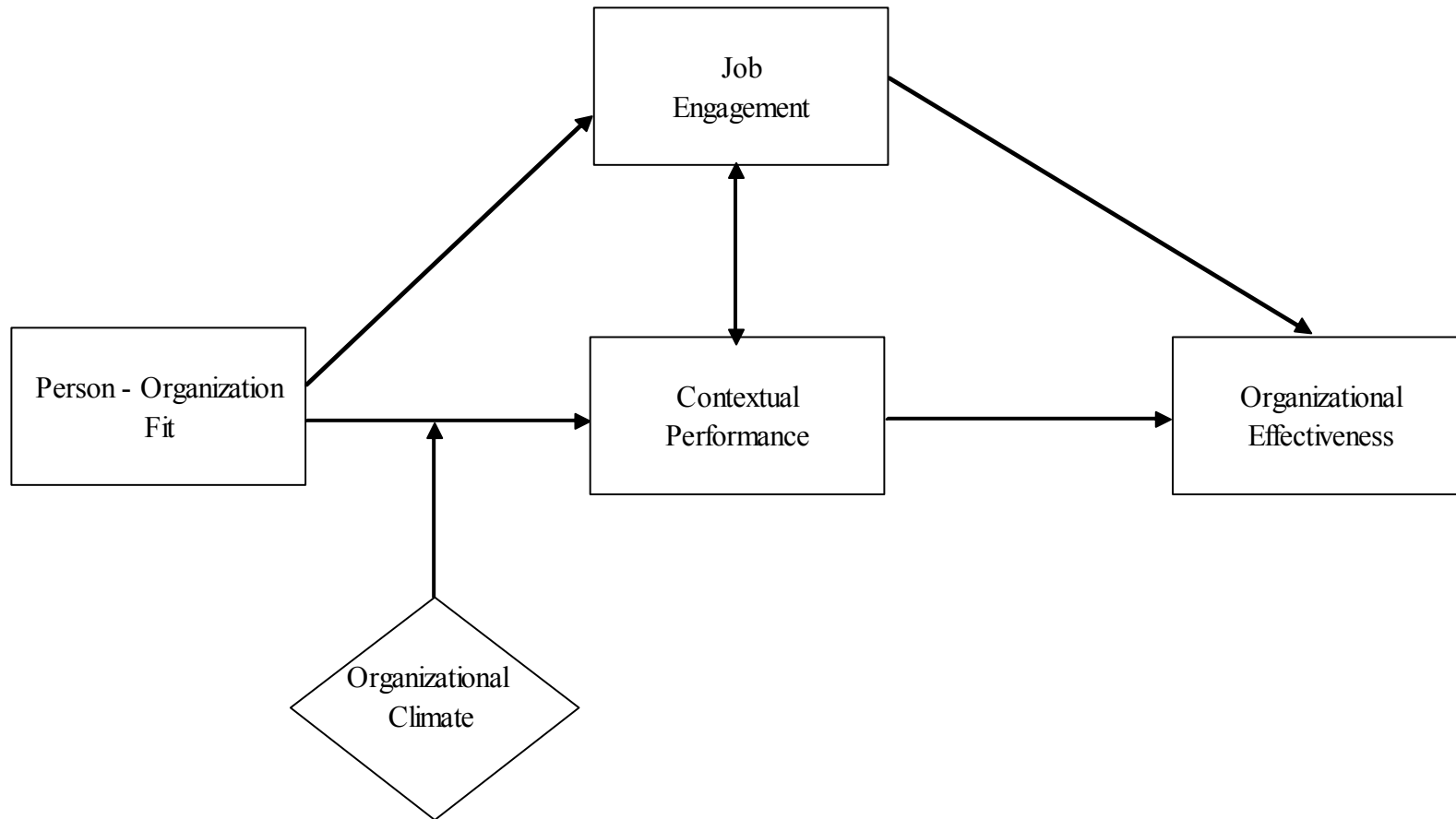


Figure 4.1 The Proposed Research Model

5. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Sampling Procedure

The study was applied in three organizations. Two of them operate in manufacturing sector and the other one operates in service sector. The respondents who filled out the questionnaire are white collar employees and there is no other special criterion for participants.

5.2 Research Design

A quantitative research method was used for the study. The design of the study was hypothesis-testing and correlational. It was also a cross sectional study.

5.3 Measurement Instruments

Five different measurement instruments were used as the measuring instrument in the present study. The questionnaire consists of six parts as socio-demographic questions, person organization fit questionnaire, contextual performance questionnaire, organizational effectiveness questionnaire, organizational climate questionnaire, and job engagement questionnaire. Questionnaire forms are available at the appendix section.

5.3.1 Socio-Demographic Questions

The first part contains six demographic questions to determine the characteristics of the samples. This part gives ideas about the employees, gender, age, marital status, education, work experience and the experience in the current firm.

5.3.2 Person-Organization Fit Questionnaire

The original OCP consists of 54 value items, whereas its short version has a total of 40 items. The short version of the instrument is widely used in the literature. In a study of Cable and Judge (1997), 10 experienced doctoral students reviewed the OCP and grouped similar values together, retaining those that were unique, thereby developing its reduced version.

Additionally, Sarros et al, (2002) was modified the shorter version of OCP and in this revised and reformatted version respondents were required to indicate the organization's the most characteristic cultural values along a five-point likert scale ranging from 1=Not At All to 5=Very Much. Representative items of organizational culture measured by the OCP are "Adaptability", "Taking individual responsibility", and "Not being constrained by many rules". Sarros and his colleagues got permission Psychological Association and Professor Charles O'Reilly from American to use amended and revised version (21 December 1999).

Yildirim Bulut (2006) found that the resulting factor structure of the person-organization fit measured involves five factors, having a total of 21 items, which explain 65.684 % of total variance. Judge (1994) used 15 items of OCP instrument in his study. Similarly, Yahyagil (2005) also used O'Reilly's OCP scalet in two different companies and he found 24 items for the first and 23 items for the second organizations.

For the present study, all of these items were compared with each other and it was understood that 25 items were commonly used by the research cited above. Afterwards, these 25 items were checked out with O'Reilly's short-version of OCP covering 28 items. Since these 20 items of out of 28 items were mutually used in all of the said research studies, the short version of OCP instrument was decided to be employed in the present study.

Accordingly, in this study, P-O fit was measured by the version including 28 items used by Sarros et. al with 5 point Likert scale ranging from “the best” (5) to “none” (1). The respondents were asked to answer the questions twice for their current situations in their organization and for their ideal situation that they think.

5.3.3 Contextual Performance Questionnaire

Contextual performance was measured by 5 items which were developed by Borman and Motowidlo. Contextual performance was rated by employees themselves on a 6 point Likert type scale, ranging from “always” (6) to “never” (1). Extent of display of the behavior was rated by the participants.

5.3.4 Organizational Effectiveness Questionnaire

Organizational effectiveness is essential for the organizational financial success. An organization should be able to manage its strategy and engage their employees to the organization to be able to achieve and sustain its business results. Leaders behaviors are very important establish structure, organizational culture, satisfy employees, make alignment within the organization to achieve effectiveness in the organization. That results increases financial performance, customer satisfaction, and employee loyalty and an organization that can sustain such alignment will achieve increased business results.

In this study, organizational effectiveness was measured by using Malcolm Baldrige questionnaire because the questionnaire covers several categories including financial performance, market share, and employee productivity, leadership. These concepts are necessary to create organizational effectiveness.

Malcolm Baldrige questionnaire totally includes 14 questions. However, it was not included the categories of measurement analysis and knowledge management and process management because this study focuses on organizational effectiveness and these two items are process related items and have importance for TQM studies. Therefore, 10 items

were used to analyze the study and it is a 6 point Likert scale ranging from “totally agree” (6) to “totally disagree” (1).

5.3.5 Organizational Climate Questionnaire

Yahyagil (2006) developed this measurement instrument based on the Organizational Climate Questionnaire (Litwin and Stringr, 1968), and the study of Schneider and his colleagues (1996) as well as other leading scholars’ studies (Kirsh, 2000; Fey and Beamish, 2001; Jones and James, 1979). Each of the measurement devices that were developed by the above cited scholars have differing numbers of conceptual elements (up to 50 items) depending on both their own perspectives and the complexity of the measurement. The conceptual dimensions, which were operationalized, were selected according to the author. The final design of the questionnaire was based on the results of four different studies (Yahyagil and Deniz, 2004; Yahyagil, 2003; Dikmen and Yahyagil, 2001; Yahyagil, 2001) conducted in Turkey. The scale was also used in a recent study by Yahyagil and Aktas (2010).

It was a 6 point Likert scale ranging from “totally agree” (6) to “totally disagree” (1). It comprises 26 items capturing the 10 dimensions of the concept of organizational climate (20 items). Later, the item number was decreased to 13. The items are support, formalization, decision making, risk, communication, human relations, nature of work, hierarchy, reward, innovative and freedom. Human relations dimension is measured by two items, taking into account both mutual trust and teamwork spirit.

5.3.6 Job Engagement Questionnaire

Job engagement was measured by 17 items from the Utrecht Work Enthusiasm Scale (UWES). The scale was developed by Schaufeli et al, (2002). 17 items cover three aspect of the job engagement construct. It was a 6point Likert scale ranging from “always” (6) to “never” (1).

5.4 Procedure

The main study was applied in three organizations operate at engineering, automotive and service industries. 250 questionnaires were distributed and the respond rate was 10% (225 questionnaires) but 10% (25 questionnaires) of the questionnaires were eliminated due to inappropriate responding. Finally, 200 questionnaires were used for the data analysis. The rate ratio of the questionnaire is 80%.

5.5 Data Analyses

The answers from the questionnaires were analyzed with statistical techniques. The analysis procedure was made by using SPSS statistical package (Version: 18.0). Data analyses were conducted in several phases. Statistical analyses started with the reliability analyses of all concepts. Second, the factor analyses were conducted on all items for P-O fit both current and ideal, job engagement, organizational effectiveness and organizational climate. Then, all factors of the concepts were subjected to reliability analysis using Cronbach's Alpha. After these analyses, regression and correlation analyses were conducted.

6. RESEARCH FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

A pilot study was conducted at the first stage and fifty questionnaires were handed out in a company operating in manufacturing sector. Then, reliability and factor analyses were conducted and found satisfactory for all of the concepts. There were seven factors of P-O fit (current) (emphasis on reward, competitiveness, innovation, result orientation, social responsibility, stability, supportiveness), six factors of P-O fit (ideal) (competitiveness, performance orientation, stability, innovation, emphasis on reward, social responsibility), three factors of job engagement (vigor, absorption, dedication), two factors of organizational effectiveness (human resources focus, business performance) and four factor of organizational climate (communication, formalization, human relations, risk) found after factor analyses of the variables in the pilot study.

The research findings of the pilot study showed that the employees' expectations were higher than their current status. There were positive correlations between all the concepts. However, only P-O fit (current) values were related with the other concepts, but P-O fit (ideal) values were not related with the other concepts. Additionally, there was no moderating effect of organizational climate on the relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance. The correlation table of the pilot study (Table 8.12) shows the results and is available at the supplementary section.

For the main study, 250 questionnaires were handed out in three companies. Two of them operate in manufacturing sector and the other one operates in service sector. The respond rate was 90% (225 questionnaires) but 10% (25 questionnaires) of the questionnaires were eliminated due to inappropriate responding. Finally, 200 questionnaires were used for the data analysis. The statistical analyses were performed by using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 18. This section covers the profiles of the respondents; it covers hypothesis testing and complimentary data analyses.

6.1. Respondents' Profile

The first analysis with the data was done to find out the profiles of the respondents. Table 6.1 presents these results.

Table 6.1 Descriptive statistics of the demographic variables (n=200)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender		
Female	85	42,5
Male	115	57,5
Age Group		
21-25	14	7
26-30	66	33
31-35	56	28
36-40	34	17
41+	30	15
Marital Status		
Single	115	57,5
Married	85	42,5
Education		
Elementary School	2	1
Highschool	20	10
University	117	58,5
Master	59	29,5
PhD	2	1
Work Experience		
0-5	47	23,5
6-10	70	35
11-15	37	18,5
16-20	24	12
21+	22	11
Work Experience in the Current Firm		
1-5 years	120	60
6-10 years	38	19
11-15 years	17	8,5
15+ years	25	12,5

6.2 Reliability of Measurement Instrument

Hair et al, (2006) defined reliability as “an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable” (p.137). One of the measures of reliability is internal consistency which applies to the consistency among the variables in a scale. To assess this consistency, Cronbach’s alpha was used in this study. It shows if the individual items or indicators of the scale are measuring the same construct and are thus highly inter correlated. “The lower limit for Cronbach’s Alpha that is generally agreed upon is 0.70” (Hair et al, 2006, p.137). Before proceeding with any further analyses, first the reliabilities of each scale were calculated. In fact, they were already tested by other researchers. However, the fact that all of them were translated from English to Turkish for this study requires finding the reliabilities again, since different data sets might give different reliability results for each scale. Therefore, it was necessary to check its reliability again to assure the inter item consistency of each factor. Table 6.2 exhibits these results.

Table 6.2 Reliability estimates for the measurement scales

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha
P-O FIT (CURRENT)	.956
P-O FIT (IDEAL)	.939
CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE	.823
ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS	.922
ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE	.816
JOB ENGAGEMENT	.958

As Table 6.2 illustrates, all reliability scores of the study were found above 0.70. This means that the items of each concept are highly interrelated.

6.3 Factor Analyses

The purpose of the factor analysis is to define the sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factors (Hair et al, 2006). Factor analysis for each concept is done in this study to see how many different dimensions the respondents perceive in the concepts and whether they perceive them the same as in the original data with which the scale was developed. In other words, the factor analysis was run to find out, if with a different set of data, the same results defined in the literature, are found. At the beginning of each factor

test, the measure of sampling adequacy is calculated in order to see if the data is appropriate to apply the factor analysis to (Sipahi et al, 2006).

Statistics that can represent this adequacy are Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. KMO shows that the data used in the analysis is a homogenous collection of variables and that there are correlations between variables. The minimum level of acceptability for KMO is defined to be 0.50 in the literature (Hair et al, 2006). Bartlett's test on the other hand provides the statistical significance that there are significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Hair et al, 2006). Thus, the value of p in the test should be lower than 0.05. KMO and Bartlett's tests in this study are found to be satisfactory for all concepts and these are illustrated at factor analyses tables.

6.3.1 Person-Organization Fit (Current)

The factor analyses were resulted with four factors rather than seven as stated in the theoretical framework, but none of the items was extracted from the study. Thus, P-O Fit (current) was represented with four factors "fairness and reward, team orientation and innovativeness, competitiveness and social responsibility" in further analyses. The below Scree Pilot chart "Figure 6.1" shows how many factors were loaded under P-O fit (current) very clearly.

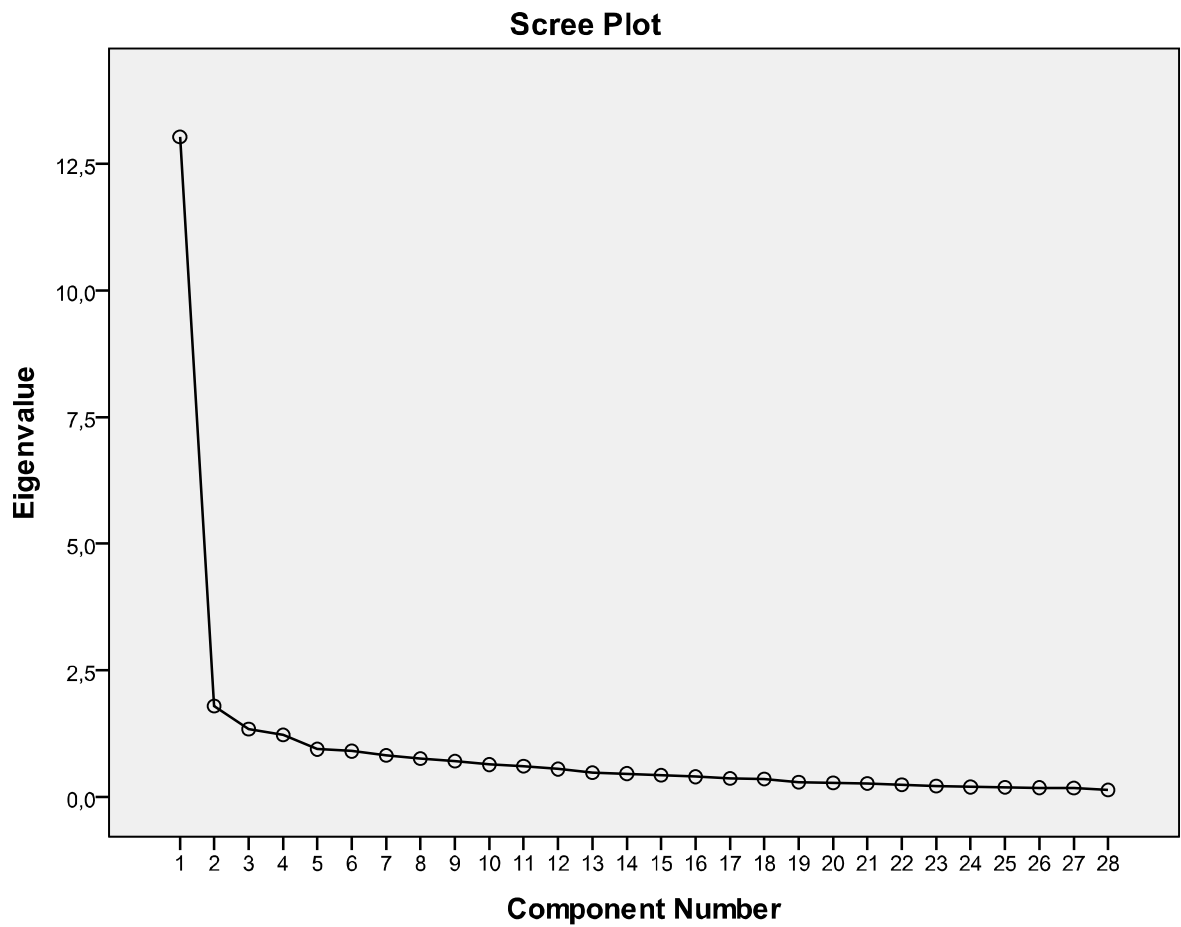


Figure 6.1 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of P-O Fit (Current)

Below table 6.3 presents the item loadings, explained variance of each factor and internal consistencies. Internal consistencies were found to be high enough to continue with further analyses. The four factors were explained 62,1 of the total variance.

Table 6.3 Factor and reliability analyses results of P-O Fit (current) scale

Factor	Questions	Item Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Fairness and Reward	8. Fairness	, 743	17,284	, 892
	7. Being people oriented	, 732		
	10. Being reflective	, 712		
	15. High pay for good performance	, 634		
	17. Praise for good performance	, 617		
	1. Stability	, 549		
	9. Being calm	, 526		
Team Orientation and Innovativeness	5. Being team oriented	, 773	16,489	, 909
	2. Being innovative	, 651		
	19. Collaboration	, 601		
	26. Having a clear guiding philosophy	, 586		
	28. Being highly organized	, 561		
	3. Quick to take advantage of opportunities	, 536		
	6. Sharing information freely	, 529		
	20. Enthusiasm for the job	, 491		
	12. Taking individual responsibility	, 461		
	14. Opportunities for professional growth	, 453		
Competitiveness	13. Having high expectations for high performance	, 762	16,031	, 823
	27. Being competitive	, 661		
	11. Achievement orientation	, 576		
	25. Being result oriented	, 547		
	4. Risk taking	, 536		
	18. Low conflict	, 463		

Factor	Questions	Item Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Social Responsibility	23. Having a good reputation	, 800	12,297	, 837
	24. Being socially responsible	, 665		
	16. Security of employment	, 615		
	22. Being different from others	, 516		
	21. An emphasis on quality	, 467		

Total : 62,101

Kaiser, Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy: , 934

Barlett's Test of Sphericity **Chi-Square:** 3705,726

df: 378

Sig: , 000

6.3.2 Person-Organization Fit (Ideal)

In total, 28 items were included in the analysis. Five factors were yielded after the factor analysis. Reliability scores of the forth and fifth factors were found below 0.70 after the realibility analyses. The items of these two factors were removed from the study. After that, the factor and realibility analyses were repeated. As a result, P-O Fit (ideal) was represented with three factors “reputation and responsibility, safety and stability, and achievement orientation” in the further analyses. Table 6.5 presents the item loadings, explained variance of each factor and the internal consistencies. The items that were left out are as follows:

Table 6.4 P-O Fit (ideal) items left out after the factor analysis

Variable	Item Statement
Item 4	Risk taking
Item 5	Being team oriented
Item 6	Sharing information freely
Item 12	Taking individual responsibility
Item 18	Low conflict

The below Scree Pilot chart “Figure 6.2” shows how many factors were loaded under P-O fit (ideal) very clearly.

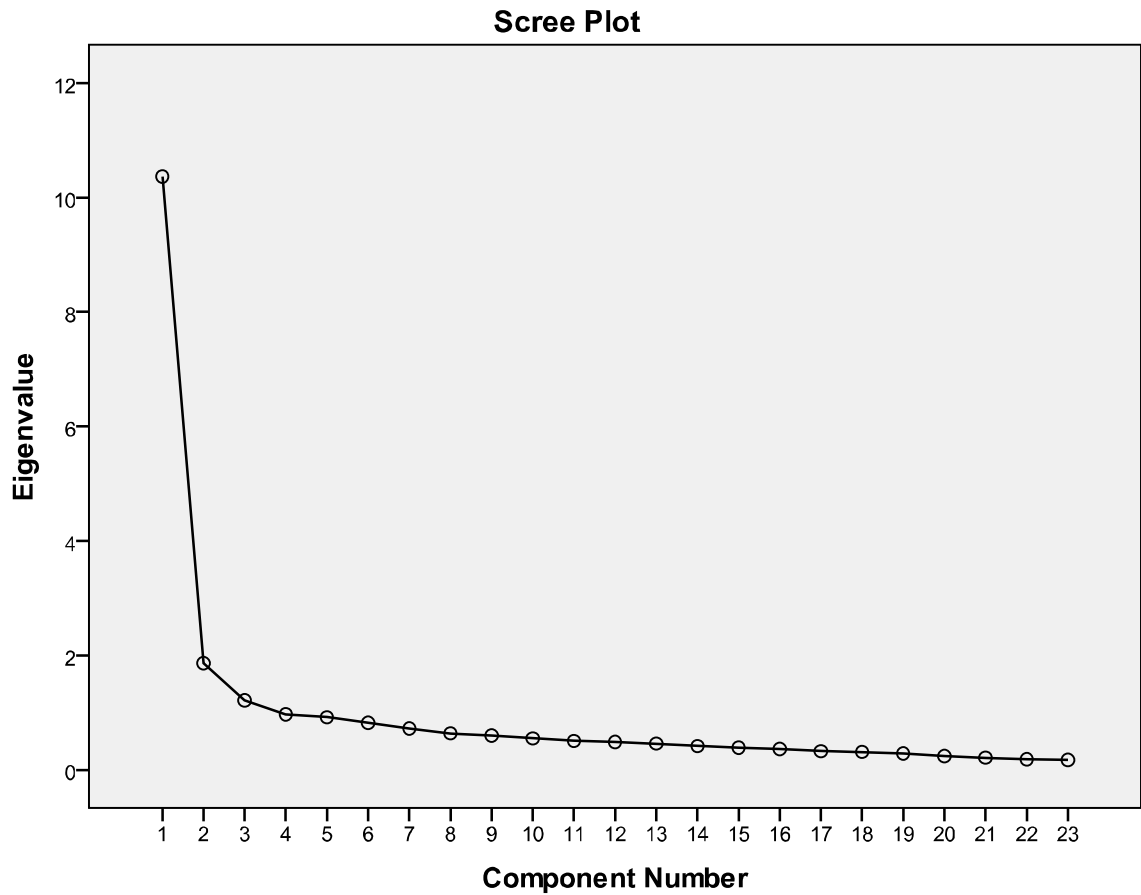


Figure 6.2 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of P-O Fit (Ideal)

Below table 6.5 presents the item loadings, explained variance of each factor and the internal consistencies. Internal consistencies were found to be high enough to continue with further analyses.

Table 6.5 Factor and reliability analyses results of P-O Fit (ideal) scale

Factor	Questions	Item Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Reputation and Responsibility	23. Having a good reputation	, 787	24,866	, 916
	24. Being socially responsible	, 730		
	26. Having a clear guiding philosophy	, 715		
	28. Being highly organized	, 686		
	22. Being different from others	, 665		
	19. Collaboration	, 643		
	25. Being result oriented	, 636		
	21. An emphasis on quality	, 626		
	3. Quick to take advantage of opportunities	, 588		
	27. Being Competitive	, 544		
	20. Enthusiasm for the job	, 502		
Safety and Stability	9. Being calm	, 722	19,654	, 860
	10. Being reflective	, 717		
	16. Security of employment	, 705		
	15. High pay for good performance	, 690		
	8. Fairness	, 679		
	7. Being people oriented	, 579		
	1. Stability	, 574		
	2. Being innovative	, 480		

Factor	Questions	Item Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Achievement Orientation	11. Achievement orientation	, 748	13,929	, 814
	13. Having high expectations for high performance	, 726		
	17. Praise for good performance	, 655		
	14. Opportunities for professional growth	, 543		
Total :			58,449	
Kaiser, Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy : , 925				
Barlett's Test of Sphericity			Chi-Square:	2681,960
			df:	253
			Sig:	, 000

6.3.3 Job Engagement

In total, 17 items were included in the analysis and 2 factors were found. None of the items was extracted from the study. Job engagement was represented with two factors “vigorous dedication and concentrated absorption” in the further analyses. Table 6.6 below presents the item loadings, explained variance of each factor and the internal consistencies. Internal consistencies were found to be high enough to continue with further analyses. The below Scree Pilot chart “Figure 6.3” shows how many factors were loaded under job engagement very clearly.

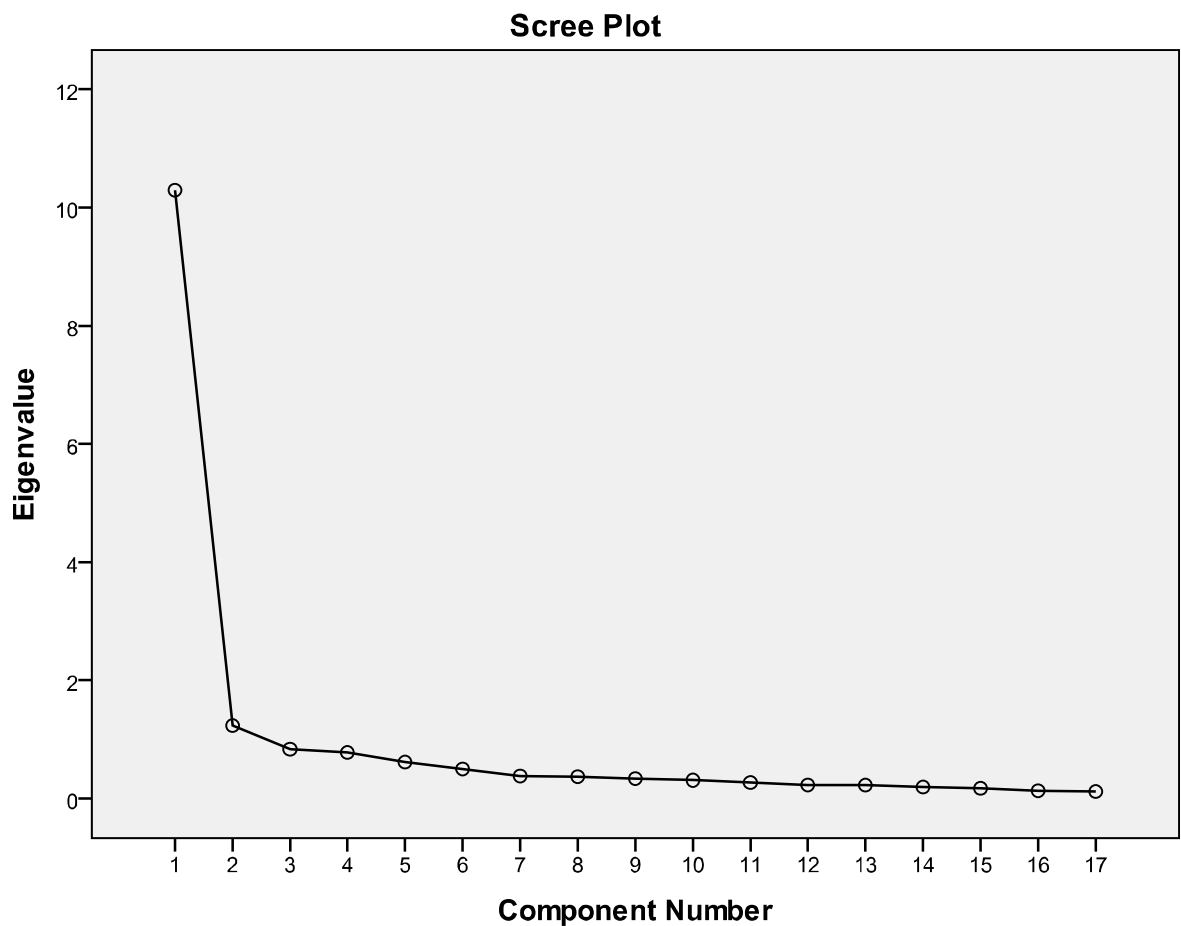


Figure 6.3 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Job Engagement

Table 6.6 Factor and reliability analyses results of job engagement scale

Factor	Questions	Item Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Vigorous Dedication	5. I am enthusiastic about my job	, 844	39,205	, 950
	2. I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose	, 834		
	13. To me, my job is challenging	, 816		
	1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy	, 782		
	10. I am proud on the work that I do	, 782		
	7. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	, 754		
	4. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	, 752		
	8. My job inspires me	, 671		
	15. At my job, I am very resilient, mentally	, 642		
	3. Time flies when I'm working	, 576		
Concentrated Absorption	16. I can continue working for very long periods at a time	, 846	28,614	, 904
	6. I When I am working, I forget everything else around	, 841		
	11. I am immersed in my work	, 785		
	14. I get carried away when I'm working	, 733		
	12. It is difficult to detach myself from my job	, 615		
	17. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work	, 566		
	9. I feel happy when I am working intensely	, 495		
		Total :	67,819	
		Kaiser, Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy:		, 949
		Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square:	2908,923
			df:	136
			Sig:	, 000

6.3.4 Organizational Effectiveness

In total, 10 items were included in the analysis. Uni-factor was found after the factor analysis. None of the items was extracted from the study. Table 6.7 presents the results of the factor analysis for organizational effectiveness. The below Scree Pilot chart “Figure 6.4” shows how many factors were loaded under organizational effectiveness very clearly.

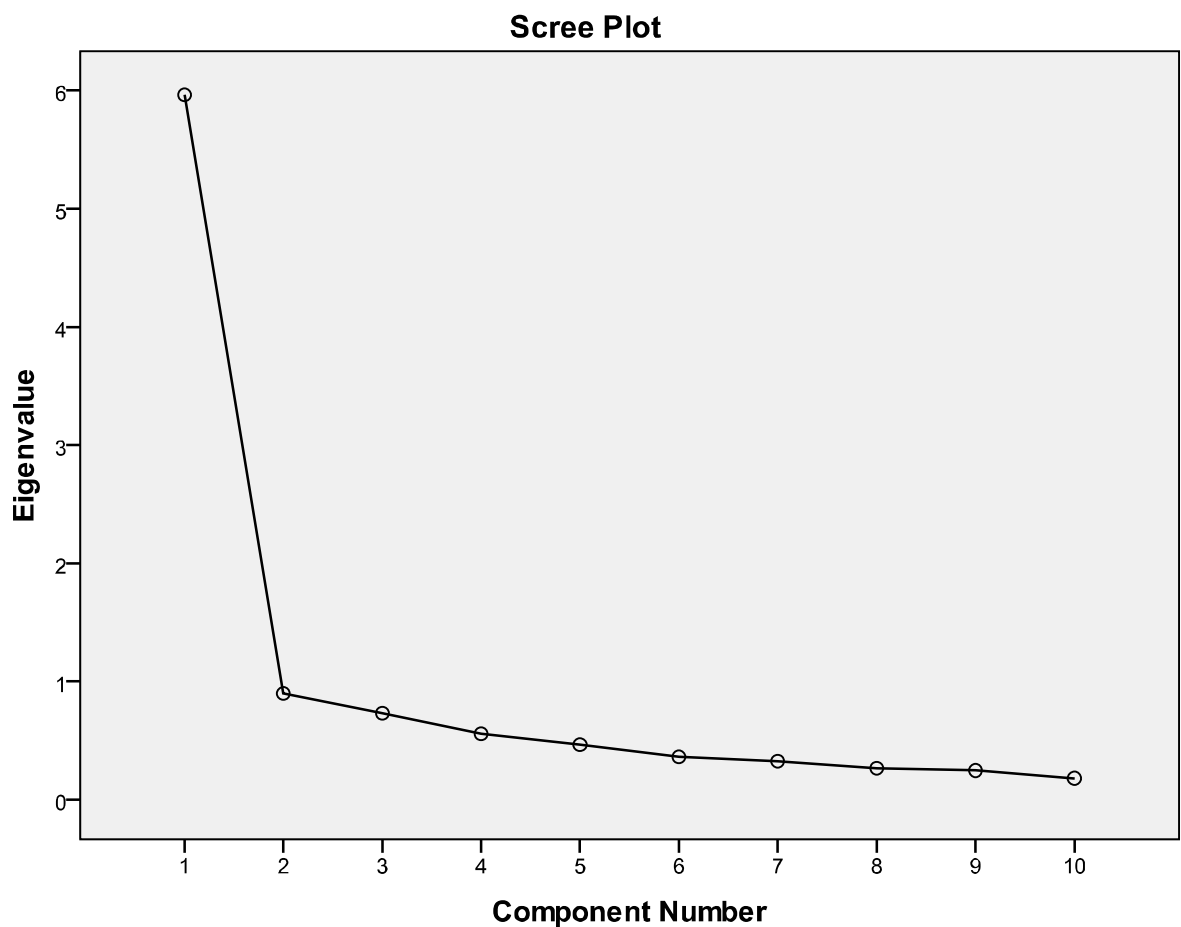


Figure 6.4 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Organizational Effectiveness

Table 6.7 Factor and reliability analyses results of organizational effectiveness scale

Factor	Questions	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Effectiveness	1. Our top management provides good direction of where the company is heading		
	2. Our top management considers "quality" very important		
	3. Our company has a strategic plan for the next five years		
	4. In our company, employees understand the company's strategic direction		
	5. We exist because of our customers	59,624	, 922
	6. We involve customers' input for making company decisions		
	7. Our company trains employees to full potential		
	8. Our company uses employee evaluation procedure which is fair and accurate		
	9. Our company performs better than others financially		
	10. Our company image is better than other		
Total :		59,624	
Kaiser, Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy:			, 911
Barlett's Test of Sphericity		Chi-Square:	1274,625
		df:	45
		Sig:	, 000

6.3.5 Organizational Climate

Three factors were found after the factor analysis. Cronbach' Alpha value is 0,288 of the last factor. However, the items under this factor were not extracted from the analysis because these are very important and reverse questions of the organizational climate questionnaire. Table 6.8 presents the results of the factor analysis of organizational climate. . The below Scree Pilot chart “Figure 6.5” shows how many factors were loaded under organizational climate very clearly.

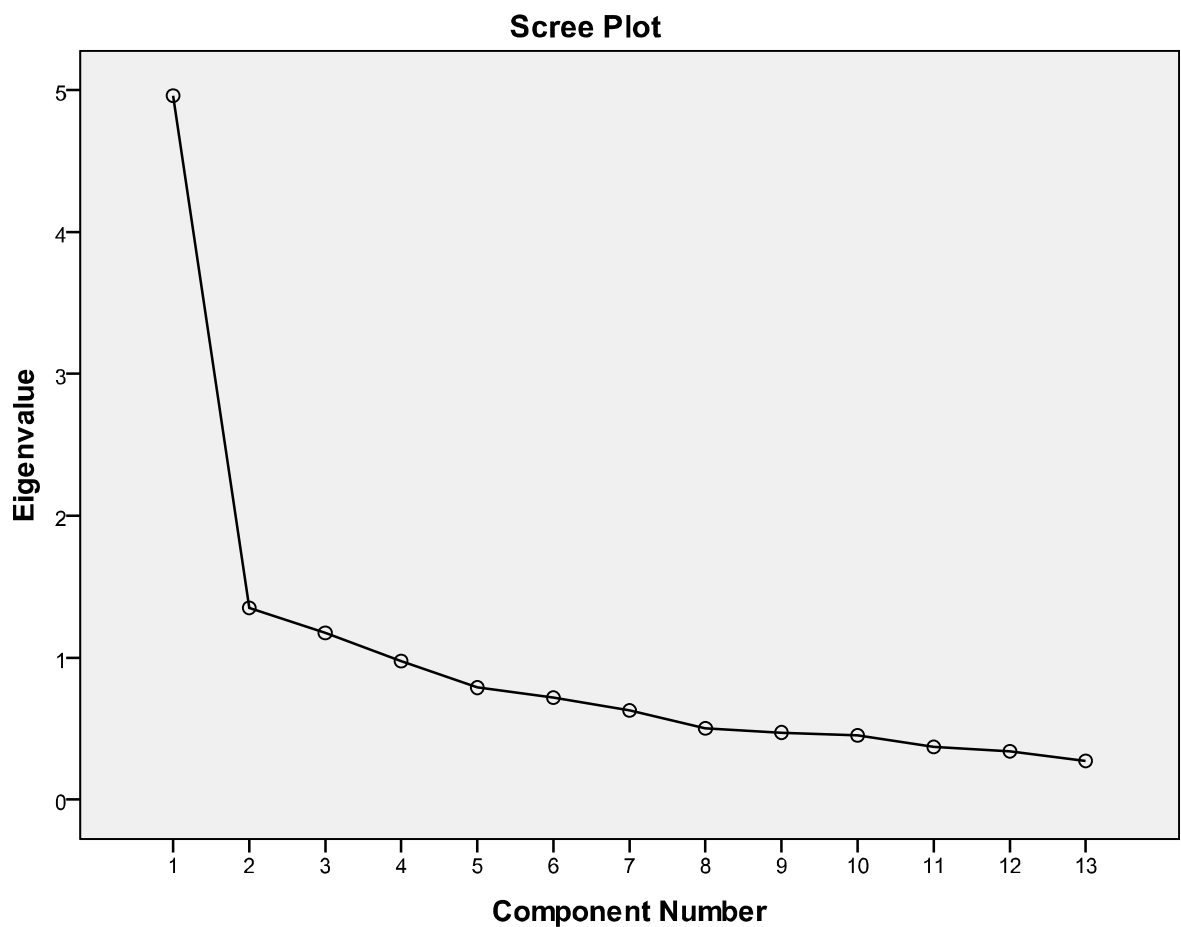


Figure 6.5 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Organizational Climate

Below table 6.8 presents the item loadings, explained variance of each factor and the internal consistencies.

Table 6.8 Factor and reliability analyses results of organizational climate scale

Factor	Questions	Item Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Communication	6. A warm and constructive relationship exists among employees	, 776	27,564	, 847
	2. Red-tape is kept to a minimum here	, 718		
	1. When the employees are on a difficult assignment they can usually count on getting assistance from their boss	, 701		
	13. There is clear and positive communication among the members of organization	, 676		
	5. People can easily access information related to their job tasks whenever they need it	, 630		
	3. Management encourages the workers to participate in the decision-making process about their job tasks	, 605		
Formalization	9. There is excessive amount of regulations regarding the business activities	, 726	19,635	, 766
	11. Management is open to innovation and responds well to changes in the business environment	, 701		
	12. Workers have a certain degree of autonomy and freedom to plan their own jobs	, 628		
	10. People are rewarded in proportion to the excellence of their job performance	, 611		

Factor	Questions	Item Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Human Relations	4. Management generally refrains from taking risks in the course of ongoing business activities	, 714	10,403	, 288
	8. Workers are not participating willingly in teamwork unless it is mandatory	, 582		
	7. The nature of the work is generally a monotonous and routine	, 571		
		Total :	57,602	
		Kaiser, Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy:	, 867	
		Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Chi-Square:	894,373
			df:	78
			Sig:	, 000

6.3.6 Contextual Performance

In total, 5 items were included in the analysis. Uni-factor was found after the factor analysis. The finding is parallel to the literature review findings as contextual performance is one of the dimensions of organizational performance. None of the items was extracted from the study. Table 6.9 presents the results of the factor analysis for contextual performance. The below Scree Pilot chart “Figure 6.6” shows how many factors were loaded under organizational effectiveness very clearly.

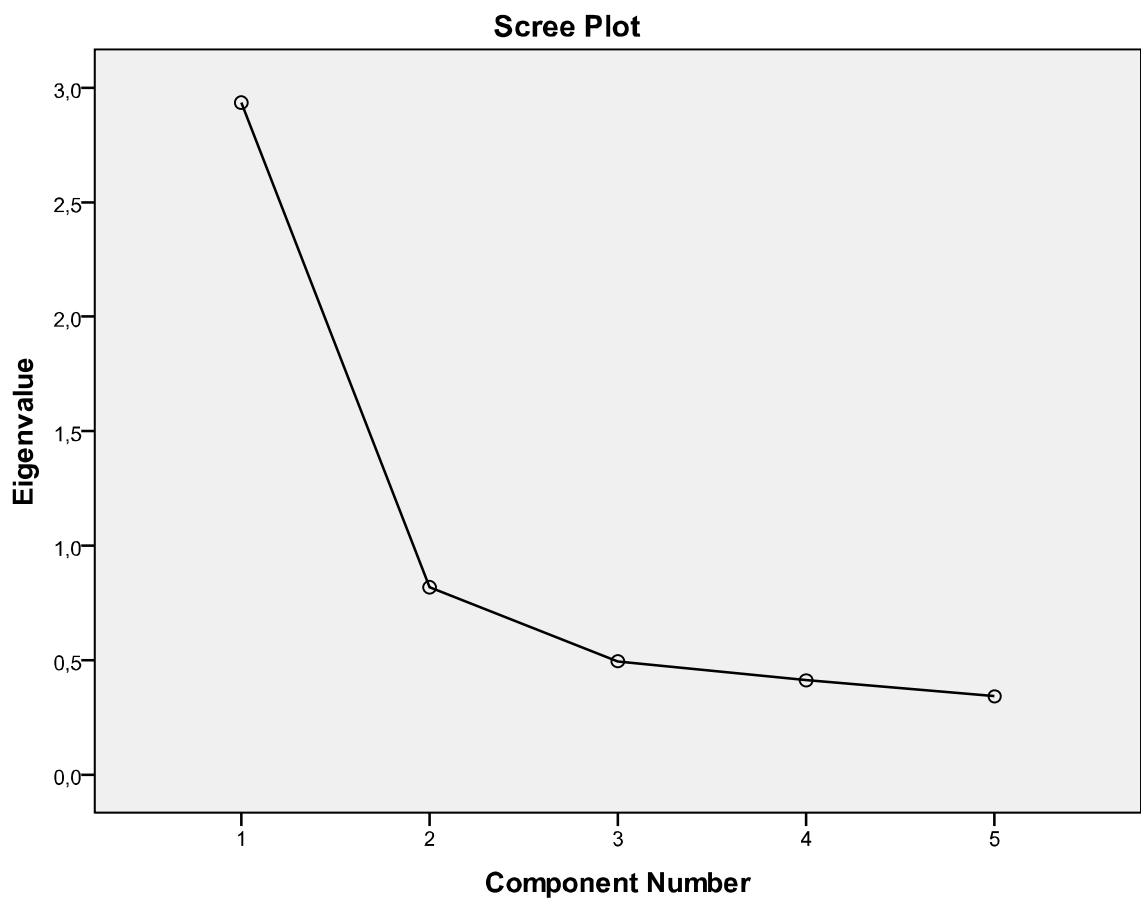


Figure 6.6 Scree Pilot Chart of Factor Analysis of Contextual Performance

Table 6.9 Factor and reliability analyses results of contextual performance scale

Factor	Questions	Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
Contextual Performance	1. I complete job duties with extra enthusiasm		
	2. I volunteer to complete extra tasks		
	3. I tend to help and cooperate with my colleagues without being asked	58,703	, 823
	4. I follow organizational rules and proper procedures		
	5. I endorse organizational rules		
Total :		58,703	
Kaiser, Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy:			, 791
Barlett's Test of Sphericity		Chi-Square:	352,141
		df:	10
		Sig:	, 000

6.4 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

The means, standard deviations and correlations related to all factors of dependent and independent variables of the study are presented on the below table.

Since the Pearson correlation coefficient analysis between P-O Fit (current) and the main concepts of this study indicated higher relationships (see Table 6.10) than between P-O fit (ideal) and the main concepts, the P-O Fit (current) was used in all of the statistical analyses.

Table 6.10 Means, standard deviations and correlations for all variables

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	1 POFC1	2 POFC2	3 POFC3	4 POFC4	5 POFI1	6 POFI2	7 POFI3	8 CTX	9 CLM1	10 CLM2	11 CLM3	12 ENG1	13 ENG2	14 EFFEC
1	23,830	5,644	1													
2	35,565	7,545	.755**	1												
3	21,870	4,315	.686**	.775**	1											
4	19,565	3,580	.724**	.715**	.665**	1										
5	50,655	4,779	.192**	.278**	.289**	.199**	1									
6	36,635	3,474	.152*	.150*	.082	.082	.651**	1								
7	18,450	1,915	.135	.234**	.169*	.194**	.712**	.640**	1							
8	12,790	1,823	.187**	.290**	.217**	.163*	.564**	.427**	.525**							
9	23,590	5,873	.695**	.693**	.548**	.556**	.172*	.112	.092	.520**	1					
10	17,490	4,107	.630**	.666**	.582**	.598**	.210**	.001	.111	.462**	.658**	1				
11	9,925	2,664	.171*	.287**	.289**	.174*	.054	-.052	.038	.185**	.050	.074	1			
12	41,870	10,724	.578**	.597**	.511**	.539**	.142*	.085	.133	.736**	.541**	.478**	.189**	1		
13	28,345	7,472	.513**	.482**	.469**	.444**	.143*	.026	.111	.678**	.464**	.478**	.099	.794**	1	
14	43,410	9,834	.610**	.735**	.611**	.674**	.261**	100	.225**	.521**	.673**	.755**	.171*	.549**	.473**	1

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Variables are represented: POFC1 (Fairness and reward), POFC2 (Team orientation and innovativeness), POFC3 (Competitiveness), POFC4 (Social Responsibility) - P-O Fit current; POFI1 (Reputation and responsibility), POFI2 (Safety and stability), POFI3 (Achievement orientation) - P-O Fit ideal; CTX - Contextual Performance; CLM1 (Communication), CLM2 (Formalization), CLM3 (Human Relations) - Organizational Climate; ENG1 (Vigorous dedication), ENG2 (Concentrated absorption) - Job Engagement; EFFEC - Organizational Effectiveness

The Table 6.10 presents the means, standard deviations and correlations of the factors of all variables. In general, all significant correlations were ranging from .185 ($p < .01$) to .794 ($p < .01$). On the table, it is seen that the first factor of P-O fit (current) (fairness and reward) is significantly ($p < .01$) correlated with the factors of contextual performance, organizational climate, job engagement and organizational effectiveness at $r = .543$, $r = .695$, $r = .630$, $r = .578$, $r = .513$, and $r = .610$. The second factor of P-O fit (current) (team orientation and innovativeness) is significantly ($p < .01$) correlated with the factors of contextual performance, organizational climate, job engagement and organizational effectiveness at $r = .290$, $r = .693$, $r = .666$, $r = .287$, $r = .597$, $r = .482$, $r = .735$. The third factor of P-O fit (current) (competitiveness) is significantly ($p < .01$) correlated with the factors of contextual performance, organizational climate, job engagement and organizational effectiveness at $r = .217$, $r = .548$, $r = .582$, $r = .289$, $r = .511$, $r = .469$, $r = .611$. The last factor of P-O fit (current) (social responsibility) is significantly ($p < .01$) correlated with the factors of contextual performance, organizational climate, job engagement and organizational effectiveness at $r = .556$, $r = .598$, $r = .539$, $r = .444$, $r = .674$. These findings support hypothesis 1, hypothesis 4 and hypothesis 5.

Contextual performance is significantly correlated with the factors of organizational climate, job engagement and organizational effectiveness at $r = .520$, $r = .462$, $r = .185$, $r = .736$, $r = .678$, $r = .521$ respectively. The results support hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 6. There are significant correlations between the factors of organizational climate and the factors of job engagement at $r = .541$, $r = .464$, $r = .478$, $r = .478$, $r = .189$ and between the factors of organizational climate and organizational effectiveness at $r = .755$.

Correlation table (see Table 6.10) shows that there are positive relationships between P-O fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness. This gave the answer of the first research question. RQ-1. What is the nature of the relationship between the concepts of P-O fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness?

The table also shows a positive and significant relationship between organizational climate and job engagement which answered the third research question. RQ-3. Does the organizational climate have an influence on the level of job engagement?

The last research problem RQ-4 was whether employees' engagement in their job tasks play a significant role in shaping the effectiveness of their organization. It is understood from the correlation table (see Table 6.10) that there are significant relationships between the factors of job engagement and organizational effectiveness at $r = .549$ and $r = .473$ and job engagement has positive influence on organizational effectiveness.

6.5 Regression Analyses

In order to analyze the relationship between the variables and moderating effect of organizational climate, multiple regression analyses were used in the study.

Table 6.11 Regression Analyses of Contextual Performance and P-O Fit, Organizational Climate

Dependent Variable: Contextual Performance			
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value
P-O Fit (Current)	,439	4,664	,000
Climate	,198	2,120	,035
ClimateMOD	-,081	-1,438	,152
R² = ,396; Adj.R² = ,387; F value = 2,068; p value = ,152			

As it is seen in the Table 6.11, sig. 0,152 and organizational climate did not moderate the relationship between P-O Fit and contextual performance. This finding did not confirm the third hypothesis of the study. Accordingly, H3 was rejected.

Hypothesis 3: Organizational climate will moderate the relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance.

Table 6.12 Regression Analyses of Organizational Effectiveness and P-O Fit (Current), Organizational Climate, Contextual Performance and Job Engagement

Dependent Variable: Effectiveness				
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value	zero-order
P-O Fit (Current)	,301	3,919	,000	,743
Climate	,491	6,719	,000	,777
Contextual P.	,015	,217	,829	,521
J.Engagement	,059	,868	,386	,546
R²= ,646; Adj.R²= ,639; F value= ,777; p value= ,461				

As it is seen in Table 6.12, P-O fit (current) explains organizational effectiveness 30,1% and organizational climate explains organizational effectiveness 49,1%. There is 74,3% relationship between P-O fit (current) and organizational effectiveness. There is 77.7% relationship between organizational climate and organizational effectiveness. Those values are also seen on the correlation table. The results mean that organizational climate and P-O fit (current) explain organizational effectiveness more than other variables.

Table 6.13 Regression Analyses of Organizational Effectiveness and Contextual Performance, Job Engagement

Dependent Variable: Effectiveness				
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value	zero-order
Contextual P.	,255	2 ,880	,004	,521
J.Engagement	,354	4,000	,000	,546
R²= ,326; Adj.R²= ,319; F value= 8.,297; p value= ,000				

Organizational effectiveness is highly significant with job engagement and contextual performance. Job engagement explains organizational effectiveness 35,4% and contextual performance explains organizational effectiveness 25,5%. Magnitudes are highly significant. In summary, as a result of correlation and regression analyses all hypotheses were accepted except hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between person-organization fit and contextual performance.

Hypothesis 2: Contextual performance will be positively associated with organizational effectiveness.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between P-O fit and organizational effectiveness.

Hypothesis 5: P-O fit will be positively related to job engagement.

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between contextual performance and job engagement.

The model was revised based on all the above findings and the revised model is below.

Revised Research Model

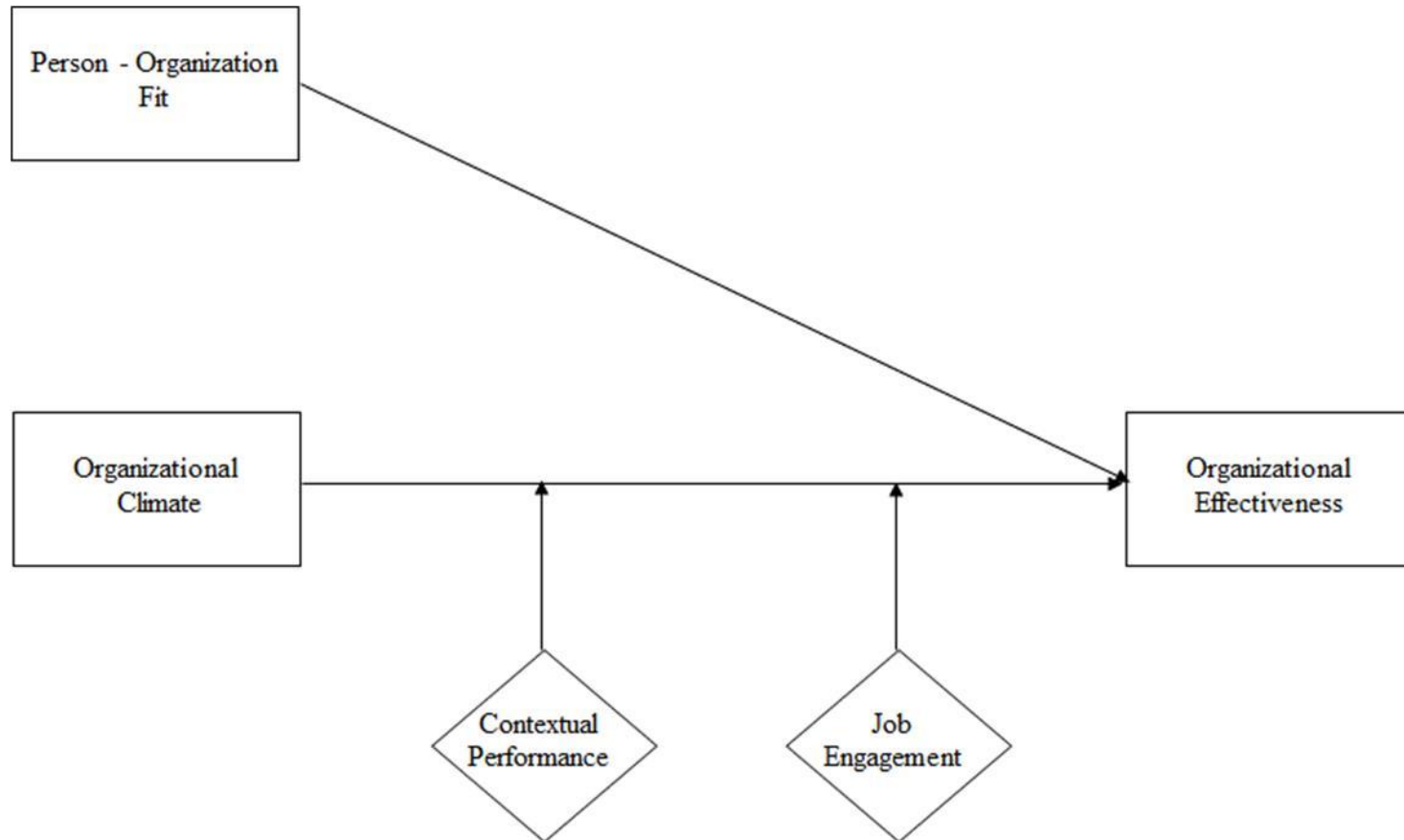


Figure 6.10 Revised Research Model

6.6 Regression Analyses of Revised Model

In order to analyze the relationship between the variables and moderating effect of job engagement and contextual performance, multiple regression analyses were used in the study.

Table 6.14 Regression Analyses of Organizational Effectiveness and Organizational Climate, Contextual Performance

Dependent Variable: Organizational Effectiveness			
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value
Climate	,691	12,844	,000
Contextual	,159	2,837	,005
ContextMOD	,097	2,086	,038
R²= ,622; Adj.R²= ,616; F value= 4,351; p value= ,038			

As it is seen on the Table 6.14, contextual performance effects organizational effectiveness at the rate of 9,7%. Organizational climate has very high effect on organizational effectiveness; 69,1%. Sig. Value is 0,038 and that means contextual performance significantly moderates the relationship between organizational climate and organizational effectiveness.

Table 6.15 Regression Analyses of Organizational Effectiveness and Organizational Climate, Jon Engagement

Dependent Variable: Organizational Effectiveness			
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value
Climate	,698	12,958	,000
Engagement	,157	2,878	,004
EngageMOD	,100	2,259	,025
R²= ,626; Adj.R²= ,620; F value= 5,103; p value= ,025			

Table 6.15 shows that job engagement moderates the relationship between organizational climate and organizational effectiveness. The findings also show that job engagement has more effect on the relationship than contextual performance.

Table 6.16 Regression Analyses of Organizational Effectiveness and P-O Fit(Current), Job Engagement

Dependent Variable: Organizational Effectiveness			
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value
POF(Current)	,663	10,992	,000
Engagement	,141	2,332	,021
EngageMOD	,054	1,128	,261
R²= ,566; Adj.R²= ,559; F value= 1,273; p value= ,261			

Table 6.16 shows that job engagement does not moderate the relationship between P-O fit and organizational effectiveness. However, the findings show that there is a highly significant relationship between P-O Fit and organizational effectiveness.

Table 6.17 Regression Analyses of Organizational Effectiveness and P-O Fit(Current),
Contextual Performance

Dependent Variable: Organizational Effectiveness			
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value
POF(Current)	,677	11,136	,000
Contx. Per.	,108	1,689	,093
CONTEXTUALMOD	,008	,152	,880
R²= ,559; Adj.R²= ,552; F value= ,023; p value= ,880			

Table 6.17 shows that contextual performance does not moderate the relationship between P-O fit and organizational effectiveness. However, the findings show that there is a highly significant relationship between P-O Fit and organizational effectiveness.

Table 6.18 Regression Analyses Organizational Effectiveness and Factors of P-O
Fit(Current)

Dependent Variable: Effectiveness				
Independent Variables:	β	t value	p value	zero-order
Fairness and Reward	-,007	-,094	,926	,610
Team Orientation and Innovativeness	,507	5,894	,000	,735
Competitiveness	,023	,300	,765	,611
Social Responsibility	,302	4,127	,000	,674
R²= ,585; Adj.R²= ,577; F value= 68,832; p value= ,000				

As it is shown in Table 6.18, the second and the fourth factors of P-O Fit (current) were accounted for the majority of the variance in the dependent variable of organizational effectiveness. This table shows the results for the second research question. RQ-2. Which dimensions of P-O fit do explain the majority variance in the dependent variable of organizational effectiveness?

6.7 The Relationship between Demographic Variables and the Main Concepts of the Study

Independent sample t-tests were conducted to determine if gender has any bearings on the main concept of the study. It is mostly known that women are more collaborative, affectionate and benevolent than men and more likely act preventing hurt. Gender socialization theory insisted that women are more relationship oriented compare to men. This theory is similar to the perspective of the social-role theory that states that men attach importance to success and woman attach importance to relationship. Farrell and Finkelstein (2007) pointed out that men are socialized to promote themselves whereas women are socialized to be modest in this regard.

Kong (2009) found differences in job engagement between males and females in the company. His study showed that women value more their jobs than men do. Some other researchers (Kahn, 1990; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004) suggested that job engagement is influenced by demographic variables and supported Kong's study result. Additionally, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) stated that there is a weak but ambiguous relationship between job engagement and gender.

However, it was found that there are no differences between the all variables of females and males, including no difference between job engagement of male and female employees in this study (see table 8.2). That finding was supported by Ariana (2013) who stated no differences between job engagement and gender.

Additionally, one-way anova analyses were performed to understand whether there is a relationship between the educational backgrounds, ages, tenure of the respondents and the main concepts of the study. No significant differences were found (see table 8.3). All the tables of the findings are available at the supplementary table section.

7. DISCUSSION

In this section of the study, the research interpreted and discussed. Limitations of the study, managerial implications, and suggestions for future research are also stated in this section.

It was mentioned that markets are very tough in today's world with technological changes are faster, product life cycles are much shorter and organizations are more competitive, even organizations have to compete with their own product which is called cannibalization. Organizations should be more flexible on diversity, faster on response time, customer focused oriented and change leader in this hypercompetitive business area to survive and increase organizational effectiveness (Miles et al, 1997; Volherda, 1996). Organizational effectiveness is important for organizations to understand how successful their mission and vision are applied through company procedures and to analyze weak points for improvement. Organizational performance measures the whole performance of business and it was focused on the performance and effectiveness of organizations in this study. Additionally, this study focused on contextual performance of individuals that contribute to culture and climate of organizations.

Organizational climate has a significant influence on organizational performance and has been analyzed from different perspectives for many years to be able to increase organizational effectiveness (Patapas, 2003). In strong organizational climates, employees have similar understandings of values, techniques, and possibilities of their organizations. As a result of those understandings, employees engage to the ethical values of the organization and they increase the quality of their services. That means stronger climate superior performance throughout the whole of organizations (Dickson et.al, 2006).

The purpose of this study was to understand the nature of the association between P-O fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness. It also aimed to examine the moderating role of organizational climate on the relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance. Furthermore, the study tested the influence of job engagement on P-O fit. Organizations need "qualified employees whose personalities fit with the overall culture of the organization" (Sutarjo, 2011). Person-organization research examines the

phenomenon of “hiring people not just for jobs but also for organizations” (Chatman, 1989, p.334). There is a positive relationship between working environments (supportive management, role-clarity, self-expression, job challenge, recognition, and contribution) and job engagement and this relationship positively effect organizational effectiveness. Organizational environment also is formed of organizational climate and improve organizational effectiveness as a result of employees high level of job engagement.

Statistical analysis of the study was started with the reliability analyses. Eventhough, reliabilities of factors were previously calculated by other scholars, they were rechecked because questionnaires were translated from English to Turkish and data sets could give different reliability results for each scale. Then, factor analyses were conducted for each variable. After that reliability analyses of the factors found were checked.

As a result of the factor analysis of P-O fit (current), four factors were found which is similar to Yahyagil’s (2005) research results. Five factors were found after P-O fit (ideal) factor analysis. Yahyagil (2005) and Yildirimbulut (2006) found six factors after factor analysis of P-O fit. The results are not consistent with those of O’Reily and his colleagues. It was usually found five factors of seven factors of OCP scale in the literature. None of the items were removed from this study after factor and reliability analyses of each factor.

Two dimensions were found after factor analysis of job engagement. This finding is not consistent with Schaufeli and his colleagues’ (2002) findings which have three dimensions. Two factors of Schaufeli and his colleagues’ research were loaded in one factor in this study and the factor was named as vigorous dedication. None of the items were removed from the study.

Uni-dimension was found after the factor analysis of organizational effectiveness and the result is not consistent with the literature review. It was mentioned about seven factors of the Malcolm Baldrige Criteria for Performance Excellence (CPE) in the literature review part of this study and five of them were evaluated for the study.

Finally, two dimensions of organizational climate were found after organizational climate factor analysis. The result is different than literature review results.

7.1 The Effect of Person-Organization Fit on Contextual Performance, Organizational Effectiveness and Job Engagement

It was found out that P-O fit is significantly correlated with contextual performance in this study. This means that when P-O fit exists, employees' contextual performance increases. This finding is supported by many reserachers in the literature. Downey et al, (1975), Tziner (1987), Bretz and Judge (1994) revealed a positive relationship between P-O fit and different performance types. Goodman and Svyantek (1999) stated a positive relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance. Han and his colleagues (2010) also found a positive assosiation between P-O fit and contextual performance and argued that P-O fit and P-J fit are important factors that may awaken employees' psychological ownership and then foster employee performance. Karakum (2005) examined that P-O fit has more effect on contextual performance than task performance.

In contrast, Morewitz (2009) found insignificant correlation between P-O fit and job performance. Prior meta-analytic studies have reported a moderate relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance but inconsistent relationships with task and overall performance (Arthur et al, 2006; Hoff man and Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al, 2005).

In this study, it was found that P-O fit is significantly related to organizational effectiveness. This means when the characteristics of employees fit with their organization, organizational effectiveness increases. This finding is supported by Zhu (2005); organizations achieve their organizational goals with high P-O fit and this high P-O fit leads high organizational performance. Tran and Sun (2008) also found that the manager's perceived fit has a positive relationship with their willingness to execute strategy. When employees' characteristics' fit to their organization, business performance of organizations increases. All these explain that having a P-O fit is an important aspect from both the organization and the individual perspectives.

The relationship between P-O fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness was explored in the study. It was already explained that there is a positive relationship between P-O fit, contextual performance and organizational effectiveness. It was also underlined that all the concepts of the study have positive effect on organizational effectiveness. However, it was found that influence of P-O fit (current) and organizational climate on organizational effectiveness were higher than the P-O fit (ideal) and other variables in this study. That means P-O fit (current) is already satisfactory for employees in their organizations which the study was applied. It is common to observe that the factors usually different in current and ideal culture profile scales. Yahyagil' (2005) and Liphin' (1999) studies are the examples. Also, it was examined the relationship between perceived organizational effectiveness and organizational climate and is consistent with works of many authors (e.g., Baltes, 2002; Nemeth, 1996; Ott, 1998, Patapas, 2003). Patterson, (1997) and West (1999) indicated that organizational climate predict organizational effectiveness, job satisfaction and performance, employee motivation, and organizational commitment

The results of the study also showed that there is a significant correlation between P-O fit and job engagement. This means that when individuals feel the fit between their personal values and organizational values, their engagement positively increases. The finding is reasonable and consistent with literature review results. Hamid and Yahya (2011) showed that P-O fit is significantly correlated with job engagement at the coefficient alpha of .00 and .01, respectively. P-O fit increases the level of individuals' job engagement. When there is congruence between the norms and values of employees and organizations, employees' positive, affective, motivational, fulfilling, work-related state of mind increases. The result supports the study of Schaufeli and Bakker (2003) who examined that when engaged employee's values and norms are met by the values and norms of the organizations they work for, employees are willingness to have more responsibilities on any other organizational activities out of their job. The opposite of this is difficult for employees to engage personally in performing work requirements when organizational values and personal values do not fit with each other. Therefore, employees are engaged to their jobs and do not intend to leave their organizations for other business opportunities (Kahn, 1990).

According to the Lewin's Field Theory, employees work environment affect employee's behaviors towards their jobs. When the employees perceive positive emotion with their work environment, they demonstrate positive behaviors towards business success. The fit between employees and jobs and organizations increase job engagement (Lewin, 1951).

7.2 Moderating Role of Organizational Climate on the Relationship between Person-Organization Fit and Contextual Performance

There are many scholars studied the relationship between P-O fit and other organizational outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, effectiveness, intention to quit, innovative climate etc. Innovative climate is difficult to maintain. First, it is difficult to set strong organizational climate because it takes time for employees to adapt to their organizational environments and then, it is difficult to keep the set of organizational climate because it is equal to keep the employees (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005; Scott and Bruce, 1994; Verquer et al, 2003; Wheeler et al, 2007). Lee and Wu (2011) found that P-O fit is positively related to an organization's innovative climate. In this study, it was also found highly significant and positive relationship between organizational climate and contextual performance and highly significant and positive relationship between organizational climate and P-O fit. However, in this study, it was not found a direct moderating role of organizational climate on the relationship between P-O fit and contextual performance as predicted at the proposed model of the study.

Although, there are theoretical arguments that climate should moderate the relationship because it would increase the importance of fitting with the practices, policies, and procedures of the strong situation, the current study did not support these arguments. This finding is also opposed to Rousseau, and Hunt (1995)'s finding that argued moderation role of organizational climate on the relationship between P-O fit and organizational performance. In fact, the results are consistent with other research that failed to find a moderating effect of climate on the relationship (Morewitz, 2009) and on person-environment constructs (e.g., Sinar, 2001).

The findings of the study showed that organizational climate is significantly and positively related to organizational effectiveness. Furthermore, contextual performance and job engagement fully moderates this relationship. The results also showed that job engagement has more variance on the relationship between organizational climate and organizational effectiveness than contextual performance. The finding is supported by Kataria and his colleagues (2013) and they found out that job engagement mediates the relationship between psychological climate and organizational effectiveness. Gelade and Gilbert (2007) and Patapas (2003) also showed positive relationships between organizational effectiveness and organizational climate.

7.3 The Relationship between Contextual Performance and Organizational Effectiveness, Job Engagement

In this study, it was found that contextual performance is significantly correlated with organizational effectiveness. This means that contextual performance is necessary for organizations to be successful in the long-term period. This result was supported by Hamidizadeh and his colleagues (2012) and they found that contextual performance has a positive and significant relationship with job satisfaction and it improves the organization's effectiveness by increasing interpersonal relationships and job dedication.

There are some other findings which confirm the result of this study. Both task and contextual performance are important and necessary in organizations (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999; Murphy and Shiarella, 1997). Overall job performance are influenced by behaviors (Borman et.al., 1995; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; 1996) and related to organizational effectiveness (Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997). Task performance is strongly correlated with contextual performance (De Corte, 1999; De Corte et al, 2007; Hattrup et al, 1997). The same was said for the dimensions of job performance include counterproductive behavior, adaptability, and effectiveness in multicultural environments.

The results showed that there is a significant and positive relationship between contextual performance and job engagement in the study. This finding is supported by many researchers. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) found a positive relationship between job engagement and contextual performance. Hakanen, Baker, and Schaufeli (2006) and Sonnentag (2003) found that job engagement increased job performance. Job engagement had impact on business performance (Harris, 2006), financial performance, organizational success (Demerouti and Bakker, 2006; Harter et al, 2002, Richman, 2006; Lockwood, 2007), in-role performance (Bakker et al, 2004), willingness to do extra-role performance (Bakker et al, 2004 and Schaufeli et al, 2006), organizational success (Harter et al, 2002), employees productivity (Bhatnagar, 2007; Buckingham and Coffman, 1999).

In summary, researchers discussed that engagement is a motivational variable that increase the levels of job performance (Kahn, 1990; Rich, Lepine, and Crawford, 2010; Christian, Garza, and Slaughter, 2011). In contrast, Kahn (1990) found no relationship between job engagement and job performance. He mentioned that disengaged employees are not energetic in their jobs and they perform less in their daily task activities.

There are some other empirical researches that have reported relationships between engagement and other work outcomes. They found a positive relationship between job engagement and organizational commitment and negative relationship between job engagement and intention to quit (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Sonnentag, 2003). Borman and Motowild's (1993) study underlined that contextual performance consists both of organizational citizenship behaviors and prosocial work behaviors. Saks (2006) found a positive relationship between job engagement and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior and a negative relationship with intention to quit. He also emphasized that engagement is the degree to which an individual is attenuate and absorbed in the performance of their roles.

Job engagement concept focuses on work performed at jobs and represents the willingness to do dedicated physical, cognitive, and emotional resources to this work. Employees' contextual performance is increased when they feel energetic in their work roles. Job engagement shows how individuals are enthusiastic to expend discretionary effort in their

jobs. Well engaged employees are more energetic, ambitious and motivated in their jobs, follow extra work activities out of their responsibilities and perform high level of in-role and extra-role behaviors by performing their tasks efficiently (Christian et al, 2011).

7.4 The Relationship between Job Engagement and Organizational Climate, Organizational Effectiveness

A positive and significant relationship between organizational climate and job engagement was found in the study. This result implies that the employees who experience and operate in a supportive climate might possibly lead higher level of job engagement. This result is also supported by Hughes and his colleagues (2008) who indicated a significant and positive relationship between supportive organizational climate and engagement. It was expected that strong climates would provide clearly defined roles, procedures, and practices, and consequently individuals who fit in with these expectations would be more likely to be committed to the organization and successfully perform on the job. In other words, the highest ratings of organizational commitment and ratings of job performance would be for individuals experiencing high P-O fit in strong organizational climates.

Further, several studies have stated a positive relationship between organizational climate and high level of job engagement (Hakanen et al, 2006; and Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). According to Brown and Leigh (1996), positive psychological climate creates engagement-friendly psychological conditions whereby individuals are more likely to invest greater efforts, time and energy in work.

It was found that engagement in employees' job tasks play a significant role in shaping the effectiveness of their organizations in this study. It is understood that job engagement has positive influence on organizational effectiveness. The employees, who were engaged in their job tasks, were likely to gain positive psychological experiences. This finding is supported by some researchers. They demonstrated that engaged employees work harder and are more committed to achieve task proficiency. Engaged employees indirectly increase group performance (Bakker, 2011), which has an impact on achieving organizational goals. In this connection, engagement is know as a key concept for

organizational success and performance, and viewed as a vital element in improving organizational effectiveness (Cameron et al, 2011; and Welch, 2011).

Some researchers found positive relationships between job engagement and organizational performance outcomes such as employee retention, productivity, and profitability etc. Organizational commitment and OCB are predicted by job engagement and disengagement may cause to intention to leave (Bhatnagar and Biswas, 2010).

Similarly, Wollard and Shuck (2011) stated that increase in job engagement influences the psychological climate of an organization positively. Specifically, engaged employees have positive feelings (Bindl and Parker, 2010; and Bakker et al, 2011), which lead to the positive activities in organizations like helping behavior, and create an upward spiral of positive emotions (Cameron et al, 2003). The positive gain spiral of constructive emotions increases employees' pride in organization, work pleasure and job satisfaction which is essential inputs to the managerial success and organizational excellence (Fineman, 1996; and Cameron et al, 2003). Harter and his colleagues (2003) found that engaged workforce increased financial profit, Luthans and Peterson (2001) that engaged workforce increased managerial effectiveness and Harter and his colleagues (2002) that engaged workforce increased greater business performance.

Employees, when they engaged, will be more likely to create a social context that is conducive to teamwork, helping, voice, and other discretionary behaviors that can lend to organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff, Whitting, Podsakoff, and Blume, 2004).

7.5 Limitations of the Study

First limitation of the study comes from its sample size. Sample of the study consisted of only three organizations and their part of employees. The employees were asked to participate voluntarily to the study. That means, not all the employees of the organizations answered the questionnaire. Since the sample size was small, generability of the results were limited.

Another limitation is the application of the questionnaire in three organizations and that caused to have a heterogeneous sample group of people that work in different companies with different organizational climates, in different sectors. Thus, the results cannot be generalized to the single industry settings. Therefore, the study might be replicated in a specific sector.

The last limitation of the study is the recent rumor about a potential economical crisis will be occurred in the following months in the world. With this negative psychological atmosphere, employees who filled out the questionnaires are more sensitive about their jobs recently and this may affected the results of the study.

7.6 Managerial Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

Organizations operate in a very active and highly growing environment. Those organizations need employees who can easily adapt to the changing environment. P-O fit that is fit of employees' characteristics with the culture of organizations is much more important than job specifications. P-O fit defined as "compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when at least one entity provides what the other needs or they share similar fundamental characteristics or both" (Kristof-Brown, and et. al. 2005, p.281). Focusing on both the employees' personalities, values, goals, and behaviors and the climate, values, norms and goals of the organization elevate overall organizational performance. Therefore, P-O fit started to become a popular topic not only for researchers but also for managers in today's world. Human resource managers should use P-O fit analyses to select the right individual on the right job (Yahyagil, 2006). Managers can promote higher levels of P-O fit and create positive outcomes both for their employees and organizations. It is suggested for managers that high levels of P-O fit should be implemented during the early stages of an organization's life cycle.

The organizational culture profile is an important instrument which measures the fit between employees' and organizations' characteristics. The organizational culture profile is a multipurpose instrument that managers can use to evaluate their current culture profile and to modify their exisiting change and strategic management plans accordingly.

Managers can also use it to compare subcultures within the same organization or to determine culture fit prior to a merger. Managers should analyze their existing cultural values and organize how to improve these values for influencing qualified employees (Boxx et.al.; 1991). It should be undertaken to create congruence between organization and the employees in order to encourage job engagement and organizational effectiveness.

Organizational climate is a concept related to the work atmosphere of the organization and is shaped by practices, techniques and methods which the organization and its employees follow up. Organizational climate is much more important contributor to organizational performance and overall organizational effectiveness. Psychological research has showed that if organizational climate is characterized by trust, well communication, personal sympathy, and clear goals, the organizational effectiveness will be improved (Mumford, 1988; Amabile, 1988). Patapas (2003) also found significant correlations between perceived organizational effectiveness and organizational climate. Accordingly, managers should pay attention to the climate of their organizations. Human resources managers should also consider about the outcomes of different variables and may find a practical use in the assessment of the fit between organizational culture and climate prior to the use of P-O fit analyses (Yahyagil, 2006).

Due to the strong associations between organizational climate and organizational performance, both researchers and managers keep going on deeply concerned about the concept. However, some researchers believe that the process of identifying organizational climate does not really help to answer some very important questions concerning the relationship between organizational climate and effectiveness: What really makes an organization “effective”? Would improving organizational climate increase organizational effectiveness? (Ott, 1998).

The future research may focus on other fit domains such as person-group fit, person-vocation fit and person-person fit, person-supervisor fit. Focusing on these aspects could open new and interesting perspectives. Future research also should focus on a large sample size which would give opportunity to generalize the results. Additionally, specific sectors can be chosen to compare between the organizations reflecting sector characteristics.

8. SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

8.1 Paired Samples t-Test

A paired sample t-test is used to determine whether there is a significant difference between the average values of the same measurement made under two different conditions. In this study, the purpose of the paired samples t-test is to understand what the current situation of person organization fit is and what the required is. Table 8.1 shows the results.

Table 8.1 Paired samples test results of P-O fit current and P-O fit ideal

		Mean	Standard Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Item1	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,75	0,95	,000
Item2	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,89	1,00	,000
Item3	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,98	0,95	,000
Item4	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,93	1,11	,000
Item5	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,90	1,07	,000
Item6	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,95	1,03	,000
Item7	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,18	1,13	,000
Item8	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,40	1,16	,000
Item9	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,75	1,16	,000
Item10	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,09	1,17	,000
Item11	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,86	1,12	,000
Item12	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,91	1,05	,000
Item13	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,55	1,12	,000
Item14	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,48	1,22	,000
Item15	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,80	1,21	,000

Item16	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,98	1,06	,000
Item17	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,35	1,25	,000
Item18	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,74	1,09	,000
Item19	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,01	0,95	,000
Item20	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,08	0,94	,000
Item21	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,73	0,94	,000
Item22	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,91	1,04	,000
Item23	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,47	0,96	,000
Item24	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,65	0,92	,000
Item25	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,80	1,04	,000
Item26	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,93	1,17	,000
Item27	POF Current - POF Ideal	-0,71	1,06	,000
Item28	POF Current - POF Ideal	-1,14	1,24	,000

8.2 Independent Samples t-Test

An independent-sample t-test is used to determine whether there is a significant difference between gender and variables.

Table 8.2 Independent-samples t-test results of gender and variables

		N	Mean	Std Deviation	t value	p value
P-O Fit (Current)	Female	85	99,6	21,30	- , 791	, 430
	Male	115	101,73	16,92		
Contextual Performance	Female	85	23,61	4,85	, 911	, 363
	Male	115	23,01	4,32		
Organizational Effectiveness	Female	85	43,28	10,69	- , 157	, 875
	Male	115	43,50	9,19		
Job Engagement	Female	85	70,04	18,6	- , 118	, 906
	Male	115	70,33	16,28		
Organizational Climate	Female	85	50,29	10,62	- , 894	, 372
	Male	115	51,53	8,85		

8.3 One-Way ANOVA

Variable: P-O Fit (current), Contextual Performance, Job Engagaement, Organizational Effectiveness, Organizational Climate

Factor: Total Tenure

Table 8.3 Test of Homogeneity of Variances – Total Tenure

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
P-O Fit (Current)	,029	3	196	,993
Contextual	3,507	3	196	,016
Engagement	1,236	3	196	,298
Effectiveness	1,332	3	196	,265
Climate	,516	3	196	,672

Table 8.4 ANOVA Test Results– Total Tenure

		N	Mean	F value	P value
P-O Fit (Current)	0-5 years	47	105,45	3,197	, 025
	6-10 years	70	95,90		
	11-15 years	37	99,89		
	16 ⁺ years	46	104,37		
Contextual Performance	0-5 years	47	23,38	3,305	, 021
	6-10 years	70	22,00		
	11-15 years	37	24,14		
	16 ⁺ years	46	24,39		
Job Engagement	0-5 years	47	68,87	2,998	, 032
	6-10 years	70	66,34		
	11-15 years	37	75,59		
	16 ⁺ years	46	73,15		
Organizational Effectiveness	0-5 years	47	44,38	411 ,	, 745
	6-10 years	70	42,43		
	11-15 years	37	43,86		
	16 ⁺ years	46	43,54		
Organizational Climate	0-5 years	47	53,02	3,508	, 016
	6-10 years	70	48,17		
	11-15 years	37	51,27		
	16 ⁺ years	46	53,04		

Table 8.5 Scheffe Results – P-O Fit (Current)

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
0-5 years	2	9,547	3,505	, 063
	3	5,555	4,084	, 605
	4	1,077	3,854	, 994
6-10 years	1	– 9,547	3,505	, 063
	3	– 3,992	3,777	, 773
	4	– 8,470	3,527	, 127
11-15 years	1	– 5,555	4,084	, 605
	2	3,992	3,777	, 773
	4	– 4,478	4,104	, 755
16+ years	1	– 1,077	3,854	, 994
	2	8,470	3,527	, 127
	3	, 4,478	4,104	, 755

Table 8.6 Scheffe Results – Contextual Performance

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
0-5 years	2	1,382	, 845	, 446
	3	–, 752	, 985	, 900
	4	– 1,008	, 929	759
6-10 years	1	– 1,383	, 845	, 446
	3	– 2,135	, 911	, 143
	4	– 2,391	, 850	, 051
11-15 years	1	, 752	, 985	, 900
	2	2,135	, 911	, 143
	4	–, 256	, 989	, 995
16+ years	1	1,008	, 929	759
	2	2,391	, 850	, 051
	3	, 256	, 989	, 995

Table 8.7 Scheffe Results – Job Engagement

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
0-5 years	2	2,529	3,208	, 891
	3	– 6,722	3,738	, 360
	4	– 4,280	3,528	, 689
6-10 years	1	– 2,529	3,208	, 891
	3	– 9,252	3,457	, 070
	4	– 6,809	3,228	, 220
11-15 years	1	6,722	3,738	, 360
	2	9,252	3,457	, 070
	4	2,442	3,756	, 935
16+ years	1	4,280	3,528	689
	2	6,809	3,228	, 220
	3	– 2,442	3,756	, 935

Table 8.8 Scheffe Results– Organizational Climate

	Total Tenure	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
0-5 years	2	4,850	1,789	, 065
	3	1,751	2,0850	, 872
	4	–, 222	1,967	1,000
6-10 years	1	– 4,850	1,789	, 065
	3	– 3,099	1,928	, 462
	4	– 4,872	1,800	, 066
11-15 years	1	– 1,751	2,085	, 872
	2	3,099	1,928	, 462
	4	– 1,773	2,095	, 869
16+ years	1	, 022	1,967	1,000
	2	4,872	1,800	, 066
	3	– 1,773	2,095	, 869

Variable: P-O Fit (current), Contextual Performance, Job Engagaement, Organizational Effectiveness, Organizational Climate

Factor: Tenure in the current organization

Table 8.9 Test of Homogeneity of Variances - Tenure in the current organization

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
P-O Fit(Current)	,324	2	197	,724
Contextual	,293	2	197	,746
Engagement	,290	2	197	,749
Effectiveness	,503	2	197	,605
Climate	,100	2	197	,905

Table 8.10 ANOVA Test Results– Total Tenure

		N	Mean	F value	P value
P-O Fit (Current)	1-3 years	97	102,01	, 419	, 658
	4-6 years	33	100,61		
	7 ⁺ years	70	99,30		
Contextual Performance	1-3 years	97	22,96	, 986	, 375
	4-6 years	33	22,88		
	7 ⁺ years	70	23,89		
Job Engagement	1-3 years	97	69,63	, 109	, 897
	4-6 years	33	70,64		
	7 ⁺ years	70	70,83		
Organizational Effectiveness	1-3 years	97	44,55	1,262	, 285
	4-6 years	33	42,27		
	7 ⁺ years	70	42,37		
Organizational Climate	1-3 years	97	50,98	, 001	, 999
	4-6 years	33	51,03		
	7 ⁺ years	70	51,03		

8.4 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of the Pilot Study

The means, standard deviations and correlations related to all factors of dependent and independent variables of the pilot study is below.

Table 8.11 Means, standard deviations and correlations for all variables of the pilot study

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	1 POFC1	2 POFC2	3 POFC3	4 POFC4	5 POFC5	6 POFC6	7 POFC7	8 POCI1	9 POCI2	10 POCI3	11 POCI4	12 POCI5	13 POCI6	14 CNTX	15 CLM1	16 CLM2	17 CLM3	18 ENGI	19 ENG2	20 ENG3	21 EFF1	22 EFF2
1	30,140	5,555	1																					
2	19,840	3,513	.745**	1																				
3	10,940	2,385	.557**	.608**	1																			
4	8,040	1,653	.648**	.651**	.560**	1																		
5	13,400	1,443	.515**	.573**	.369**	.541**	1																	
6	11,280	1,703	.356*	.291*	.185	.409**	.261	1																
7	7,900	1,403	.664**	.502**	.480**	.582**	.443**	.405**	1															
8	32,420	3,970	.207	.419**	.177	.364**	.376**	.209	.301*	1														
9	41,560	4,390	.277	.306*	.225	.343*	.309*	.216	.400**	.703*	1													
10	17,340	2,811	.155	.082	.091	.392**	.061	.572**	.195	.444*	.561**	1												
11	13,000	1,917	.213	.267	.388**	.432**	.125	.188	.372**	.587**	.509**	.356*	1											
12	9,340	1,099	-.115	-.107	-.140	-.120	-.036	.373**	.036	.364**	.556**	.602**	.165	1										
13	8,720	1,356	.246	.466**	.228	.406**	.371**	.211	.253	.481**	.541**	.299**	.369**	.188	1									
14	24,620	3,817	.362**	.449**	.419**	.575**	.302*	.224	.423**	.240	.158	.241	.346*	-.231	.291*	1								
15	24,580	5,425	.568**	.369**	.422**	.498**	.186	.442**	.517**	-.039	.181	.299**	.171	-.017	.103	.429**	1							
16	23,620	3,763	.612**	.548**	.516**	.419**	.420**	.144	.329*	.156	.138	-.078	.127	-.220	.151	.371**	.493**	1						
17	2,880	1,380	.213	.228	.345**	.333*	.107	-.011	.268	.062	.119	-.79	.309*	-.282	.014	.154	.067	.081	1					
18	21,920	4,763	.523**	.424**	.416**	.646**	.406**	.249	.496**	.167	.193	.194	.373**	-.182	.325*	.701**	.563**	.461**	.135	1				
19	28,680	7,792	.448**	.394**	.378**	.519**	.337*	.135	.312*	.231	.055	.171	.405**	-.268	.173	.641**	.343**	.371**	.141	.814**	1			
20	22,340	4,627	.527**	.445**	.473**	.561**	.456**	.200	.247	.220	.106	.149	.299*	-.296*	.266	.499**	.371	.533**	.154	.811**	.788**	1		
21	27,460	5,144	.699**	.611**	.515**	.600**	.511**	.253	.425**	.195	.214	.160	.151	-.230	.271	.408**	.581**	.710**	.120	.538**	.527**	.666**	1	
22	19,980	3,133	.236	.398**	.194	.264	.467**	.070	.222	.293*	.301	.017	.092	.002	.234	.156	.278	.519**	.037	.210	.229	.297*	.601**	1

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Variables are represented: POFC1, POFC2, POFC3, POFC4, POFC5, POFC6, POFC7 - P-O Fit current; POFI1, POFI2, POFI3, POFI4,, POFI5, POFI6 - P-O Fit ideal; CNTX - Contextual Peformance, CLM1, CLM2, CLM3 - Organizational Climate, ENG1, ENG2, ENG3 - Job Engagement, EFF1, EFF2 - Organizational Effectiveness

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Person-Organization Fit Questionnaire

Aşağıda yer alan ifadeler genel olarak işletmelerin faaliyetlerini yürütürken dikkat ettiği öncelikleri, özellikleriyle ilgilidir. Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatle okuyup, **ÖNCE çalıştığınız iş yerinin** niteliklerini dikkate alarak **birinci sütuna**; daha **SONRA** da **aynı ifade** için ancak, bu kez **idealinizdeki işyerini** düşünerek değerlendirmenizi **ikinci sütunda** (X) harfiyle işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

	Halen çalıştığınız işyerini ve orada çalışanları nasıl tanımlıyor.					İdealinizdeki işyerini ve orada çalışanları nasıl tanımlıyor.				
	Çok İyi	İyi	Biraz	Pek Az	Hiç	Çok İyi	İyi	Biraz	Pek Az	Hiç
1. Dengelidir.										
2. Yenilikçidir.										
3. Fırsatlardan çabuk faydalanır.										
4. Risk alır.										
5. Takım çalışmasına önem verir.										
6. Bilgiyi serbestçe paylaşır.										
7. İnsana önem verir.										
8. Adildir.										
9. Sakindir.										
10. Düşüncelidir.										
11. Başarıya önem verir.										
12. Bireysel sorumluluk alır.										
13. Performansa yönelik yüksek beklentileri vardır.										
14. Profesyonel gelişim için fırsatlar yaratır.										
15. İyi performansa yüksek ücret verir.										
16. İş güvencesi sunar.										
17. İyi performansı över.										
18. Fikir ayrılıklarını düşük düzeyde tutar.										
19. İşbirliği içinde çalışır.										
20. İşini hevesle yapar.										
21. Kaliteye önem verir.										
22. Diğerlerinden farklıdır.										
23. Saygın bir üne sahiptir.										
24. Sorumluluk sahibidir.										

25. Sonuç odaklıdır.										
26. Belirgin bir yönlendirici felsefesi vardır.										
27. Rekabetçidir.										
28. Son derece organize dir.										

APPENDIX B: Contextual Performance Questionnaire

Aşağıda işinizin çeşitli yönleri ile ilgili olarak verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz en uygun gördüğünüz ifadeyi ölçek üzerine X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Her zaman	Çok Sık	Sıklıkla	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
1. Kendi işlerimi yaparken büyük bir heves ve garet içerisindeyim.						
2. Kendi işimin bir parçası olmayan işleri de yapmakta gönüllü olmaktadır.						
3. Gerektiğinde çalışmak arkadaşlarıma yardım etmekte ve onlarla işbirliği içerisinde çalışmaktayım.						
4. Kurum kurallarını ve prsedürlerini onaylamakta ve bunlara uyum göstermekteyim.						
5. Kurum hedeflerini onaylamakta, savunmakta ve desteklemekteyim.						

APPENDIX C: Organizational Climate Questionnaire

Aşağıda şirketinizin çeşitli yönleri ile ilgili olarak verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve en uygun gördüğünüz ifadeyi ölçek üzerine X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Çok Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Az Katılıyorum	Çok Az Katılıyorum	Hiç Katılmıyorum
1. Çalışanlar kendi işlerini yaparken gerektiğinde, bir şekilde destek alabilmektedir.						
2. Bürokratik formaliteler mümkün olan en az düzeydedir.						
3. Üst yönetim, tüm çalışanların yaptıkları işle ilgili olarak karar alma sürecine katılmalarını istemektedir.						
4. Çalıştığım kurum, genelde iş faaliyetlerini sürdürürken risk almaktan kaçınmaktadır.						
5. Çalışanlar, iş alışına ilişkin olarak istedikleri bilgiye kolaylıkla ulaşabilmektedir.						
6. Çalışanlar arasında karşılıklı güvene dayalı ılımlı bir ilişki vardır.						
7. Genel olarak iş faaliyetleri rutin bir nitelik taşımaktadır.						
8. İşlerin yürütülmesinde çalışanlar arasında bir takım ruhu olduğu söylenemez.						
9. İş faaliyetlerinin yürütülmesinde kurallar ve standartlara mutlaka uyulması beklenir.						
10. Ödüllendirme mekanizamasında çalışanların performansı temel kriter olarak alınıp, değerlendirilmektedir.						
11. Çalıştığım kurum genelde, yenilikçi ola düşünce, teknoloji ve uygulamalara açıktır.						
12. Çalışanlar kendi işlerini planlama ve yürütmekte belli bir serbestiye sahiptir.						
13. İşletmenin tüm bölümleri ve çalışanlar arasında açık ve olumlu bir iletişim vardır						

APPENDIX D: Job Engagement Questionnaire

Aşağıda işinizin çeşitli yönleri ile ilgili olarak verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz en uygun gördüğünüz ifadeyi ölçek üzerine (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Her zaman	Çok Sık	Sıklıkla	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
1. İşimde enerjiyle dolup taşıtığımı hissedirim.						
2. Yaptığım işi anlam ve amaç dolu bulurum.						
3. Çalışırken zamanın nasıl geçtiğini anlamam.						
4. İşimde kendimi güçlü ve gayretli hissedirim.						
5. İşim bana heyecan verir.						
6. Çalışırken etrafımdaki her şeyi unuturum.						
7. İşim bana ilham verir.						
8. Sabah uyandığımda işe gidesim gelir.						
9. Yoğun bir şekilde çalıştığımda kendimi mutlu hissedirim.						
10. Yaptığım işle gurur duyarım.						
11. Çalışırken kendimi işime kaptırırım.						
12. Çok uzun süre çalışmaya devam edebilirim.						
13. İşimi oldukça ilgi çekici bulurum.						
14. Çalışırken işim beni alır götürür.						
15. İşimde zihinsel açıdan oldukça esneğim.						
16. Çalışırken işten başka bir şey düşünmem.						
17. Her şey yolunda gitmese bile işimde her zaman sebat ederim.						

APPENDIX E: Organizational Effectiveness Questionnaire

Aşağıda şirketinizin çeşitli yönleri ile ilgili olarak verilen ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve en uygun gördüğünüz ifadeyi ölçek üzerine X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyor	Çok Katılıyor	Katılıyor	Az Katılıyor	Çok Az Katılıyor	Hiç Katılmıyorum
1. Üst yönetimimiz geleceği düşünerek, şirket amaçlarını doğru yönlendirmektedir.						
2. Üst yönetim ‘kalite’ anlayışına çok önem vermektedir.						
3. Şirketimizin önümüzdeki beş yıl için stratejik planı hazırdır.						
4. Şirketimiz çalışanları kurumun stratejik amaçlarını kavramışlardır.						
5. Şirketimizin varoluş nedeni müşterilerimizdir.						
6. Şirket kararlarımızı belirlerken, müşterilerimizin düşüncelerini dikkate alırız.						
7. Şirketimiz, yüksek bir potansiyele ulaşabilmeleri için çalışanlarını yetiştirmektedir.						
8. Şirketimiz, çalışanların değerlendirilmesinde adil ve doğru bir prosedür kullanmaktadır.						
9. Şirketimizin finansal performansı diğer şirketlerden daha iyidir.						
10. Kurum imajımız diğer işletmelerden daha iyidir.						