

PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT, SOCIAL EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIPS,
AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES IN ORGANIZATIONS

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AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES IN ORGANIZATIONS

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Dissertation Abstract

Ceyda Maden, “Person-Environment Fit, Social Exchange Relationships, and Employee Outcomes in Organizations”

With an integrative outlook, this study examines the effects of employees’ fit with their organizations, fit with their jobs, and fit with their supervisors on their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions by paying special attention to the change in the form and strength of these relationships under different levels of perceived organizational support (POS) and leader-member exchange (LMX) quality.

Hypothesized relationships are examined with a preliminary qualitative study, which consists of three focus groups and three interviews, and a quantitative research that comprises a survey. Data are collected from 213 employees who work in five different banks operating in Istanbul, Turkey and hypothesized relationships are analyzed with structural equation modeling procedure in AMOS18.

The primary finding of the study is that among three fit types, person-job fit, significantly affect employees’ job involvement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. The results also indicate that job fit – organizational commitment relationship is moderated by employees’ support perceptions in such a way that the effect of job fit on commitment is significant only for those employees with lower organizational support perceptions. Another prominent finding is that the effect of person-supervisor fit on employees’ turnover intentions is conditional, as this fit type decreases turnover intents only when employees perceive higher support from their organizations and have higher quality relationships with their leaders. Similarly, the relationship between employees’ organization fit and organizational commitment is moderated by their leader-member exchange relationships such that organization fit influences commitment only when employees have high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors.

Tez Özeti

Ceyda Maden, “Kurumlarda Kişi-Çevre Uyumu, Sosyal Değişimler ve Çalışanlar Açısından Sonuçları”

Bu çalışma, bütünleştirici bir bakış açısı ile, çalışanların kurumlarıyla, yaptıkları işle, ve yöneticileriyle olan uyumlarının iş tatminleri, kurumlarına bağlılıkları, ve işten ayrılma eğilimleri üzerindeki etkilerini incelemekte ve özellikle, bu etkilerin kurumdan alınan destek algısı ve lider-üye etkileşim seviyesine göre nasıl farklılık gösterdiği üzerinde durmaktadır.

Öne sürülen ilişkilerin incelenmesi, üç odak grup çalışması ve üç mülakattan oluşan nitel bir çalışmadan sonra verilerin anket üzerinden toplandığı nicel bir araştırmayla yapılmıştır. Anketler, İstanbul’da faaliyet gösteren beş farklı bankada, 213 çalışan üzerinde uygulanmıştır. Öne sürülen varsayımların testi ise AMOS18 programı kullanılarak, yapısal eşitlik modellemesi yoluyla yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın ana bulgusu, farklı uyum boyutları incelendiğinde, çalışanların işleriyle olan uyumlarının işle bütünleşme ve işten alınan tatmin seviyelerini ve işten ayrılma eğilimlerini önemli ölçüde etkilediği yönündedir. Sonuçlar ayrıca, işle uyum ile kuruma duyulan bağlılık arasındaki ilişkinin kurumdan alınan destek algısı ile düzenlendiğini göstermektedir. Buna göre işle uyum ve kuruma duyulan bağlılık arasındaki ilişki sadece kurumlarından az destek gördüklerini düşünen çalışanlar için geçerlidir. Bir başka önemli bulgu da çalışanların yöneticileriyle olan uyumları ile işten ayrılma eğilimleri arasındaki ilişkinin koşullara bağlı şekillendiği; yöneticiyle uyumun işten ayrılma eğilimini kurumdan alınan destek algısı ve lider-üye etkileşim seviyesinin yüksek olduğu durumlarda etkilediği yönündedir. Buna benzer olarak, çalışanların kurumlarıyla olan uyumlarının kuruma bağlılık seviyelerini sadece lider-üye etkileşim seviyelerinin yüksek olduğu durumlarda etkilediği bulunmuştur.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Terminology	Abbreviation
Attraction-Selection-Attrition	ASA
Average Variance Extracted	AVE
Comparative Emphasis Scale	CES
Comparative Fit Index	CFI
Confirmatory Factor Analysis	CFA
Goodness of Fit Index	GFI
Job Descriptive Index	JDI
Job Satisfaction Survey	JSS
Knowledge, Skills, Abilities	KSAs
Leader-Member Exchange	LMX
LMX Multidimensional	LMXMDM
Minnesota Importance Questionnaire	MIQ
Minnesota Job Description Questionnaire	MJDQ
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire	MSQ
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	OCB
Organizational Culture Profile	OCP
Perceived Organizational Support	POS
Person-Group	P-G
Person-Job	P-J
Person-Organization	P-O
Person-Supervisor	P-S
Person-Vocation	P-V
Root Mean-Square Residual	RMR
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA
Theory of Work Adjustment	TWA
Work Values Survey	WVS

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The match between the characteristics of individuals and their respective work environments, which is commonly referred as person-environment (P-E) fit, is one of the prominent topics in organizational behavior research since it relates to various notable outcomes at different phases of the individuals' work life cycles. To illustrate, in the early stages of their career routes, individuals seek and choose those occupations, which are compatible with their self-concepts as well as their primary interests (e.g., Parsons, 1909; Super, 1953; Holland, 1985). Similarly, in the course of job search and selection processes, applicants choose between available alternatives according to their perceived fit with certain jobs and organizations (Cable & Judge, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1992). In the long term, individuals' fit with different aspects of the work environment influence numerous attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, ranging from job satisfaction to turnover intentions and actual quitting behavior (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Chatman, 1991).

As briefly revealed in the above discussion, fit with a particular work environment (P-E fit) is a multidimensional concept comprising the dimensions of person-vocation fit (P-V fit), person-organization fit (P-O fit), person-group fit (P-G fit), person-job fit (P-J fit), and person-supervisor fit (P-S fit) (Kristof-Brown, Johnson, & Zimmerman, 2005). Irrespective of any specific dimension,

compatibility between some aspects of the individuals (e.g., personal values, goals, needs, personality) and some characteristics of the environment (e.g., organizational values/goals, job/vocational characteristics, supervisor values/goals;) can be associated with certain employee outcomes on the basis of three prominent theoretical frameworks, which are “Attraction-Selection-Attrition Model” (ASA; Schneider, 1987), “Theory of Work Adjustment” (TWA; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), and “Similarity-Attraction Paradigm” (Byrne, 1971).

Schneider’s (1987) attraction-selection-attrition model proposes that people are attracted to, selected by, and remain in those organizations, which correspond with their values and preferences; and enable them to attain their individual goals (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). One of the basic premises of ASA paradigm is that individuals are not “assigned” to work environments; rather they self-select being a part of or quit a specific setting in the basis of their fit with it (Bretz & Judge, 1994). Accordingly, it is reasonable to assume that when expectations of the employees do not match with the reality of a particular work environment, they feel less committed and eventually quit it. As a result, organizations become more and more homogenous places since only those employees who share common traits, values, and preferences remain in them (Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998).

Similar to ASA framework, theory of work adjustment describes a reciprocal relationship between the individual and the work environment and defines P-E fit as the extent to which (a) employees are able to fulfill their biological and psychological needs with the organizational supplies and (b) organizational demands are met with employee abilities (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). According to TWA

framework, a good fit exists when both parties succeed in fulfilling the requirements of one another. On the side of employees, one of the ultimate outcomes of good fit is “job satisfaction” which represents individuals’ subjective judgments on the degree to which their needs are met by environmental supplies (Bretz & Judge, 1994). TWA also points out that job satisfaction inversely affect voluntary exits from the environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). This proposition paves the way for extending fit-satisfaction relationship to organizational commitment and turnover intention concepts.

According to similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), individuals are attracted to and prefer the company of others which share similar characteristics with them. These characteristics may be at the surface level such as age, gender, education level; or at the deep level such as personal attitudes, values, and beliefs. When employees share similar characteristics with their closest partners in the work environment (e.g, supervisors, co-workers, subordinates), particularly at the deep level, they face little uncertainty, ambiguity, and conflict due to the common methods of interpreting events. This situation increases their satisfaction with the work situation and enhances other affective work attitudes such as organizational commitment and staying intent.

In light of the theoretical frameworks explicated above, person-environment fit has been conceptualized in literature following an either supplementary or complementary fit perspective. In accordance with the premises of ASA model (Schneider,1987) and similarity-attraction framework (Byrne, 1971), supplementary fit describes a situation where a person supplements, enhances, or shares similar characteristics with others in a specific environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987);

whereas complementary fit represents the “need fulfillment” scheme of TWA framework according to which a person’s characteristics make whole the environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) and/or the environment satisfies personal needs (Kristof, 1996). A significant number of studies demonstrated that, in general, higher levels of fit can be associated with higher employee satisfaction and commitment (e.g., Amos & Weathington, 2008; Chatman, 1991; Downey, Hellriegel, & Slocum, 1975; O’Reilly et al., 1991; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991); enhanced citizenship behaviors (e.g., O’Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994), better performance ratings (e.g., Andrews, 1967; Downey et al., 1975; Bretz and Judge, 1994), and reduced intentions to quit (e.g., Amos & Weathington, 2008; Chatman, 1991; O’Reilly et al., 1991), irrespective of the specific perspective that is used for the conceptualization of fit.

Although individuals’ supplementary or complementary fit with different aspects of the work environment has been shown to influence several employee outcomes, social exchange mechanisms in organizations might be considered to modify the form and strength of these effects. In this study, perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange relationships are examined as two different forms of social exchanges, which compensate or supplement the effects of different fit types on selected employee outcomes and moderate the effects of these outcomes within themselves.

As an extension to and an elaboration of previous “fit” studies, which examine the relationships between different fit dimensions and a group of employee outcomes, this study aims to answer main research questions: “Is fit really influential in predicting employee outcomes in organizations?” , “If yes, which dimension of fit

has a greater influence on selected employee outcomes?”, and “How do social exchanges in organizations influence the relationships between different fit types and employee outcomes as well as the specific relationships between selected outcomes?”

Significance of the study lies in its integrative nature, as it incorporates three different forms of fit and connects them to attitudinal employee outcomes through the moderation of separate constructs. In the proposed conceptual model, person-organization fit, person-job fit, and person-supervisor fit, are demonstrated to affect a group of employee outcomes including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Besides, the relationships between different fit dimensions and outcome variables are hypothesized to be moderated by two important social exchange mechanisms in organizations that are perceived organizational support (POS) and leader-member exchange (LMX) relationship.

In the subsequent chapter, Chapter 2, definitions and multiple conceptualizations of selected fit dimensions are elaborated and an overview of employee fit-outcome relationships is provided. Chapter 3 covers the relevant literature on outcomes of person-environment fit followed by an overview of social exchange relationships in organizational settings in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5, hypothesized relationships between different fit dimensions and employee attitudes are discussed referring to the theoretical contentions and empirical findings in previous research. Chapter 6 presents the research design and the methodology of study and results, which include the findings of the pilot test, reliability checks with actual sample, factor analyses, measure validation with confirmatory factor analysis, and hypothesis testing with equation modeling, are presented in Chapter 7. Chapter

8 includes the discussion of the findings together with their theoretical and practical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

The concept of person-environment fit refers to the degree of similarity or compatibility between certain individual and situational characteristics that leads to significant positive (or negative) outcomes (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) in a specific environment. Its foundations date back to interactionist theory of behavior (Lewin, 1951), which proposes that it is the interaction of personality characteristics and situational attributes that predicts the majority of variance in behavioral and attitudinal variables, rather than the independent effects of person and the environment (Chatman, 1989; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987).

The examination of person-environment fit literature reveals two distinct models of compliance that explicates the matches between individual and environmental characteristics. According to the first model, which points out a supplementary relationship, an individual fits into an environmental context when he/she possess certain characteristics that are similar to or supplement the others in that specific environment (Sekiguchi, 2004). One of the major propositions of supplementary model is that individuals, who successfully match with their most relevant environment, have happier and more productive lives (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). The second model, on the other hand, proposes a mutually offsetting relationship between the individual and the environment and states that fit

occurs when individuals ‘make whole’ the environment or the environment meets individual demands (Sekiguchi, 2004). Similar to the supplementary model of fit, this complementary perspective relates the success of compatibility with various positive outcomes such as better productivity, greater efficiency, less turnover, etc.

Within organizational settings, the concept of person-environment congruence reflects individuals’ compatibility with different aspects of the work setting including their vocations, organizations, workgroups, jobs, and supervisors. The broadest of these dimensions is person-vocation fit, which is widely discussed in vocational choice theories that focus on matching individual interests with proper career options (e.g., Holland, 1985). With a similar content to vocational fit but concentrating on narrower relationships, person-job fit characterizes the compliance between individual abilities and job demands or the match between personal needs and job supplies (e.g., Edwards, 1991). Individuals’ compatibility with the entire organization is investigated under person-organization fit research that investigates the supplementary or complementary relationships between the individuals and their organizations (Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996). Finally, the concepts of person-group fit and person supervisor-fit reflect interpersonal similarities which are built upon demographic characteristics (e.g., Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992), goals (e.g., Shaw, 1981; Vancouver, Millsap, & Peters, 1994), and values (e.g., Adkins & Russel, 1997).

This study concentrates on the effects of individuals’ fit with three different aspects of work environment: organizations, jobs, and supervisors. In the following section, the literature on these selected dimensions is reviewed with a specific emphasis on their attitudinal and behavioral consequences in organizational settings.

Person-Organization Fit

Definition and Multiple Conceptualizations of Person-Organization Fit

P-O fit is one of the widely studied dimensions of fit in interactional psychology and organizational behavior literatures. The origins of P-O fit research date back to Schneider's (1983) ASA framework, which proposes that "attributes of people, not the nature of the external environment, or organizational technology, or organizational structure, are the fundamental determinants of organizational behavior" (Schneider, 1987, p. 437). According to this framework, individuals are "attracted to, selected to be a part of, and remain with" (Sekiguchi, 2004, p. 182) certain organizations based on their fit with those specific settings. Those who do not have a good fit with a particular setting eventually leave it and organizations consist of quite homogenous group of inhabitants (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999).

Kristof (1996) defines P-O fit as "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share fundamental characteristics, or (c) both" (p. 4). This definition manifests two types of relationships that may exist between a person and his/her organization: The organization and the person possess similar characteristics, or they try to fulfill the needs of one another (Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). The first type of relationship denotes a supplementary fit, which occurs when a person supplements, enhances, or shares similar characteristics with other individuals in an environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). The latter type characterizes a complementary fit, which exists when a person's characteristics make whole the

environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) and/or the environment satisfies the person's needs (Kristof, 1996).

According to Sekiguchi (2004), a fundamental difference between the supplementary and complementary model lies in the definition of environment. In supplementary fit model, environment is defined with reference to the individuals who inhabit it as also emphasized in ASA framework. In complementary model, on the other hand, environment is separated from its inhabitants and structured according to its own demands and requirements (Sekiguchi, 2004). This perspective complies with the basic premises Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) which conceptualizes work as an interaction between individual and his/her work environment and proposes that both parties should continue to meet each other's needs for the work to be performed.

The differentiation between requirements of work environment and individual needs in complementary perspective reflects the distinction between demands-abilities and needs-supplies fit. In a comprehensive model that demonstrates the various conceptualizations of P-O fit, Kristof (1996) depict organizational supplies as financial, physical, and psychological resources as well as task-related, interpersonal growth opportunities that are demanded by employees. When the organizational supplies complement employees' demands, needs-supplies fit is attained. In the same model, organizational demands are illustrated as contributions from employees in the form of time, effort, commitment, knowledge, skills, and abilities. To the extent that employee supplies meet these demands, demands-abilities fit is achieved.

In accordance with the nature of relationship between individuals and their respective work environments, P-O fit has been so far operationalized in five

different ways, which are value congruence, goal congruence, personality-climate fit, needs-supplies fit, and demands-abilities fit. First three operationalizations demonstrate a supplementary relationship between two parties while the latter three represent a complementary one. In the following sections, these operationalizations and their relationships with various individual and organizational outcomes are explicated in detail, beginning with and paying special attention to the value congruence concept, which is the selected P-O fit conceptualization in this study.

The Value of Value Congruence

Value congruence, which reflects the compatibility between individual and organizational values, is one of the most commonly used operationalizations in supplementary fit perspective. (e.g., Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Chatman, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Posner, 1992).

Rokeach (1973) defined values as “enduring beliefs 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” (p. 5). In this definition, ‘personally preferable’ actions or situations stand for individual values whereas ‘socially preferable’ ones represent shared values of some social collective (e.g., work groups, teams, organizations) (Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999). In addition, references to “mode of conduct” and “end state” indicate the distinction between instrumental and terminal values (Rokeach, 1973, p. 7), which signify preferable means and desired ends, respectively.

Theoretically, values have been positioned as strong predictors of various outcomes at both the individual and organizational level analysis (McDonald & Gandz, 1992). At the individual level, they have been proposed to affect “all kinds of behavior that could be called social behavior - of social action, attitudes and ideology, evaluations, moral judgments and justifications of self and others, comparisons of self with others, presentation of self to others, and attempts to influence others” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 24). At the organizational level, shared values have been regarded as most practical and measurable elements of organizational culture (McDonald & Gandz, 1992) and play a significant role in encouraging employees to act in a certain manner which facilitate the survival of the organization (i.e., external adaptation) and smoothing the progress of coordination and communication among employees through shared cognitive processes (i.e., internal integration) (Schein, 1985).

In accordance with the above discussion, compatibility between the value systems of individuals and the general value system in their work environment has been stated to facilitate a number of favorable individual and organizational outcomes in organizational settings, which can be examined under three facets of employment experience, that is, organizational entry, socialization, and long-term relationships (Kristof, 1996). Following sections comprise the major theoretical and empirical findings with respect to the effects of value fit in these phases, with a special emphasis on its long-term consequences for individuals.

An Overview of Value Congruence Literature

Organizational Entry

Value congruence studies, which focus on the role of congruence in organizational entry, examine the role of value fit in determining individuals' job search/choice (e.g., Judge & Bretz, 1992; Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991) as well as the organizations' selection decisions (e.g., Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994). To illustrate, Judge and Bretz (1992) investigated the effects of work values, assessed by the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) of Ravlin and Meglino (1987), on job choice decisions and reported that individuals are more likely to accept job offers from those organizations whose value content was similar to their own value orientation. On the other hand, Bowen, Ledford, and Nathan (1991) argued that value compatibility of applicants should be one of the selection criteria for recruiter firms if they aspire for long-term employment and organizational flexibility. Adkins and his colleagues (1994) associated value congruence and employability assessments with two other types of congruence, which are value fit between the applicant and recruiter; and the value fit between the applicant and an "ideal" applicant. Cable and Judge (1997) also supported this view and suggested that interviewers' subjective person-organization fit assessments, rather than the competing characteristics of applicants, have sizeable effects on hiring recommendations.

Socialization

Socialization in organizations is another facet of employment experience where value congruence of employees is of great importance. Until the Chatman's (1991) study, researchers seldom included value compatibility as a variable in their studies though they considered it one of the positive outcomes of socialization. However, Chatman (1991), investigating the new hires in accounting firms, found that socialization, particularly mentorship activities and attendance at social events in the firm, positively affects employees' fit with organizational culture during the first year of organizational entry. Similarly, Kim, Cable, and Kim (2005) reported a positive relationship between the institutionalized socialization tactics and employees' perceptions of value congruence as well. However, these scholars stated that relationship between firms' socialization tactics and perceptions of value fit is moderated by several proactive behaviors of employees, such as their positive framings or relationships with their supervisors. With an alternative outlook, Cable and Parsons (2001) reported that newcomers' subjective fit perceptions, as well as changes in their values, are related to content and social aspects of socialization tactics. Accordingly, newcomers are more likely to report positive fit perceptions when they experience sequential and fixed socialization than when they experience variable and random socialization. Likewise, they are more likely to report better fit perceptions when they experience serial and investiture-oriented socialization processes rather than disjunctive and divestiture ones.

Long-Term Consequences

Long-term consequences of value congruence can be regarded as the most widely studied facet of employment experience in fit literature. Majority of the studies investigate the positive outcomes of value congruence from the standpoint of individual workers and associate better fit with a number of attitudinal responses including higher satisfaction and commitment and reduced intentions to quit (Kristof, 1996). Besides, there are also some other studies which report a positive relationship between value congruence and certain behavioral outcomes such as contextual performance (e.g., Goodman & Svyantek, 1999), citizenship behavior (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994; Vilela, González, & Ferrín, 2008), and job performance of employees (e.g., Bretz & Judge, 1994; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009).

In the following section, these outcomes are explicated in detail in line with their respective outcome categories.

Attitudinal Outcomes

As an early support for the value congruence-work attitudes relationship, O'Reilly and his colleagues (1991) reported that, for the accountants and MBA students in their sample, value congruence predicted job satisfaction and organizational commitment a year after fit was measured and actual turnover after two years period. In the scope of this study, the authors developed and validated a sound instrument, Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), which has been used by many scholars to

assess individuals' value compatibility with a specific organizational culture. To illustrate, assessing the value congruence of a group of entry-level auditors through OCP, Chatman (1991) found that individuals' value compatibility with their organizations was positively related to their job satisfaction, while it was negatively related to their quitting intents and actual departures. In a similar study, Boxx and the others (1991) evaluated the value congruence of 387 public sector executives through seven dimensions of Peter and Waterman (1982)'s excellence scale and reported parallel results with Chatman (1991). These authors pointed out that those respondents who worked in environments that they excellently fit were more satisfied, had a higher level of commitment, and experienced a greater level of cohesion when compared to respondents with poor fit.

In a recent study, Amos and Weathington (2008) investigated the effects of perceived value fit on different employee attitudes including satisfaction with the organization and distinct types of organizational commitment. Working with a sample of 151 undergraduate and graduate students from a midsize university in the southern U.S. and exploring congruence across the same dimensions with Boxx et al. (1991), the authors found that respondents' total value congruence correlate significantly with their job satisfaction and organizational satisfaction as well as their affective commitment, normative commitment, and turnover intentions.

With an alternative focus of interest, Posner (1992) explored the moderating role of demographic factors (i.e., age, gender, ethnic background, organizational level, management position, length of service, functional area) in value congruence–work attitude relationship. The author conceptualized person-organization value congruency as the employees' level of alignment with the six core principles in their

company and measured it across three dimensions, which were value clarity, value consensus, and value intensity. The results of this study indicated that person-organization value congruence, in all three dimensions, was directly associated with positive work attitudes; while demographic factors did not have a moderating role in this relationship.

In support of the bulk of empirical evidence that portrays a significant relationship between employees' value congruence and their work attitudes, several lines of theoretical reasoning validates the positive effect of congruence on distinct employee attitudes as well. For instance, Locke (1976) emphasized that, as a general impact of similarity, "individuals are generally attracted to and feel most comfortable with people who are 'like them' or 'see things' the way they do" (p. 1327). Accordingly, they will be more satisfied with those agents (i.e., subordinates, supervisors, co-workers, management) who are perceived as holding similar values with them (Locke, 1976, p. 1327) and be more committed to those entities that reflect the aspired culture profile.

Kalliath and his friends (1999), on the other hand, explained the effects of value congruence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment with two mechanisms. First, they proposed that individuals who hold similar values develop common methods of interpreting events, which reduce uncertainty, stimulus overload, and conflicts in the work environment. In contrast, individuals who have divergent values develop different standards for guiding their actions and figuring out situational events (Rokeach, 1968), and face more difficulties in communicating and cooperating with others in the environment (Kalliath et al., 1999; Posner, Kouzes, & Schmidt, 1985). Second, value congruence creates clearer role

expectations and increase predictability among organizational members, which in return decreases the role ambiguity and interpersonal conflicts. These two mechanisms facilitate the improvement of interpersonal relationships in organizational settings, which pave the way for higher employee satisfaction and commitment. What is more, in accordance with the basic premises of cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), employees with low value congruence feel cognitively dissonant and face up to the feelings of alienation, resentment, and dissatisfaction (Argyris, 1958) since the prevalent culture of the organization obliges them to behave in ways that are contradictory to their values and beliefs.

In a recent empirical study, which attempted to explain the general mechanisms behind value congruence-work attitude relationships, Edwards and Cable (2009) hypothesized that subjective value congruence of individuals affects their job satisfaction, organizational identification, and staying intentions through its positive effects on internal communication, predictability, and trust within organizational settings. In order to assess value congruence, the authors used the Work Values Survey (WVS; Cable & Edwards, 2004), which involves eight core work values: altruism, relationships, pay, security, authority, prestige, variety, and autonomy. The results showed that the relationship between perceived value congruence and selected outcomes is primarily mediated by the trust that employees place in the organization and its members, followed by the communication and interpersonal attraction among them.

Behavioral Outcomes

Over and above those studies, which portrayed the effect of value fit on various attitudinal outcomes, scholars also investigated the behavioral effects of fit that include work performance (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009), contextual performance (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Van Dyne et al., 1994; Vilela et al, 2008).

Structuring fit as precursor of career success, Bretz and Judge (1994) drew attention to the indirect effects of congruence on job promotions and to a lesser extent on salary level while emphasizing its direct effects on tenure and job satisfaction. On the other hand, in a recent study, Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) found support for the hypothesis that employees' perceived value congruence influences their job performance with the mediation of competence need satisfaction. The authors explained this relationship by proposing that as employees' and organizations' values match, organizations are more likely to provide circumstances that satisfy basic psychological needs of employees, which in return lead to optimal performance.

Those studies, which examined the effects of value congruence on individuals' prosocial behaviors (Kristof, 1996) generally focused on extra-role behaviors that are beneficial both to the organization and to its members. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) reported that identification with the organization and internalization of values (Kelman, 1958) are positively related to employees' prosocial behaviors, while Van Dyne and the others (1994) proposed that value

congruence might have an influence on citizenship behaviors (i.e., sportsmanship, civic virtue, and helping behavior) through the mediation of job satisfaction. In addition to the previous conceptualizations of prosocial behaviors, Goodman and Svyantek (1999) promoted the term, “contextual performance” to define employees’ extra-role behaviors and reported that the fit between employees’ desired and actual organizational cultures have an important role in predicting their helping behavior toward other employees and willingness to do things not formally required by the job.

Aside from the value congruence studies, person-organization fit has been also operationalized in four other ways, which are goal congruence, needs-supplies fit, demands-abilities fit, and personality-climate fit between individuals and their respective organizations. In the subsequent section, these operationalizations are explained separately, each followed by the review of its respective outcomes in organizational settings.

Other Operationalizations of Person-Organization Fit

Goal Congruence

Researchers who has been conceptualized fit as goal congruence (e.g., Vancouver, Millsap, & Peters, 1994; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991; Witt, 1998) generally focused on the employees’ compatibility with their peers or supervisors with respect to the operational/nonoperational goals and searched its effects on different employee

attitudes and behaviors. This conceptualization, scrutinized under the supplementary fit perspective, was mostly associated with Schneider's (1987) ASA framework.

According to the basic premises of Schneider's ASA framework (1987), individuals are attracted to, selected by, and remain with those organizations that pursue compatible goals with them. This argument was supported by two subsequent studies, which demonstrated a significant relationship between employees' goal congruence and their attitudinal responses. In a study of teachers and principals from 350 secondary schools, Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) assessed the goal congruence via profile analysis that involves both absolute and relative differences between and among organizational members. The authors found that both supervisor-subordinate and member-constituency goal congruence, which was defined as "agreement between an individual and all other individuals within a single constituency regarding the importance of various goals" (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991, p. 336), are positively related to employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while it is negatively related to their quitting intents. Further, the results indicated that member-constituency congruence has a greater impact on individuals' attitudes than do supervisor-subordinate congruence. Using a subset of the Vancouver and Schmitt (1991)'s data, Vancouver and his colleagues (1994) investigated the effects of between-constituency (agreement of all teachers with the principal) and within constituency (overall level of agreement among teachers) goal congruence on work attitudes. The authors reported that controlling for individual level congruence, both between and within constituency goal congruence are significantly related to the selected work attitudes.

Needs-Supplies Fit

Following the premises of complementary fit perspective, needs-supplies fit reflects the compatibility between individual needs and organizational structures (e.g., Bretz, Ash, & Dreher, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1994). Having its roots in the need-press theory, which proposes that environmental “presses” facilitate or impede the fulfillment of people's physical and psychological needs (Murray, 1938), this perspective describes fit or misfit between an individual and his/her organization through the matching demands and supplies specified in employment agreements. In needs-supplies fit studies, needs of individuals are demonstrated either in the form of intrinsic (psychological) needs or extrinsic needs like pay, promotion, or other work-related benefits. Organizational supplies, on the other hand, are operationalized as the corresponding reflections of individual needs.

Compatibility between the individual needs and organizational supplies is one of the primary concerns for fit scholars who investigated the effects of fit in organizational entry. These scholars emphasized the fact that needs-supplies fit between individual personality traits and organizational systems/structures may substantially affect applicants' job choice decisions. They reported that attractiveness of a specific organization may be intensified by higher levels of fit between individual personality traits and compensation or performance system attributes of the organization (Cable & Judge, 1994; Burke & Dezsca, 1982). For instance, applicants who are more materialistic and have higher self-efficacy are more attracted to those organizations with high pay levels and individual-based pay systems than are those with lower materialism and self-efficacy.

The effects of needs-supplies fit on work attitudes have been generally studied in combination with other fit operationalizations as well Downey and his colleagues (1975), on the other hand, were among those few scholars who incorporated needs-supplies fit to their studies as the single precursor, which represents the compatibility between personality needs and organizational climate. The authors used Bernreuter Personality Inventory (Bernreuter, 1933) to derive respondents' personality profiles and organizational climate was measured through an instrument developed by Downey, Hellriegel, Phelps, and Slocum (1974) which comprises six factor-analyzed scales (i.e., decision making, risk, openness, warmth, rewards, and structure). The results indicated that individuals whose personality needs matched what was provided by the organizational climate were much more satisfied than those who lacked the opportunity to attain this fit. For instance, individuals who required social contact and interdependence with others (individual needs) and who perceived the organization's climate as open and empathetic (organizational supplies) were more satisfied with their supervisor and pay than were those with a similar personality need structure but who deemed the organization's climate as closed, bureaucratic, and impersonal.

Personality-Climate Fit

The fourth and the final operationalization of P-O fit refers to the compatibility between features of the individual personality and organizational climate (e.g., Bowen et al., 1991; Burke & Deszca, 1982; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1984; Ostroff, 1993). Since personality is often interpreted on the basis of individual needs and climate involves organizational supplies, this operationalization is mostly associated

with complementary needs-supplies perspective (Kristof, 1996). However, it has been also taken as an approach to supplementary fit, where current members of an organization have a “personality prototype” of an “ideal” member of the organization (Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996). This approach is stated to have its origins in social identity theory in which individuals realize their self-concepts through being a member of those organizations with similar individuals (Tsui et al., 1992).

In several P-O fit studies, scholars examined the effects of personality-climate fit along with other fit types such as value congruence, personality congruence, needs-supplies fit, or demands-abilities fit. One of these particular studies belongs to Bretz and Judge (1994) who operationalized fit in four ways, which are value congruence, individual personality and organizational image similarity, needs-supplies fit (i.e., the extent to which organizational reinforcement systems fulfill individuals’ need), and demands-abilities fit (i.e., the extent to which individual’s knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) met job requirements). The authors found that P-O fit, when conceptualized in previously stated ways, is strongly associated with individuals' job satisfaction. Similarly, Westerman and Cyr (2004) made an integrative analysis of three approaches to fit, measuring value congruence by OCP, personality congruence by NEO Five Factor Inventory Form (Costa & McCrae, 1992), and work-environment congruence by Work Environment Scale (Moos, 1994) and reported that value congruence and work environment congruence were both positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while personality congruence was not.

Subsequent to the examination of P-O fit literature, in the next section, another environment fit dimension, person-job fit is delineated with its different conceptualizations and a review of their mostly cited outcomes.

Person-Job Fit

Definition and Multiple Conceptualizations of Person-Job Fit

Aside from the fit between individuals and their organizations, compatibility with certain jobs is one of the widely discussed dimensions of P-E fit in literature. As an extension to person vocation fit concept, person-job fit occupies a prominent role in employee recruitment and selection processes (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999) and is depicted to have significant effects on different individual and organizational outcomes.

Edwards (1991) proposed two basic conceptualizations of P-J fit, which are demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit. According to the demands-abilities fit perspective, P-J fit occurs when employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities are in congruence with the requirements of their jobs. In an illustrative model that represents the domain of person-job fit research, the author posited that job demands includes qualitative and quantitative work load (French & Caplan, 1972), adequate performance requirements (Rosman & Burke, 1980) and the instrumental activities for the achievement of valued outcomes (Harrison, 1985). Abilities, on the other hand, were demonstrated as employee aptitudes (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) or alternates of aptitudes such as work experience and education (French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982).

The second conceptualization, needs-supplies fit, implies the match between “employees’ desires and job supplies that are available to meet those desires” (Edwards, 1991, p. 284). Edwards (1991) portrayed desires as psychological needs (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; French et al., 1982), values (Chatman, 1989), goals (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981), interests (Campell & Hansen, 1981), and preferences (Pryor, 1987); whereas job supplies involved general occupational characteristics (Holland, 1985) and other organizational and job attributes such as pay (Lawler, 1981), participation in decision making (Alutto & Belasco, 1972), characteristics of enriched jobs (Cherrington & England, 1980), etc. In his comprehensive review on P-J fit studies, the author pointed out that most of the empirical research conducted under P-J fit domain reflects needs-supplies fit perspective as also manifested in the following review section.

An Overview of Person-Job Fit Literature

Scholars who investigated the effects of P-J fit on various attitudinal and behavioral outcomes have conceptualized the construct in one of the specific frameworks proposed by Edwards (1991), which are demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit. Both of these frameworks comply with the basic premises of Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), which deems individual skills essential for the complementation of certain tasks; and in return, necessitates compensation for work performance and supply of preferred conditions on the side of work environment. In this theory, work adjustment is portrayed as the process of achieving and maintaining correspondence between abilities/needs of the individual

and certain demands/supplies of the work environment such as the “job demands” or “job supplies” in job fit studies.

In demands-abilities fit research, the match between the requirements of job and respective abilities of employees have been stated to influence distinct types of work outcomes including job stress (French et al., 1982), task performance (Waldman & Spangler, 1989), employee retention, and promotion (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). In one of those few studies, which investigated the effects of demands-abilities fit on attitudinal outcomes, Rosman and Burke (1980) found that absolute difference between one’s perceived competencies and job requirements are negatively related to his/her job satisfaction. Working with seven samples representing a variety of jobs in different organizations and measuring P-J fit through a profile comparison process, Caldwell and O’Reilly (1990) found support for the previous relationship and reported that overall job fit is strongly related to employee satisfaction and job performance.

With reference to the needs-supplies fit perspective, the extensive review of P-J fit literature by Edwards (1991) demonstrated that just like the case for demands-abilities fit, the match between employee desires and job supplies significantly affect a group of employee outcomes as well. Early studies, which operationalized fit as an algebraic difference between individuals’ ratings for current (‘is now’) and desired (‘should be’) levels of certain job attributes, showed that indices for need deficiency are negatively related to employee satisfaction (Dyer & Theriault, 1976; Herman & Hulin, 1973; Wanous & Lawler, 1972), while they posited mixed results for performance. The fit between employee desires and job supplies, on the other hand, was found to have a negative effect on absenteeism (Hrebiniak & Roteman, 1973)

and turnover (Hollenbeck, 1989); and positive effect on job involvement (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970), employee commitment (Cook & Wall, 1980; Hollenbeck, 1989), and trust (Cook & Wall, 1980).

The specific relationship between needs-supplies fit and job satisfaction was also supported by other stream of research that measured congruence in distinct ways, which include absolute differences between employee desires and job supplies, sum of squared differences between needs and supplies across different dimensions (D^2); correlation between a series of commensurate person and job measures, and product of individual preferences and job characteristics. For instance, Rice, McFarlin, and Bennett (1989) hypothesized that employees' satisfaction with specific job facets are uniquely related to the mismatch between their actual levels of job facet experiences and desired levels of the same job facet experiences. Testing this hypothesis with two different methods, perceived discrepancy scores and moderated regression, the authors confirmed the unique predictive capacity of the discrepancies between 'actual' and 'desired' levels of job attributes. Similarly, in two other studies, which founded on the premises of Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) and used Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ; Gay, Weiss, Hendel, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1971) and Minnesota Job Description Questionnaire (MJDQ; Borgen, Weiss, Tinsley, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1968) to derive the ratings of employee desires and job supplies, discrepancy scores (D^2) were found negatively related to job satisfaction as well (Rice et al., 1989; Rounds, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1987; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983).

Recent work on person environment fit portrayed the effects of P-J fit in conjunction with the effects of a related but a distinct fit dimension, which is P-O fit.

The argument regarding the distinctiveness of two constructs is theoretically well founded since individuals made P-O fit judgments relative to the organization they work while they assess their job fit relative to the tasks or the job they performed (Brikich, Jeffs, & Carless, 2002). This situation is also empirically supported with the attainment of low correlations between actual P-O and P-J fit (O'Reilly et al., 1991) as well as the perceived P-O and P-J fit (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001).

Being perceived as distinctive constructs, P-J and P-O fit have shown to have independent effects on various work outcomes as well (Sekiguchi, 2004). Assessing P-O fit via value indices computed through the value ratings in OCP and job fit through matching individual competencies with a job profile index for accountants, O'Reilly and his colleagues (1991) reported that P-O fit and P-J fit have quite independent effects on job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover. Similarly, Saks and Ashforth (1997) found that, though highly correlated, individuals' fit with their organization and fit with their job uniquely influence their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to quit, and actual turnover. These findings were also supported by Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) who confirmed the independent effects of P-O and P-J fit on employees' job satisfaction and quitting intentions. The authors also stated that P-O fit is a better predictor of turnover intentions than P-J fit, though there is a minor difference in their relative effects on job satisfaction.

In addition to the argument that P-O fit and P-J fit have unique impacts on certain work outcomes, several authors discussed the disproportionate predictive power of these constructs. Kristof (1996) proposed that P-J fit predicts job-related work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction) better, while P-O fit has a stronger impact on

attitudes about the organization (e.g., organizational commitment). Hollenbeck's study (1989), which extended the control theory into the study of individual reactions to work, provided empirical support for the previous argument by demonstrating that a poor person-job fit is positively related to job turnover, but not to organizational turnover. Accordingly, it is very likely that an employee who has a poor fit with his/her job would not leave the organization but search for a positional change within the same organization.

Investigating the convergent and discriminant validity of three different fit types - person-organization fit, needs-supplies fit, and demand-abilities fit - Cable and DeRue (2002) provided broader support for distinctive effects of subjective fit perceptions. The authors reported that P-O fit perceptions are primarily associated with organizational outcomes (e.g., organizational identification, citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions) whereas needs-supplies fit perceptions (P-J fit) affect job and career-focused outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and occupational commitment). In the same study, demands-abilities fit perceptions were found to correlate with none of the hypothesized outcomes (e.g., occupational commitment, future in-role performance, and pay raises). Additionally, the authors drew attention to the fact that although some non-hypothesized relationships were observed between needs-supplies, demands-abilities fit perceptions, and organizational outcomes; these relationships disappeared once organizational fit perceptions included in their analysis, demonstrating the distinctive effects of each fit type.

Concerning the relationship between P-O fit, P-J fit, and behavioral outcomes, scholars introduced mixed results on the simultaneous effects of

investigated fit dimensions. For instance, in a meta-analytic study that examined the consequences of individuals' fit at work, Kristof-Brown and the others (2005) stated that performance is poorly associated with P-O fit while it is strongly related to other fit types, including P-J, P-S, and P-G fit. On the other hand, the nature of relationships between selected fit dimensions and performance was shown to differ according to the operationalization of performance. Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) found empirical support for the positive relationship between employees' P-O fit perceptions and their contextual performance (extra role behaviors beyond those prescribed in job descriptions), controlling the effects of perceived P-J fit. Nevertheless, the authors could not validate the expected positive relationship between perceptions of P-J fit and task performance.

In a more recent study, which was built upon the tenets of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) tested an integrative model in which perceptions of P-O fit and P-J fit (conceptualized as demands-abilities fit) predicted the satisfaction of different psychological needs, which in return influenced affective commitment and performance. The results of their study indicated that perceptions of P-O fit influence affective commitment both directly and indirectly through the satisfaction of autonomy, relatedness, and competence needs; whereas P-J fit predicts affective commitment directly and job performance indirectly through the satisfaction of competence need.

Aside from the fit with organizations and fit with jobs, individuals' compatibility with their supervisors is one of the critical fit relationships in organizations. The following section portrays the multiple conceptualizations of P-S fit and discusses its employee-related outcomes in organizational settings.

Person-Supervisor Fit

Definition and Multiple Conceptualizations of Person-Supervisor Fit

Dyadic relationships between individuals and others in the work environment gave birth to the existence of another form of fit, which reflect the similarity or forms of congruence between the subordinates and their supervisors. (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Although bilateral relationships between coworkers (e.g., Antonioni & Park, 2001; Klimoski & Jones, 1995), job applicants and recruiters (Adkins et al., 1994; Graves & Powell, 1995), and mentor and protégés (e.g., Turban & Dougherty, 1994) have been widely studied by different scholars; so far, very limited research was held to investigate the effects of fit in supervisor-subordinate dyads (e.g., Adkins & Russell, 1997; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989).

In those few studies that examined the relationship between person-supervisor fit and various employee outcomes, P-S fit was conceptualized in three different ways which are leader-follower value congruence (e.g., Adkins & Russell, 1997; Meglino et al., 1989), supervisor-subordinate similarity (e.g., Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; Turban & Jones, 1988), or manager-employee goal congruence (e.g., Vancouver et al., 1994; Witt, 1998). These conceptualizations reveal that the concept is associated with two forms of interpersonal compatibility that are “personal similarity” and “congruence in certain characteristics” that complicates the development of a unique definition for the construct.

Among the previously stated forms of P-S fit, value congruence in supervisor-subordinate dyads can be regarded as a quite prominent type, since

personal values of leaders and followers determine how they behave in certain work situations. Values lie at the core of individuals' personality, guide choices and preferences, and determine the styles how people spend their time and energy (Posner & Schmidt, 1992). Accordingly, consistent with the premises of similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), partners of a supervisor-subordinate dyad, who share similar work values are attracted to each other since they prioritize and interpret events in similar ways (Jehn, Chadwick, & Thatcher, 1997) and have similar choices and preferences. This coherence enhances the identification of the subordinate with the leader, reduces the interpersonal conflict between these parties, and promotes a harmonious relationship (Krishnan, 2002); all of which has a positive impact on a number of work outcomes including job satisfaction and performance.

An Overview of Person-Supervisor Fit Literature

As an early study on the subject of P-S fit and its related outcomes, Meglino and his colleagues (1989) investigated the relationship between superior-subordinate value congruence and a group of individual outcomes across three different levels of an organization. Value congruence was measured through the correlations between supervisors' and subordinates' value ratings on Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) developed by Ravlin and Meglino (1987). The results of this study indicated a significant value congruence relationship at the lowest level of the organization, between workers and their supervisors, which positively affect subordinates' overall and facet job satisfaction as well as their organizational commitment.

With a different perspective on value congruence effects, Adkins and Russell (1997) investigated the link between supervisor-subordinate value congruence and

subordinate performance in a retail setting. In this study, value congruence was again assessed through rank-order correlations between each store manager's ranking of the four CES values and his or her district manager's ranking of the same values. The results showed no relationship between supervisor-subordinate work value congruence and subordinate performance. On the other hand, supervisor's level of fairness was found to be associated with supervisor-rated dimensions of performance and marginally related to overall performance, while it is not associated with any sales and profitability data at all.

Distinct from the previous studies, P-S fit has been also examined with respect to the different dimensions of supervisor-subordinate similarity. For instance, Turban and Jones (1988) operationalized the construct in three ways, which are perceived similarity (i.e., employee perceptions regarding the similarity of their supervisors with themselves), perceptual congruence (i.e., similarity of perceptions held by supervisors and subordinates), and actual similarity (i.e., similarity in attributes, characteristics, or background).

In earlier research on perceived similarity, the major finding was that subordinates, who were perceived as similar to their supervisors in terms of attitudes and behaviors, are treated and evaluated more favorably than those seen as dissimilar (e.g., Pulakos & Wexley, 1983). Turban and Jones (1988) supported this finding by reporting that supervisors' perceived similarity is positively associated with performance and pay ratings of subordinates. In addition, the authors found a positive relationship between subordinates' perceived similarity and their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, and pay ratings. With respect to the effects of perceptual congruence and actual similarity, Turban and Jones

(1988) reported a positive correlation between these constructs and subordinates' performance and pay ratings. In support of this finding, a prior research by Wexley, Alexander, Greenwall, and Couch (1980) showed that a subordinate's perceptual congruence is positively associated with his/her job satisfaction and his/her evaluation of managerial performance; whereas managerial congruence is positively related to the manager's ratings of subordinate performance.

In light of the empirical evidence above, it is possible to contend that, although defined and operationalized in different ways, leader-follower value congruence and perceptual congruence can be considered as interrelated constructs. As shared values generate similar perceptions in a supervisor-subordinate dyad, these parties perceive the work environment in similar ways and respond it accordingly. This correspondence facilitates the development of a supplementary relationship between the leader and follower, which increase the satisfaction with the supervisor and the work itself as well as promoting greater commitment to the work environment on the side of employees.

As delineated in multiple parts of the literature review, fit with the different aspects of work environment (i.e., organization, job, and supervisor) affects numerous employee outcomes in organizations either individually or interacting with different moderators. Among these outcomes, job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intents can be considered as four prominent employee attitudes that affect many other influential outcomes such as low/high performance, citizenship behaviors, and actual turnover.

In the following section, these outcomes are discussed in a comprehensive manner through the elaboration of their alternative definitions and the delineation of

their antecedents and consequences. Their association with selected fit dimensions is discussed in the conceptual model and hypotheses part where each and every type of compatibility is proposed to have a unique relationship with selected employee outcomes.

CHAPTER THREE

OUTCOMES OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

Job Involvement

Definition and Major Antecedents

Job involvement has been introduced to the literature by Lodahl and Kejner (1965), who initially defined the construct as “degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image” (p. 24). In their article on the definition and measurement of job involvement, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) reflected upon two conceptual dimensions of the construct, one of which mirrors the initial definition stated above and a second one which denotes to the extent to which job performance influenced a person’s self-esteem (Brown, 1996). In subsequent studies, several scholars (e.g., Lawler & Hall, 1970; Saleh & Hosek, 1976) found support for multidimensionality of the construct and finally, Kanungo (1982) defined it as “a cognitive or belief state of psychological identification with one’s job” (p. 342).

Since the initial efforts for its conceptualization, many scholars have examined the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of job involvement. The studies on antecedents mainly focused on the effects of personality variables (e.g., Blau, 1987; Deci & Ryan, 1985), job characteristics and supervisory behaviors (e.g.,

Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1980), and/or role perceptions on job involvement (e.g., Fisher & Gitelson, 1983).

In personality studies, which relied on individual-difference perspective and associated job involvement with socialization processes as well as other stable individual differences, individuals' locus of control, self-esteem, growth need strength, and internal motivation were found as the most significant predictors of job involvement (Brown, 1996). As an alternative stream of research, studies on job characteristics and supervisory behaviors indicated that job involvement result from situational factors in the environment. In accordance with this approach, Hackman and Lawler (1971) and Hackman and Oldham (1980) proposed that involvement depends on perceived personal responsibility for work, the meaningfulness of work, and reception of sufficient feedback on performance. Similarly, Brown (1996) put forward that, in general, work environments that (a) provide a perception of meaningfulness for one's work, (b) allow for control over work methods, (c) preserve unambiguous and consistent behavioral norms (d) provide feedback on performance (e) involve supportive relationships with superiors and coworkers, and (f) grant opportunity for individual growth and advancement, promoted job involvement. Finally, in relation to role perceptions, the only significant finding discussed was that role conflict and role ambiguity will negatively affect job involvement as they reduced job's potential for fulfilling salient psychological needs of employees (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983).

Outcomes of Job Involvement

Aside from the antecedents that influence the level of job involvement, there are different attitudinal outcomes associated with employees' cognitive identification with their jobs. To begin with, one prominent argument in the literature was whether job satisfaction may predict or be predicted by involvement. Several studies presumed that job satisfaction affect subjective involvement with work (e.g., Mannheim & Cohen, 1978; Mannheim & Dubin 1986; Mortimer & Lorence, 1989) where others reported that it is affected by involvement (e.g., Parasuraman & Alutto, 1984). The meta-analysis by Brown (1996) portrayed that involvement is strongly related to work satisfaction; moderately related to supervisor, promotion, and coworker satisfaction, and weakly related to pay satisfaction. In addition, there are also some other studies (e.g., Blau, 1985; Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Mathieu & Farr, 1991) which contradicted with the causality argument and empirically validated the distinctions between the "emotional state of liking one's job (job satisfaction) and the cognitive belief state of psychological identification with one's job (job involvement)" (Brooke et al., 1988, p. 139).

Just like the situation with job satisfaction, prior research has not clarified the causal precedence of job involvement with regard to organizational commitment. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) discussed that, in general, workers first familiarize with and involve in particular jobs and gradually identify themselves with the organization as their psychological needs are satisfied. In his meta-analysis of the organizational research on job involvement, Brown (1996) also reported a strong relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment but did not

specify any causality relationship. On the other hand, the relationship between job involvement and turnover was generally illustrated to be indirect. Working with a sample of nursing staff, Cohen (1999) found support for the important status of job involvement as being an antecedent to organizational commitment and argued that individuals with high levels of job involvement attribute their positive experiences to the organization and are less likely to show turnover intentions, absence behavior, and/or turnover (e.g., Cohen, 1999; Hackett, Lapierre, & Hausdorf, 2001).

Job Satisfaction

Definition and Major Antecedents

Job satisfaction has been defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s own job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1300) or in its simplest form, the extent to which individuals get pleasure from their jobs (Fritzsche & Parrish, 2005). Although job satisfaction has been operationalized in various ways (Judge, Bono, Thoresen, & Patton, 2001), it is generally regarded as a work attitude which comprise at least two components: affective (emotional, feeling) and cognitive (belief, judgment, comparison) (Fisher, 2000). Wright and Cropanzano (2000, p. 85) stated that “job satisfaction is based partially on what one feels and partially on what one thinks”.

According to the belief-based, cognitive judgment theories of satisfaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), the match between the job incumbents’ perceptions of work environment and a number of predetermined standards (values, needs,

expectation, etc.) is the principal cause of satisfaction (e.g., Organ & Near, 1985; Rice et al., 1989). Employee satisfaction is developed through the personal judgments about certain job characteristics such as skill variety, task autonomy, task significance, feedback, and degree of autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) and some other aspects including social support, job stress, and pay (e.g., Currivan, 1999). On the other hand, affective events theory proposes that employees' mood and emotions while working do also predict their level of satisfaction (e.g., Fisher, 2000). In their study that examined the joint effects of affective experiences and job beliefs on job satisfaction, Weiss, Nicholas, and Daus (1999) showed empirical support for both of the previous arguments by reporting that global job satisfaction judgments are a function of both episodic affective experiences and beliefs about the job.

Apart from the affective and cognition based theories of job satisfaction, dispositional theory, which proposed that that people's intrinsic dispositions lead them to develop tendencies toward a certain level of satisfaction, has introduced a new approach to the research domain of the construct. In their Core Self-Evaluations model, Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) argued that there are four self-evaluations, which have direct effects on one's life and job satisfaction. These evaluations were entitled as self-esteem (the value one assigns to him/herself), general self-efficacy (one's perceptions about his/her ability to get control over the events), locus of control (believing that one has the control over her/his own life), and neuroticism (opposite of self-esteem) (Judge et al., 1998). In accordance with the results of their empirical research, Judge and the others (1998) put forth that higher levels of self-esteem, general self-efficacy, and internal locus of control give

rise to higher work satisfaction; whereas higher levels of neuroticism result in to lower job satisfaction.

As much as the variety in construct's theoretical definition, job satisfaction research is also abundant of different scales, which measure the construct both on affective and cognitive bases. One of these scales, Job Descriptive Index (JDI), created by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin in 1969, measures satisfaction in five different facets including pay, promotions and promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. As an improved version of job descriptive index, Job in General Index measured overall satisfaction by referring "work satisfaction" to a larger extent rather than focusing on individual facets. Other job satisfaction measures include Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1985), Faces Scale (Kunin, 1955), and Brayfield-Rothe Job Satisfaction Scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951).

Moorman (1993) stated that job satisfaction measures differ in the extent to which they draw on an affective satisfaction or a cognitive satisfaction. According to the author, "affectively-oriented measures of job satisfaction would include questions about a respondent's feelings on the job or their mood when working" while job satisfaction scales reflecting on job cognitions, "include questions about the nature of the job, the working conditions, and the opportunities to satisfy important needs" (p. 760). In order to clarify differences in three widely used job satisfaction scales, which are Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967), and Faces scales (Dunham & Herman, 1975; Kunin, 1955), Brief and Roberson (1989) tested the relative effect of cognition

and affect on these measures. The authors found that of the three satisfaction measures, the MSQ reflects the highest cognitive orientation, while the Faces scale represents the most affective stance. On the other hand, the JDI was reported to be primarily cognitive, with the existence of some affective influence as well.

Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

In the literature, there are several individual or organizational outcomes associated with the job satisfaction construct. To begin with the job performance, considerable conceptual and empirical evidence showed that performance is primarily antecedent to job satisfaction (e.g., Sheridan & Slocum, 1975; Wanous, 1974), though other evidence (e.g., Keaveney & Nelson, 1993; Shore & Martin (1989) which suggested an opposite relationship is also existent. In addition, several studies have demonstrated that job satisfaction-job performance relationship is moderated by other variables including reward contingency (e.g., Lawler & Porter, 1963), job complexity and intrinsic job characteristics (e.g., Ivancevich, 1979), self-esteem (e.g., Korman, 1970), and need for achievement (e.g., Steers, 1975).

Just like the debate for causal ordering of job satisfaction and performance, direction of the relationship between satisfaction and organizational commitment has also been widely discussed. Some scholars (e.g., Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Mowday, Porter, & Steers; 1982) considered job satisfaction as an antecedent of organizational commitment with the assumption that “employees’ orientations toward a specific job necessarily precede orientations toward the entire organization” (Curry, 1999, p. 498) and that vis-à-vis organizational commitment, satisfaction is

more directly affected by changing working conditions (Currivan, 1999). This argument has found great empirical support (e.g., Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Mowday et al., 1982; Mueller, Boyer, Price, & Iverson, 1994; Williams & Hazer, 1986) while support for the antecedence of organizational commitment is rather limited (e.g., Vandenberg & Lance, 1992). Aside from the perspectives described above, some other studies reflected a reciprocal relationship between satisfaction and commitment (e.g., Lance, 1991) by reporting asymmetric effects of the two constructs.

Finally, turnover intentions have consistently been regarded as an eventual outcome of employees' job (dis)satisfaction in organizational settings. Although there are some studies which demonstrate a direct relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their intent to leave (e.g., Mueller et al., 1994), several others report an indirect relationship between these constructs, mediated by organizational commitment (e.g., Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Mowday et al., 1982).

Organizational Commitment

Definition and Major Antecedents

Organizational commitment can be defined as the extent to which an employee feels loyalty to a specific organization (Mueller, Wallace, & Price, 1992). The early conceptualizations of the construct reflect a unidimensional approach according to which commitment represents consistent performance of an activity due to the recognition of associated costs of quitting (Becker, 1960) or an emotional attachment

to the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). Later, organizational commitment has been considered a multidimensional construct with the development of several alternative models (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Of these, the three-component model of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) has become very popular and widely used in several conceptual and empirical studies.

In their model, Meyer and Allen (1991) identified affective, continuance, and normative commitment as the basic elements of the three-component conceptualization. The first component, affective commitment, was defined as “employees’ emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). Mowday and his colleagues (1982) specified four precursors for this construct, which are personal characteristics, structural characteristics of the organization, job related characteristics, and work experience. In support of the prior studies which regarded work experiences as a prominent antecedent of commitment (e.g., Blau, 1988; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986; Meyer & Allen, 1987, 1988; Steers, 1977), Allen and Meyer (1990) reported that experiences associated with personal comfort (e.g., peer cohesion, role clarity) and perceived competence (e.g., personal importance, job challenge) are the most significant predictors of affective commitment. Furthermore, several other studies showed that there is a strong relationship between perceived organizational justice (e.g., Rahim, Magner, Antonioni, & Rahman, 2001), peer and supervisor support (e.g., Currivan, 1999), job satisfaction (e.g., Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Mowday et al., 1982) and affective organizational commitment.

The second component, continuance commitment, denoted the “recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.71). Several studies (e.g., Farrell & Rusbult, 1981) showed that employee investments (e.g., education and skills) and lack of alternatives are the most significant predictors of continuance commitment.

Finally, normative commitment was used to describe a “feeling of obligation to remain with an organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p.72) and stated to stem from internalization of pressures (e.g., cultural norms and organizational socialization) prior and following to an organizational entry. Acknowledgement of the organizational investments was also suggested to cause feelings of obligation on the part of the employees and force them to remain with their organization until the perceived debt is repaid (Scholl, 1981).

Outcomes of Organizational Commitment

With regard to the consequences of organizational commitment, the empirical evidence indicated that there is a strong negative relationship between affective commitment and absenteeism (e.g., Somers, 1995), stress and work-family conflict (e.g., Meyer, Stanley, Hercovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), turnover intentions (e.g., Bludorn, 1982; Lee & Mowday, 1987; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1996; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Somers, 1995; Steers, 1977), and actual turnover (e.g., Bludorn, 1982); while others reflected a positive relationship with individual and group performance (e.g., Blau, 1988; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987) and organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Chen & Francesco, 2003).

In addition, both continuance and normative commitment were reported to have negative relationships with turnover (or turnover intentions) (e.g., Farrell & Petersen, 1984) similar to the effects of affective commitment to the organization. According to the meta-analytic results of Meyer and his colleagues (2002), normative commitment correlate positively with OCB just like the affective commitment do, whereas the correlation of continuance commitment is ‘nearly zero’. With respect to the relations with job performance, the authors reported a positive correlation on the part of normative commitment, and a negative one on the part of continuance commitment.

Turnover Intentions

Voluntary turnovers or quits have been one of the widely examined employee outcomes in literature, along with other related constructs. Although approaches to the investigation of turnover vary (Lee & Mitchel, 1994), most of them associated the possibility of turnover with the discontent of “(a) the individual with some aspect of the work environment including the job, co-workers, or organization , or (b) the organization with some aspect of the individual such as poor performance and attendance”(Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999, p. 1313). Owing to the fact that data on employees’ voluntary turnover is hard to collect, many studies (Bluedorn, 1982, price, 1977) incorporated the ‘turnover intentions’ or ‘intent to stay’ as analogous constructs to actual turnover (Cullivan, 1999).

In a number of models, turnover intentions have been demonstrated as one of the major outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Specifically, employee satisfaction and commitment stand as intervening variables between other

structural/individual variables and quitting intentions (e.g., Price & Mueller, 1986). Empirical evidence showed that there is a negative relationship between organizational commitment and intent to quit (e.g., DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985); while the relationship between satisfaction and turnover intentions is generally indirect, mediated by the employees' level of commitment (e.g., Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Mowday et al., 1982). In addition, perceptions of alternative job opportunities were also reported to have a significant positive impact on employees' turnover intentions (e.g., Lambert, Hogan, & Barton, 2001) or act as a moderator between quitting intention and actual turnover relationships (e.g., Mobley, 1982; Steers & Mowday, 1981).

The fit with the different aspects of work environment (i.e., organization, job, and supervisor) has been shown to affect all of the attitudinal outcomes delineated in this particular section. Although different dimensions of fit are influential in increasing employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment while decreasing their turnover intents, the effects of misfit are not irremediable in organizations. Two alternative sources of support, which are perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange relationships, can be proposed to compensate the negative effects of incompatibility with organizations, with jobs, or with immediate supervisors as well as supplementing or substituting the effects of different employee outcomes on one another. These alternative or supplementary sources, which characterize the social exchange relationships in organizations, are thoroughly explicated in subsequent sections with reference to the social exchange theory and along with the discussion of their compensatory roles in different fit-outcome relationships.

CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIAL EXCHAGES IN ORGANIZATIONS

The concept of social exchange (Blau, 1964) has long been used by different organizational researchers to discuss the motivational drivers behind employee behaviors and development of positive attitudinal responses towards environmental stimuli (e.g., Levinson, 1965; March & Simon, 1958). Recently, exchange relationships have been used to describe the reasons behind employees' loyalty to their organizations (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986) as well as to their supervisors (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986) and to explain why employees engage in extra-role behaviors (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999) that are not a part of their actual jobs or formally rewarded (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996).

According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), exchange relationships between different parties (e.g., employees-organizations, employees-coworkers, subordinates-supervisors) transform into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments in time (Cropanzona & Mitchell, 2005) and parties must comply with certain "rules" of exchange to maintain these commitments. Among different rules and norms that guide an exchange process, reciprocity rule has been the most frequently referred to explain different attitudinal or behavioral outcomes in an exchange. The general presumption of this specific rule is that since individuals want to return the benefits or privileges they receive in an exchange relationship, they are likely to reciprocate the goodwill and cooperation of the party with whom they develop that relationship

(Cropanzoni & Mitchell, 2005). In general, empirical findings in organizational research support this presumption by suggesting that favorable and beneficial actions directed at employees by their organizations (Settoon et al., 1996) or its representatives (e.g., organizational leaders) contribute to the development of high-quality exchange relationships (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986) that necessitate employees' reciprocation in a positive, beneficial manner (Settoon et al., 1996; Shore & Wayne, 1993).

In recent years, two levels of social exchange have been investigated as antecedents of major employee outcomes in organizational settings: exchange among employees and (a) their organizations and (b) their immediate supervisors. The former level is used to define the concept of 'perceived organizational support', where the latter denotes to 'leader-member exchange' relationships between the subordinates and their immediate supervisors. Despite conceptual congruence between these concepts, researchers have not yet considered to integrate these two literatures (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Following this general trend, in this study, perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange are examined as independent moderators of fit-outcome relationships as well.

The following parts comprise the literature on definitions, antecedents, and consequences of POS and LMX concepts followed by the discussion of their moderating roles in fit-outcome relationships.

Perceived Organizational Support

Definition and Major Antecedents

Perceived organizational support can be defined as employees' "beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p. 501). According to organizational support theory, development of POS is facilitated by employees' predisposition to assign organization humanlike characteristics (Eisenberger et al., 1986). In line with the personification of the organization, employees consider any treatment taken by the organizational agents (e.g., supervisors) a representation of organization's intent rather than the agents' personal motives (Levinson, 1965).

In POS literature, three general forms of perceived favorable treatment, which were fairness or justice perceptions of employees (e.g., Shore & Shore, 1995), perceived supervisor support (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965), and perceptions on organizational rewards and job conditions (e.g., Wayne et al., 1997), are stated to precede the construct. With respect to fairness perceptions, Shore and Shore (1995) proposed that employees' repeated observations of fair decisions regarding the distribution of existing resources would cumulatively affect their support perceptions by signaling organization's concern for their welfare. Other scholars have introduced different determinants of fairness perceptions such as availability of formal rules and policies concerning the decisions that affect employees (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), quality of interpersonal treatment in resource distributions (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997), and existence of

organizational politics that promote behaving in a self-serving way rather than considering rewards for individual merits and organizational betterment (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). The second antecedent of POS, support from supervisors, reflects employees' views regarding the degree to which supervisors value their inputs and care about their well-being (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Since supervisors are generally viewed as organizational agents, their favorable or unfavorable treatments can be associated with the existence of organizational support. Finally, organizational rewards and job conditions comprise a wide spectrum of human resource practices (e.g., recognition, pay and promotions, job security, autonomy, and training), which demonstrate that employee contributions are recognized by the organization and organization cares about employees' well-being.

Though all of the above antecedents were shown to have positive effects on organizational support perceptions, a recent meta-analysis by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) showed that fairness have the strongest relationship with POS, in the positive direction, followed by supervisor support and rewards/job conditions, respectively. Among the dimensions of fairness of treatment, perceived organizational politics was reported to have a strong negative impact on POS; while procedural justice components, voice and interactional justice, influence employees' support perceptions also considerably in the positive direction. In addition to these findings, Rhodes and Eisenberger (2002) stated that since supervisors are perceived as agents of the organization in assessing and directing employee performance, positive treatment received from these agents might be considered as a prominent sign of organization's positive attitude. On the other hand, the moderate relationship

between rewards/job conditions and POS was explained by the employees' awareness of the practical impediments, such as limited financial outlays and imposed efficiency requirements, which limit the supply of expected rewards and conditions (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch, 1997) by organization.

Outcomes of Perceived Organizational Support

In comparison with the studies on antecedents of POS, more extensive research has been conducted on its consequences, which primarily includes employees' general affective reactions to work (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), organizational commitment (e.g., Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001), and intentions to leave (e.g., Wayne et al., 1997). According to organizational support theory, these outcomes are governed by three different psychological processes of employees, which are reciprocity norm, fulfillment of socioemotional needs, and strengthened beliefs on organization's appreciation of improved performance.

Many scholars have reported that, on the basis of the reciprocity norm of social exchange theory (Homans, 1958), POS has the potential to create a sense of obligation in employees to care about the organization's welfare (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001) which in return increase their affective commitment to the organization (e.g., Wayne et al., 1997). In addition, with the fulfillment of social emotional needs such as affiliation and emotional support (Eisenberger et al., 1986), employees were stated to feel a stronger identification with the organization (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998) which again enhances their affective organizational commitment.

Other than its effects on commitment, POS has been reported to influence employees' affective reactions to work such as positive mood and job satisfaction as well, through fulfillment of their socioemotional needs, expanding their performance-reward expectancies, and signifying the availability of help by organization when needed (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). However, the results of a construct validity study by Shore and Tetrick (1991) raised the question of and guided further research on whether individuals perceive that the organization is supportive because they are satisfied with their situation or whether perceived organizational support may be antecedent to satisfaction (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). In addition to its effects on job satisfaction, POS has been stated to influence employees' interest in and involvement with their jobs through enhancing their perceived competence (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and identification with the workplace (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

With respect to the relationship between perceptions of organizational support and turnover intents, Eisenberger and the others (1990) proposed that it is less likely for individuals with high POS to search and accept job offers in alternative organizations due to greater affective attachment to and feelings of obligation for their organizations (Allen, Shore, & Griffith, 2003). In congruence with the reciprocity norm of social exchange theory (Homans, 1958), reciprocity develops overtime between the individual and his/her organization and compels individuals to repay their organizations with sustained participation (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

In a meta-analysis, which examines impact of POS on different attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) found that affective commitment is the most strongly predicted outcome of POS. The authors also

demonstrated a strong positive relationship between POS and job satisfaction, as well as the POS and positive mood. These findings were supported by another meta-analysis by Wriggle, Edmondson and Hansen (2009) as well, which showed that employees' support perceptions strongly affect their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition, regarding the role of perceived organizational support and human resources practices in turnover process, Allen and his colleagues (2003) reported that POS is an important antecedent of commitment and satisfaction in employee turnover process, where its influence on commitment accounts for the higher part of that relationship.

All in all, in majority of the studies examined, degree of perceived organizational support has been reported to result in a number of favorable employee outcomes, ranging from enhanced job satisfaction to decreased turnover intents, which may compensate the negative effects of various incompatibilities in organizational settings. The compensatory role of support perceptions in different attitudinal relationships is explicated thoroughly in a separate section, together with the effects of exchange relationships with leaders.

Leader-Member Exchange

Definition and Major Antecedents

Having its roots in role theory (e.g., Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964) and social exchange theory (e.g., Homans, 1958), leader-member exchange (LMX) theory suggests that in organizational settings, supervisors and subordinates develop

certain interpersonal relationships which vary in quality with respect to the perceived value of material resources, information, and support exchanged (Wayne et al., 1997). In its simplest form, LMX is defined as the quality of the dyadic relationship between an organizational member and his or her supervisor in terms of the interrelated dimensions of respect, trust, and mutual obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Subsequent to an extensive review of the literature on the leader-member exchange model of leadership, Dienesch and Liden (1986) identified three dimensions for the construct that correspond with the concept of mutuality: contribution, loyalty, and affect.

Contribution can be defined as the “perception of the amount, direction, and quality of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward the mutual goals (explicit or implicit) of the dyad” (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 624). Graen and Scandura (1987) stated that although the theoretical base of LMX included member and leader contributions to the exchange, the general focus in the literature has been on the task-related behaviors of members. Accordingly, members who make a good impression on their leaders facilitate the development of high-quality exchange relationships and are given resources and support that enhance their job performance (e.g., Liden & Graen, 1980; Scandura, Graen & Novak, 1986).

The second LMX dimension, loyalty, refers to “the expression of public support for the goals and the personal character of the other member of the LMX dyad” (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 625). In various studies, loyalty has been discussed as being influential in determining the types of tasks that are assigned to the organizational members. In general, leaders are expected to ask loyal members

to deal with those specific tasks requiring independent judgment and/or responsibility (e.g., Scandura et al., 1986).

Finally, affect, was described as “the mutual affection members of the dyad have for each other which based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values” (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 625). Results of different empirical studies have provided support for the critical role of affect in LMX development (Dockery & Steiner, 1990; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993) and in existing LMX relationships (Judge & Ferris, 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990).

In addition to the dimensions discussed above, Liden and Msyln (1998) introduced a new dimension for the construct, professional respect; which refers to the “perception of the degree to which each member of the dyad had built a reputation, within and/or outside the organization, of excelling at his or her line of work” (p. 49). Many scholars reported that professional respect assumes a critical role in relationships with leaders since participants in leader-member dyads desire close exchanges with those who have power (e.g., Sparrowe & Liden, 1997) and a professionally respected leaders may contribute to the development of new knowledge and skills (e.g., Liden & Msyln, 1998).

In the LMX literature, degree of mutual liking (e.g., Liden et al., 1993; Wayne & Ferris, 1990; Wayne et al., 1997), leaders’ expectations of subordinates (e.g., Heneman, Greenberger, & Anonyuo, 1989; Wayne et al., 1997), personality of each dyad partner (e.g., Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, Giles, & Walker, 2007), and span of leadership (e.g., Schyns, Paul, Mohr, & Blank, 2005) have been demonstrated as influential antecedents of LMX. Research results indicated that subordinates’ higher degree of leader liking and expectations increase the quality of

leader-member exchange relationship (Wayne et al., 1997). In addition, both employees' and leaders' personality were found to correlate with perceptions of LMX such that employees' neuroticism and openness to experience are negatively related to their LMX perceptions while their extraversion and conscientiousness, and supervisors' agreeableness and conscientiousness are positively related to these perceptions (Bernierth et al., 2007). Finally, span of leadership (i.e., the number of followers a leader has) was reported to have a significant negative impact on the quality of leader-member exchange (Schyns et al., 2005).

Outcomes of LMX

Just like the antecedents, gains from high-quality leader-member relationships have been widely examined in previous research and found to lead various favorable outcomes such as preferential treatments, differential allocation of rewards, quick access to supervisors, and increased performance feedback (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). On the contrary, low-quality LMX relationships have been stated to accompany with limited emotional support and trust by supervisor and few extra benefits provided outside the employment contract (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Tierney, Farmer, and Graen (1999) found that quality of LMX relationship plays a prominent role in motivating employees and is positively related to their job satisfaction and task performance; while it is negatively related to their turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In accordance with these arguments, several performance studies showed that there is a positive relationship between LMX and

performance ratings (e.g., Liden & Graen, 1980; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984; Wayne & Ferris, 1990) as employees with high-quality LMX relationships perform better to reciprocate the support, feedback, resources, and opportunities provided them by their leaders (Feldman, 1986). Besides, employees with high quality LMX relationships are stated to make “contributions that go beyond their formal job duties” and those with lower-quality LMX “perform the more routine tasks” (Liden & Graen, 1980, p. 452). This argument was also supported by a number of empirical studies that reported a positive relationship between LMX and extra-role behaviors of employees (e.g., Wayne & Green, 1993).

Aside from its effects on employee satisfaction and performance, LMX was also proposed to predict employees’ commitment to their organizations. Studies that have investigated the link between LMX and organizational commitment produced mixed results such that where a group of scholars found a positive relationship between LMX and affective commitment (e.g., Lee, 2005; Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992); others did not report any empirical evidence for this relationship (e.g., Green, Anderson, & Shivers, 1996). In a recent study, Lee (2005) made a distinction between dimensions of LMX behavior in predicting different types of organizational commitment and proposed that ‘affect’ is positively associated with followers’ affective commitment whereas “loyalty” primarily affects normative commitment.

With regard to leader-member exchange - turnover intent relationships, several scholars (e.g., Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Garder, 1995; Sparrowe, 1994; Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984) reported a significant negative correlation between these constructs which was also validated for actual turnover (e.g., Graen, Liden, & Hoel,

1982). Employees, who develop high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors and benefit from preferential treatments such as increased job-related communication, differential distribution of rewards, and increased performance feedback (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), are less likely to quit their organizations (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

As it is already revealed in the above discussion, just like the case for perceived organizational support, quality of the relationship between a leader (supervisor) and his/her subordinate can be regarded as a promising remedy to surpass the negative effects of different incompatibilities in organizations and a strong supplement for the positive effects of certain attitudinal outcomes. In the following section, the compensatory role of this exchange relationship is delineated together with the moderating effects of organizational support perceptions.

Moderating Roles of POS and LMX in Fit-Outcome Relationships

Though literature is limited in terms of the availability of research, which investigates the moderating roles of employees' support perceptions and quality of their leader-member exchange relationships in different fit-outcome relationships. Theoretical background and empirical findings presented in different studies provide support for the moderating roles of POS and LMX in the relationships between selected fit dimensions and attitudinal outcomes. To put it more specific, acting as two alternative sources of support, POS and LMX might mitigate the negative effects of incompatibility with organizations, jobs, and/or immediate supervisors; while substantiating the positive effects of different employee outcomes.

With regard to the effects of POS, it is possible to contend that support perceptions help increasing employees' identification with the organization (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004) through facilitating communication among organizational members, enhancing trust in management (Whitener, 2001), and encouraging cooperative behaviors towards coworkers (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Similarly, it enhances 'perceived organizational membership' of employees as they feel that their contributions are valued by the organization, and accordingly, their organization cares about their well-being (Masterson & Stamper, 2003; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Other than its effect on organizational identification, POS has been reported to influence employees' certain affective reactions to work such as positive mood, job involvement, and job satisfaction as well, with the fulfillment of their socioemotional needs, expansion of their perceived competencies, and availability of help by organization when needed (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In any condition, POS has the potential to suppress the negative effects of low fit and lower of identification with specific jobs and organizations.

Another prominent moderator in fit-outcome relationships is the quality of leader-member exchange between employees and their supervisors. Since one's immediate supervisor is one of the most influential agents in framing the interactions with organization (Song, Tsui, & Law, 2009), those who have a good relationship with their supervisors may suppose that their organization consider their well-being, will fulfill its responsibilities, and act in a consistent and reliable manner (Johnson, Truxillo, Erdogan, Bauer, & Hammer, 2009). Besides, employees having high quality LMX relationships with their leaders will get higher satisfaction from their jobs and work with greater motivation (Tierney et al., 1999).

Studies investigating the moderating role of leader-member exchange in different attitudinal relationships reveal that quality of the exchange relationships with leaders can change the predictive power of certain constructs. In one particular study, Johnson and his colleagues (2009) reported that LMX quality moderated the relationship between perceptions of overall organizational and departmental justice, task performance, and citizenship behaviors. The authors stated that overall organizational fairness became more salient for in-role task performance of employees when LMX was low than it was high. Similarly, when employees had high-quality relationships with their leaders, their perceptions regarding departmental fairness did not affect their performance and citizenship behaviors; while in the opposite case, fairness perceptions had an influence on these outcomes. In addition to this study, various others showed that LMX assumes the role of a buffer in organizational settings such that it preserves employees from unfavorable conditions in the work environment (Johnson et al., 2009) such as unmet expectations (Major et al., 1995), organizational politics (Harris & Kacmar, 2005), work strain (Van Dyne, Jehn, & Cummings, 2002), and demographic diversity (Nishii & Mayer, 2009).

In light of the previous arguments, LMX can be stated to recover the negative effects of low fit as well as lower identification with the organizations, through building trust, respect, and loyalty among organizational members and enhancing the positive mood of employees in organizational settings. Alternatively, quality of the leader-member exchange might supplement employees' affective reactions towards work such as job satisfaction through augmenting their positive effects on other attitudinal outcomes including organizational commitment and staying intents.

Although the literature is limited in terms of the empirical evidence on moderating roles of POS and LMX in fit-outcome relationships, the study of Erdogan and her colleagues (2004) provides support for the compensatory roles of these constructs for low value congruence of employees. In their study, LMX and POS were regarded as alternative sources of organizational support, and proposed to moderate the relationship between employees' work value congruence and job/career satisfaction. Working with a sample of 520 teachers from 30 high schools in Turkey, the authors found that value congruence positively affects respondents' job and career satisfaction when POS is low, but was not found related to these outcomes when POS is high. Likewise, they reported that value congruence positively affects respondents' career satisfaction when LMX is low, but do not have an effect on it when LMX is high. These results substantiate the previous discussions on moderating roles of LMX and POS by showing that supportive relationships with the leader and support from the organization itself act as a buffer against the negative conditions or experiences faced by the employees in work environment. Alternatively, though not supported empirically, quality of the exchange relationships with supervisors might supplement the effects of different job attitudes such as job satisfaction and job involvement on other attitudinal outcomes including organizational commitment and turnover intents.

The review of literature on different fit dimensions, employee outcomes, and POS and LMX relationships paves the way for the development of an integrative conceptual model, which is presented in the following chapter. The chapter also includes the discussion of hypothesized relationships among different constructs demonstrated in the conceptual model.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

In view of the literature reviewed, the following conceptual model (Figure 1) is developed so as to demonstrate the relationships between different dimensions of person-environment fit and employee outcomes. The model shows that three prominent types of compatibility, which are person-organization, person-job, and person supervisor fit, influence employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intents in organizational settings. Job involvement acts as a mediator between person-job fit and selected employee outcomes suggesting that individuals' identification and attachment to their jobs can be predicted by their job fit and influences different work attitudes. In addition, all of the proposed relationships are shown to be moderated by two different sources of social exchange in organizations, which are perceived organization support and leader-member exchange relationships.

With its integrative nature, the model is different from those previously developed as it incorporates three critical forms of congruence (i.e., person-organization value congruence, supervisor-subordinate value congruence, and the congruence between employee needs and job supplies) and links them to employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions with the moderation of two separate constructs. Although selected moderators (i.e., perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange relationships) have been widely

studied as predictors of various individual or organizational outcomes in literature, their moderating roles have not been examined previously in any of the person-environment fit models. Similarly, their moderating roles in different work attitudes relationships have not been questioned before as these exchange mechanisms were generally presented as separate constructs in these relationships.

On the basis of the theoretical background for proposed relationships and related empirical evidence in literature, following hypotheses are developed.

Relationship between Person-Organization Fit and Outcome Variables

Majority of the studies in literature conceptualized person-organization fit as the value congruence between individuals and their organizations. According to the theoretical lines of reasoning delineated in various fit studies, compatibility between the value systems of individuals and general value system in their work environment facilitate the development of common methods for interpreting events; which reduce uncertainty, stimulus overload, and conflicts in the work environment. In addition, value congruence creates clearer role expectations and increases predictability among organizational members, which in return decreases role ambiguity and interpersonal conflicts (Kalliath et al., 1999). Ultimately, improvement of interpersonal relationships within organizations leads to higher employee satisfaction and commitment.

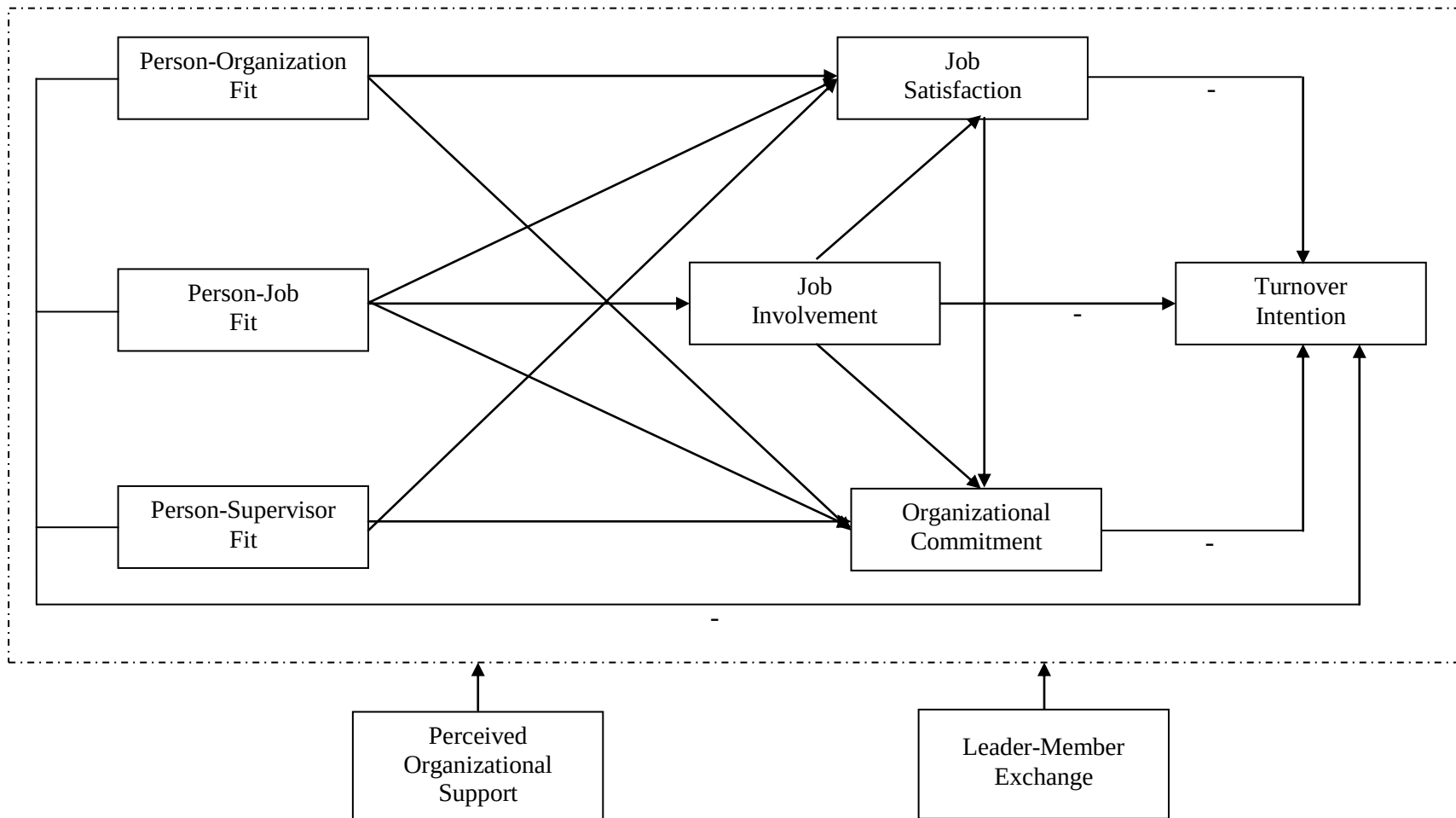


Fig 1. Relationships between multiple types of fit and employee outcomes

In one of the primary studies on person-organization value fit, O'Reilly and his colleagues (1991) examined the effects of value congruence on employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intents. Assessing congruence through comparing respondents' value rankings of their "existing" and "ideal" organizations, the authors found that, for the accountants and MBA students in their sample, P-O fit predicts job satisfaction and organizational commitment significantly a year after fit was measured. In a similar study with 387 executives working in the public sector, Boxx and his colleagues (1991) reported that both organizational values and the value congruence among individuals influence overall satisfaction and commitment of organizational members. Finally, in a recent study by Amos and Weathington (2008), a significant correlation between total value congruence and job satisfaction of undergraduate and graduate students was found.

When values of the individuals match with those of their organization, they feel higher attachment to it and do not look for alternative job opportunities. In support of this proposition, O'Reilly and his colleagues (1991) reported that P-O fit has a negative effect on employee turnover and Chatman (1991) associated value congruence of individuals with lower quitting intentions as well. Another support for the preceding findings was provided by Amos and Weathington (2008), who demonstrated a negative relationship between employees' value congruence perceptions and their intentions to quit. In an integrative analysis of different fit types, Westerman and Cyr (2004) found that job satisfaction and commitment act as a mediator between employees' value, personality, and work environment congruence, and their intentions to remain in an organization.

In line with the theoretical bases of and empirical evidence for person-organization fit - outcome relationships, it is hypothesized that:

H1a: There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their organization and their job satisfaction.

H1b: There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their organization and their organizational commitment.

H1c: There is a negative relationship between employees' fit with their organization and their turnover intentions.

Relationship between Person-Job Fit and Outcome Variables

In accordance with Edwards's (1991) basic conceptualizations, many scholars used either demands-abilities or needs-supplies fit to measure employees' compatibility with their jobs. Both of these frameworks comply with the premises of Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), which deems individual skills essential for the completing certain tasks, and in return, necessitates compensation for work performance and supply of preferred conditions on the side of work environment.

The compatibility between the job demands and employee abilities has been reported to predict employee performance (Waldman & Spangler, 1989), retention and promotion (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) as well as the satisfaction with jobs (e.g., Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; French et al., 1982). Likewise, there is substantial evidence regarding the positive effects of needs-supplies fit on employees' job satisfaction, commitment, and intent to stay with the organization.

Starting with the early studies which measured job fit as an "algebraic difference" between employee needs and job supplies, several scholars found that need deficiency is negatively related to employee satisfaction (e.g., Dyer & Theriault, 1976; Herman & Hulin, 1973; Wanous & Lawler, 1972). For instance,

Lopez and Greenhaus (1978) reported that job satisfaction is negatively associated with a summary index of absolute differences between desired and actual amounts for different job attributes. Similarly, Rice and his colleagues (1989) found that employees' satisfaction with specific job attributes are predicted by the mismatch between their current job facet experiences and desired levels of the same job facets.

In addition to those studies which demonstrated the positive effect of job fit on employee satisfaction, several others reported that employees' job fit is positively related to their organizational commitment (e.g., Cook & Wall, 1980; Hollenbeck, 1989). Although there is bulk of empirical evidence, (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002) regarding the better predictive power of needs-supplies fit perceptions on job and careers focused outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and occupational commitment), it is viable to propose that when employee needs are fulfilled by supplies of a specific job, employees feel more committed to that specific organization which provide the related job opportunity.

The expected negative relationship between employees' job fit and their turnover intentions has not been validated in any of the previous job fit studies. As an exception, using a direct measure of discrepancy between perceived and preferred job attributes, Hollenbeck (1989) reported that demanding more than existing amount of pay, nature of work, supervision, and coworkers are negatively related to employees' satisfaction and commitment, positively related to their job turnover, and unrelated to the organizational turnover. Accordingly, the author drew attention to the fact that an employee who has a poor fit with his/her job will not leave the organization but search for a positional change within the same organization. In contrast, Steers and Mowday (1981) suggested that an essential variable to consider,

in understanding the employee turnover process, is the extent to which an individual's values and expectations about a job are realized.

Taking the preceding arguments into consideration, the relationship between job fit and selected attitudinal outcomes is hypothesized as the following:

H2a: There is a positive relationship between employees' job fit and their job satisfaction.

H2b: There is a positive relationship between employees' job fit and their organizational commitment.

H2c: There is a negative relationship between employees' job fit and their turnover intentions.

Mediating Role of Job Involvement in Person-Job Fit - Outcome Relationships

According to the interactionist perspective of work motivation (e.g., Farris, 1971; Lawler & Hall, 1970; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965), individuals' psychological identification with their jobs (i.e., job involvement) results from their stable individual differences and cognitive appraisals of environmental conditions. Wanous (1974) stated that individuals develop certain value orientations towards the work, which determine their desires for specific job characteristics (e.g., autonomy, variety, challenge, feedback, and task identity). When characteristics of a particular job match with these desires or preferences, a higher level of job involvement is achieved.

In a study illustrative of the interactionist perspective, Blau (1987) reported that job involvement is predicted by an interactive function of a pair of personal and environmental factors such as Protestant work ethic and perceived job scope. Aside

from this specific study, several authors proposed that job involvement is generally affected by personality variables (e.g., Blau, 1987; Deci & Ryan, 1985), job characteristics and supervisory behaviors (e.g., Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1980), and/or role perceptions on job involvement (e.g., Fisher & Gitelson, 1983); while influencing employees' job satisfaction (e.g., Mannheim & Cohen, 1978; Mannheim & Dubin, 1986; Mortimer & Lorence, 1989), organizational commitment (e.g., Mowday et al., 1982), and turnover intentions (e.g., Martin & Hafer, 1995).

In accordance with the theoretical arguments, which deem the match between individual desires and job characteristics a prominent predictor of job involvement, and the causal order of relationships indicated above, this study foresees that employees' fit with their jobs (i.e., match between the desired and existing job supplies) will predict their job involvement, which subsequently influence their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions respectively.

H3a: There is a positive relationship between employees' job fit and their job involvement.

H3b: There is a positive relationship between employees' job involvement and their job satisfaction.

H3c: There is a positive relationship between employees' job involvement and their organizational commitment.

H3d: There is a negative relationship between employees' job involvement and their turnover intentions.

Relationship between Person-Supervisor Fit and Outcome Variables

As an early study on person-supervisor fit and its related outcomes, Meglino and his colleagues work (1989) investigated the relationship between superior-subordinate value congruence and four supervisor-rated performance dimensions in a manufacturing setting. Although the results indicated a negative value fit-performance relationship, they confirmed the positive association between supervisor-subordinate value congruence and worker satisfaction. Conceptualizing P-S fit as perceptual congruence (i.e., similarity of perceptions held by supervisors and subordinates), Wexley et al. (1980) reported that subordinates' perceptual congruence is positively associated with their job satisfaction. In their study, which examined the relations among perceived similarity, perceptual congruence, and actual similarity and relating these constructs to various employee outcomes, Turban and Jones (1988) stated that all similarity types significantly correlate with job satisfaction.

The literature lacks studies that investigate the relationship between supervisor-subordinate value congruence and organizational commitment. Similarly, the effect of value incongruence on employee turnover intents has not been investigated so far. With an alternative conceptualization of person-supervisor fit, goal congruence studies showed that supervisor-subordinate goal congruence positively affect subordinates' affective commitment to the organization while it has a negative effect on their turnover intents (e.g., Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991; Vancouver et al., 1994).

In accordance with the results of supervisor-subordinate value congruence studies and several goal-congruence models, the following hypotheses are developed:

H4a: There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their job satisfaction.

H4b: There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their organizational commitment.

H4c: There is a negative relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their turnover intentions.

Differences Among the Effects of Three Fit Types on Outcome Variables

In addition to the empirical evidence that support the unique relationships between different fit types and certain work outcomes, several authors discussed the disproportionate predictive power of each fit type (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Kristof (1996) proposed that P-J fit predicts job-related work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction) better; while P-O fit has a stronger impact on attitudes about the organization (e.g., organizational commitment). Similarly, Cable and DeRue (2002) reported that P-O fit perceptions are primarily associated with organizational outcomes (e.g., organizational identification, citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions), whereas needs-supplies fit perceptions (i.e., P-J fit) affect job and career-focused outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and occupational commitment). Examining the independent effects of P-O and P-J fit on job satisfaction and intent to quit, Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) stated that P-O fit is a better predictor of turnover intentions than is P-J fit, though there is a minor

difference in their relative effects on job satisfaction. P-S fit, however, is mostly associated with performance outcomes such as employees' on-the-job performance or subjective supervisor ratings. In line with the reviewed literature and prevalent empirical findings, the following hypotheses are established:

H5a: Among three fit types, employees' fit with their organizations has the strongest impact on their organizational commitment, followed by the impact of fit with their jobs and supervisors respectively.

H5b: Among three fit types, employees' fit with their jobs has the strongest impact on their job satisfaction, followed by the impact of fit with their organizations and supervisors respectively.

H5c: Among three fit types, employees' fit with their organizations has the strongest impact on their turnover intentions, followed by the impact of fit with their jobs and supervisors respectively.

Relationship between Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Turnover Intentions

The direction of the causal relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been widely discussed in literature. In several studies, satisfaction was considered an antecedent of organizational commitment based on the assumption that "employees' orientations toward a specific job necessarily precede orientations toward the entire organization" (Currivan, 1999, p. 498) and that compared with organizational commitment, satisfaction is more directly affected by changing working conditions (Currivan, 1999). In accordance with these arguments,

which have found great empirical support in literature (e.g., Lincoln & Kalleerg, 1985; Mowday et al., 1982; Mueller et al., 1994; Williams & Hazer, 1986), this study regards job satisfaction as a precursor of organizational commitment as well.

H6a: There is a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their organizational commitment.

According to turnover studies, possibility of turnover can be associated with the discontent of “(a) the individual with some aspect of the work environment including the job, co-workers, or organization, or (b) the organization with some aspect of the individual such as poor performance and attendance” (Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999, p. 1313). Besides, employees are expected to develop turnover intentions based on the deterioration in one or both of the two attitudinal effects, which are job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In several turnover models, satisfaction and commitment were depicted as intervening variables between other structural/individual variables and quitting intentions (e.g., Price & Mueller, 1986). Besides, empirical results showed that there is a negative relationship between employees' organizational commitment and intents to quit (e.g., DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985); and the relationship between their job satisfaction and turnover intentions is generally mediated by the their organizational commitment (e.g., Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1985; Mowday et al., 1982).

In accordance with the previously discussed relationships, following hypotheses are developed:

H6b: There is a negative relationship between employees' affective commitment to the organization and their turnover intentions.

H6c: There is a negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their turnover intentions.

Moderating Effect of Perceived Organization Support

The strength of the relationship between employees' fit with different aspects of the work environment and their work attitudes may differ in accordance with the level of support they receive from their organization.

To begin with, higher levels of perceived support can weaken the relationships between different fit dimensions and job satisfaction since employees with higher support perceptions, though not perfectly fit with their organizations, jobs, and supervisors, might develop better affective reactions to work through fulfillment of their socioemotional needs, expansion of their performance-reward expectancies, and perceived availability of help by organizational agents when needed (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Eisenberger and his colleagues (1986) proposed that support perceptions are "...influenced by various aspects of an employee's treatment by the organization, (including) the frequency, extremity, and judged sincerity of statements of praise and approval ... pay, rank, job enrichment, and influence over organizational policies" (p. 501). Perceiving that the organization appreciates their contribution, employees may consider their performance to be at acceptable levels, which may subsequently enhance their positive attitudes towards the job such as job satisfaction (Stamper & Johlke, 2003). Besides, in work environments which involves supportive relationships with supervisors and coworkers and provides feedback on individual performance (Brown, 1996),

employees feel higher identification with their jobs even if the match between their existing and desired job characteristics (i.e., person-job fit) are not fully satisfied. In sum, at higher levels of organizational support perceptions, selected dimensions of person-environment fit might influence employee satisfaction to a lower extent. Similarly, employees' job fit is expected to predict their job involvement only marginally when the support perceptions are higher. In line with these arguments, the following hypotheses are developed:

H7a: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationships between employees' (1) fit with their organizations (2) fit with their jobs (3) fit with their supervisors and their job satisfaction such that these relationships are stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.

H7b: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job fit and job involvement such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.

Although POS has been generally regarded as an independent precursor of organizational commitment with its potential to create a sense of obligation in employees to care about their organization's welfare (e.g., Eisenberger et al., 2001); it can also assume a compensatory role in fit-commitment relationships. Through increasing communication among organizational members, enhancing trust in management (Whitener, 2001), and encouraging cooperative behaviors towards coworkers (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002), support perceptions increase employees'

identification with the organization (Erdogan et al., 2004) while decreasing the prominence of compatibility with different dimensions of the work environment. In other words, employees who have lower value congruence with their organizations/supervisors and who experience lower needs-supplies fit in their jobs can still identify with their organizations, through POS, since they feel like they are valued by the organization and the organization considers their well-being (Masterson & Stamper, 2003; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). In accordance with these lines of reasoning, following hypothesis is developed:

H7c: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationships between employees' (1) fit with their organizations (2) fit with their jobs (3) fit with their supervisors and their organizational commitment such that these relationships are stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.

In contrast to its compensatory role in fit-job satisfaction, fit-commitment relationships, POS might assume a supplementary role in the relationship between employees' fit with different aspects of the work environment and their turnover intentions. Wayne et al. (1997) suggested that, in line with the reciprocity norm of social exchange theory, employees who perceive higher support from their organizations are more likely to feel obligated to "repay" the organization with sustained participation and less likely to seek alternate employment elsewhere. Similarly, according to the inducements-contributions framework of voluntary turnover (March & Simon, 1958), since the balance between the inducements provided by the organization and the contributions expected of the employee

determines employee's turnover decisions, employees with higher inducements (i.e., organizational support) are less likely to consider quitting their jobs (Allen et al., 2003). Though the literature lacks studies, which investigate the moderating role of POS in different turnover models, employees' organizational support perceptions have strong potential to intensify the strength of any positive impact on employees' staying intents. In the context of this study, employees' perceived organizational support is expected to reinforce the effects of employees' fit with different aspects of the work environment on their turnover intentions as suggested in the following hypothesis:

H7d: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationships between employees' (1) fit with their organizations (2) fit with their jobs (3) fit with their supervisors and their turnover intentions such that these relationships are stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.

In previous studies, perceived organizational support has been generally reported as a prominent predictor of various work attitudes including job involvement (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), job satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), organizational commitment (Armeli et al., 1998, Eiesenberger et al., 1986), and turnover intents (Allen et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 1997). However, its moderating role in the relationships between these attitudinal responses has not been investigated so far. Since higher levels of organizational support help employees develop positive beliefs regarding the extent to which their organization concerns their well-being (Rhodes & Eiesenberger, 2002) and improve their affective reactions

to work, it may supplement the positive effects of one's identification and satisfaction with his/her job in a specific organization. In other words, when those employees who are highly involved and satisfied with their jobs, believe that they are supported by the organization as well, they will get higher satisfaction from their jobs, feel more committed to their organization, and less likely to leave that work environment. These arguments pave the way for the development of following hypotheses regarding the supplementary role of POS in those relationships where job involvement and job satisfaction stand as antecedents of selected employee outcomes.

H7e: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.

H7f: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.

H7g: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' job involvement and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.

H7h: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.

H7i: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.

Distinct from its supplementary effect on individuals' involvement and satisfaction with their jobs, POS might assume a compensatory role in organizational commitment-quitting intent relationships as "perceptions of support" may act as a substitute for "feelings of commitment". Accordingly, for employees who perceive high levels of organizational support, the negative effects of lower identification with the organization will be smaller. In light of these arguments, following hypothesis is developed:

H7j: Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' organizational commitment and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.

Moderating Effect of Leader-Member Exchange

Just like the situation for perceived organizational support, the quality of the leader-member exchange between employees and their supervisors can be regarded as a prominent moderator in fit-outcome relationships. In various studies, LMX was found to assume the role of a buffer in organizational settings which preserves employees from unfavorable conditions in the work environment (Johnson et al., 2009) such as unmet expectations (Major et al., 1995), organizational politics (Harris & Kacmar, 2005), work strain (Van Dyne et al., 2002), and demographic diversity (Nishii & Mayer, 2009).

In addition to its compensatory effects on previous circumstances, leader-member exchange relationships can attenuate the negative effects of employees' low fit on their job satisfaction as well. Employees who have high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors perceive greater control over the work environment (Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000) and experience lower cognitive dissonance due to their higher negotiating latitude, or autonomy to design their own work (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Accordingly, employees who endow with certain privileges while performing their jobs, such as higher supervisor backing while dealing upper managerial levels, may be quite satisfied even if they do not exactly match with the different dimensions of the work environment. Besides, through building trust and loyalty among supervisor-subordinate dyads, high quality LMX relationships lead employees to reciprocate the support they receive from their supervisors by showing higher interest and involvement with their jobs, although existing job characteristics do not match with what they expect in ideal. This situation represents the compensatory role of a high quality leader-member exchange

in person-job fit – job involvement relationship where the high quality exchange attenuates the effects of job fit on employees' identification with their jobs.

In accordance with the previous explanations, this study portrays compensatory role of LMX in fit-involvement, fit-satisfaction relationships as the following:

H8a: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationships between employees' (1) fit with their organizations (2) fit with their jobs (3) fit with their supervisors and their job satisfaction such that these relationships are stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.

H8b: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job fit and job involvement such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.

High quality LMX relationships denote trust-based relationships with leaders (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) which increase one's loyalty to and respect for his/her immediate supervisor. These relationships enhance subordinates' identification with their supervisors that might facilitate their identification with the organization as well. Since favorable actions taken by the organizational agents may be reconciled with the supportive organizational culture, those who have good relationships with their supervisors may also believe that their organizations consider their well-being, act in their best interests, and be consistent and dependable (Johnson et al., 2009). All in all, high-quality LMX relationships have considerable potential to weaken the

relationship between employees' fit with different environmental dimensions and their organizational commitment by substituting the effects of fit through enhancing the trust towards the organization, reducing the uncertainty toward the future (Johnson et al., 2009), and creating an obligation to reciprocate managerial support with higher commitment to the organization. In light of these lines of reasoning, following hypothesis is developed:

H8c: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationships between employees' (1) fit with their organizations (2) fit with their jobs (3) fit with their supervisors and their organizational commitment such that these relationships are stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.

Similar to the supplementary role of organizational support perceptions in fit – turnover intention relationships, support received from the supervisors may reinforce the effects of fit on employees' turnover intents as well. Employees who have high quality relationships with their supervisors receive numerous advantages such as gaining access to their supervisors' networks (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997), getting better performance ratings (Gerstner & Day, 1997), and having higher control on their work environment (Johnson et al., 2009). These employees become more attached to their workplace since they experience higher on-the-job embeddedness (e.g., being situated or linked with a social network at work) that refrains them from considering leaving (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). These circumstances might supplement the effects of different dimensions of person-environment fit on employees' turnover intentions such that for those employees who

have higher quality relationships with their supervisors, fit with different aspects of work environment decrease turnover intents to a larger extent when compared with its effects for those with lower quality relationships.

H8d: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationships between employees' (1) fit with their organizations (2) fit with their jobs (3) fit with their supervisors and their turnover intentions such that these relationships are stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.

As delineated before, LMX relationships play a prominent role in motivating employees and increasing their job satisfaction (Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999). The support and backing one receives from his/her supervisor help him/her solve work-related problems more easily (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004) and give access to certain privileges such as increased job-related communication, quick access to supervisors, and more performance-related feedback (e.g., Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Subordinates with high quality LMX are not only provided with extrinsic rewards such as better performance ratings (Graen et al., 1982) and career advancements (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994; Wakabayashi & Graen, 1984), but they also get more intrinsic satisfaction from their jobs in terms of negotiating latitude, autonomy, and challenging tasks (Bhal, Gulati, & Ansari, 2009). When this intrinsic satisfaction, developed through the high quality exchange relationships, combined with one's attachment to or involvement with his/her job, it can supplement the involvement's effects on other attitudinal outcomes as reflected in the following hypotheses.

H8e: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationship with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.

H8f: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.

H8g: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' job involvement and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.

Similar to their supplementary effects in job involvement– employee outcome relationships, high quality exchanges with leaders might strengthen the positive effect of employees' job satisfaction on their organizational commitment and increase its negative effect on turnover intents. In high quality LMX relationships, employees are provided with higher emotional support and trust (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Gerstner & Day, 1997) as well as receiving special treatments (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) from their supervisors. These positive experiences are likely to complement one's affective responses towards his/her work such as job satisfaction and increase the magnitude of their effects on other outcomes.

In accordance with the previous explanations, the moderating role of LMX in satisfaction - commitment and satisfaction - turnover intention relationships is portrayed as the following:

H8h: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships than for those with lower quality LMX.

H8i: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships than for those with lower quality LMX.

Finally, just like case for organizational support perceptions, the support and guidance one receives from his/her supervisor increases the loyalty between these parties as well as creating feelings of reciprocation and obligation to repay on the side of the employees (Lee, 2005). These circumstances might compensate the negative effects of employees' lower commitment with the organization and reduce the strength of the relationship between employee commitment and turnover intents as suggested in the following hypothesis.

H8j: Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' organizational commitment and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.

Subsequent to the discussion of hypothesized relationships for different dimensions of person-environment fit, social exchanges in organizations, and employee outcomes; in the next chapter, research design and methodology of the study is presented.

CHAPTER SIX

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Research Objectives

The primary aim of this study is to understand the relationships between employees' fit with different aspects of their work environment and their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions by paying special attention to the change in the form and strength of these relationships under different levels of perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange quality.

In particular, employees' fit with their organizations, jobs, and supervisors is hypothesized to influence their job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment positively; while it has a negative impact on their turnover intents. Employees' involvement with their jobs, on the other hand, is depicted as a unique mediator in the relationship between their job fit and satisfaction as well as between their job fit and commitment. Besides, perceptions of organizational support and quality of the leader-member exchange with supervisors are presumed to play a compensatory role in fit -satisfaction, fit - commitment relationships such that for those employees who perceive higher levels of organizational support and have higher quality exchange relationships; negative effects of misfit will be smaller. On the other hand, perceptions of organizational support and quality of the supervisor-subordinate exchange relationship are expected to moderate the relationship between employees' fit with different aspects of the work environment and their turnover

intents such that the negative influence of fit on turnover intents will be stronger for those employees who receive higher organizational support and experience higher quality leader-member exchange.

In addition to its varying effects in fit-outcome relationships, employees' support perceptions and quality of their leader-member exchange may assume either compensatory or supplementary roles in different outcome relationships as well.

The empirical investigation of proposed arguments is specifically directed at the illumination of following research questions:

1. Does employees' fit with their organizations, in terms of their value congruence, affect their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions?
2. Does employees' fit with their jobs, in terms of the discrepancy between their 'actual' and 'desired' job attributes, affect their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions?
3. How does employees' job involvement mediate the relationship between employees' fit with their jobs and their (1) job satisfaction (2) commitment (3) turnover intentions?
4. Does employees' fit with their supervisors, in terms of their value congruence, affect their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions?
5. Are there any differences among the predictive powers of three distinct dimensions of fit on employee outcomes?
6. How do employees' perceptions of organizational support moderate the relationship between their fit with different aspects of the work environment

and their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions?

7. How do employees' perceptions of organizational support moderate the relationship between different outcomes of person-environment fit?
8. How does employees' quality of the leader-member exchange moderate the relationship between their fit with different aspects of the work environment and their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions?
9. How does employees' quality of the leader-member exchange moderate the relationship between different outcomes of person-environment fit?
10. Does organizational commitment mediate relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their turnover intentions?

Research Design

In this study, investigation of the proposed relationships between selected constructs is primarily accomplished through a quantitative research that comprises a pilot and a main study both of which were conducted with a cross-sectional design.

Nevertheless, just before the preparation of the survey instrument, a small-scale qualitative research was conducted in the form of three focus groups and three interviews. The aim of these procedures was to get the opinions of different individuals working in separate organizations, about the different conceptualizations of person-environment fit and their effects in organizational settings; and to revise the proposed model along with the proposed hypotheses if it is deemed necessary.

In the subsequent part, general structure of the focus groups and interviews is explicated, followed by the summary of major points discussed in these procedures.

Next, in the quantitative research part, the main study is presented with its respective sampling, data collection, measurement, and data analysis parts.

Qualitative Research

Focus Groups

Focus groups were conducted with three distinct groups of individuals working in various organizations, at different positions. The selection of participants from separate organizations and with different job titles was a conscious decision to stimulate heterogeneity of ideas generated through the discussions. The homogeneity, which improves the productivity and spontaneous interaction in group discussions (Sykes, 1990), was assured on the aspects of age, educational background, and life styles.

In all of the focus groups, the researcher assumed the role of a moderator by directing participants certain questions regarding the investigated concepts and relationships. Discussions were generally started by asking participants what they understood from ‘fit with a work environment’ and they were requested to provide their own definitions for the concepts of person-organization, person-job, and person-supervisor fit as well as discussing their consequences. When conversations centered on the association between different types of misfit and turnover intents, participants were asked to indicate the most influential form of misfit in their own quitting intents, based on their past experience. The discussions lasted for fifty minutes on the average and participants shared their ideas in Turkish, except for the expression of some specific terms and concepts.

The first focus group, which was held on November 29, 2009, incorporated six people who used to work or have been working in banking sector, which is the selected sector for data collection procedure in this study. Ages of the participants ranged from twenty-six to thirty-three and they had four years of work experience on average. Some of the participants have worked in multiple banks and been a part of distinct organizational cultures making them more eligible to elaborate on the issue of person-culture fit and evaluate its consequences. Similarly, those participants who have worked in multiple jobs are more inclined to discuss person-job fit concept rather than the other fit types. The focus group lasted for one hour and was ended by the researcher when the discussions were fully saturated in terms of idea generation.

Major points that were brought on the discussion by different participants in the first focus group are presented below, under the title category of related concepts.

Table 1. Discussion Notes of Focus Group I

Person-Organization Fit
* Person-organization fit is achieved through the fulfillment of reciprocal expectations of individuals and their organizations. Individual expectations include psychological and material needs whereas organizational expectations comprise motivation, effort, and performance. * Organizational support is a prominent tool to enhance the employees' level of compatibility with their organizations. If an employee feels that he/she is important for the organization and organization really cares about him/her; he/she will try to adapt to the organizational culture and fit to his/her environment.
Person-Job Fit
* Person-job fit is the match between individual abilities and requirements of the job. Some aspects of the job can be learnt in the course of the time and fit is achieved in these particular aspects; but some others cannot be learnt since they require distinct skills. * Person-job fit reflects what you expect from your job and what your job provides you. If your job provides you what you demand (e.g., autonomy, learning opportunities, structured career paths, good salary), then it "fits" to you.

Table 1. con'd

Person-Supervisor Fit	
* Persons-supervisor fit is about similarity of personalities of supervisor-subordinate dyads. * Person-supervisor fit reflects the compatibility of working styles and perspectives. * For some people, person-supervisor fit is the sole reason behind quitting their jobs since working with a supervisor that one cannot bear at all is both stressful and demotivating.	
General Opinions	
* When the effects of different fit types on turnover intentions are considered, person-job fit can be regarded as the most influential followed by the person-supervisor fit and person-organization fit respectively. * Apart from the fit with different organizations, jobs, and supervisors; one's level of loyalty to his/her immediate supervisor is also influential in increasing his/her job satisfaction and commitment; and decreasing his/her turnover intent.	

The second focus group, which was held on December 7, 2009, was conducted with seven people who work in a variety of organizations including public universities, manufacturing firms and multinational organizations in technology/telecommunication sectors. Ages of the participants varied from twenty-eight to thirty-seven and they had seven years of work experience on average. In addition, apart from the participants who pursue academic careers, all others are middle-level managers in different departmental units. Since the age composition of this group was different from the former one, together with their levels in the organizational hierarchy, they mostly touched upon distinct issues such as person-culture fit, prominence of organization support, and satisfaction with the organization; rather than discussing the role of person-supervisor fit or leader-member exchange in shaping satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intents of

individuals. The second focus group lasted for forty-five minutes and participants addressed the following points in the course of the discussion.

Table 2. Discussion Notes of Focus Group II

Person-Organization Fit
* Person-organization fit is the match between the identities of two entities: Employee and the organization. Organizational identity is reflected by the organizational culture where individual identity is represented by personal values. * Person-organization fit reflects to what extent individuals comply with organizational principles and organizational supplies fulfill individuals' expectations. * The fundamental results of person-organization "misfit" are decrease in individual motivation and performance, dissatisfaction with the job, and the search for alternative job opportunities.
Person-Job Fit
* Person-job fit is on top of the other types of fit in shaping individuals quitting intents because one can be integrated into the organization through different socialization mechanisms; supervisors can change or at least be learnt how to deal with; but misfit with jobs is not handled that easily unless there is a room for "job rotation" in an organization. * Person-job fit is characterized by the extent to which your background, abilities, and competencies match with your job. It also defines how much your expectations (e.g., learning and advancement opportunities) are met by your respective job.
Person-Supervisor Fit
* Person-supervisor fit is the match between a supervisor and his/her subordinate in terms of the general opinions and attitudes towards the work. * Although person-supervisor fit affects subordinate satisfaction and performance; availability of supervisor support when it is needed and degree of reciprocal liking and respect between supervisors and subordinates are equally important in shaping individuals' satisfaction with their works and their willingness to remain within an organization.
General Opinions
* In the early years of an individual's career, both job fit and supervisor fit affects his/her job satisfaction and organizational commitment. When one climbs up the hierarchy, the prominence of supervisor-fit disappears since the individual himself assumes a supervisory role and works with limited direction. In that case, his job and organization fit becomes more influential in shaping performance, satisfaction, and quitting decisions.

The third and the final focus group was held in December 12, 2009 with seven individuals who work for different organizations operating in distinct sectors such as information technology, financial services, and education. Ages of the participants ranged from twenty-seven to thirty and they had three years of work experience on average. One of the common characteristics of participants was that they either had quit their initial jobs in the first year of their work life or was considering leaving their current job. Because of this commonality, the discussion was often oriented towards the effects of misfit on turnover intents; however, participants expressed their opinions on some other issues as well through the moderation of researcher. The discussions lasted for forty-five minutes and were ended by the researcher when saturation in idea generation was observed.

Major points that were highlighted by different participants in the third focus group are presented in the following table.

Table 3. Discussion Notes of Focus Group III

Person-Organization Fit
* Person-organization fit is the match between individual expectations and organizational supplies or vice versa. From the standpoint of the organizations, it can be defined as the extent to which employees comply with the formal or informal rules, principles, and policies of the organization. * The major outcome of organization fit is the identification with the organization. Conversely, the major effect of misfit is general work dissatisfaction and the decision to search for alternative job opportunities.
Person -Job Fit
* Person-job fit can be defined in two different ways: compatibility between the individual abilities and requirements of the job (technical aspect) and match between the individual desires and job characteristics (fulfillment of needs and expectations) * The major outcome of incompatibility was job dissatisfaction, which leads to job stress, lower motivation and performance, and higher turnover intent of individuals.

Table 3. cont'd

Person-Supervisor Fit
* Person-supervisor fit can be defined as the congruence between a supervisor and his/her subordinate in terms of their working styles and personalities.
General Opinions
* The outcomes of incompatibility with the organizational culture are more remediable. Individuals can learn to act in accordance with the organizational values as they socialize with other organizational members.
* Individuals' beliefs regarding the goodwill of their organizations and supervisors can surpass the negative effects of misfit such as lower performance and organizational commitment. Similarly, these beliefs can supplement the positive effects of fit such as higher job satisfaction and performance.

Interviews

In addition to the focus groups conducted with different participants who work as white-collar workers in various organizations, three semi-structured interviews were held with two academicians that specialized in organizational behavior and organizational theory fields and a human resources specialist, who works in one of the banks that were accessed in the data collection process of this study.

The interviews lasted for fifty-five minutes on the average and interviewees were addressed the same questions in focus groups regarding the conceptualizations of different types of fit and their consequences in organizational settings. The academicians were requested to discuss the issues from both a theoretical and a practical perspective whereas the HR specialist was asked to answer the questions as a representative of the organization rather than an employee working in the same organization.

The first interview was conducted in January 2, 2010 with an assistant professor from Bogazici University Department of International Trade, Ozlem Yildirim Oktem, who specialized in family businesses and organizational forms. The

interview lasted for forty-five minutes and the interviewee highlighted the following points in the course of the interview.

Table 4. Interview Notes I

Person-Organization Fit
* Person-organization fit is the compatibility between individual characteristics and the organizational culture. For instance, if an organization has a competitive, achievement oriented culture, an individual with a competitive, ambitious character will fit well to that environment. In the opposite case, he/she will be regarded as “different” and probably leave that environment unless he/she can adopt the existent culture through socialization activities.
Person-Job Fit
* Person-job fit can be thought as the match between the background, skills, and abilities of the individual and the characteristics of the job. It can be also considered as the match between individual desires and “realities” of the job that can influence one’s job satisfaction.
Person-Supervisor Fit
* Person-supervisor fit can be associated with the similarity in personalities, working styles, and perspectives of supervisors and their subordinates. It enhances subordinates’ job satisfaction and their commitment to the supervisor.
General Opinions
* Apart from the fit with the culture of the organization, requirements of the job, and working style of the supervisor; the extent to which one feels himself/herself valuable in a particular setting and the existence of a venue for the fulfillment of his/her career plans predicts his/her job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The second interview was held in January 5, 2010 with an instructor from Bogazici University Tourism Department, Duygu Salman Ozturk, who specialized in the areas of organizational culture, diversity, and roles of emotions at work. The interview lasted for one hour and the interviewee drew attention to the following points regarding the conceptualizations of different fit types and the consequences of (mis)fit.

Table 5. Interview Notes II

Person-Organization Fit
* Person-organization fit can be defined in two distinct ways. First, it is the fit between individual values and the organizational culture. Second, it is the extent to which individual needs and expectations are fulfilled by the organization in return to the inputs exerted by the individual.
Person-Job Fit
* Person-job fit reflects the congruence between the job attributes and the characteristics of the individual as well as the match between requirements of the job and technical skills of the individual. The second type can be achieved through on-the-job training or special training programs in organizations where the second one is attained through job (re)design.
Person-Supervisor Fit
* Person-supervisor fit can be characterized by the match between working styles of the leader and follower. Although it is generally assumed that similarity between the leader and follower is associated with positive work outcomes, similarity may not generate positive results in practice. For instance, two “dominant/parental” characters are not successful at compromising in any conflict situation, while two “subservient” characters may not solve the problems productively as well. Therefore, in leader-follower relationships, complementarity of characters can work better.
General Opinions
* Perceived organizational support mitigates the effects of lower fit on job satisfaction, commitment, etc. Its existence can increase the strength of some relationships as well such as the relationship between job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. * Leader-member exchange can be considered a substitute for all fit types similar to the perceptions of organizational support. If one’s supervisor backs up his/her subordinate and gains his/her goodwill and loyalty, any form of misfit can lose its deteriorating power on employee satisfaction and commitment.

The final interview was held in January 5, 2010 with a human resources specialist, working in one of the banks among the sample units of this study. The interview lasted for fifty minutes and interviewee discussed following issues as she answered the questions about different types of fit, their consequences, and related concepts, from the standpoint of her organization.

Table 6. Interview Notes III

Person-Organization Fit
* Person-organization can be defined as the match between an individual's personality characteristics, values, and expectations with the culture of the organization. Every organization has its own rules, norms, and policies as reflections of its culture, which should be adopted by its members. * In recruitment and selection stages of employment, our bank assesses the compatibility of applicants' with specific jobs; but their compatibility with the organizational culture is not systematically assessed.
Person-Job Fit
* Person-job fit is the match between requirements of the job and technical background, knowledge, and skills of the employee. * Although requirements of the job comply with individual abilities, supplies of the job may not fulfill individual expectations. * Both cases results in a decrease in employee motivation, performance; and an increase in job dissatisfaction and quitting intent.
Person-Supervisor Fit
* Person-supervisor fit is the compatibility between supervisors and subordinates in terms of their personality traits and work values. * Since one can choose his/her job and organization, but not his/her supervisor, it is one of the problematic sides of employment experience. * To keep the employee motivation and performance at certain levels, the relationship between an employee and his/her immediate supervisor should be rested upon the bases of reciprocal support, respect, and loyalty.
General Opinions
* In our bank, individuals who quit their jobs generally posited the problems of job and pay dissatisfaction, irrational organizational policies and lack of managerial support, conflicts with the immediate supervisor or work team, and availability of better alternatives elsewhere as the reasons behind their turnover.

In all focus groups and interviews, participants' definitions for different fit types completely overlapped with those in literature. Accordingly, conceptual discussions did not result in the generation of any items that could be integrated to the existent fit scales. Individuals' fit with their jobs was stated as the primary reason behind their job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intents in all discussions, partially

supporting the findings in literature. Finally, in support of the hypotheses of this study, compensatory and supplementary roles of POS and LMX were underlined by most of the participants while discussing the relationship between fit and outcome variables or delineating the association between certain outcomes such as job satisfaction and quitting intents. These exchange relationships were stated to be influential in mitigating the negative effects of misfit and supplementing different relationships in organization settings.

Subsequent to the qualitative research, a quantitative research was initiated comprising the phases of data collection, data analyses, and hypotheses testing. In the following sections, sample characteristics and data collection procedure of the study are explicated followed by the introduction of measurement scales.

Quantitative Research

Sampling and Data Collection

In congruence with the sampling and data collection procedures of previous studies on employee attitudes and particularly on turnover intents (e.g., Shore & Martin, 1989), data was collected from the different work units of five banks operating in Istanbul, Turkey. Limitation of the data collection to a single industry is a conscious decision, which helps to minimize the cross-industry variations in work systems and job titles in selected organizations. In addition, composition of the banks in the sample represents the general classification of deposit banks in Turkish banking system such that two of the banks were privately owned deposits banks (one being

hundred per cent national and the other with a foreign partner), two others were foreign banks, and the last one was a state-owned deposit bank.

According to statistical reports of The Banks Association of Turkey (2010), as of March 2010, the number of banks operating in Turkey is forty-nine, with thirty-two in deposit banks group, thirteen in non-deposit banks group, and four participation banks. Among deposit banks, there are three state-owned banks, eleven privately owned banks, and seventeen foreign banks. Aside from these banks, one bank is categorized as a “Bank under Deposit Insurance Fund”. The banks in the sample were all selected from deposit banks group, through convenience sampling procedure, since their branches are distributed all around the target city, Istanbul, and they have higher number of employees in comparison with the banks in other groups.

At the beginning of the data collection period, the researcher sent an e-mail to the contact persons of the thirty-two deposit banks, who were accessed through the websites of the banks, informal networks, or referrals, to inform them about the scope of the study, advantages of participating it, structure of the survey instrument and to ask for their participation. Those contact persons, who replied in a positive manner and accepted assisting the coordination of data collection in their banks, were visited in their offices to identify the most relevant units in their banks that can participate in the study. Subsequent to these preliminary visits, data collection was started simultaneously in all of the five banks.

In two of the five banks, researcher collected the data herself by visiting the relevant work units (i.e., bank branches and departmental units) and briefing the participants about the scope of the study and questionnaire. The participants were guaranteed for the anonymity of their responses and were not asked their names within the questionnaire. Employees and supervisors were distributed the same

surveys, but if the supervisors had time considerations, they completed a shortened version of the actual questionnaire, including only two questions regarding their individual “value rankings” and a separate part on demographics. Since measurement of one construct (P-S fit) requires the comparison of employees’ surveys with those of their immediate supervisors, questionnaires were distributed to each work unit separately, in sealed envelopes, to ensure supervisor-subordinate correspondence. Completed questionnaires were collected from each unit at the end of that workday within their respective envelopes.

In three banks, contact persons (i.e., three middle-level managers) coordinated the questionnaire distribution and collection themselves since the researcher was not permitted to arrange multiple visits to the headquarters, where the selected work units (i.e., workgroups in different departmental units and project teams in an IT department) for data collection were located. Just like the case for previously visited banks, contact persons were guaranteed for the anonymity of participants before they initiated the data collection processes. The envelopes, which included adequate numbers of questionnaires for each unit, were submitted to the contact persons by researcher and these individuals were requested to collect and submit the questionnaires of each work unit in their respective envelopes.

In total, 227 employees within thirty-five work units participated in the study. Work units ranged from three to twelve employees, within an average size of six employees. Although initially 250 questionnaires were distributed to thirty-eight work units across the selected banks, three work units, which comprised twenty three employees, could not completed the questionnaires due to time restrictions. In addition, fourteen supervisor questionnaires were not included in the actual sample

as they were just used for the computation of supervisor-subordinate value similarity, making the total sample size equivalent to 213.

Out of 213 respondents, 183 indicated their positions in the relevant part of the questionnaire. Approximately, 16 % of the participants were department/branch managers and assistant department/branch managers, 39 % were unit managers and assistant unit managers, 27 % were associates and senior associates, and finally 18 % worked in other positions such as clerks, network analysts, and tellers. In total, respondents in managerial positions constituted 55 % of the sample while non-managers formed the remaining 45 %. In addition, distribution of the respondents' positions differs for each bank as demonstrated in the following table.

Table 7. Distribution of Respondents to Banks and Positions

	Bank A	Bank B	Bank C	Bank D	Bank E	Total
Department/Branch Manager	7	2	-	2	4	15
Assistant Department/Branch Manager	11	-	1	-	2	14
Unit Manager	12	7	16	9	1	45
Assistant Unit Manager	6	-	6	14	2	28
Associates	-	16	3	3	13	35
Senior Associates	-	5	7	1	-	13
Other	7	5	9	5	7	33
Total	43	35	42	34	29	183

In the total sample, average age of respondents is 32.83, ranging from twenty-three to fifty years. As represented in Table 8, females constitute 58.5% of the participants and males constitute the remaining 41.5 %. The most frequently reported education level is university degree (78.3 %), followed by graduate (14.8 %), and high school degrees (6.9 %). Regarding their organizational tenure, majority of the respondents (41.9 %) stated tenures of less than three years whereas 24.2 % of respondents have

tenures of between three and six years. Employees with higher tenures (i.e., more than nine years and between six and nine years) comprised 19.4 % and 14.5 % of the sample respectively. Income distribution of the sample is quite skewed such that 68.1 % of participants earn less than 3000 TL, 23.6 % of them earn between 3000 and 6000 TL, and 8.2 % earn more than 6000 TL.

Table 8. Sample Characteristics

	Number	Percentage
Age (n=206)		
< 25	4	1.9
25-31	86	41.7
32-38	62	30.1
39-45	21	10.2
> 45	33	16.0
Gender (n=193)		
Female	113	58.5
Male	80	41.5
Education Level (n=189)		
High School	13	6.9
University	148	78.3
Master	27	14.3
PhD	1	0.5
Organizational Tenure (n=186)		
0-3 years	78	41.9
3-6 years	45	24.2
6-9 years	27	14.5
> 9 years	36	19.4
Income (n=182)		
< 3000	124	68.1
6000 – 9 000	43	23.6
> 6000	15	8.2

Following the data collection process, data was coded using PASW Statistics 18 and measurement scales were purified for subsequent hypotheses testing. In the next section, measures used in this study are presented in their original formats before the elimination of redundant items.

Measures

Person-Organization Fit

In majority of fit studies, the compatibility between individuals and their respective organizations has been measured in three different ways including subjective, perceived, and objective fit (Kristof, 1996). Subjective fit refers to explicitly asking an individual how well their characteristics match with their employing organization's characteristics (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). In this method, respondents are presumed to have a mental demonstration of the organizational profile and cognitively evaluate the congruence between their personal characteristics and their perception of the organization (Edwards, 1991). The second measurement type, perceived fit, involves individuals' evaluation of themselves as well as their organization's characteristics. In this method, the degree of fit is estimated by measuring the discrepancy between a respondent's self-description and description of the organization (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Perceived fit measures are similar to subjective fit measures in the sense that they both derive fit perceptions from the same respondent, either by directly asking or by requesting the assessment of certain characteristics on individual and organizational bases. In the final measurement method, objective fit, individual characteristics are derived from a group of individuals in an organization, where organizational characteristics are

taken from another group. To the extent that organizational members are in agreement regarding their organization's characteristics, their responses are aggregated to develop a measure of the organization's climate (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006) and fit is calculated through the assessment of congruence between the individual's self-description and organizational climate.

In this study, person-organization fit is measured in terms of the value congruence between individuals and their organizations following a 'perceived fit' perspective and asking respondents' to rate descriptive capacity of certain values for their 'actual' and 'ideal organizations'. The initial aim was to adopt an "objective fit" perspective but participant numbers did not let forming two groups (i.e., one assessing the actual culture and the other expressing desired culture) in each bank.

Among different organizational culture and work values measures, organizational culture profile (OCP) was selected as the relevant scale of measurement. Organizational Culture Profile (O'Reilly et al., 1991) is one of the widely used measures of value congruence that have been utilized by several scholars (e.g., Chatman, 1991; Erdogan et al., 2004; O'Reilly et al., 1991). The OCP consists of 54 value statements (e.g., quality, respect for individuals, flexibility, risk-taking) that stemmed from an examination of academic and practitioner oriented writings on organizational culture and values (e.g., Davis, 1984; Schein, 1985). In the original administration of OCP, respondents are asked to sort 54 items into nine categories considering the importance of these values for their organizations and considering the desirability of selected values in their ideal organization's value system. The distribution of items is specified such that there will be fewer items in the extreme and more items in the middle categories (2-4-6-9-12-9-4-2).

In the present study, Cable and Judge's (1997) 40 item OCP measure, which is a shorter version of original OCP, is used since 54 items take too long to compare and sort. In addition, following the measurement designs in previous studies (e.g., Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Sarros, Gray, Densten, & Cooper, 2005) descriptive capacity of selected values is rated over a 5-point Likert scale (1= very uncharacteristic of the organization 5= very characteristic of the organization) rather than being sorted into different groups; since forced-choice ranking procedure is too hard to be accomplished when applied with the other scales in the questionnaire. In addition, in the Turkish version of the measurement scale, the selected values are provided in the form of descriptive statements (e.g., "My organization is innovative", "My organization confronts conflict directly") that reflect actual/ideal organizational profiles. Person-organization fit is computed for each respondent through correlating the profiles of his/her 'actual' organization with his/her 'ideal' organization. Organizational profiles are computed by aggregating the 'actual profile' ratings of all respondents working in the same organization.

Tables 9 shows those values in the shorter form of OCP measure and are used in this study to define actual and ideal organizational values.

Table 9. Values in Organizational Culture Profile (Cable & Judge, 1997)

Item
Stability
Being reflective
Being innovative
Being quick to take advantage of opportunities
Taking individual responsibility
Risk taking
Opportunities for professional growth
Autonomy
Being rule oriented

Table 9. cont'd

Item
Being analytical
Paying attention to detail
Confronting conflict directly
Being team oriented
Sharing information freely
Being people oriented
Fairness
Not being constrained by many rules
Adaptability
Tolerance
Informality
Decisiveness
Being competitive
Being highly organized
Achievement orientation
Having a clear guiding philosophy
Being results oriented
Having high performance expectations
Being aggressive
High pay for good performance
Security of employment
Offers praise for good performance
Being supportive
Being calm
Developing friends at work
Being socially responsible
Enthusiasm for the job
Working long hours
Having a good reputation
An emphasis on quality
Being distinctive / different from others

Person-Job Fit

In different person-job fit studies which operationalized fit as compatibility between individual needs and job supplies, Porter's need satisfaction questionnaire (PNSQ; Porter, 1962) or Minnesota Job Description Questionnaire (MJDQ; Borgen et al.,

1968) were used so as to derive the ratings of job supplies (e.g., Rice et al., 1989; Rounds, Dawis, & Lofquist, 1987; Scarpello & Campbell, 1983). Employee desires were measured by asking individuals their desired amounts of previously stated job supplies as represented in Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ; Gay et al., 1971).

Distinct from previous studies, which measure fit as the algebraic and absolute differences or sum of squared differences between actual and desired amount for different job facets, in this study, fit is measured through correlating individuals' actual and desired job profiles following the profile comparison process explicated by Caldwell and O'Reilly (1989). For the identification of these profiles, individuals rate the descriptive capacities of each item in MJDQ on a 5-point Likert scale (1= very uncharacteristic of the job 5= very characteristic of the job). As one of the items in MJDQ (i.e., fair administration of company policies and practices) is found irrelevant to the description of a job profile, it is excluded from the scale. In addition, wordings of two items in the original scale are changed for better understanding, by replacing the words "boss" with "supervisor", and "men" with "subordinates". Aside from the items in MJDQ, two job related items are adopted from Rice et al.'s (1989) study. The item "Hours spent on working per week" is converted to "Having reasonable weekly working hours". Selected job attributes for measuring person-job fit is demonstrated in the following table.

Table 10. Selected Job Attributes for Measuring Person-Job Fit (Borgen et al., 1968)

Item	Description
Ability utilization	Making use of individual abilities.
Achievement	Feeling of accomplishment.
Activity	Being busy all the time.
Advancement	Opportunities for advancement.
Authority	Telling people what to do.
Compensation	Being paid well in comparison with other workers.
Co-workers	Having co-workers who are easy to make friends with.
Creativity	Trying out one's own ideas.
Independence	Doing one's work alone.
Moral values	Doing work without feeling that it is morally wrong.
Recognition	Receiving recognition for the work one does.
Responsibility	Making decisions alone.
Security	Having steady employment.
Social service	Doing things for other people.
Social status	Having the position of "somebody" in the community.
Supervision human relations	Having a supervisor who back up his/her subordinates.
Supervision-technical	Having a supervisor who train his/her subordinates well.
Working conditions	Having good working conditions.
Autonomy	Planning one's work with little supervision.
Learning opportunities*	Having learning opportunities while working.
Hours per week*	Having reasonable weekly working hours.

* These items were adopted from Rice et al. (1989).

Person-Supervisor Fit

Respondents' fit with their supervisors is conceptualized as congruence of their work values with those of their leaders and measured by Comparative Emphasis Scale of Ravlin and Meglino (1987). This scale uses a pair-comparison procedure that generates a ranking of four work values: achievement, fairness, and honesty, helping others. Through the assessment of twenty-four pairs of statements, CES produces an

ipsative (hierarchical) measure of each individual's work values that can be compared with the ranking of another individual (in this study, their supervisor) or aggregate ranking of a group of individuals.

The value statements in CES are provided to the respondents as value pairs, in line with the original format of the scale. Person-supervisor fit is computed by correlating the value rankings of subordinates with those of their immediate supervisors.

Table 11. Comparative Emphasis Scale Values for Measuring Person-Supervisor Fit (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987)

Statement	Factor
Taking care of all loose ends on a job or project.	Achievement
Working to meet job requirements even when your personal schedule must be rearranged.	Achievement
Taking on additional tasks to get ahead.	Achievement
Seeking out all opportunities to learn new skills.	Achievement
Being determined to be the best at your work.	Achievement
Finishing each job you start even when others do not.	Achievement
Always setting high performance goals for yourself.	Achievement
Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved.	Achievement
Doing whatever work is required to advance in your career.	Achievement
Maintaining the highest standard for your performance.	Achievement
Trying as hard as you can to learn as much as possible about your job.	Achievement
Taking on more responsibility to get ahead in an organization.	Achievement
Being impartial in dealing with others.	Fairness
Considering different points of view before taking action.	Fairness
Making decisions that are fair to all concerned.	Fairness
Being impartial in judging disagreements.	Fairness
Giving everyone an equal opportunity at work.	Fairness
Judging people fairly based on their abilities rather than only on their personalities.	Fairness
Trying to bring about a fair solution to a dispute.	Fairness
Being sure that work assignments are fair to everyone.	Fairness
Making sure that rewards are given in the fairest possible way.	Fairness

Table 11. cont'd

Statement	Factor
Providing fair treatment for all employees.	Fairness
Allowing each employee to have an equal chance to get rewards.	Fairness
Making sure each person has an equal chance to get rewards or credit	Fairness
Helping others on difficult jobs	Helping Others
Offering help to others when they are having a tough time.	Helping Others
Trying to be helpful to a friend at work.	Helping Others
Trying not to hurt a friend's feelings.	Helping Others
Helping those who are worried about things at work.	Helping Others
Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their job.	Helping Others
Correcting others' errors without embarrassing them.	Helping Others
Lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty.	Helping Others
Trying to avoid hurting other people.	Helping Others
Encouraging someone who is having a difficult day.	Helping Others
Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time.	Helping Others
Trying to help reduce a friend's burden.	Helping Others
Taking actions which represent your true feelings.	Honesty
Speaking your mind even when your views may not be popular.	Honesty
Expressing your true opinions when asked.	Honesty
Admitting an error and accepting the consequences.	Honesty
Admitting to making a mistake rather than covering it up.	Honesty
Always being truthful in dealing with others.	Honesty
Refusing to take credit for ideas of others.	Honesty
Admitting responsibility for errors made.	Honesty
Refusing to tell a lie to make yourself look good.	Honesty
Taking a stand for what you believe in.	Honesty
Refusing to do something you think is wrong.	Honesty
Holding true to your convictions.	Honesty

Job Involvement

Job involvement is measured with a 6-item scale developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965), who initially defined the construct as the “degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work or the importance of work in his total self-image” (p. 24). Respondents rate each item using a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree) different from the original 4-point Likert format, so as to comply with the other scales in the study.

Table 12. Measure of Job Involvement (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965)

Statement
The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.
The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
I am really a perfectionist about my work.
I live, eat, and breathe my job.
I am very much involved personally in my work.
Most things in life are more important than work. (R)*

*Item is reverse coded.

Job Satisfaction

Studies that examined job satisfaction as an outcome of different fit types has generally used one of the widely used satisfaction indices such as Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith et al., 1969), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al., 1967), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Spector, 1985, 1992) and Faces Scale (Kunin, 1955). According to the findings reported by Brief and Roberson (1987), of the three satisfaction measures, the MSQ reflects the highest cognitive orientation, while the Faces scale represents the most affective stance in the evaluation of satisfaction. On the other hand, the JDI was also reported to be primarily cognitive, with the existence of some affective influence as well. In a

similar study, Williams (1988) reported that Brayfield-Rothe scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) has a more affective orientation than other satisfaction measures. Since this study aims primarily to observe the effects of different fit types on affective satisfaction of individuals with their jobs, job satisfaction is measured by using Brayfield-Rothe scale. Although initially this construct was measured with nineteen items consistent with the original scale, subsequent to the pilot study, number of items was reduced to five following the measurements in other studies (e.g., Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). The items are measured by a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

Table 13. Measure of Job Satisfaction (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951)

Statement
I consider my job rather unpleasant.(R)*
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
Each day of work seems like it will never end. (R)
I find real enjoyment in my work.

*Item is reverse coded.

Organizational Commitment

In majority of studies, which investigates the relationships between different types of fit and employees' emotional identification with their organizations, Allen and Meyer's (1990) eight-item measure of affective organizational commitment have been used. In this study, employee commitment is also measured with the same scale; however, due to the high length of questionnaire, commitment items, which have the highest loadings in the original scale, are adapted and rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree) consistent with the other measurement scales in the study.

Table 14. Measure of Organizational Commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Statement
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization. (R)*
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization. (R)
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)
*Item is reverse coded.

Turnover Intentions

Employees' intentions of leaving their organizations are measured with four items developed by Rosin and Korabik (1995). Respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the four statements provided, by rating them on a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). As a modification to original scale, the time span of "six month", which is cited in item two, is changed to "one year" in order to reflect long-term intentions to leave.

Table 15. Measure of Turnover Intentions (Rosin & Korabik, 1991)

Statement
If I had the possibility, I would quit my current job.
In the last year, I have been thinking more often about quitting my job.
I am actively searching for a new job.
I am thinking about quitting my job.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived Organizational Support is measured through a short form of Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) (Eisenberger & Huntington, 1986) which is originally composed of 36 items. The short form of the scale comprises six highest loading items in the original instrument. The response options ranged from 1 to 5 (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree).

Table 16. Measure of Perceived Organizational Support
(Eisenberger & Huntington, 1986)

Statement
My organization really cares about my well-being.
Even if I did the best job possible, my organization would fail to notice. (R) *
My organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.
If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me. (R)
My organization shows very little concern for me. (R)
My organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.

*Item is reverse coded.

Leader-Member Exchange

The quality of LMX relationship is measured with the 12-item LMX

Multidimensional (LMXMDM) scale developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998). The scaling format of the measurement was 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree), in congruence with the other scales in the study.

Table 17. Measures of Leader-Member Exchange (Liden & Maslyn, 1998)

Statement
I like my supervisor very much as a person.
My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.
My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.
My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.
My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.
I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.
I am willing to apply extra efforts beyond those normally required in order to meet his/her work goals.
I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.
I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.
I admire my supervisor's professional skills.
I do not mind working the hardest for him/her.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESULTS

Results of the Pilot Study

Before the distribution of the survey to actual sample, a pilot test was conducted in order to understand whether the questions are understood properly and to check their scale reliability. The data were collected from thirty-five individuals who work for different organizations in different industries. Since the researcher could not reach the immediate supervisors of these respondents, person-supervisor fit could not be computed.

Respondents conveyed one single problem regarding the survey instrument, which is the length of job satisfaction measure. They stated that some of the items in that specific scale resemble one another and might be eliminated. In light of these viable comments and representative studies from literature, this scale was shortened to five items in the actual questionnaire by selecting those items, which had highest factor loadings in the exploratory factor analysis.

Other than this minor problem, the general structure of the survey and sequencing of questions were found appropriate and easy to follow¹. In addition, reliability analyses of the measurement scales indicated high alpha values ranging

¹ Please refer to Appendix A for the English version of the survey and Appendix B for the Turkish version.

from .81 (job involvement) to .95 (turnover intentions) which confirm construct reliability.

Reliability Checks with Actual Sample

With the data acquired from 213 employees, reliability of the constructs is examined by checking Cronbach's Alpha values. Examining the 'Cronbach's alpha if item deleted' column; the following item is deleted from job involvement scale to improve its reliability.

- Most things in life are more important than work.

Subsequent to this deletion, 'Cronbach's alpha if item deleted' column is checked again and this time the following item is eliminated from the scale to further improve the reliability.

- I am really a perfectionist about my work.

Aside from those for Job Involvement scale, no item deletions are made for rest of the constructs since their reliabilities are all above .70, the lower limit of acceptability (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). In addition, since person-organization fit, person-job fit, and person-supervisor fit constructs are measured with single items, represented by correlation values, they cannot be checked for their reliability.

Before aggregating the organizational culture profile ratings of respondents in each organization, ICC(1) and ICC(2) values are computed to provide statistical evidence of within-organization agreement². The analyses indicate that ICC(1) is .19

² ICC(1) pointed out the percentage of variance due to organization (i.e bank) level variability, whereas ICC(2) showed the reliability of the organization means (Bliese, 2000). ICC(1) values different from zero are desirable, with values close to .20 represent high scores (Bliese, 2000). According to Glick (1985), ICC(2) values above .60 are desirable.

and ICC(2) is .61, both of which are at acceptable levels and significantly different from zero.

The resulting Cronbach's alpha value for modified Job Involvement scale and the alphas of other constructs are demonstrated in the following table. Please refer to Appendix C to see all 'Reliability Statistics for the Constructs in the Study'.

Table 18. Cronbach's Alphas of the Constructs

		α
1	Job Involvement	.745
2	Job Satisfaction	.892
3	Organizational Commitment	.812
4	Turnover Intentions	.841
5	Perceived Organizational Support	.875
6	Leader-Member Exchange	.932

Factor Analyses

Before conducting a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the psychometric properties of constructs and then starting hypothesis testing with structural equation modeling, exploratory factor analyses are carried out for all constructs, except person-organization fit, person-supervisor fit and person-job fit, to examine their dimensionality. The stated constructs are not included in factor analyses since they are measured with single items. Nevertheless, the OCP scale, which is used to compute person-organization fit, is investigated for its dimensionality so as to check whether factor structure of this scale match with the original OCP.

As a preliminary step for factor analyses, the constructs in the study are tested for their normality. Normality is checked by examining the statistical value (z) for skewness and kurtosis as well as the significance of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality (please refer to Appendix D for the relevant (z) and significance values for

the assessment of normality). It is seen that aside from person-organization fit and person-job fit, none of the constructs meet normality assumption in Kolmogorov-Smirnov. However, some of the constructs such as person supervisor fit, job involvement, organizational commitment, and perceived organizational support fulfill normality condition in terms of the z values for their skewness and kurtosis since they are lower than the critical value of 1.96 ($p < .05$). Taking the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test into consideration, certain transformations, including taking square root, logarithm, inverse, and logit, are carried out which does not improve the normality.

In order to check linearity assumption, null plot of residuals are examined (please refer to Appendix E for the null plot of residuals). Null plot, where the standardized predicted values for each dependent variable constituted the x-axis and studentized residuals represented by the y-axis, shows a linear relationship between independent and dependent variables since residuals are randomly distributed with relatively equal dispersion about zero, and no strong tendency to be either greater or less than zero (Hair et al., 2009).

Another assumption of multivariate analysis, homoscedasticity, is checked with Levene test of equality of variances in which variances of metric variables are compared across nonmetric variables (Hair et al., 2009). To test this assumption, title categories of respondents are selected as the grouping variables and equality of variances for all constructs are checked among title groups. As presented in the following table, F statistics are nonsignificant for all constructs, representing that there is no heteroscedasticity problem in existing constructs.

Table 19. Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Person-Organization Fit	1.588	3	176	.194
Person-Job Fit	.617	3	167	.605
Person-Supervisor Fit	.957	3	155	.415
Job Involvement	.896	3	179	.444
Job Satisfaction	1.461	3	179	.227
Organizational Commitment	1.130	3	178	.338
Turnover Intentions	.926	3	173	.429
Perceived Organizational Support	.219	3	179	.883
Leader-Member Exchange	.832	3	178	.478

Finally, in order to check the existence of a multicollinearity problem among constructs, independent variables of the study are regressed on the dependent variable, turnover intents, and collinearity statistics (i.e., tolerance and variance inflation factor)³ are examined. Tolerance values are all above the threshold value, .90, and VIF values are quite smaller than the cut off value, 10, (Hair et al., 2009) for all constructs. In addition, condition index, which reflects the multicollinearity problem in overall model, is below the cut off value of 30 (Belsely, Kuh, & Welsch, 1980) that supports the lack of a multicollinearity problem. Collinearity statistics for each independent construct are presented in the following table.

Table 20. Collinearity Statistics

	Tolerance	VIF
Person-Organization Fit	.958	1.044
Person-Job Fit	.949	1.054
Person-Supervisor Fit	.990	1.010
CONDITION INDEX	1.32	

³ Tolerance value is the amount of an independent variable's predictive capability that is not predicted by the other independent variables in the equation. Variance Inflation Factor is the indicator of the effect that the other independence variables have on the standard error of regression coefficient.

Subsequent to the assumption checking, exploratory factor analyses are conducted for each construct to check their dimensionality. As delineated before, individual ratings for the cultural profiles of their existing organizations are factor analyzed as well, in order to examine whether factor structure of this scale match with the original OCP.

According to the results of factor analyses, which are represented in Table 21, all constructs, other than the leader-member exchange and OCP, are unidimensional. Total variances explained range from 56.84% to 70.50% showing that derived factors explain more than half of the variance in the constructs. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy values, which demonstrate the appropriateness of data for factor analysis, are all at acceptable levels, exceeding the critical value of .50. Besides, none of the values in measures of sampling adequacy diagonals is less than the critical value of .50 as well. Significances of Bartlett's test of sphericity are all significant showing that correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables (Hair et al., 2009). Confirming this finding, a hundred per cent of the item correlations are significant for all constructs in their respective correlation matrices.

Factor analysis for OCP yield eight distinct factors, which comprise thirty-two items, and the resulting solution accounted for 64.38% of the variance among the data. In general, the OCP scale used in the study has a similar factor structure to original OCP where four of the eight factors (i.e., respect for people, innovation, outcome orientation, aggressiveness) exactly match with the original culture dimensions and the two represent a combination of separate factors (i.e., team/people orientation and stability/attention to detail). Besides, two new factors (i.e., high reputation and working hours), which are not found in the original study, was

extracted. Appendix F presents the item loadings in each OCP factor together with their respective eigenvalues, variance explained, and cumulative variance explained.

Different from the general factor analysis findings reported in previous studies, which reported four separate dimensions of LMX, only two dimensions are extracted in this study. Items, which describe the affect, contribution, and professional respect dimensions of LMX in previous studies, load on a single factor; whereas items defining loyalty load on another that accounted for the 69.15% of the total variance cumulatively. In Appendix G, item loadings of LMX factors are provided with respective eigenvalues, variance explained, and cumulative variance explained figures.

Table 21. Summary Information on Factor Analyses

	Number of Factors	Total Variance Explained	KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Lowest Correlation in Measures of Sampling Adequacy Diagonal	% of Significant Correlations in the Correlation Matrix
Job Involvement	1	56.84%	.715	.000	.708	100%
Job Satisfaction	1	70.50%	.843	.000	.799	100%
Organizational Commitment	1	68.03%	.757	.000	.703	100%
Turnover Intentions	1	68.04%	.777	.000	.765	100%
Perceived Organizational Support	1	61.78%	.868	.000	.841	100%
Leader-Member Exchange	2	69.15%	.911	.000	.870	100%
Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)	8	64.38%	.921	.000	.571	100%

Measure Validation with Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Apart from the exploratory factor analyses, psychometric properties of constructs are further evaluated by estimating three confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) models in AMOS 18. First CFA is conducted to assess the reliability and the validity of four endogenous constructs in the study. The second and third measurement models are estimated for the same constructs in order to test for external validity and examine configural and metric invariance of the study data across two groups (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000).

Since the moderators (i.e., POS and LMX) are not included in the structural model of the study and just used for splitting data into two groups to assess moderation, they are not included in the previously defined measurement models. Likewise, fit constructs, which are measured by single items, are not incorporated into the measurement model in line with the reasoning pointed out by Hair et al. (2009). These authors stated:

Although single items can adequately represent some phenomena, operationally, they can be difficult to validate. When in doubt, and when multiple items are truly available, using multiple items is the safest approach (p. 701).

In the first measurement model, consistent with the basic procedure in CFA, each item's loading is restricted to its priori factor and each factor is allowed to correlate with other factors. The fit indexes of the model are $\chi^2_{(113)} = 322.3$, $p < .01$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .86; goodness-of-fit index (GFI) = .81 root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .11; and root mean square residual (RMR) = .10. Examining the standardized regression weights and squared multiple correlation values, items with relatively low factor loadings (considerably smaller

than .70) and correlations are eliminated. In the following table, the list of deleted items along with their factor loadings and squared multiple correlations are provided.

Table 22. Summary Information on Deleted Items

Item	Standardized Regression Weights	Squared Multiple Correlations
Job Involvement		
The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.	.570	.556
The most important things that happen to me involve my work.	.588	.485
Job Satisfaction		
I find real enjoyment in my work.	.573	.329
Organizational Commitment		
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	.549	.301

After the item purification, fit indexes ($\chi^2_{(59)} = 149.2$, $p < .01$; CFI = .93; GFI = .93; RMSEA = .10; and RMR = .07) are all at acceptable levels⁴. All factor loadings, which are shown in Appendix H, are significant ($p < .01$) and the average variance extracted (AVE) by each construct is larger than .50 indicating the existence of convergent validity. Besides, discriminant validity, which represents the extent to which a construct is conceptually distinct from other constructs (Hair et al., 2009), is attained as well since the AVE values for any two constructs are greater than the square of the correlation between those constructs and there are no cross-loadings of items (Hair et al., 2009). The reliability of each scale is above .70, which conveys that together with the validity scales, measures of the study are valid and reliable.

⁴ According to Hair et al. (2009), CFI and GFI values should be greater than .90 to indicate good model fit whereas RMSEA should be between .03 and .08; and RMR should be smaller than .08. Ideally, the χ^2 statistic should be represented with low values; however, it does not meet this condition most of the time. χ^2 does not summarize the fit of a model well since the statistical test or resulting p -value is less meaningful as sample size increases or the number of observed variables increases.

Table 23 presents descriptive statistics and correlations for all constructs. As it is shown in the table, all independent variables except person-supervisor fit are significantly correlated with job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Person-supervisor fit is correlated with none of the independent or dependent variables indicating its low predicting power. In general, all variables except person-supervisor fit, are negatively correlated with turnover intention and positively correlated with each other, excluding the negative relationship between person-job fit and person-organization fit ($r = -.23, p < .05$). Besides, the highest correlation are found between perceived organizational support and turnover intention ($r = .62, p < .05$) followed by the correlation between organizational commitment and turnover intention ($r = -.57, p < .05$).

Table 23. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

		M	SD	AVE	Reliability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Person-Organization Fit	.02	.22	na	na	1								
2	Person-Job Fit	.14	.34	na	na	-.23*	1							
3	Person-Supervisor Fit	.08	.59	na	na	.04	-.09	1						
4	Job Involvement	2.70	.87	.58	.72	.19*	.17**	-.14	1					
5	Job Satisfaction	3.52	.87	.68	.89	.16**	.34*	-.03	.44*	1				
6	Organizational Commitment	3.12	.97	.70	.84	.19*	.23*	-.09	.33*	.44*	1			
7	Turnover Intention	2.65	.87	.61	.85	-.20*	-.37*	.06	-.41*	-.55*	-.57*	1		
8	Perceived Organizational Support	3.02	.78	na	.88	.14**	.40*	-.08	.36*	.62*	.51*	-.55*	1	
9	Leader-Member Exchange	3.82	.69	na	.93	.10	.28*	-.09	.30*	.40*	.29*	-.34*	.51*	1

^a = All reliability scores, excluding those for POS and LMX, were construct reliability values computed from the squared sum of factor loadings for each construct and the sum of the error variance terms for a construct. Reliability scores for POS and LMX were their respective Cronbach's Alpha values.

* = $p < .05$ (two-sided)

** = $p < .01$ (two-sided)

Subsequent to the test of measurement model with the whole sample, two multigroup analyses are undertaken to ensure that the measures can be used in cross group comparisons (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). As an initial step, data are divided into two groups for each of the moderator constructs following a median split procedure. For the first moderator, individuals whose POS scores are larger than 3.00 (median), form the “high POS group” (i.e., individuals who perceive high support from their organizations) whereas the others having POS scores smaller than 3.00 form the “low POS group” (i.e., individuals who perceive low support from their organizations). For the second moderator, individuals whose LMX scores are larger than 3.83 (median), represent the “high LMX group” (i.e., individuals who have high quality leader-member exchange relationships with their supervisors) whereas the others having LMX scores smaller than 3.83 represent “low LMX group” (i.e., individuals who have low high quality leader-member exchange relationships with their supervisors). Next, for each moderator, a multigroup CFA is conducted.

According to Hair et al. (2009), in order to confirm that constructs are perceived and used in a similar manner across groups, at least, it is necessary to attain full configural and partial metric invariance of the measures in the CFA. The authors state:

For the configural invariance, researchers should confirm that each group CFA model has the same number of constructs and items associated with each construct. [...] The second stage [...] involves the equivalence of the factor loadings. Metric invariance establishes the equivalence of the basic “meaning” of the construct because loadings denote the relationship between indicators and latent construct. [...] The chi-square difference test is a test for full invariance, meaning that constraining all the parameters relative to that type of invariance to be the same in each group does not significantly worsen fit. A consensus has developed that if two parameters per construct (e.g., loadings in metric invariance) are found to be invariant, then partial invariance is found and the process can extend to the next stage (p. 760, 761).

In the first multigroup analysis, which is conducted for high and low POS groups, goodness of fit statistics support the existence configural invariance of the measures across groups ($\chi^2_{(120)} = 214.86$, $p < .01$; CFI = .90; GFI = .83; RMSEA = .07; and RMR = .07) with three of the five fit indices within acceptable levels. Support is also found for metric invariance of the measures ($\chi^2_{(129)} = 227.25$, $p < .01$; CFI = .90; GFI = .83; RMSEA = .07; and RMR = .08). The chi-square difference test for the configural and metric invariance models shows that the additional variance constraint on the factor loadings (i.e., constraining the factor loadings to be equal across groups) does not significantly affect the fit of the CFA model when compared to unconstrained configural invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(9)} = 12.39$, $p > .10$). All of these findings confirm the existence of measurement invariance for the first multigroup analysis.

The second multigroup analysis is conducted for the subgroups (i.e., high vs. low) of the LMX construct. Just like the previous findings for high and low POS groups, goodness of fit indexes support the existence configural invariance of the measures across the subgroups of LMX ($\chi^2_{(120)} = 211.68$, $p < .01$; CFI = .92; GFI = .83; RMSEA = .07; and RMR = .08) with three of the five fit indices within acceptable levels. Metric invariance of the measures are supported as well with adequate fit statistics ($\chi^2_{(129)} = 224.88$, $p < .01$; CFI = .92; GFI = .83; RMSEA = .07; and RMR = .09). Finally, the chi-square difference test for the configural and metric invariance models indicates that the additional variance constraint on the factor loadings does not significantly affect the fit of the measurement model when compared to unconstrained configural invariance model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(9)} = 13.2$, $p > .10$). These findings confirm the existence of measurement invariance for the second multigroup analysis as well.

Hypotheses Testing with Structural Equation Modeling

After the measurement models are demonstrated to be acceptable, structural relationships in the hypothesized model is tested using the structural equation modeling methodology in AMOS 18. Similar to the procedure in measurement model testing, three structural models are estimated in this part of the research; one for testing the general relationships in the model using the whole sample data; and two others for investigating the moderators' effects on hypothesized relationships.

In all of the models, fit constructs, which are measured by single items, are included in the model consistent with the procedure discussed by Yilmaz, Alpkın, and Ergun (2005) such that the error variances of these constructs are set to 10% of their observed variances.

The fit indices ($\chi^2_{(88)} = 207.29$, $p < .01$; CFI = .91; GFI = .86; RMSEA = .09; and RMR = .06) for the first structural model, in which the relationships between different fit dimensions and outcome variables are assessed independent of the effects of moderator variables, show that the hypothesized model fits the data well. Among the selected indexes, CFI and RMR are at acceptable levels and GFI and RMSEA depart from their critical values⁵ to a little extent. The parameter estimates for the hypothesized paths are provided in Table 24 and Figure 2 demonstrates the structural path estimates in the hypothesized model.

The results suggest that individuals' fit with their organizations and supervisors do not have a significant effect on their job satisfaction (H1a, H4a), organizational commitment (H1b, H4b), and turnover intentions (H1c, H4c). On the other hand, individuals' fit with their jobs positively affect their job satisfaction

⁵ >.90 for GFI and between .03 and .08 for RMSEA.

(H2a) ($\gamma = .26, p < .05$) and negatively influence their turnover intentions (H2c) ($\gamma = -.15, p < .05$), while it does not have a significant effect on their organizational commitment (H2b). The relationship between person-job fit and job satisfaction is partially mediated by job involvement since the paths from person-job fit to job involvement (H3a) ($\gamma = .25, p < .01$) and from job involvement to job satisfaction (H3b) ($\gamma = .51, p < .05$) are both significant in addition to the direct path from job fit to job satisfaction ($\gamma = .26, p < .05$). Similarly, the relationship between person-job fit and turnover intention is also partially mediated by job involvement and job satisfaction since the paths from person-job fit to job involvement ($\gamma = .25, p < .01$), person-job fit to job satisfaction ($\gamma = .26, p < .05$) and from job involvement to turnover intention (H3d) ($\beta = -.19, p < .05$), job satisfaction to turnover intention (H6c) ($\beta = -.40, p < .05$) are all significant together with the direct path from person-job fit to turnover intention ($\gamma = -.15, p < .05$).

Table 24. Parameter Estimates

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Non-standardized parameter estimate	Standardized parameter estimate	t Value	Results of Hypotheses Testing
1a	Person-organization fit → Job satisfaction	.11	.03	.36	Not supported
1b	Person-organization fit → Organizational commitment	.33	.08	.89	Not supported
1c	Person-organization fit → Turnover intention	.19	.04	.58	Not supported
2a	Person-job fit → Job satisfaction	.56	.26	3.11*	Supported
2b	Person-job fit → Organizational commitment	.29	.12	1.29*	Not supported
2c	Person-job fit → Turnover intention	-.42	-.15	-2.05*	Supported
3a	Person-job fit → Job Involvement	.48	.25	2.54*	Supported
3b	Job Involvement → Job satisfaction	.56	.51	4.67**	Supported
3c	Job Involvement → Organizational commitment	.37	.29	2.42*	Supported
3d	Job Involvement → Turnover intention	-.27	-.19	-1.99*	Supported
4a	Person-supervisor fit → Job satisfaction	-.00	-.00	-.06	Not supported
4b	Person-supervisor fit → Organizational Commitment	-.07	-.05	-.62	Not supported
4c	Person-supervisor fit → Turnover intention	-.07	-.04	-.67	Not supported
6a	Job satisfaction → Organizational commitment	.19	.17	1.48	Not supported
6b	Organizational commitment → Turnover intention	-.49	-.43	-5.05**	Supported
6c	Job satisfaction → Turnover intention	-.40	-.31	-3.25**	Supported

* = $p < .05$ (one-sided)** = $p < .01$ (one-sided)

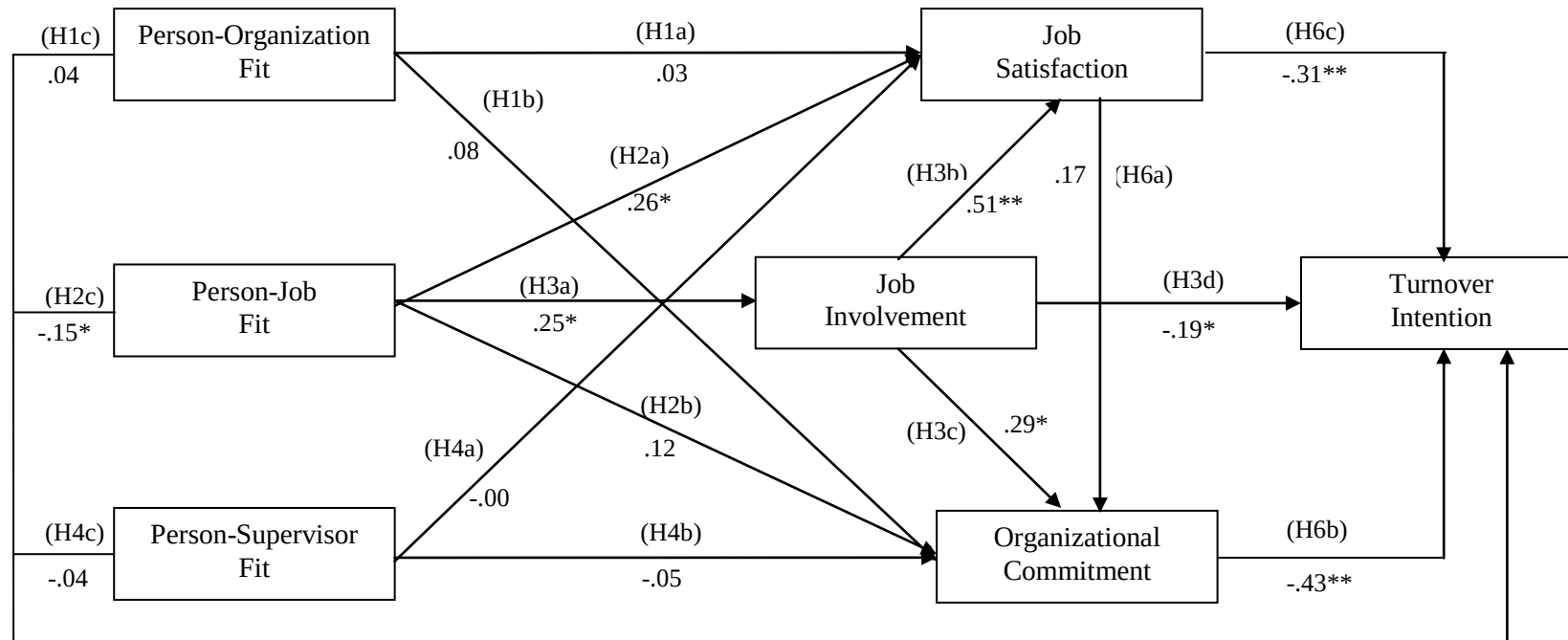


Fig. 2 Hypothesized model with standardized path coefficients

The hypotheses regarding the relative predictive power of different fit types on employees' organizational commitment and turnover intentions (H5a, H5c) are not supported since two particular fit types, person-organization fit and person-supervisor fit, are not significantly related to any of these attitudinal outcomes. However, hypothesis H5b, which states that employees' fit with their jobs has the strongest impact on their job satisfaction, is fully supported since person-job fit is found to be the sole predictor of employees' job satisfaction.

Hypotheses concerning the relationships between attitudinal outcomes are fully supported except for the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (H6a). As hypothesized, job satisfaction and organizational commitment are both positively related to turnover intentions (H6b, H6c) where organizational commitment has a higher predictive effect ($\beta_{JS} = -.31, p < .01$; $\beta_{OC} = -.43, p < .01$). These constructs act as partial mediator in job involvement - turnover intentions relationships; where job satisfaction mediates the relationship between person-job fit and turnover intentions as well.

In addition to the previous analyses, the existence of a full mediation (i.e., no direct paths between exogenous and endogenous constructs) is evaluated by eliminating the direct paths in the model and examining the significance of change in chi-square value. The chi-square difference test reveals that partial mediation model in which direct relationships are maintained has a significantly better fit ($\Delta\chi^2_{(6)} = 20.08, p < .01$) than the full mediation model, which involves no direct relationships. Examination of the total effect sizes (i.e., effect sizes of both direct and indirect paths) of different constructs on turnover intentions reveals that job involvement has the highest total effect on turnover intentions (-.51), followed by organizational commitment (-.43), person-job fit (-.43), and job satisfaction (-.37) respectively.

In order to examine the moderators' effects in the hypothesized model, two-group comparisons within the structural equation methodology are conducted. For each moderator, the sample is divided into two groups (one high and one low on the moderating variable) with a median split procedure. In each multigroup analysis, a chi-square difference test is used to compare the model in which all hypothesized relationships are constrained to be equal across two groups with an unconstrained model in which the hypothesized paths are allowed to vary freely across the low and high groups. The moderating hypotheses are supported if the unconstrained model has a significantly lower chi-square than the constrained model and if the effects are in the hypothesized direction.

Hair et al. (2009) state:

Multigroup SEM is used to test moderating effects when the moderating variable is either nonmetric or a metric moderator has been transformed into a non metric variable. Moderation typically involves the test of structural model estimates. [...] As an initial step, some form of metric invariance must be established before examining any differences in structural model estimates. With measurement invariance established, the structural model estimate then assessed for moderation by a comparison of group models, much like invariance testing (p. 771).

Since the metric invariance across groups is confirmed before, examination of the structural model estimates is conducted. For the first moderator (POS), both unconstrained and constrained models show quite acceptable fit indices ($CFI_{UN} = .89$ $RMSEA_{UN} = .07$; $CFI_{CON} = .88$ $RMSEA_{CON} = .07$), indicating their overall acceptability. On the other hand, chi square difference test reveals that high and low POS groups differ significantly in terms of the hypothesized relationships ($\Delta\chi^2_{(25)} = 46.8$, $p < .01$), providing support for "structural variance" in two multigroup models.

As demonstrated in Table 25, the moderating role of POS in fit-outcome relationships is supported only for certain paths. Similar to the full sample results,

individuals' fit with their organizations and supervisors do not have an influence on their job satisfaction, providing lack of support for moderating effect (H7a-1, H7a-3) of POS. The influence of job fit on job satisfaction is confirmed for both of the groups but the compensatory role of POS is not supported (H7a-2) since high and low POS groups do not differ significantly with respect to the relationship between their job fit and job satisfaction ($\gamma_{\text{HIGH}} = .32, p < .01, \gamma_{\text{LOW}} = .33, p < .01; \Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 1.40, p > .10$). Besides, the specific relationship between person-job fit and job involvement (H7b) is significant only for high POS group ($\gamma = .28, p < .05$) in contrast to the expected stronger effect for low POS group.

Similar to its effects on fit - job satisfaction linkages, POS does not moderate the relationships between individuals' fit with their organizations, fit with their supervisors and their organizational commitment (H7c-1, H7c-3). Nevertheless, it has a strong moderating effect in person-job fit – organizational commitment relationship such that in support of H7c-2, individuals' job fit positively affects their organizational commitment in low POS group ($\gamma = .40, p < .01$) while this effect is non-existent in high POS group, where support perceptions substitute the effects of job fit on employee commitment.

Table 25. Moderation of Perceived Organizational Support in Hypothesized Relationships

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Standardized Parameter Estimate		t Value	Hypothesized Moderating Effect of POS	Results of Hypothesis Testing
7a-1	Person-organization fit → Job satisfaction	High	-.16	-1.33	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.15	1.23		
7a-2	Person-job fit → Job satisfaction	High	.32	2.65***	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.33	2.67***		
7a-3	Person-supervisor fit → Job satisfaction	High	-.12	-1.22	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.11	.97		
7b	Person-job fit → Job involvement	High	.28	2.13**	Compensatory	Not Supported
		Low	-.03	-.18		
7c-1	Person-organization fit → Organizational Commitment	High	.06	.49	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.21	1.46		
7c-2	Person-job fit → Organizational Commitment	High	-.13	-.96	Compensatory	Supported
		Low	.40	2.58***		
7c-3	Person-supervisor fit → Organizational Commitment	High	-.08	.70	Compensatory	Not Supported
		Low	.14	1.06		
7d-1	Person-organization fit → Turnover Intention	High	-.00	-.03	Supplementary	Not Supported
		Low	.13	.93		
7d-2	Person-job fit → Turnover Intention	High	-.19	-1.75*	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	.04	.24		
7d-3	Person-supervisor fit → Turnover Intention	High	-.21	-2.35**	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	.16	1.32		

* = $p < .10$ (one-sided)** = $p < .05$ (one-sided)*** = $p < .01$ (one-sided)

Table 25. cont'd

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Standardized Parameter Estimate		t Value	Hypothesized Moderating Effect of POS	Results of Hypothesis Testing
7e	Job involvement → Job satisfaction	High	.51	3.63***	Supplementary	Not supported
		Low	.47	2.81***		
7f	Job involvement → Organizational Commitment	High	.07	.46	Supplementary	Not Supported
		Low	.37	1.75*		
7g	Job involvement → Turnover Intention	High	-.18	-1.43	Supplementary	Not Supported
		Low	-.06	-.31		
7h	Job satisfaction → Organizational Commitment	High	.47	2.66***	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	-.28	-1.48		
7i	Job satisfaction → Turnover Intention	High	-.45	-2.85**	Supplementary	Not supported
		Low	-.41	-2.28**		
7j	Organizational Commitment → Turnover Intention	High	-.27	-2.55***	Complementary	Supported
		Low	-.51	-3.13***		

*= p < .10 (one-sided)

**= p < .05 (one-sided)

*** = p < .01 (one- sided)

The expected negative effect of person-organization fit on turnover intention is nonsignificant for both groups, which signifies a lack of support for the moderating effect of POS in this specific relationship (H7d-1). However, the supplementary role of POS is confirmed for person-job fit, person-supervisor fit – turnover intentions relationships (H7d-2 and H7d-3) where the negative effects of job fit and supervisor fit on turnover intents are significant only for high POS group ($\gamma_{\text{JOB FIT}} = -.19, p < .10$; $\gamma_{\text{SUPERVISOR FIT}} = -.21, p < .05$). Though the results showed that hypothesized effects are nonsignificant for low POS group, since the supplementary effect is confirmed through the strong negative impacts of two fit dimensions in high POS group, the hypotheses are considered to be supported.

As suggested in hypothesis H7e, the positive effect of job involvement on job satisfaction is stronger for high POS group ($\beta = .51, p < .01$) than it is for low POS group ($\beta = .47, p < .01$). Nevertheless, since the difference in effect sizes is not significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = .99, p > .10$), the specified hypothesis is not supported. Besides, the effect of job involvement on commitment is only marginally significant for low POS group ($\beta = .47, p < .10$) in contrast to its expected supplementary effect in high POS group (H7f) which describes a compensatory role for POS in involvement-commitment relationships rather than a supplementary role. The final path from job involvement, which links the construct to turnover intention, is nonsignificant for both groups (H7g) which declines the moderating role of LMX in this specific relationship.

In support of hypothesis H7h, job satisfaction is found to have a strong effect on organizational commitment for high POS group ($\beta = .47, p < .01$). On the other hand, the supplementary role of POS in job satisfaction – turnover intention relationship (H7i) is not supported since the effect of job satisfaction on turnover

intentions is only marginally higher for POS group ($\beta = -.45, p < .05$) when compared its effect with that for low POS group ($\beta = -.41, p < .05$), which makes the difference in effect sizes is not significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = .62, p > .10$).

The path coefficients for organizational commitment - turnover intention relationship provide support for the hypothesis H7j such that this relationship is stronger for individuals in low POS group ($\beta = -.27, p < .01$) than for those in high POS group ($\beta = -.51, p < .01$) with a statistically significant difference in effect sizes ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 3.00, p < .10$).

In the second multigroup analysis, the moderating effects of LMX in hypothesized relationships are examined. Just like the situation for POS, both unconstrained and constrained models show acceptable fit indices ($CFI_{UN} = .89$ $RMSEA_{UN} = .07$; $CFI_{CON} = .89$ $RMSEA_{CON} = .07$). Besides, chi square difference test indicates that high and low LMX groups differ significantly with respect to the hypothesized relationships ($\Delta\chi^2_{(24)} = 55.6, p < .01$) confirming the “structural variance” in two groups.

Examination of standardized path estimates presented in Table 26 reveals that just like the case for POS, individuals' fit with their organizations and supervisors do not have an influence on their job satisfaction in none of the groups, showing that the compensatory role of LMX is not valid for those specific relationships (H8a-1, H8a-3). On the other hand, person-job fit has a significant effect on job satisfaction in both groups of LMX ($\gamma_{LOW} = .31, p < .01, \gamma_{HIGH} = .29, p < .01$); nevertheless, the difference in effect sizes is not significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = .44, p > .10$), contrary to the hypothesized relationship in hypothesis H8a-2. Besides, the specific relationship between person-job fit and job involvement is significant, though marginally, only

for high LMX group ($\gamma = .26, p < .10$), contrary to the expected stronger effect of the construct for low LMX group (H8b).

Paths linking person-job fit and person-supervisor fit to organizational commitment are nonsignificant in both subgroups (H8c-2, H8c-3), which constitute a lack of support for expected compensatory effect of LMX in stated relationships. As opposed to the hypothesized moderating effect (H8c-1), the path from person-organization fit to organizational commitment is significant only for high LMX group ($\gamma = .33, p < .05$), indicating the supplementary role of LMX in shaping the relationship between individuals' fit with their organizations and their commitment.

With respect to the direct relationships between different fit dimensions and turnover intentions, the results show that among three fit types, person-supervisor fit has a significant negative effect on turnover intentions for high LMX group ($\gamma = -2.56, p < .01$) confirming the expected supplementary role of LMX in supervisor-fit – turnover intents relationship (Hd-3). Individuals' fit with their organizations and fit with their jobs are found to influence their turnover intentions in none of the groups, demonstrating a lack of support for the moderator hypotheses Hd-1 and Hd-2.

Table 26. Moderation of Leader-Member Exchange in Hypothesized Relationships

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Standardized Parameter Estimate		t Value	Hypothesized Moderating Effect of LMX	Results of Hypothesis Testing
8a-1	Person-organization fit → Job satisfaction	High	-.00	-.07	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.14	1.19		
8a-2	Person-job fit → Job satisfaction	High	.29	2.52***	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.29	2.55***		
8a-3	Person-supervisor fit → Job satisfaction	High	-.14	-1.46	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.13	1.24		
8b	Person-job fit → Job involvement	High	.26	.51*	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.18	1.29		
8c-1	Person-organization fit → Organizational Commitment	High	.33	2.30**	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	-.03	-.25		
8c-2	Person-job fit → Organizational Commitment	High	-.13	-.77	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.10	-.84		
8c-3	Person-supervisor fit → Organizational Commitment	High	-.14	-1.11	Compensatory	Not supported
		Low	.14	1.31		
8d-1	Person-organization fit → Turnover Intention	High	.21	1.59	Supplementary	Not supported
		Low	-.12	-1.21		
8d-2	Person-job fit → Turnover Intention	High	-.07	-.54	Supplementary	Not supported
		Low	-.07	-.72		
8d-3	Person-supervisor fit → Turnover Intention	High	-.28	-2.56***	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	.10	.15		

* = $p < .10$ (one-sided)** = $p < .05$ (one-sided)*** = $p < .01$ (one-sided)

Table 26. cont'd

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Path	Standardized Parameter Estimate		t Value	Hypothesized Moderating Effect of LMX	Results of Hypothesis Testing
8e	Job involvement → Job satisfaction	High	.73	4.49***	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	.20	1.80*		
8f	Job involvement → Organizational Commitment	High	-.34	-1.16	Supplementary	Not supported
		Low	.53	3.37*		
8g	Job involvement → Turnover Intention	High	.40	4.49***	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	.16	1.79*		
8h	Job satisfaction → Organizational Commitment	High	.80	2.31**	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	-.01	-.09		
8i	Job satisfaction → Turnover Intention	High	-.96	-6.32***	Supplementary	Supported
		Low	-.41	-3.74***		
8j	Organizational Commitment → Turnover Intention	High	-.30	-2.08**	Compensatory	Supported
		Low	-.68	-5.44***		

* = $p < .10$ (one- sided)** = $p < .05$ (one-sided)*** = $p < .01$ (one-sided)

The supplementary role of LMX in job involvement – outcome relationships is supported in two of the three hypothesized paths. Accordingly, the effect of job involvement on job satisfaction is stronger for high LMX group ($\beta = .73, p < .01$) than it is for low LMX group ($\beta = .20, p < .10$), and the difference in effect sizes is statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 3.2, p < .10$) (H8e). Similarly, the effect of job involvement on turnover intention is stronger for high LMX group ($\beta = .40, p < .01$) than it is for low LMX group ($\beta = .16, p < .10$), and again the difference in effect sizes is statistically significant ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 5.88, p < .05$) (H8g). The expected form of the relationship between job involvement and organizational commitment (H8f) is not supported since this relationship is significant only for low LMX group ($\beta = .53, p < .01$), denoting a compensatory moderator effect.

With respect to the satisfaction – commitment relationship, H8h states that individuals' job satisfaction influences their organizational commitment more strongly when they have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors. This hypothesis is fully supported in findings since job satisfaction has a significant positive effect on organizational commitment for high LMX group ($\beta = .80, p < .05$), while this effect is nonexistent for low LMX group. The hypothesis regarding the influence of job satisfaction on turnover intentions (H8i) is fully supported as well, since the negative relationship between these employee outcomes is stronger for high LMX group ($\beta = -.96, p < .01$) than it is for low LMX group ($\beta = -.41, p < .01$) with a significant difference in their respective path estimates ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 13.05, p < .01$). Finally, consistent with the suggested compensatory effect of LMX (H8j), the negative relationship between organizational commitment and turnover intention is stronger in low LMX group ($\beta = -.68, p < .05$) than it is in high LMX group ($\beta = -$

.30, $p < .01$), and the difference in effects sizes is again significant for the selected groups ($\Delta\chi^2_{(1)} = 4.46$, $p < .05$).

The subsequent table demonstrates the summary of the results of hypotheses testing. Next, the discussion of these results together with the theoretical and practical implications of the study is provided. Besides, certain limitations in sampling and data collection procedures are explicated, followed by the concluding remarks for the study.

Table 27. Summary of the Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Results of Hypothesis Testing
H1a	There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their organization and their job satisfaction.	Not supported
H1b	There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their organization and their organizational commitment.	Not supported
H1c	There is a negative relationship between employees' fit with their organization and their turnover intentions.	Not supported
H2a	There is a positive relationship between employees' job fit and their job satisfaction.	Supported
H2b	There is a positive relationship between employees' job fit and their organizational commitment.	Not supported
H2c	There is a negative relationship between employees' job fit and their turnover intentions.	Supported
H3a	There is a positive relationship between employees' job fit and their job involvement.	Supported
H3b	There is a positive relationship between employees' job involvement and their job satisfaction.	Supported
H3c	There is a positive relationship between employees' job involvement and their organizational commitment.	Supported
H3d	There is a negative relationship between employees' job involvement and their turnover intentions.	Supported
H4a	There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their job satisfaction.	Not supported
H4b	There is a positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their organizational commitment.	Not supported

Table 27. cont'd

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Results of Hypothesis Testing
H4c	There is a negative relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their turnover intentions.	Not supported
H5a	Among three fit types, employees' fit with their organizations has the strongest impact on their organizational commitment, followed by the impact of fit with their jobs and supervisors respectively.	Not supported
H5b	Among three fit types, employees' fit with their jobs has the strongest impact on their job satisfaction, followed by the impact of fit with their organizations and supervisors respectively.	Supported
H5c	Among three fit types, employees' fit with their organizations has the strongest impact on their turnover intentions, followed by the impact of fit with their jobs and supervisors respectively.	Not supported
H6a	There is a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their organizational commitment.	Not supported
H6b	There is a negative relationship between employees' affective commitment to the organization and their turnover intentions.	Supported
H6c	There is a negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their turnover intentions.	Supported
H7a-1	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' fit with their organizations and their job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Not supported
H7a-2	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' fit with their jobs and their job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Not supported
H7a-3	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Not supported
H7b	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job fit and job involvement such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Not supported

Table 27. cont'd

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Results of Hypothesis Testing
H7c-1	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' fit with their organizations and their organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Not supported
H7c-2	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' fit with their jobs and their organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Supported
H7c-3	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Not supported
H7d-1	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' fit with their organizations and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.	Not supported
H7d-2	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' fit with jobs and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.	Supported
H7d-3	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' fit with supervisors and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.	Supported
H7e	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.	Not supported
H7f	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.	Not supported

Table 27. cont'd

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Results of Hypothesis Testing
H7g	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' job involvement and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.	Not supported
H7h	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with lower support perceptions.	Supported
H7i	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive higher organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Not supported
H7j	Perceptions of organizational support moderate the negative relationship between employees' organizational commitment and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who perceive lower organizational support than for those with higher support perceptions.	Supported
H8a-1	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' fit with their organizations and their job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Not supported
H8a-2	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' fit with their jobs and their job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Not supported
H8a-3	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Not supported

Table 27. cont'd

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Results of Hypothesis Testing
H8b	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job fit and job involvement such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Not supported
H8c-1	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' fit with their organizations and their organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Not supported
H8c-2	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' fit with their jobs and their organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Not supported
H8c-3	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Not supported
H8d-1	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' fit with their organizations and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.	Not supported
H8d-2	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' fit with their jobs and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.	Not supported
H8d-3	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' fit with their supervisors and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.	Supported

Table 27. cont'd

Hypothesis	Hypothesized Relationship	Results of Hypothesis Testing
H8e	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and job satisfaction such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationship with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.	Supported
H8f	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job involvement and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.	Not supported
H8g	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' job involvement and turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with lower quality LMX.	Supported
H8h	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships than for those with lower quality LMX.	Supported
H8i	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' job satisfaction and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have higher quality LMX relationships than for those with lower quality LMX.	Supported
H8j	Leader-member exchange relationship moderates the negative relationship between employees' organizational commitment and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is stronger for those employees who have lower quality LMX relationships with their supervisors than for those with higher quality LMX.	Supported

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the effects of employees' fit with different aspects of the work environment on their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intents. Another aim is to comprehend how these effects are modified by the influences of two different social exchange mechanisms in organizations; that are perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange relationships.

To test the hypothesized relationships, a preliminary qualitative study, which consists of three focus groups and three interviews, and a quantitative research that comprises a survey are conducted. Data are collected from 213 employees who work in five different banks operating in Istanbul, Turkey and analyzed with structural equation modeling procedure in AMOS18.

The major finding of the study is that among three fit types, person-job fit, which characterizes the compatibility between individuals' ideal and existing job attributes, has a significant effect on a number of employee outcomes including job involvement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Accordingly, when employees work in jobs that fulfill their expectations on certain characteristics (e.g., learning opportunities, autonomy, and use of individual abilities), they become more psychologically identified with their jobs, get higher satisfaction from it, and are less likely to look for alternative job opportunities. Besides, job fit also influences employees' organizational commitment through its effects on their job involvement,

verifying the view that employees whose expectations are fulfilled by their existing jobs first identify themselves with those jobs and gradually identify themselves with their organizations.

The relationship between other fit dimensions (i.e., person-organization fit and person-supervisor fit) and selected employee outcomes is found to be nonsignificant in the first analysis, which is carried out without including moderators' effects. However, when the sample is divided into two groups, which are high and low on each moderator (i.e., POS and LMX), these fit dimensions are shown to influence a number of outcomes for those specific groups that are high on the selected moderator. To illustrate, value congruence between employees and their immediate supervisors (person-supervisor fit) is found to decrease turnover intentions of those employees who perceive higher support from their organizations while it does not influence the turnover intents of those with lower support perceptions. This finding denotes a supplementary relationship between employees' supervisor fit and their support perceptions such that higher value congruence with supervisors reduces employees' quitting intents only when they also perceive higher support from their organizations. At lower levels of organizational support, value congruence with supervisors might not be a sufficient condition to refrain employees from considering quitting their jobs.

Similar to the previous findings, value congruence with supervisors is found to affect employees' turnover intentions only when they have high quality exchange relationships with their leaders. This situation confirms the supplementary relationship between leader-member exchange and supervisor-subordinate value congruence and indicates that person-supervisor fit might not be a sufficient condition by itself to hold back employees from leaving their organizations. This fit

dimension reduces quitting intents when employees have high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors that are founded on trust, loyalty, respect, and mutual understanding as well.

Another prominent finding regarding the moderating role of LMX is that higher value congruence with organizations (person-organization fit) is found to enhance employees' organizational commitment only when the quality of their LMX relationships are also high. For those employees, who have lower quality exchange relationships with their supervisors, value compatibility with the organization might not be sufficient for increasing their organizational identification since low quality exchange relationships with organizational agents make it difficult for them to develop affective commitment to the organization.

In addition to their supplementary effects in fit – commitment and fit – turnover intentions relationships, employees' organizational support perceptions and the quality of their leader-member exchange relationships are found to supplement the effects of job fit on their job involvement as well. The positive relationship between person-job fit and job involvement is found to be significant only for those employees with higher support perceptions and those with higher quality LMX relationships; signifying that below certain levels of perceived organizational support or leader-member exchange quality, compatibility between existing and desired job profiles might not improve employees' psychological identification with their jobs. Since employees with lower organizational support perceptions and low quality supervisor-subordinate exchange relationships are deprived of the extrinsic and intrinsic rewards provided by the organization and the leaders, they might not develop any further identification with their jobs that can be regarded as a reciprocation of the positive treatments they receive. Similarly, different from the

results of the path analysis conducted with the whole sample data, employees' fit with their jobs is found to affect their turnover intentions only when they perceive higher organizational support; which implies that below certain levels of perceived organizational support, compatibility between individual desires and job supplies does not have an impact on employees' quitting decisions.

As revealed in the previous discussions, organizational support perceptions and the quality of leader-member exchange relationships are generally found to assume a supplementary role in fit – outcome relationships. One exception for these findings is the compensatory effect of POS in the person-job fit - organizational commitment relationship. Employees' organizational support perceptions are found to moderate the relationship between their job fit and organizational commitment such that this relationship is significant only for those employees who report lower perceived organizational support. When the support and care one receives from his/her organization increase, the effect of job fit on organizational commitment diminishes and above a certain level of POS, it becomes nonsignificant. This finding indicates that in organizational settings, POS might be considered as a “substitute” of employees' job fit in shaping their commitment to the organization.

Finally, organizational support perceptions and the exchange relationships with supervisors reflect two types of effect in the linkages between different work outcomes. These social exchange mechanisms play a supplementary role in those relationships where job related attitudes (i.e. job involvement and job satisfaction) stand as independent variables; while they assume a compensatory role in others where organizational commitment prevails as a predictor or, just for one case, criterion variable. To illustrate, the positive effect of job involvement on job satisfaction is found to be significant only for those employees who perceive higher

organizational support and who have high quality relationships with their supervisors. Similarly, the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment is significant only for those employees with higher support perceptions and high quality LMX relationships. Besides, the effect of job satisfaction on turnover intentions is stronger for those employees who have high quality exchange relationships with their supervisors when compared with those with lower quality exchanges. These findings draw attention to the fact that POS and LMX might enhance the effects of job-related attitudes by helping employees to develop positive beliefs regarding their jobs and organizations and improving their affective reactions to work, which subsequently decrease their turnover intentions.

On the other hand, the effect of organizational commitment on turnover intentions is found to be stronger for those employees with lower organizational support perceptions and/or lower quality exchange relationships with their supervisors. This finding underlines the fact that at higher levels of perceived support and leader-member exchange quality, the effect of emotional attachment to the organization (i.e., organizational commitment) is replaced by employees' positive beliefs and cognitions regarding their organizations' and/or supervisors' goodwill and backing (i.e., POS and LMX) in predicting their turnover intents.

A quick overview of the previously discussed findings reveals that perceptions of organizational support and quality of the leader-member exchange are two focal social exchange mechanisms that shadow the effects of employees' fit with their organizations and supervisors on their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. The specific finding regarding the nonsignificant effects of person-organization fit and person-supervisor fit on selected employee outcomes can be attributed to the structural aspects of the organizations in

the sample. In general, banks have mechanistic structures with high formalization, high centralization, strong hierarchy of authority, and routine departmental technology, particularly at the branch level. These structural aspects may cause the predictive effect of value congruence (i.e., with other organizational members and with one's immediate supervisor) to be nonsignificant on job involvement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions while making the fit with highly routine jobs influential in shaping these employee outcomes. This argument is also found support in the first focus group conducted with individuals who used to work or have been working in banking sector and in the third interview, which is held with a human resources specialist who works in one of the banks among the sample units of the study. These participants regard job fit as the most influential predictor of employees' turnover intents and discussed the prominent role of organizational support and supervisor-subordinate relationship, rather than person-organization and person-supervisor fit, in shaping other employee outcomes.

Theoretical Implications

The results of this study have prominent implications for person-environment fit, perceived organizational support, and leader-member exchange literatures. Specifically, the integration of POS and LMX with distinct fit dimensions, examined under the supplementary or complementary fit perspectives, contributes to the recent theoretical and empirical attempts to comprehend the interactive effects of person-environment fit and social exchange relationships in organizational settings.

The results show that individuals' job fit, which is operationalized as the compatibility between existing and desired job attributes, has a significant impact on

major employee outcomes including job involvement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. This finding is consistent with the basic premises of Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), which defines work adjustment as achieving and maintaining correspondence between abilities/needs of the individual and certain demands/supplies of the work environment and which links it with major employee outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The results also show that the effects of employees' job fit on their job involvement are supplemented by their organizational support perceptions and quality of their exchange relationships with supervisors whereas the effects on turnover intentions are only supplemented by employees' perceived organizational support. In contrast to the previous findings, support perceptions moderate the relationship between employees' job fit and their organizational commitment in a compensatory fashion, by diminishing the effect of job fit on commitment at higher levels of perceived organizational support. The compensatory and supplementary roles of support perceptions and leader-member exchange relationships can be explained by referring to the basic principles of Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), which deem exchange relationships between different parties (e.g., employees-organizations, subordinates-supervisors) in organizational settings essential for the enhancement of positive attitudinal responses towards various organizational stimuli (e.g., Levinson, 1965; March & Simon, 1958) including job attributes, coworkers, supervisors, and the organization itself.

Another significant result of the study is that organizational support perceptions and quality of the leader-member exchanges supplement the relationship between individuals' value congruence with their supervisors (person-supervisor fit) and their turnover intentions such that this relationship is only significant at higher

levels of the selected social exchanges. In addition, quality of the leader-member exchange is found to have a supplementary role in person-organization value congruence (person-organization fit) and organizational commitment relationship as the effect of person-organization fit on commitment is nonexistent at lower levels of the leader-member exchange. Both of these findings reveal that individuals' value congruence with their supervisors and organizations does not affect major employee outcomes by itself and becomes more of an issue when social exchange relationships are at satisfactory levels. This argument necessitates the integration of two 'supplementary fit' theories, Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework (Schneider, 1987) and Similarity-Attraction Paradigm (Byrne, 1971), with Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) to explain the supplementary role of selected social exchanges in shaping the relationship between individuals' value congruence with their organizations and supervisors and various employee outcomes. Although "similarity" or "supplementary fit" between an individual and the others in the work environment have been regarded as prominent antecedents of job satisfaction, identification with jobs and organizations, and quitting intents; according to the results of this study, they are not sufficient to shape these major employee outcomes by themselves and can only be influential through interacting with high-quality, supportive exchange relationships with organizations and supervisors.

Finally, distinct from the previous studies, this study examines the moderating roles of selected social exchange mechanisms in the relationships between different work attitudes and reports two different types of effect, which are complementary and supplementary. The moderating roles of support perceptions and leader-member exchange relationships might be integrated with larger models in

future research, which examines effects of these social exchange mechanisms as both antecedents and moderators of different employee outcomes.

Practical Implications

This study provides prominent practical implications for organizations and employees. Previous research has shown that all examined fit types are related to distinct employee outcomes in organizational settings ranging from individuals' job involvement and satisfaction to their organizational commitment and turnover intents. The results suggest that among three fit types, only person-job fit has a significant effect on employee outcomes, when the moderated effects of other fit types are not considered. Since compatibility between individual expectations and job characteristics are influential in predicting employees' identification and satisfaction with their jobs and influencing their organizational commitment and turnover intentions, both individuals' job search and organizational recruitment/selection processes are critical for thoroughly setting the mutual expectations of two parties. For the attainment of higher job fit, individuals should accurately define their expectations/preferences to employer organizations in these processes and organizational agents (i.e., recruiters) should provide the applicants with a complete job description that includes the specification of basic job characteristics. Vocational counseling in the early school years and personality tests in the recruitment processes can stand as prominent tools to make a complete assessment of individual needs and to determine appropriate job characteristics for each individual.

Another significant result concerning the compensatory roles of support perceptions and exchange relationships with leaders, suggests that in certain ways, organizations can deal with the negative outcomes of low fit and low commitment of employees. By providing higher support and backing to those employees who have lower job fit and are less committed to their organizations, or through facilitating favorable relationships in supervisor-subordinate dyads, organizations may reduce the negative consequences of low fit and low commitment. The supplementary roles of perceived organizational support and leader-member exchanges in value congruence – outcome relationships as well as in the relationships between different employee outcomes suggest that supportive HR practices instituted by the organization and preferential treatments received from the immediate supervisor are influential in extending the positive effects of employees' value congruence with their supervisors on their turnover intentions. Besides, high quality relationships with leaders supplement the positive effect of value congruence with organizations on employee commitment as well. Supportive HR practices and higher quality LMX relationships can also enhance the effects of job-related employee outcomes such as job involvement and job satisfaction. Accordingly, employees who are satisfied with their jobs and receive high levels of support from and supervisors, are less likely to quit their jobs when compared with others that are also satisfied with their jobs but receive lower support.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study is its generalizability. Although previous person-environment studies have been also conducted with organizations from a single

industry, the extent to which current results analyzed with the data received from five banks extend to other organizational settings are unknown.

Another limitation is related to the sample used in the study. The sample included 213 employees who work in five different banks at different positions and departments/branches. Because of the complexity of the hypothesized relationships, it is important to test the model with a larger sample of organizations within different sectors. Besides, though the researcher aimed to control the model on demographic variables such as age, income, organizational tenure, and title; due to huge amount of missing data on demographic information, controlling attempts generated problems in derivation of the analysis results. What is more, the initial purpose of the researcher was to divide the data in four groups in moderation analysis (i.e., high POS-high LMX, high POS-low LMX, low POS-high LMX, low POS-low LMX) but this aim could not be achieved due to sample size restrictions. In addition, the design prevented the researcher from examining actual turnover behavior of employees, which necessitates the investigation of company records that are not accessible to everyone.

With respect to the limitations on measurement scales, the use of profile similarity indices in computing fit scores might constitute a problem since these indices have been stated to discard information regarding the direction of incongruence (Edwards, 1993). Furthermore, asking “desired” and “actual” organizational cultures and “existing” and “ideal” job profiles with a normative scale (i.e., Likert scale) might be considered as a further limitation since these types of scales are more prone to social desirability bias and can inflate the construct reliabilities (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998).

Conclusion

The main purpose of the current study was to investigate the relationships between employees' fit with different aspects of the work environment and their attitudinal outcomes. Another prominent aim was to explore how these relationships modify in form and strength, with the influences of two different social exchange mechanisms in organizational settings; that are perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange relationships.

In order to answer specified research questions, a preliminary qualitative research that consists of three focus groups and three interviews, and a quantitative study with a cross-sectional design were conducted. The results showed that among three fit types, only person-job fit significantly influences various employee outcomes in organizations, which are job involvement, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions. Another prominent finding was that the effect of person-supervisor fit on employees' turnover intentions are conditional, as this fit type decreases turnover intents only when employees perceive higher support from their organizations and have higher quality relationships with their leaders. A similar finding was reported for person-organization fit – organizational commitment relationship as well; since employees' fit with their organizations was found to increase their commitment only when they have higher quality exchange relationships with their supervisors.

Aside from the previous findings, organizational support perceptions were found to play a compensatory role in person-job fit - organizational commitment relationship. Accordingly, the influence of employees' job fit on their organizational commitment diminishes and eventually becomes nonsignificant as their support perceptions increase.

As a final finding, social exchange mechanisms were found to play a supplementary role in those relationships where job related attitudes stand as predictor variables; while they assume a compensatory role in others where organizational commitment stands as a predictor or a criterion variable.

Future research can examine the effects of fit on a broader range of outcome variables including the behavioral work outcomes such as job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, employee turnover, etc. It is also recommended that interactive effects of two moderator constructs, POS and LMX, be tested to observe their compensatory effects on each other. In addition, the model can be tested in a different sector, with other person-environment fit dimensions such as person-group fit and person-vocation fit and by using different fit conceptualizations such as person-organization goal congruence, demands-abilities fit, and personality-climate fit.

APPENDICES

Appendix A. Questionnaire in English

PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT SURVEY

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire has been prepared by Ceyda Maden as part of her dissertation in her PhD program at Bogazici University, Department of Management.

Data collected throughout this study will be used for scientific purposes and will not be shared with third parties.

In order to get accurate results from the study, all questions should be answered.

Thank you for your help and interest,

Ceyda Maden

Bogazici University, Department of Management

- Please indicate to what extent the following attributes are characteristics of your organization.

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Stability					
• Being reflective					
• Being innovative					
• Being quick to take advantage of opportunities					
• Taking individual responsibility					
• Risk taking					
• Opportunities for professional growth					
• Autonomy					
• Being rule oriented					
• Being analytical					
• Paying attention to detail					
• Confronting conflict directly					
• Being team oriented					
• Sharing information freely					
• Being people oriented					
• Fairness					
• Not being constrained by many rules					
• Adaptability					
• Tolerance					
• Informality					
• Decisiveness					
• Being competitive					
• Being highly organized					

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Achievement orientation					
• Having a clear guiding philosophy					
• Being results oriented					
• Having high performance expectations					
• Being aggressive					
• High pay for good performance					
• Security of employment					
• Offers praise for good performance					
• Being supportive					
• Being calm					
• Developing friends at work					
• Being socially responsible					
• Enthusiasm for the job					
• Working long hours					
• Having a good reputation					
• An emphasis on quality					
• Being distinctive / different from others					

2. Please indicate to what extent the following attributes are characteristics of your ideal organization.

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Stability					
• Being reflective					
• Being innovative					
• Being quick to take advantage of opportunities					
• Taking individual responsibility					
• Risk taking					
• Opportunities for professional growth					
• Autonomy					
• Being rule oriented					
• Being analytical					
• Paying attention to detail					
• Confronting conflict directly					
• Being team oriented					
• Sharing information freely					

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Being people oriented					
• Fairness					
• Not being constrained by many rules.					
• Adaptability					
• Tolerance					
• Informality					
• Decisiveness					
• Being competitive					
• Being highly organized					
• Achievement orientation					
• Having a clear guiding philosophy					
• Being results oriented					
• Having high performance expectations					
• Being aggressive					
• High pay for good performance					
• Security of employment					
• Offers praise for good performance					
• Being supportive					
• Being calm					
• Developing friends at work					
• Being socially responsible					
• Enthusiasm for the job					
• Working long hours					
• Having a good reputation					
• An emphasis on quality					
• Being distinctive / different from others					

3. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements when you consider your relationship with the organization that you work.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
• I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.					
• I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.					
• This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
• I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.					

4. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements with respect to the organization that you work.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
• My organization really cares about my well-being.					
• Even if I did the best job possible, my organization would fail to notice.					
• If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.					
• My organization shows very little concern for me.					
• My organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.					
• My organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.					

5. Please indicate to what extent the following attributes are characteristics of your existing job.

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Doing something that makes use of individual abilities.					
• Giving feeling of accomplishment.					
• Making individual busy all the time.					
• Opportunity for advancement.					
• Allowing use of individual authority.					
• Being paid well in comparison with other workers in the organization.					
• Having co-workers that are easy to make friends with.					
• Trying out one's own ideas.					
• Working alone (independent of others).					
• Doing work without feeling that it is morally wrong.					
• Receiving recognition for the work done.					
• Making decisions alone.					

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Having steady employment.					
• Doing things for other people.					
• Having the position of "somebody" in the community.					
• Having a supervisor who back up his/her subordinates.					
• Having a supervisor who train his/her subordinates well.					
• Good working conditions.					
• Planning work with little supervision.					
• Having learning opportunities while working.					
• Having reasonable weekly working hours.					

6. Please indicate to what extent the following attributes characterize your ideal job.

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Doing something that makes use of individual abilities.					
• Giving feeling of accomplishment.					
• Being busy all the time.					
• Opportunity for advancement.					
• Use of individual authority.					
• Being paid well in comparison with other workers.					
• Having co-workers that are easy to make friends with.					
• Trying out one's own ideas.					
• Working alone (independent of others).					

	Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Neither characteristic nor	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
• Doing work without feeling that it is morally wrong.					
• Receiving recognition for the work done.					
• Making decisions alone.					
• Provision of steady employment.					
• Doing things for other people.					
• Having the position of "somebody" in the community.					
• Having a supervisor who back up his/her subordinates.					
• Having a supervisor who train his/her subordinates well.					
• Good working conditions.					
• Planning work with little supervision.					
• Having learning opportunities while working.					
• Having reasonable weekly working hours.					

7. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your job.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
• I consider my job rather unpleasant.					
• I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.					
• Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.					
• Each day of work seems like it will never end.					
• I find real enjoyment in my work.					

8. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements about your job involvement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
• The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.					
• The most important things that happen to me involve my work.					
• I am really a perfectionist about my work.					
• I live, eat, and breathe my job.					
• I am very much involved personally in my work.					
• Most things in life are more important than work.					

9. Please read the following 24 pairs of statements and indicate which one in each pair you feel should receive more emphasis.

1. ___ Taking care of all loose ends on an assignment or project
 ___ Being impartial in dealing with others
2. ___ Taking actions which represent your true feelings
 ___ Trying to avoid hurting other people
3. ___ Encouraging someone who is having a difficult day
 ___ Considering different points of view before taking action
4. ___ Speaking your mind even when your views may not be popular
 ___ Working to meet project requirements even when your personal schedule must be rearranged
5. ___ Making decisions which are fair to all concerned
 ___ Expressing your true opinions when asked
6. ___ Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved
 ___ Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time
7. ___ Trying to help reduce a friend's burden
 ___ Admitting an error and accepting the consequences
8. ___ Being impartial in judging disagreements
 ___ Helping others on difficult projects or assignments
9. ___ Taking on additional tasks to get ahead or gain recognition
 ___ Admitting to making a mistake rather than covering it up
10. ___ Offering help to others when they are having a tough time
 ___ Doing whatever work is required to advance in your career
11. ___ Always being truthful in dealing with others
 ___ Taking steps to be sure that everyone has an equal opportunity at work
12. ___ Judging people fairly based on their abilities rather than only on their personalities
 ___ Seeking out all opportunities to learn new skills
13. ___ Trying to be helpful to a friend
 ___ Being sure that any assignments you make are fair to everyone
14. ___ Refusing to take credit for ideas of others
 ___ Maintaining the highest standard for your performance

15. ☐ Being determined to be the best at your work
☐ Trying not to hurt a friend's feelings
16. ☐ Trying to bring about a fair solution to a dispute
☐ Admitting responsibility for errors made
17. ☐ Finishing each assignment or project you start even when others do not
☐ Making sure that rewards or credit are given in the fairest possible way
18. ☐ Refusing to tell a lie to make yourself look good
☐ Helping those who are worried about things at work
19. ☐ Trying as hard as you can to learn as much as possible about your work
☐ Taking a stand for what you believe in
20. ☐ Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their work
☐ Always setting high performance goals for yourself
21. ☐ Refusing to do something you think is wrong
☐ Promoting fair treatment for everyone
22. ☐ Making sure each person has an equal chance to get rewards or credit
☐ Taking on more responsibility to advance in your career
23. ☐ Correcting others' errors without embarrassing them
☐ Holding true to your convictions
24. ☐ Providing fair treatment for each person
☐ Lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty

10. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements considering your relationship with your supervisor.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
• I like my supervisor very much as a person.					
• My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.					
• My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.					
• My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.					
• My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.					
• My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.					
• I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.					
• I am willing to apply extra efforts beyond those normally required in order to meet his/her work goals.					
• I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.					
• I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.					
• I admire my supervisor's professional skills.					
• I do not mind working the hardest for him/her.					

11. Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements considering your turnover intention.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
• If I had the possibility, I would quit my current job.					
• In the last year, I have been thinking more often about quitting my job.					
• I am actively searching for a new job.					
• I am thinking about quitting my job.					

Gender: Female _____
Male _____

Title in the organization

Age: _____

Manager _____
Assist. Manager _____
Unit Manager _____
Assist. Un. Man. _____
Associate _____
Senior Associate _____
Other _____

Marital Status: Married _____
Single _____

Children? Yes _____
No _____

(Please indicate)

Education: High School _____
University _____
Graduate _____
PhD _____

Monthly Income: <1000TL _____
1000-3000TL _____
3000-6000TL _____
6000-10000TL _____
>10000TL _____

Work Experience 0 – 3 years _____
3 – 6 years _____
6 – 9 years _____
> 9 years _____

Organizational Tenure 0 – 3 years _____
3 – 6 years _____
6 – 9 years _____
> 9 years _____

Appendix B. Questionnaire in Turkish

ÇALIŞAN İŞYERİ UYUM ANKETİ

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket Boğaziçi Üniversitesi İşletme Bölümü Doktora Programı kapsamında *Ceyda Maden* tarafından yürütülen bir tez çalışmasının parçasıdır.

Çalışma kapsamında toplanan veriler sadece söz konusu araştırmaya hizmet edecek şekilde kullanılacak; başka kişi, kurum ve kuruluşlarla paylaşılmayacaktır. Çalışmadan sağlıklı sonuçlar elde edilebilmesi için anketteki tüm soruların cevaplanması önemlidir.

Araştırmaya gösterdiğiniz ilgi ve yardımlarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Ceyda Maden

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, İşletme Bölümü

1. Lütfen aşağıdaki özelliklerin şu an çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumu ne ölçüde tanımladığını belirtiniz.

Çalıştığım kurum	Hiç Tanımlamıyor	Pek Tanımlamıyor	Ne Tanımlıyor Ne Tanımlamıyor	İyi Tanımlıyor	Çok İyi Tanımlıyor
• İstikrarlıdır.					
• Düşüncelidir.					
• Yenilikçidir.					
• Fırsatlardan yararlanmakta çabuk davranır.					
• Bireysel sorumluluk alınmasını destekler.					
• Risk alır.					
• Profesyonel gelişim için fırsatlar yaratır.					
• Çalışanlar için geniş bir karar alanı bırakır.					
• Kural odaklıdır.					
• Analitiktir.					
• Detaylara özen gösterir.					
• Çatışma ile doğrudan yüzleşir.					
• Takım çalışmasına önem verir.					
• Bilgi paylaşımını destekler.					
• İnsan odaklıdır.					
• Adildir.					
• Kurallarla fazla kısıtlanmaz.					
• Değişikliklere adapte olur.					
• Hoşgörülüdür.					
• Şekilci, biçimci değildir.					
• Kararlıdır.					
• Rekabetçidir.					
• Son derece organize dir.					
• Başarı odaklıdır.					
• Belirgin, yol gösterici prensiplere sahiptir.					

Çalıştığım kurum	Hiç Tanımlamıyorum	Pek Tanımlamıyorum	Ne Tanımlıyor Ne Tanımlamıyorum	İyi Tanımlıyor	Çok İyi Tanımlıyor
- Sonuç odaklıdır. - Yüksek performans beklentisi vardır. - Agresiftir. - İyi performansa yüksek ücret verir. - İş güvencesi sunar. - Yüksek performansı takdir eder. - Destekleyicidir. - Sakindir. - Arkadaşlık ilişkilerini geliştirir. - Sosyal sorumluluk sahibidir. - Çalışanların iş yapmaya istekli olduğu bir yerdir. - Çalışma saatleri uzundur. - Saygın bir üne sahiptir. - Kaliteye önem verir. - Diğerlerinden farklıdır.					

2. Lütfen aşağıdaki özelliklerin çalışmak isteyebileceğiniz, ideal bir kurumu ne ölçüde tanımladığınızı belirtiniz.

Çalışmak istediğim kurum	Hiç Tanımlamıyorum	Pek Tanımlamıyorum	Ne Tanımlıyor Ne Tanımlamıyorum	İyi Tanımlıyor	Çok İyi Tanımlıyor
- İstikrarlıdır. - Düşüncelidir. - Yenilikçidir. - Fırsatlardan yararlanmakta çabuk davranır. - Bireysel sorumluluk alınmasını destekler. - Risk alır. - Profesyonel gelişim için fırsatlar yaratır. - Çalışanlar için geniş bir karar alanı bırakır. - Kural odaklıdır. - Analitiktir. - Detaylara özen gösterir. - Çatışma ile doğrudan yüzleşir. - Takım çalışmasına önem verir. - Bilgi paylaşımını destekler. - İnsan odaklıdır. - Adildir. - Kurallarla fazla kısıtlanmaz. - Değişikliklere adapte olur. - Hoşgörülüdür. - Şekilci, biçimci değildir. - Kararlıdır. - Rekabetçidir. - Son derece organize dir.					

Çalışmak istediğim kurum	Hiç Tanımlamıyorum	Pek Tanımlamıyorum	Ne Tanımlıyorum Ne Tanımlamıyorum	İyi Tanımlıyorum	Çok İyi Tanımlıyorum
• Başarı odaklıdır.					
• Belirgin, yol gösterici prensiplere sahiptir.					
• Sonuç odaklıdır.					
• Yüksek performans beklentisi vardır.					
• Agresiftir.					
• İyi performansla yüksek ücret verir.					
• İş güvencesi sunar.					
• Yüksek performansı takdir eder.					
• Destekleyicidir.					
• Sakindir.					
• Arkadaşlık ilişkilerini geliştirir.					
• Sosyal sorumluluk sahibidir.					
• Çalışanların iş yapmaya istekli olduğu bir yerdir.					
• Çalışma saatleri uzundur.					
• Saygın bir üne sahiptir.					
• Kaliteye önem verir.					
• Diğerlerinden farklıdır.					

3. Lütfen kurumunuzla olan ilişkinizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelerle ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
• Kendimi bu kurumda ailenin bir parçası gibi hissetmiyorum.					
• Kendimi bu kuruma duygusal olarak bağlı hissetmiyorum.					
• Bu kurum için çalışmanın benim için çok kişisel bir anlamı var.					
• Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir aidiyet hissi duymuyorum.					

4. Lütfen çalıştığınız kurumla ilgili olarak aşağıdaki ifadelerle ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

Çalıştığım kurum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
• Refahımla gerçekten ilgilenir.					
• En iyi işi çıkarsam da fark etmekte başarısızdır.					
• Fırsat bulduğu takdirde beni sömürür.					
• Bana çok az ilgi gösterir.					
• İşimi olabildiğince ilginç hale getirmeye çalışır.					
• İşimi en iyi şekilde yapabilmem için elinden geleni yapar.					

5. Lütfen aşağıdaki özelliklerin yaptığınız işin niteliklerini ne derece tanımladığınızı belirtiniz.

<i>İşim</i>	Hiç Tanımlamıyorum	Pek Tanımlamıyorum	Ne Tanımlıyorum Ne Tanımlamıyorum	İyi Tanımlıyorum	Çok İyi Tanımlıyorum
• Kişisel yeteneklerin kullanılmasına imkan verir.					
• Başarı hissi yaşatır.					
• Kişiyi sürekli meşgul kılar.					
• Terfi imkanları sunar.					
• Yetkilendirir.					
• Kurumdaki diğer işlere göre daha iyi kazandırır.					
• Yakın ilişki kurabileceğim iş arkadaşlarım olmasına					
• Kişinin kendi fikirlerini denemesine imkan sağlar.					
• Kişinin işini yalnız yapmasına imkan verir.					
• Kişinin işini "ahlaki rahatsızlık duymadan yapabilmesine" imkan verir.					
• İnsanlar tarafından tanınma ve fark edilmeye olanak sağlar.					
• Tek başına karar alma imkanı verir.					
• İstihdam güvencesi sağlar.					
• Başka insanlar için bir şeyler yapmaya olanak tanır.					
• Toplumda bir yer edindirir.					
• Yöneticinin astlarını desteklediği, onlara arka çıktığı bir iştir.					
• Yöneticinin astlarını iyi eğitmesine olanak verir.					
• İyi çalışma koşulları sunar.					
• Kişinin işini çok az denetimle yapmasına imkan verir.					
• Çalışırken öğrenme olanakları sunar.					
• Haftalık çalışma saatleri uygundur.					

6. Lütfen aşağıdaki özelliklerin idealinizdeki işi ne derece tanımladığını belirtiniz.

<i>İdealimdeki iş</i>	Hiç Tanımlamıyor	Pek Tanımlamıyor	Ne Tanımlıyor Ne Tanımlamıyor	İyi Tanımlıyor	Çok İyi Tanımlıyor
• Kişisel yeteneklerin kullanılmasına imkan verir.					
• Başarı hissi yaşatır.					
• Kişiyi sürekli meşgul kılar.					
• Terfi imkanları sunar.					
• Yetkilendirir.					
• Kurumdaki diğer işlere göre daha iyi kazandırır.					
• Yakın ilişki kurabileceğim iş arkadaşlarım olmasına					
• Kişinin kendi fikirlerini denemesine imkan sağlar.					
• Kişinin işini yalnız yapmasına imkan verir.					
• Kişinin işini "ahlaki rahatsızlık duymadan yapabilmesine" imkan verir.					
• İnsanlar tarafından tanınma ve fark edilmeye olanak sağlar.					
• Tek başına karar alma imkanı verir.					
• İstihdam güvencesi sağlar.					
• Başka insanlar için bir şeyler yapmaya olanak					
• Toplumda bir yer edindirir.					
• Yöneticinin astlarını desteklediği, onlara arka çıktığı bir iştir.					
• Yöneticinin astlarını iyi eğitmesine olanak verir.					
• İyi çalışma koşulları sunar.					
• Kişinin işini çok az denetimle yapmasına imkan verir.					
• Çalışırken öğrenme olanakları sunar.					
• Haftalık çalışma saatleri uygundur.					

7. Lütfen yapmakta olduğunuz işi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
• İşimin oldukça sevimsiz bir iş olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
• Şu anki işimden oldukça memnunum.					
• Çoğu zaman işimle ilgili heves doluyum.					
• Her iş günü bana asla bitmeyecekmiş gibi geliyor.					
• İşimden gerçekten zevk alıyorum.					

8. Lütfen işinize olan bağlılığınızla ilgili olarak aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
• Hayatta beni en fazla tatmin eden şey işimdir.					
• Başıma gelen en önemli şeyler işimle ilgilidir.					
• İşimle ilgili mükemmeliyetçiyimdir.					
• İşimle yaşar işimle nefes alırım.					
• Kişisel olarak işimle son derece iç içeyimdir.					
• Hayatımda pek çok şey işimden daha önemlidir.					

9. Lütfen aşağıdaki 24 ifade çiftinin her birinde sizin için daha önemli olan davranışı seçiniz.

1. — Bir işte veya projede yarım kalmış tüm işleri tamamlamak.
— Başkalarıyla olan ilişkilerinizde tarafsız olmak.
2. — Gerçek duygularınızı yansıtan hareketlerde bulunmak.
— Başka insanları incitmekten kaçınmak.
3. — Zor bir gün geçiren birine destek vermek.
— Harekete geçmeden önce farklı bakış açılarını göz önünde bulundurmak.
4. — Görüşleriniz herkes tarafından paylaşılmasa da ne düşündüğünüzü açıkça söylemek.
— Kişisel programınızı yeniden düzenlemeyi gerektirse de işinizin gerekliliklerini yerine getirmeye çalışmak.
5. — İlgili herkes için adil olan kararlar vermek.
— Sorulduğunda gerçek düşüncelerinizi ortaya koymak.
6. — Bir sorun üzerinde çözüm buluncaya kadar çalışmak.
— Zor bir zamanında çalışma arkadaşınıza yardım etmek.
7. — Bir iş arkadaşınızın yükünü azaltmaya çalışmak.
— Hatayı kabul etmek ve sonuçlarına razı olmak.
8. — Anlaşmazlıkları çözümlemede tarafsız olmak.
— Zor işlerde başkalarına yardım etmek.
9. — İlerlemek için ek görevler almak.
— Bir hata yaptığınızda üstünü örtmeye çalışmak yerine hata yaptığınızı kabul etmek.
10. — Başkalarının zor zamanlarında yardım teklif etmek.
— Kariyerinizde yükselmek için işiniz ne gerektiriyorsa yapmak.
11. — Başkalarıyla ilgilenirken samimi olmak.
— İşte herkese eşit fırsatlar vermek.
12. — İnsanları sadece kişilikleri üzerinden değil, yetenekleri üzerinden de adilce değerlendirmek.
— Yeni beceriler öğrenmek için tüm fırsatları değerlendirmek.
13. — İşte bir arkadaşınıza yardımcı olmaya çalışmak.
— İş dağılımının herkes için adil olduğundan emin olmak.
14. — Başkalarının düşüncelerini kendi fikrinizmiş gibi sunmayı reddetmek.
— En yüksek performans standardını korumak.
15. — İşinizde en iyisi olmak için kararlı olmak.
— Bir arkadaşınızın duygularını incitmemeye çalışmak.
16. — Bir çatışmaya adil bir çözüm getirmeye çalışmak.
— Yaptığınız hatalar için sorumluluğu kabul etmek.
17. — Başlanılan her işi başkaları bitirmemiş olsa da sonuçlandırmak.
— Ödüllerin en adil biçimde verildiğinden emin olmak.
18. — Kendinizi iyi göstermek için yalan söylemeyi reddetmek.
— İşle ilgili konularda kaygıları olanlara yardım etmek.
19. — İşinizle ilgili olabildiğince çok şey öğrenmek için elinizden geldiğince çaba göstermek.
— İnanıldığınız şeye yönelik belirli bir tavır takınmak.

20. — Başkalarının işlerini yapmaları için gerekli olan bilgi ve fikirleri paylaşmak.
— Kendiniz için daima yüksek performans hedefleri belirlemek.
21. — Yanlış olduğunu düşündüğünüz bir şeyi yapmayı reddetmek.
— Tüm çalışanlara adil davranmak.
22. — Her çalışana ödüllendirilmeleri için eşit şans vermek.
— Organizasyonda yükselmek için daha fazla sorumluluk almak.
23. — Başkalarının hatalarını onları utandırmadan düzeltmek.
— İnançlarınızla ilgili kararlı olmak.
24. — Her çalışana adil davranmak.
— Zorluk yaşayan birine yardım eli uzatmak.

10. Lütfen yöneticinizle ilişkinizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelerle ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
• Yöneticimi kişi olarak çok severim.					
• Yöneticim her insanın arkadaş olmayı isteyeceği bir kişidir.					
• Yöneticimle çalışmak zevklidir.					
• Yöneticim, yaptığım işler veya verdiğim kararlar söz konusu olduğunda, konuyu tam bilmeseyse bile beni başka bir üstüme karşı savunur.					
• Yöneticim, işyerinde herhangi bir konuda başkaları bana yüklenirse beni onlara karşı savunur.					
• Eğer istemeden bir hata yaparsam, beni başkalarına karşı savunur.					
• Yöneticim için, iş tanımımda belirtilmeyen ekstra görevleri yapmaya hazırım.					
• Belirlediği hedeflere ulaşmak için, normalde benden beklenenden daha fazla çaba göstermeye gönüllüyüm.					
• Yöneticimin iş konusundaki bilgisine hayranım.					
• Yöneticimin işine olan hakimiyetine ve iş bilgisine saygı duyarım.					
• Yöneticimin profesyonel yeteneklerine hayranlık duyarım.					
• Yöneticim için yapabileceğimin en fazlasını yapmaktan kaçınmam.					

11. Lütfen işten ayrılma eğiliminizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
• Eğer imkanım olsa, işimden ayrılırdım.					
• Son bir yıl içinde işimden ayrılmayı daha sık düşünmeye başladım.					
• Aktif olarak yeni bir iş arıyorum.					
• İşimden ayrılmayı düşünüyorum.					

Cinsiyetiniz:

Kadın
Erkek

Çalıştığınız kurumdaki pozisyonunuz:

Yaşınız:

Daire Başkanı

Müdür

Müdür Yrd

Yönetmen

Yönetmen Yard

Uzman

Uzman Yard

Diğer

(Lütfen Belirtiniz)

Medeni durumunuz:

Evlü
Bekar

Çocuğunuz var mı?

Evet
Hayır

En son bitirdiğiniz okul:

Lise
Üniversite
Yüksek lisans
Doktora

Aylık geliriniz (net):

<1000TL
1000-3000TL
3000-6000TL
6000-10000TL
>10000TL

Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatındasınız?

0 – 3 yıl
3 – 6 yıl
6 – 9 yıl
> 9 yıl

Şu anki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?

0 – 3 yıl
3 – 6 yıl
6 – 9 yıl
> 9 yıl

Appendix C. Reliability Statistics for the Constructs in the Study

	α	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Job Involvement	.691	
1 The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.		.634
2 The most important things that happen to me involve my work.		.607
3 I am really a perfectionist about my work.*		.683
4 I live, eat, and breathe my job.		.622
5 I am very much involved personally in my work.		.620
6 Most things in life are more important than work.*		.727
Job Satisfaction	.892	
1 I consider my job rather unpleasant.		.867
2 I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.		.847
3 Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.		.870
4 Each day of work seems like it will never end.		.862
5 I find real enjoyment in my work.		.894
Organizational Commitment	.812	
1 I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.		.785
2 I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization		.693
3 This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.		.839
4 I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.		.721
Turnover Intentions	.841	
1 If I had the possibility, I would quit my current job.		.833
2 In the last year. I have been thinking more often about quitting my job.		.768
3 I am actively searching for a new job.		.811
4 I am thinking about quitting my job.		.778
Perceived Organizational Support	.875	
1 My organization really cares about my well-being.		.841
2 Even if I did the best job possible, my organization would fail to notice.		.857
3 My organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.		.863
4 If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.		.859
5 My organization shows very little concern for me.		.850
6 My organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.		.850

α =Cronbach's alpha

* These items were deleted.

Appendix C. Reliability Statistics for the Constructs in the Study (cont'd)

		α	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
	Leader-member Exchange	.932	
1	I like my supervisor very much as a person.		.927
2	My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.		.926
3	My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.		.924
4	My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.		.928
5	My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.		.929
6	My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.		.928
7	I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.		
8	I am willing to apply extra efforts beyond those normally required in order to meet his/her work goals.		.928
9	I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.		.926
10	I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.		.925
11	I admire my supervisor's professional skills.		.924
12	I do not mind working the hardest for him/her.		.927

α = Cronbach's alpha

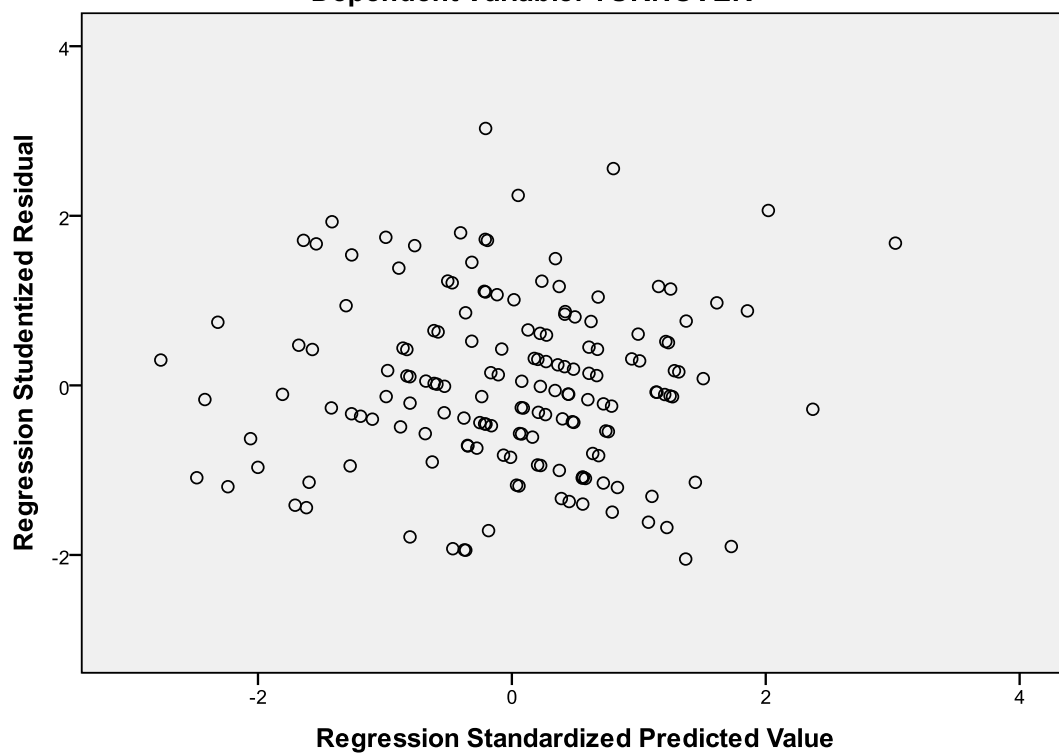
Appendix D. Assessment of Normality

	Skewness		Kurtosis		Kolmogorov-Smirnov	
	Statistic	z value	Statistic	z value	Statistic	Significance
Person-Organization Fit	.202	1.30	-.314	-1.34	.056	.200
Person-Job Fit	.205	.96	.208	.07	.034	.200
Person-Supervisor Fit	-.294	1.08	-.992	-3.02	.088	.001
Job Involvement	-.142	.04	-.085	-.10	.092	.000
Job Satisfaction	-.785	-5.33	-.770	2.64	.130	.000
Organizational Commitment	-.141	-1.19	-.521	-1.28	.074	.007
Turnover Intentions	.245	2.06	-.043	-.22	.105	.000
Perceived Organizational Support	-.165	-.98	.184	-.55	.091	.000
Leader-member Exchange	-.754	-4.48	1.685	5.04	.073	.009

Appendix E. Null Plot of Residuals

Scatterplot

Dependent Variable: TURNOVER



Appendix F. Factor Loadings of Organizational Culture Profile Items

Items	Respect for People	Innovation	Stability/ Attention to Detail	Team/ People Orientation
Offers praise for good performance	.765			
Being supportive	.739			
High pay for good performance	.730			
Fairness	.616			
Enthusiasm for the job	.549			
Tolerance	.504			
Not being constrained by many rules		.756		
Being innovative		.640		
Risk taking		.628		
Being quick to take advantage of opportunities		.601		
Autonomy		.596		
Informality		.527		
Being rule oriented			.685	
Paying attention to detail			.609	
Decisiveness			.599	
Stability			.572	
Being highly organized			.562	
Having a clear guiding philosophy			.550	
Being analytical			.533	
Sharing information freely				
Being team oriented				.650
Being people oriented				.582
Confronting conflict directly				.505
Eigenvalue	14.56	2.49	2.34	1.54
Variance (%)	12.71	12.12	10.10	9.23
Cumulative Variance (%)	12.71	24.83	34.93	44.16

Appendix F. Factor Loadings of Organizational Culture Profile Items (cont'd)

Items	Outcome Orientation	High Reputation	Aggressiveness	Working Hours
Having high performance expectations	.690			
Being results oriented	.654			
Achievement orientation	.557			
Having a good reputation		.689		
Security of employment		.627		
Being distinctive/different from others		.600		
Being calm			.690	
Being aggressive			-.639	
Working long hours				.770
Eigenvalue	1.48	1.20	1.11	1.04
Variance (%)	6.55	5.71	4.48	3.49
Cumulative Variance (%)	50.70	56.41	60.89	64.38

Appendix G. Factor Loadings of Leader-Member Exchange Items

Items	Affect Contribution Professional Respect	Loyalty
I like my supervisor very much as a person.	.833	
My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	.820	
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	.775	
My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	.756	
My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	.749	
My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	.684	
I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	.679	
I am willing to apply extra efforts beyond those normally required in order to meet his/her work goals.	.613	
I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	.601	
I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.		.884
I admire my supervisor's professional skills.		.838
I do not mind working the hardest for him/her.		.832
Eigenvalue	6.973	1.325
Variance (%)	41.21	27.94
Cumulative Variance (%)	41.21	69.15

Appendix H. Measurement Model Factor Loadings

Constructs/Items	Item Loadings
Job Involvement	
1 I live, eat, and breathe my job.	.635
2 I am very much involved personally in my work.	.867
Job Satisfaction	
1 I consider my job rather unpleasant.	.827
2 I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.	.951
3 Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	.663
4 Each day of work seems like it will never end.	.835
Organizational Commitment	
1 I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	.709
2 I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization	.926
3 I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	.862
Turnover Intention	
1 If I had the possibility, I would quit my current job.	.808
2 In the last year. I have been thinking more often about quitting my job.	.787
3 I am actively searching for a new job.	.732
4 I am thinking about quitting my job.	.790

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