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PERSON-JOB FIT AND PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT AS
COMPONENTS OF JOB SEEKING

A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science
in
Psychology:
Industrial / Organizational Option

by
Carrie Anne Rodgers

June 2000

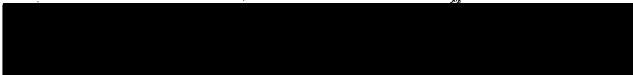
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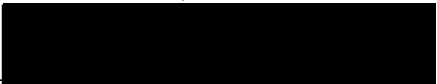
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June 2000

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ABSTRACT

This study assessed the relationship of person-job (P-J) fit and person-organization (P-O) fit to job choice intentions. Specifically, this study examined whether job seekers' perceived fit, or compatibility, with organizational attributes (values, goals, personality/climate, needs/supplies) was more predictive of job choice intentions, above and beyond perceived fit with job attributes (knowledge, skill, and ability requirements). One hundred and eleven job seekers participated in this study by voluntarily completing a survey that assessed P-J and P-O fit dimensions for two jobs that they were currently seeking. Results confirmed that value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit are indicators of the latent construct person-organization fit. Further, results found perceived P-O fit, to be predictive of job choice intentions, above and beyond perceived P-J fit.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Understanding the recruitment process is extremely important for both individuals and organizations due to the changing demographics of today's workforce. Workforce demographics are changing more rapidly than the population as a whole (Hattiangadi, 1998). According to Hattiangadi (1998), the changing demographics of today's workforce include an increase in aging workers, minorities, individuals with a variety of ethnic backgrounds, and individuals with varying lifestyles. These changes have led to less new workers and individuals with varying skill levels entering the workforce. These changing demographics are making it increasingly difficult for organizations to attract and recruit qualified applicants. The difficulty of attracting these qualified applicants stems from jobs becoming more sophisticated, while educational preparation becomes less refined. Further, business success is dependent upon effective interactions and communication between people. Often times people from diverse backgrounds have different value orientations and lifestyles which lead to differences in communications and interactions. Therefore, those organizations that are able to attract qualified applicants will be at an advantage. How do

organizations attract qualified applicants? What do applicants consider when selecting jobs? Such questions lead to the importance of understanding how individuals searching for jobs, referred to as job seekers, are making job choice decisions.

Traditionally, people search for jobs within their vocational fields of interest. Research has supported the notion that job seekers try to match their abilities to the tasks on the job (e.g., Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Job seekers have often made job choices based upon the degree to which they fit the tasks requirements of the job. This concept is referred to as person-job (P-J) fit. Current research has led us to believe that job seekers are looking for more than fit with the job. Specifically, research has suggested that job seekers are also interested in looking for a match or fit with the organization (e.g., Tom, 1971; Bretz & Judge, 1994a; Cable & Judge, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Judge & Cable, 1997). In addition, research has suggested that job seekers self-select organizations to work for based upon the *perceived fit* between themselves and the organization (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997). This concept is referred to as person-organization fit (P-O fit), or the compatibility between person characteristics and

organization characteristics (e.g., Kristof, 1996). Therefore, this project assessed whether job seekers incorporate perceptions of fit with organizations when making job choices. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to investigate whether P-O fit is predictive of job choice decisions above and beyond P-J fit.

In addition to investigating the importance of P-O fit above P-J fit, the separate dimensions of person-organization fit were examined. Schneider's Attraction Selection Attrition model (ASA) suggests that people match their attributes to organizational characteristics (1987). What do these attributes and organizational characteristics consist of? Research has identified individuals to perceive fit with organizations based upon the congruence and/or complements of four different fit dimensions (Kristof, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997). Specifically, P-O fit has been defined as value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit. Value congruence, for example, is referred to as the match between individual and organizational values (e.g., O'Reilly, Chapman, & Caldwell, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997). Much of the current research refers to P-O fit as simply value congruence fit, and that fit between values is the most important component of fit. Is this the case, or are

individual attributes such as goals, personality, and needs also included in perceptions of fit with organizations? Therefore, this research also assessed whether P-O fit was a latent construct indicated by value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit.

Findings about the information individuals use during job seeking have implications for applied settings. Organizations can implement recruitment and selection strategies, tailored to the findings of this study, which will assist them in attracting applicants that fit their organizations.

Job Seeking and the Job Choice Process

Individual job seeking behavior, often referred to as the job choice process, usually begins with an evaluation of recruitment sources such as organizational advertisements, media messages, and social networks (Gatewood, Gowan, & Lautenshlager, 1993). The general impression the job seeker has of the organization, has a big influence on his/her attraction to the organization. Potential applicants have only a small amount of information to initially assess organizations, which leads to the initial and overall organizational image being extremely important. Job applicants are in a sense "customers" in that they are

seeking out the policies, practices, and styles of organizations. If they do not "agree" with them, applicants will not select these organizations (Smither, Reilly, Millsap, Pearlman, & Stoffey, 1993). Moreover, Saks and Ashforth (1997) indicated that the job search process is a key mechanism for job seekers to gather job information, generate job alternatives, and to assess whether they "fit".

Tom (1971) proposed that people choose organizations to work for based upon how similar organization descriptions are to descriptions of themselves. Tom conducted a study in which he hypothesized that those organizations that people least prefer, will be less similar to descriptions of themselves. According to Tom, the image of the organization is defined as "the way the organization is perceived by individuals" (1971, pg. 576). Results supported Tom's propositions and demonstrated the important role of subjective factors in the job choice process (Tom, 1971). The Subjective Factor Theory (Behling, Labovitz, & Gainer, 1968) proposes that a major determinant in organizational choice stems from the degree of congruency between a job seeker's personality and the "image" the firm portrays. Tom (1971) proposed that the congruency between self-concept and organizational image, is also a determinant of job choice. Thus, the theory indicates organizational choice

determinants to be partially based on personal and emotional factors.

As Tom indicated, organizational descriptions are a source of information that job seekers use. In addition, the job advertisement is another source that is utilized in the search process. According to Barber and Roehling (1993), job advertisements include such information as job title, industry, firm size, benefits and salary. Job seekers make inferences about the information presented in the advertisements. For example, a job advertisement that promotes salary levels may indicate that the organization is competitive and that it emphasizes rewards. Barber and Roehling further indicated that job seekers also make inferences about incomplete information, or information that is missing in the job advertisement. In addition, they indicated that an absence of information in job ads may indicate sloppiness and/or uninterested recruiting practices, while a lack of information may indicate the organization's carelessness or lack of conscientiousness.

Thorsteinson, McFarland, and Ryan (1998) conducted a study investigating how job ad characteristics and specificity affected the inferences job seekers made about job and/or organizational characteristics. Specifically, through the use of fictional job advertisements, results

indicated that messages concerning such things as the treatment of employees, the difficulty of the job, and the degree of challenge within the job, could be interpreted from the advertisements. In other words, job seekers were able to make inferences about the organization's practices from the information presented in the advertisement. Results further indicated that individuals are more likely to apply to organizations when the job descriptions were more specific as compared to non-specific organizational descriptions. Barber and Roehling (1993) similarly found advertisements with the least information to be the least attractive.

Research has also investigated how job ad specificity allows individuals to assess their levels of fit with organizations. Results indicated that individuals "self-select out" if a fit is not perceived between their abilities and the requirements of the job requirements. (Kristof, 1996; Schneider, 1987). In other words, individuals will no longer pursue jobs when they do not perceive a match or fit between themselves and the job. Job ad specificity assumes that enough information is portrayed to allow for "un-matched" individuals to determine whether or not they are capable and/or have the desire to perform the duties within the organization (Thorsteinson, Ryan, &

McFarland, 1998). Accordingly, self-selection into organizations appears to be a function of job ad specificity. Thorsteinson and colleagues study (1998), which included the use of fictional job ads to vary the specificity of applicant requirements, demonstrated that job advertisements allowed job seekers to assess their qualifications and desires for the job which later affected their attraction to organizations as well as their likelihood of applying.

Besides job advertisements, job seekers also use the organization's selection process to gather information about the organization. According to Smither et al. (1993), the selection process allows job seekers to gain access to an organization's values and beliefs. The validity, fairness, and utility of selection procedures call forth applicant reactions. The actual selection process is a "social process" and if applicant's expectations are incongruent with those of the organization, the applicant will most likely not pursue employment (Smither et al., 1993). Job seekers' perceptions of the organization are based more on procedural justice than distributive justice. In other words, job seekers are more concerned about the processes through which organizational outcomes are determined (procedural justice) than they are of the actual

distribution of such outcomes (distributive justice). Such findings lead to the importance of the individual's perceptions about organizations and how they function. Along the same lines, Bretz and Judge (1994a) indicated that human resources systems reflect the underlying nature of organizations, which in other words, provides a context for job seekers to determine fit or misfit. Human resource systems were found to convey information about their organizations, which most importantly, affected job seekers' decision-making processes.

Recruiters are also another source that the job seekers can use for identifying information about organizations. Research has found that information reflected from the "recruiter image", is highly influential of choice decisions. The image of the recruiter is created through his/her demographic make-up. Applicants have been found to use this type information to decide whether or not to pursue the organization further (Gatewood, Gowan, & Lautenschlager, 1993; Smither et al., 1993). For example, potential applicants assess a match between their employment interests and the firm's characteristics through the recruiter. The more positive information the recruiter conveys about the organization, the more likely applicants will pursue the organization further. Past research has hypothesized that

demographic similarity between the job seeker and the recruiter leads to a perceived match (Jackson, Brett, Sessa, Cooper, Julin, & Peyronnin, 1991). However, research has further identified that this recruiter influence is not always related to that of the organization he/she is representing. Specifically, the recruiter image may not always reflect the true corporate image due to the manipulation of recruitment advertisements in a positive light for the organization (Rynes, 1991).

Finally, realistic job previews (RJPs) have been found to be an important component during the job seeking process. A metanalysis by Premack and Wanous (1985) indicated that the more individual expectations fit organizational reality, the higher the levels of job satisfaction and tenure. Such findings lead to the importance of the RJP. A RJP gives the job seeker a true representation of what the job looks like, which allows the job seeker to assess whether his/her expectations match the reality of the organization. Realistic job previews provide more information that can be used when assessing fit with organizations.

The job choice itself, is the end result of the seeking behavior. Barber and Roehling (1993) used Vroom's Expectancy Theory to explain job choice decisions. Specifically, according to Barber and Roehling, "job choice

is a multiplicative function of the perceived probability of being offered a job (expectancy), of the perceived probability that the job will provide certain attributes (instrumentality), and the perceived attractiveness of those attributes" (pg. 847). Osborn (1990) posited that in order for a job to be acceptable, the job seeker's minimum requirements that he/she sets with regard to certain organizational characteristics must be met. Such findings lead to the notion that individuals have expectations and minimum requirements that they are looking to be fulfilled when searching for jobs. These a priori expectations and requirements influence the job choices they make.

Wanous (1980) also used expectancy theory to describe the "rational choice" process and indicated that the attraction that stems from the job seekers' beliefs and instrumentality about organizational outcomes leads to organizational attractiveness. According to Wanous, this attraction is then related to job choice preferences. Wanous's findings also highlight the importance of the individual's expectations and beliefs, and the impact they have on job choices.

In sum, research has shown that job seekers assess multiple criteria during their job search. Much of the research has shown that individuals assess their levels of

fit or congruency with organizational characteristics (e.g., Kristof, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Moreover, research has shown that individuals self-select organizations based upon the inferences they make on fit. Further, research has shown that job seekers make choices at the organizational level, rather than only at the job or task level. The following sections will discuss the fit components. Specifically, person-job fit will be discussed as well as a discussion on person-organization fit.

Person-Job Fit

During a typical job search, applicants look for a fit between their qualifications and the task requirements of the job. As previously mentioned, expectancy theory may operate in job seekers' decision processes. Job seekers are unlikely to pursue a job if they are not qualified and/or do not expect to get the job. Job seekers tend to believe they are more qualified for the job when they have the necessary knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) that meet the demands of the job. Further, most job seekers do not expect a job offer when they do not meet the basic task requirements of the job. Therefore, in order for individuals to fit the job, they must have the necessary KSAs, as well as have a high probability of getting the job.

A match between an applicant's qualifications and the job may lead to an increase in his/her expectancy of a job offer. Saks and Ashford (1997) define person-job fit as the traditional concept of person-situation fit in which individuals match their knowledge, skills, and abilities to the requirements of the job. Similarly, Edwards (1991) defined P-J fit as the fit between a person's abilities and the demands of a job, often referred to as the demands-abilities fit. In basic terms, person-job fit is the match between the individual and the tasks on the job. Kristof (1996) defined a job as "the tasks a person is expected to accomplish in exchange for employment, as well as the characteristics of those tasks" (pg. 8). According to the above definitions, person-job fit appears to be based upon the tasks performed on the job rather than "the organization in which the job exists" (Kristof, 1996, pg. 8). Previous literature has focused on P-J fit as the major component of fit that is related to individual outcomes.

Based on a professional population, Wanous (1980) suggested the actual job choice is a result of many choices made during one's childhood and adulthood years. Wanous suggested that the individual first chooses a general occupation field, for example, science. Then the individual chooses a specific occupation within that field, for

example, a research chemist. Next, the individual makes a job choice, for example, researching chemistry on the development of a new additive for gasoline. According to Wanous, the last step then is the organizational choice, and the example he used was choosing to work for Exxon instead of Shell Oil Company. The example above suggests that over time, people match themselves to jobs to create person-job fit. Thompson, Avery, and Carlson (1968) referred to a job as a localized version of the occupation in which the job allows the individual to practice the occupation in time and space.

O'Reilly (1977) did a study that looked at "personality-job fit" which alluded to person-job fit. Specifically, his study indicated that job seekers have two different orientations towards their jobs. First, there are people who perceive their jobs as a means to another end (instrumentally). Second, there are people who use their jobs as a means for fulfillment of their needs for achievement and self-actualization (expressively). Such statements suggest that people approach jobs differently due to their individual differences and intrinsic needs. O'Reilly (1977) concluded that personality characteristics interact with task characteristics on the job and affect people's work attitudes and performance. Further, lack of

congruence between people's personality and the job, result in less positive affect for work.

Caldwell and O'Reilly (1990) looked at how fit between individual skills and task requirements related to job performance. Using commensurate measurement, specifically Q-sort methodology which measures individual and organizational variables in the same terms, their study found P-J fit to be related to job performance and work adjustment. Higher levels of P-J fit were related to higher levels of job performance, while lower levels of P-J fit were related to lower levels of performance. Importantly, Caldwell and O'Reilly's research demonstrated that person-job fit was an important component for job performance.

Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) defined a good fit to exist when an applicant possessed the necessary requirements needed by an environment. According to their research, personnel selection from an organizational standpoint is based upon creating a match between the person and the job. Specifically, personnel selection includes analyzing the job in order to identify the necessary tasks and knowledge needed by employees, as well as includes the development of tests and assessment tools in order to assess employees' ability. In addition, the selection process ends when organizations hire the right people who fit the job

(Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Overall, it appears that the organization's goal is to "pick the right person for the right job".

Wanous (1980) has further suggested that P-J fit is the traditional view of organizational selection. The matching of the individual's abilities, or potential abilities, to the requirements of the job has been the primary concern for many organizations. Wanous indicated that a mismatch between a person's abilities and the requirements of the job, has been shown to be reflected through job performance. His research has shown that P-J fit has been of primary importance to the organization and not necessarily to the individual. The traditional P-J view did not appear to focus on the individual's needs and or later satisfaction and commitment to the organization.

In sum, research has indicated that both the individual and the organization look for fit at job level and that such a fit has been found to lead to both individual and organizational outcomes. Person-job fit has been the basis of many organizational selection systems as well as been the basis for many job seekers during their job search. Fit has been found to be related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, and stress symptoms (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Further, Caldwell and

O'Reilly (1990) have found P-J fit to be related to job performance.

Person-Organization Fit

Currently, P-O fit can be defined as the compatibility between the person and the organization (Kristof, 1996). Past research has conceptualized and operationalized P-O fit in multiple ways. This compatibility, regardless of how it is defined, is an "important" concept in job seeking processes (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997), socialization processes (e.g., Scheider, 1987), and its relationship to long term effects, such as work attitudes (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991; Bretz & Judge, 1994b). Cable and Judge (1996) have specifically shown that job seekers perceptions of P-O fit are important when making job choice decisions. Moreover, O'Reilly et al, (1991) have found that when individuals perceive a fit between themselves and the organization, they will most likely have spill-over effects, or in other words, have increased job satisfaction and commitment.

Research on person-organization fit can be confusing and/or misleading due to its multiple conceptualizations and/or multiple operationalizations. There is no agreed upon conceptual definition of P-O fit in the literature (Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994). There are several ways a

person may fit with an organization. Individuals may have a supplementary fit with the organization or a complementary fit (Kristof, 1996). Supplementary fit occurs when a person "supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals" within an environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 269). According to Muchnisky and Monahan (1987), the environment is defined by the people in it, or in other words, is referred to as organizational culture in this context. Person characteristics consist of personality, goals, values, and attitudes, while organizational characteristics consist of culture, climate, values, and goals (Kristof, 1996). When a person perceives similarity between his/her characteristics and the organization's characteristics, a supplementary fit is said to exist.

Complementary fit occurs when a person's characteristics "make whole" the environment or add to it what is missing (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). According to Kristof (1996) complementary fit exists when the organization's needs are met by the individual's supplies and the individual's needs are met by the organization's supplies. Specifically, organizations provide individuals with financial, physical, and psychological resources, task-related opportunities, and interpersonal and growth

opportunities. Individuals, on the other hand, supply organizations with their time, effort, commitment, and knowledge, skills, and abilities. Fit is achieved when each entity's supplies and demands are met, or in other words "make whole" the environment. For example, an individual may have a need for psychological resources. The organization on the other hand, may be able to supply the resource that the individual needs, therefore, complementary fit would be attained. In other words, the organization has something that the individual does not have yet needs, which once supplied, makes whole the individual. According to Muchinsky and Monahan (1987), the environment within this perspective is not defined by the culture, rather is defined according to the demands and requirements of the organization.

In an effort to combine this literature, Kristof (1996) identified four categories for definitions of P-O fit. Specifically, P-O fit has been studied and measured as 1) value congruence, 2) goal congruence, 3) personality/climate congruence, and 4) needs/supplies fit. Value congruence fit exists when one's values match the organization's values. For example, fit would exist when both the individual and the organization value fairness. Goal congruence is similar to value congruence, yet fit exists when individuals and

organizations share similar goals. Personality/climate congruence exists when the individual's personalities matches or "fits" the organization's climate. Lastly, needs/supplies fit exists when both the individual's and the organization's needs are supplied by one another. The next section will explain each component of fit in detail as well as provide the supporting research.

Value Congruence. The category most often used in the literature is value congruence. Fit is achieved and/or perceived when individual's values match that of organizations' values (Cable & Judge, 1996; Adkins et al., 1994; O'Reilly et al., 1991). This fit is often referred to as the match between the person and organizational culture. According to Cable and Judge (1996) value congruence fit is the most important component of fit. Recent literature has suggested that employees and the organization perceive fit based upon the congruency between their values. Further, research has suggested that value congruence is related to many positive outcomes for both the organization and the individual.

According to Locke (1976) a value "is that which one acts to gain and/or keep." While according to Rokeach (1973) "values are intrinsic, enduring perspectives of what is fundamentally right or wrong." Moreover, values have

been referred to as stable individual characteristics that should not change much over time (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989) as well as represent the "mediating belief system" between dispositional characteristics (traits) and choices of "preferred environments" (Judge & Cable, 1997).

Continuing on, Allport (1937) argued that values are embedded in preferences, which later get translated into behaviors. Similarly, O'Reilly et al. (1991) indicated that these "internalized normative beliefs" or enduring values, guide behavior (pg. 492). The powerful statements above lend support to the importance of values and the role they play on preferences and behavior.

Individual values turn into individual work values that later result into organizational culture preferences. This transition occurs due to values being manifested in preferences (Kristof, 1996). As mentioned above, individual work values will guide individual preferences and behavior in the work setting. Ravlin and Meglino (1987) were interested in finding the most salient work values. They did a study that looked at the effect of work values on perception. Results indicated that achievement, concern for others, honesty, and fairness were the most influential work values on individual's perceptions and decisions. Ravlin and Meglino (1987) defined achievement as the concern for

the advancement of one's career. Concern for others was defined as one having a caring, compassionate demeanor. Honesty was defined as the accurate transmittal of information or the refusal to mislead others for personal gain. Lastly, fairness was defined as a state of impartiality. The findings of Ravlin and Meglino's work, was the basis for much of the future research on value congruence.

Schein (1985) indicated that in order for organizations to survive, they must have a set of core values that are followed by employees. The influence of the organization's core values, lead to behaviors that foster organizational survival. This is often referred to as "external adaptation" which indicates that values are shown to have a direct effect on individual behavior. Schein (1985) further referred to "internal integration" of values when values are shared within interpersonal interactions.

Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins (1989) did a study on such core work values and their effects on corporate culture. Their study found individuals who share values, often times share a common system for communication. Common systems of communication were found to decrease the level of uncertainty within interpersonal interactions (Meglino et al., 1989). The value similarity between employees was

further found to allow for clear role expectations because other's behaviors could be predicted more accurately (Meglino et al., 1989). The decreased level of uncertainty between communication and role expectations was found to lead to increased coordination, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment.

In addition, Meglino et al.'s (1989) study found the most significant value congruence relationships at the lowest levels of organizations. Specifically, value congruence was most important between employees and their supervisors. Moreover, these value congruent relationships consisted of greater overall and facet job satisfaction, greater organizational commitment, and lower levels of lateness among workers. Such findings suggest that value congruence has more of an effect for lower tenured employees.

Value congruence at the co-worker level has increasingly become important due the "popularity of team-based organizational structures (e.g., Hoerr, 1989; Labich, 1996). Team-based structures have been suggested to lead to organizational effectiveness". Adkins, Ravlin, and Meglino (1996) researched value congruence effects at the co-worker level within mutually named dyads. Specifically, their study involved looking at individual values and tenure

and their effects on satisfaction, performance and attendance. Results found employees with the same values to interpret events that took place in the environment, in a similar fashion (Adkins et al., 1996). The shared perceptions of environmental stimuli between co-workers, were found to decrease the chances of disagreement between employees. This "enhanced agreement" between co-workers has been considered to lead to increased satisfaction within day-to-day operations. Moreover, their study found high-tenured employees to less likely be absent when they had a high degree of value congruency with their co-workers. And finally, value congruence within work dyads was found to be related to higher performance ratings (Adkins et al., 1996).

The literature presented above demonstrates the important role values play for both the individual and the organization. Many positive outcomes of value congruence fit between the individual and the organization were identified. The majority of the research has used The Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) (O'Reilly et al., 1991) and the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987) to assess the fit between values of individuals and organizations. The OCP measure specifically looks at eight work values. These work values include innovation, attention to detail, outcome orientation, aggressiveness,

supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation, and decisiveness. The CES on the other hand looks at the four dominant values of honesty, fairness, achievement, and concern for others.

Goal Congruence. The second operationalization of person-organization fit, goal congruence, stemmed from Schneider's Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) framework. People are attracted to and selected by organizations whose goals are similar. "It is goals to which people are attracted, it is goals with which they interact, and if they don't fit, they leave" (Schneider, 1987, p. 443). Goals are the hub of the theoretical framework because organizations are systems that are activated and directed by goals (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

With the proposition that organizational goals are a component of fit, Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) investigated the degree to which individual agreement of organizational goals affected the person-organization fit. Specifically their research focused on how non-operational goals, such as "focus on profit", affected employee attitudes and intentions. Vancouver and Schmitt found support for Schneider's model (1987), in that organizational goals are "an important point of comparison between individuals and the organizations in which they find themselves" (1991).

Moreover their study found member-constituency goal congruence (peer agreement) to have a greater influence on job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to quit) than did supervisor-subordinate goal congruence.

Member-constituency goal congruence is often referred to as group cohesiveness, in that it is the commitment and agreement of goals that makes a group cohesive (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). Further, it is the attraction to group goals and the satisfaction and realization from goals that defines cohesiveness. Low cohesive groups often consist of individuals who are not in agreement with the goals of the group. Specifically, Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) found individuals with incongruent goals to feel "dissociated" from their work and/or their organization. In other words, by showing how incongruency of group goals can have negative effects, Vancouver and Schmitt's research highlights the benefit of being in agreement with the goals of others.

Research by Vancouver, Millsap, and Peters (1994) expanded Vancouver and Schmitt's (1991) work on goal congruence. According to Vancouver et al. "the agreement among organizational employees on the importance of the goals the organization could be pursuing", defined goal congruence (pg. 666). It was hypothesized that the

differences between congruencies are of importance for individual attitudes, rather than the mere existence of congruency. More specifically, referred to as between-constituency congruence, they proposed that goal congruency between constituencies would influence attitudes of individuals regardless of a single individual's goal congruence with the organization. This was proposed because what happens to others in organizations, affects most individuals. Results indicated that between-constituency goal congruence was related to individual attitudes after individual-level congruence was controlled for. The reverse direction was found, in that an individual in a high congruence environment, whose congruence with the leader is at the mean, will have a more negative attitude when compared to an individual in a low-congruence environment. Further, it was found that the more subordinates are in congruence with their supervisor's/leader's goals, the more likely subordinate's satisfaction, commitment, and intentions to quit will be influenced.

Finally, Vancouver et al. (1994) argued that if attitudes are a result of goal congruence, then it can be assumed that employees care about the direction of their organization. Relating goal congruence back to person-organization fit, Vancouver et al. (1994) indicated the

importance of other conceptualizations of fit, such as values (Chatman, 1989), to be added to increase the understanding and the power of fit.

Personality/Climate Congruence. The third operationalization of P-O fit in the research is personality/climate congruence. This component of fit is the match between an individual's personality and organizational climate or in other words "organizational personality" (Tom, 1971). Individual personality includes one's level of conscientiousness, extroversion, openness to experience, neuroticism, and agreeableness (Costa & McCrae, 1992), while organizational climate includes, for example, communication patterns, physical work environment, and/or culture. According to Schneider (1987), climate can further be defined through what the organization rewards, supports, and expects from individuals within the organization.

Ekehammar (1974) proposed research to look at the perceptions, constructions, and categorizations that individuals make about their work environment. In accordance with Ekehammar (1974), Ivancevich and Matteson (1984) studied personality behaviors, Type A vs. Type B, (specifically defined as patterns of behavior), and their effects on one's fit within the work environment. This research did not provide empirical support for this area,

yet proposed that lack of fit, for example, would be when a Type B person (characterized as relaxed, easy going, and unhurried) works in an optimal Type A environment (characterized as controllable, fast-paced, and extremely challenging). Ivancevich and Matteson suggested this lack of fit between the individual's personality and the climate of the organization to lead to physiological, psychological, and organizational problems for the worker. Therefore, an optimal fit would include a match between the individual's personality and the climate of the work environment. Research proposed individuals with Type B personalities to fit well in routine and moderately paced work environments. The congruency between person and climate as proposed by Ivancevich and Matteson, would then lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, increased health, and lower levels of stress. Increased outcomes would further be enhanced if the match was created at organizational entry.

In sum, when person-organization fit is operationalized as the match between personality and organizational climate, it appears that certain work environments are more compatible for certain personalities. Moreover, a good match with the work environment has been shown to lead to positive outcomes for the individual.

Needs/Supplies Fit. Finally, person-organization fit has been operationalized as needs-supplies fit. According to this perspective, fit occurs when there is a match between individual needs and organizational structures (Bretz, Ash, & Dreher, 1989; Kristof, 1996). The Theory of Work Adjustment (TWA) as defined by Dawis and Lofquist (1984) suggests that one will perceive a fit when one's needs are fulfilled by supplies within the organization's environment.

Bretz and Judge (1994b) investigated the TWA as a means for person-organization fit and career success. As researched by Dawis and Lofquist (1984), TWA posits that individuals and environments impose requirements on one another, and that "successful work relations" are a result of the correspondence between the individual and environment characteristics. Job satisfaction, according to TWA, suggests that individual needs or "requirements" are met by the environment or the organization. Tenure, an indicator of job satisfaction, represents that the individual finds the work environment acceptable and that the work environment also finds the individual acceptable. Therefore, the others' supplies meet both individual and organizational needs.

In addition, the TWA concept suggests that individuals will seek out organizations that support their individual preferences. The theory implies that overtime, fitting individuals will achieve higher levels of career success (Bretz & Judge, 1994b). In other words, those that fit will "flourish". Moreover, this type of fit resembles needs-press theory. Specifically, needs are representative of individual feelings, behavior, and reactions, while press represents what the environment can do for the individual to assist or hamper the meeting of needs or the accomplishment of goals (Murray, 1938). In sum, research has shown that fit, as defined by the fulfillment of needs from others' supplies, is related to work adjustment, job satisfaction, and career success. Research on this fit dimension has further shown the importance of correspondence between individual and organizational characteristics.

Kristof (1996) has categorized the four definitions of P-O fit, as described above, into representations of either supplementary or complementary fit. Kristof indicated that when operationalized as value and goal congruence, fit is supplementary (Kristof, 1996). In other words, the congruence between individual and organizational values and goals, results in an addition of similar characteristics. On the other hand, when fit is operationalized as needs-

supplies, fit is complementary. Fit is categorized as complementary because the fulfillment of needs "makes whole" what is missing. Finally, when operationalized as the match between personalities, both supplementary and complementary conceptualizations explain the fit (Kristof, 1996).

Kristof (1996) proposed that optimum P-O fit is most likely to occur when "each entity's needs are fulfilled by the other and they share fundamental characteristics" (pg. 7). Her proposal leads into the assumption that multiple perspectives of fit can be incorporated into one operationalization. Kristof further proposed that supplementary and complementary fit might have additive effects on dependent variables. In other words, benefits of fit may be maximized if individuals have both supplementary fit on values and goals, yet complementary fit on KSAs.

It is important to note that there is some overlap between the definitions of fit. For example, organizational goals are often times driven by the leader's values, while an individual's personality is often times influenced by his/her value orientation. Besides some overlap that may exist, it can be assumed that these four categories are separate and can be used as dimensions of person-organization fit. Specifically, P-O fit appears to be made up of a combination of the four dimensions. Research has

hinted to value congruence fit being the most important dimension of fit.

Research has been done on both perceived person-organization fit and actual person-organization fit. Much of the research has focused on actual fit rather than perceived fit. In fact, due to the limited research on perceived fit, one goal of this study was to assess the *perceived* fit of job seekers and the influence their perceptions have on job choice decisions. The next section compares perceived vs. actual fit and highlights the importance of perceived fit.

Perceived P-O Fit vs. Actual P-O Fit

Recent research has shown that a person's "perceived" or "subjective" fit is just as important, if not more important than actual fit during the job seeking process (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997). Objective fit, or actual fit, is an empirical relationship between the assessment of both individual and organizational values (Kristof, 1996). Subjective, or perceived fit, represents the individual's direct judgment of how well he/she fits or would fit in a job and/or organizational context (Judge & Cable, 1997).

According to Kristof (1996), "perceived fit is a more proximal influence on actual decision making" (pg. 24).

Specifically, Kristof indicated that perceived fit is more influential in the job search process due to the short period of time individuals have to evaluate values, goals, and personalities of organizations. Moreover, Schneider's (1987) ASA model suggests that job seekers develop perceptions about their "objective" fit, then choose organizations to work for, based upon those perceptions.

Rynes, Bretz, and Gerhart (1991) referred to perceived fit as more immediate and compelling when compared to actual fit. Further, Nisbitt and Ross (1980) suggested that one's perceptions of reality affects one's emotions, reactions, and behaviors in situations. Such findings lead to the notion that people's perceptions of organizational characteristics (especially values and goals), influence individual levels of satisfaction, commitment, and intentions to leave, more so than the individual's "actual fit" with the organization (e.g., Posner, Kouzes, & Schmidt, 1985).

It has been argued that subjective fit leads to objective fit (Schneider, 1987) and conversely that objective fit leads to subjective fit (Chatman, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1996). Further, Locke (1976) argued that one's perceptions are more predictive of behaviors when compared to one's "objective" reality. Judge and Cable (1997) found

both subjective and objective fit to be related to individual attraction to organizations, yet in agreement with Locke and Kristof, the perception of fit is a more proximal influence on individual decision making.

Past research on perceived fit has used direct measurements of fit rather than indirect measures (Kristof, 1996). Direct measures explicitly ask individuals whether or not they "fit" the organization. Specifically, individuals rate how compatible they are with organizational values, goals, personality, and supplies. For example, good fit exists as long as it is *perceived* to exist.

In sum, research has begun to focus on the importance of perceived person-organization fit, rather than actual fit, in that individual perceptions guide choices and behaviors. Specifically, perceived fit has been suggested to be important for later individual attitudinal outcomes. Now that the distinction has been made between perceived and actual P-O fit as well as the importance of the four P-O fit dimensions have been shown, the next section will link person-organization fit with the job seeking literature.

Person-Organization Fit and Job Choice Process

Research has begun to focus on person-organization fit during the job seeking process and the impact it has on individual job choice decisions. Much of the research

methodology in the literature has used hypothetical organizations and job descriptions to assess individual levels of attraction, fit, and job choice decisions. More current research has tried to assess how the incorporation of fit during the search process, affects actual job choice decisions. Additionally, more current literature is focusing on how P-O fit created during organizational entry, affects later outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Research has focused most heavily on matching individual characteristics (values, personalities, or needs) with organizational characteristics when making organizational choice decisions. Goal congruence and how it relates to individual choice decisions, remains the most unclear.

Value Congruence Fit and Job Choice. Due to the importance of value congruence between individuals and organizations, past research has focused on linking work values with job choice decisions. According to Adkins et al. (1994), individuals prefer to work in organizations with dominant work values consistent with their own. Judge and Bretz (1992) found work values to significantly affect individual job choice decisions. Moreover, O'Reilly et al. (1991) indicated that individuals choose congruent roles, occupations, and organizations based upon their underlying

value structures. Further, O'Reilly et al. indicated that individual values and preferences are expressed in organizational choices. Such research has led us to the notion that value congruence fit between the person and the organization is an important factor when making job choice decisions.

Building on Ravlin and Meglino's research (1987), Judge and Bretz (1992) were interested in testing work values on individual job choice decisions. With the assumption that individuals establish stable values through life experiences that do not change with the socialization of entering an organization, Judge and Bretz posited that individuals may make job choice decisions based upon work values. Further, based upon Locke's (1976) suggestion that job satisfaction is partially based upon the degree to which the environment allows for value attainment, Judge and Bretz asserted that the work values emphasized by organizations, may affect individual attraction to work environments. Similarly, Meglino et al. (1989) found that individuals achieved greater levels of job satisfaction and commitment when their work values were congruent with their supervisor's values.

Through the manipulation of the four salient work values identified by Ravlin and Meglino (1987), 128 scenarios (hypothetical job descriptions) were created to

assess the importance of work values in comparison to several job attributes (salary, type of work, and promotion opportunities). With the dependent variable being the probability of accepting a job offer, results indicated that work values were influential of job choice decisions (Judge & Bretz, 1992). Moreover, work values (achievement, concern for others, and fairness) were found to exert more influence in the decision making process than did such job attributes of pay and promotional opportunities (Judge & Bretz, 1992).

Results from Judge and Bretz's (1992) study lend support to the importance of congruency of value systems between individuals and organizations. Hence, values were found to be an important determinant of person-organization fit. Results of their study found influence of fit on job choice to be dependent upon individual primary values. Bretz and Judge indicated that work values can only affect decisions when they are perceived.

Research by Cable and Judge (1996) contribute support to person-organization fit as defined by value congruence in the job seeking process. Specifically, Cable and Judge did a study on perceived fit and the effects on individual job choice decisions during organizational entry. With the two intentions: 1) determining the components that make up P-O fit and 2) exploring the effects of importance placed on P-O

fit during the job seeking process, Cable and Judge (1996) collected data on participants over three stages. Specifically, their study revealed many positive results in that first, value congruence between applicants and organizations was found to be predictive of individual P-O fit perspectives. Second, P-O fit perceptions were found to predict job seekers' job choice intentions. In addition, job seekers' perceived value congruence with organizations, was found to later affect individual P-O fit perceptions as employees. Lastly, their research found that the more emphasis placed on P-O fit during the job seeking process and in determining job choice decisions, the greater P-O fit was experienced as employees.

Cable and Judge's (1996) empirical findings are consistent with Schneider's (1987) framework. Further, their findings reinforce the concept that one's perceived value congruence, influences one's attraction to organizations, which later affects job choice (Cable & Judge, 1996). Their results, along with other results presented above, support perceived fit, as defined by value congruence, to be a critical determinant of individual job choice decisions.

Goal Congruence Fit and Job Choice. Empirical support for goal congruence has yet to be found in the person-

organization fit literature. Support for this area though stems from Schneider's ASA (1987) model. The attraction component of Schneider's model is the basis for this dimension of fit, in that "it is goals to which people are attracted, it is goals with which they interact, and if they don't fit, they leave" (Schneider, 1987, pg. 443).

Organizational goals are the hub of the ASA framework. The manifestations of the goals created by the people within the organization influence the individuals that will be attracted to the organization. Moreover, the goals as the center of the framework encompass an interactionist perspective. Such a perspective takes into consideration both the effects of the person and the environment (or situation), and how they both affect behavior.

Schneider suggests that "people of a similar type" will be attracted to certain organizations. Further, based upon the research of Neiner and Owens (1985) and Owens and Schoenfeldt (1979), Schneider suggested that job choice decisions can be predicted if one's "biodata clusters" are known. According to Schneider, biodata clusters include such individual characteristics of "college majors, grade point averages, achievement imagery, memory capacity, leadership roles on campus, vocational interests..." (1987, pg. 443). Once individual clusters or profiles are known,

Schneider suggested that accurate predictions can be made about one's behavior, or in this matter, one's job choice decision.

Personality/Climate Fit and Job Choice. Empirical support has been found for personality/climate congruence and its impact during the job seeking process, which is contrary to the goal congruence fit above. Research in this area has focused on how individual personality traits have influenced attraction to organizational climates. Specifically, research in this area indicates that individual preferences for work environments are dependent upon personality traits.

With the assumption that individuals prefer organizational characteristics that match their stable individual traits, Burke and Deszca (1982) researched the effects of Type A behavior on organizational climate preferences. Burke and Deszca (1982) hypothesized that individuals with Type A behavior would prefer organizational climates that fit their predispositions. Nine hypothetical organizational climates were used to measure job seekers' climate preferences while the Jenkins Activity Survey was used to measure Type A behavior. Regression analysis demonstrated that the higher the degree of Type A behavior, the more of a preference for Human Relations Management

climates, Impulse Expression climates, and Verbal Linguistic Expression climates. In other words, "high Type A" participants were found to prefer climates that had high performance standards, were spontaneous, ambiguous, and included toughness. Conversely, the same high Type A participants were found to not prefer climates that included job structure and security. Therefore, Burke and Deszca (1982) concluded that stable individual characteristics influence organizational preferences. Such findings lend support that one's personality influences one's attraction and selection to organizations.

Rather than looking at only Type A vs. Type B personality characteristics, Judge and Cable (1997) investigated the Big 5 personality traits (Costa & McCrae, 1992) with the organizational culture preferences identified by O'Reilly et al. (1991). With the assumption that job seekers prefer organizational environments that are similar with their personalities, Judge and Cable proposed five hypotheses. First, it was hypothesized that job seekers high on neuroticism would be less attracted to organizations that were innovative or decisive. The logic behind the first hypothesis was that individuals high on neuroticism are likely to be rigid, unadaptable, timid, indecisive, submissive, and fearful of novel situations (Wiggins, 1996).

Second, job seekers high on extroversion, were hypothesized to be attracted to aggressive and team-oriented cultures. Again, this hypothesis stemmed from the notion that "extroverts" are sociable, bold, and assertive. Similar rationale was used for the additional three hypotheses relating to openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. Specifically, job seekers with a high degree of openness to experience were hypothesized to be attracted to innovative cultures and less attracted to detail-oriented cultures. Job seekers high on agreeableness were predicted to be more attracted to supportive and team-oriented cultures. Lastly, job seekers with a high degree of conscientiousness were hypothesized to be attracted to detail-oriented, outcome-oriented, and rewards-oriented environments.

Through the use of the NEO-FFI personality inventory developed by Costa and McCrae (1992) and a modified version of O'Reilly' et al.'s (1991) Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), all five hypothesized relationships were supported. Specifically, results indicated that job seekers' personalities were determinants of preferences and attraction to organizational environments. Besides the positive results that were found, Judge and Cable identified a major limitation. Specifically, the statistical effect

sizes were fairly weak for such findings which led Judge and Cable (1997) to the assumption that job seekers' values, goals, past experiences, and history, in addition to personality, contribute to environmental preferences.

Needs/Supplies Fit and Job Choice. Lastly, empirical support has been found for needs/supplies fit and its impact during the job seeking process. Based on this perception of fit, research has looked at how individual needs have influenced organizational preferences and decisions.

Bretz, Ash, and Dreher (1989) investigated the effects of needs and the role they play as determinants of organizational choice. Based upon Murray's model (1938), they proposed that individuals would seek out environments that offer them possible fulfillment of their needs, while they will avoid environments that will hinder such fulfillment. Bretz et al. (1989) viewed differences between organizations to be based upon their reward systems. Previous research that highlighted job seekers' emphasis on pay level and pay satisfaction when weighing organization/job alternatives, and Schneider's (1987) conceptualization of organizational rewards, led Bretz et al. (1989) to investigate reward systems as a means for fulfillment of needs. Specifically, their study examined individual differences of need for achievement and need for

affiliation, and their impact on organizational preferences and attraction. Both needs were hypothesized to be predictors of preferences for different supplies (e.g., rewards) offered by organizations. It was hypothesized that job seekers with a high need for achievement (e.g., those that focus on individual effort and achievement and have a competitive disposition), would be attracted to organizations that "encourage competitive individual effort and accomplishment" (Bretz et al., 1989, pg. 575). It was further hypothesized that those with a high need for affiliation (e.g., those that desire high levels of interaction, rely on others, and are cooperative in nature), would be attracted to organizations that focus on "organizational" performances, such as profit sharing and bonuses.

Results revealed marginal support for the need for achievement hypothesis. Specifically, job seekers high on need for achievement were more likely to prefer individually-oriented system characteristics when compared to organizationally-oriented system characteristics. Individually-oriented organizations were characterized by merit pay, individual performance appraisals, and promotion on the basis of proven ability. Such findings reinforce the assumption that job seekers prefer certain

organizations/environments over other environments, based upon their degree of "need for achievement" and the rewards (or supplies) offered by the organization.

Turban and Keon (1993) expanded the "needs fulfillment" concept as a component of fit through an interactionist perspective. Specifically, the interactionist perspective suggests that the interaction between the individual and the organization impacts the behavior of the individual and the climate of the organization. Turban and Keon did a study on the effects of individual's self-esteem and need for achievement as moderators for organizational preferences. On that account, individual-organizational interaction was suggested to be important for understanding the attractiveness of organizations.

With the use of organizational descriptions, Turban and Keon (1993) manipulated four organizational characteristics in each description and asked subjects to indicate their attraction to the hypothetical organizations. The characteristics consisted of reward structure, centralization, organizational size, and geographical dispersion. According to Rynes and Barber (1990), the manipulated variables were chosen due to their saliency to applicants, their ability to influence impressions of organizations, and because they vary across alternatives.

Results found subjects with low self-esteem to prefer organizations that were larger and more decentralized when compared to subjects with high self-esteem (Turban & Keon, 1993). Often times, larger organizations were perceived to provide more opportunities for diffusion of responsibilities, which often times, was more desirable for individuals with lower self-esteem. Individuals with high need for achievement were found to be more attracted to organizations with reward systems that were based upon performance rather than based upon seniority when compared to individuals with low need for achievement. Such results suggest that fit preferences and attraction may be reflective of individual needs and the supplies offered to them.

In sum, the needs/supplies perspective and the link between job choice, has been shown through the research. As presented above, one's needs determine what supplies will be fulfilling of those needs. According to this perspective, the fulfillment of individual needs is a function of fit with the organization.

Collectively, research has suggested that person-organization fit defined by the four dimensions of value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit, has played a major role in the job

seeking process. Specifically, it can be inferred that P-O fit has been included in job seekers' perceptions, and most importantly, influential when making job choice decisions. However, there has been no comprehensive research looking at these components in the same framework.

Person-Job Fit vs. Person-Organization Fit

Now that both person-job fit and person-organization fit have been discussed, it is important to compare the two. For example, Kristof (1996) explained how organizational compensation policies may be implemented differently at the organization and job level. Specifically, an organization may set guidelines as to how rewards should be distributed, however there is variability within how the rewards are actually distributed between different jobs (Bartol & Martin, 1988). Therefore, a person may fit at the organization level, yet not at the job level with regards to organizational policies and vice-versa. Similarly, O'Reilly et al. (1991) support this idea by suggesting that the individual's compatibility between organizational characteristics and job characteristics may vary.

Moreover, Bowen et al. (1991) claimed that "person-job fit needs to be supported and enriched by person-organization fit" (pg. 36). Bowen and colleagues claimed that person-organization fit encompasses two types of fit.

Specifically, P-O fit includes a match between the individual's KSAs and the task requirements of the job, as well as includes a match between the individual's personality (including needs, interests, and values) and the climate or culture of the organization. Bowen et al.'s conceptualization of person-organization fit encompasses the notion of person-job fit, in that P-O fit is above and beyond person-job fit. In addition, Bowen et al. claimed that those who achieve person-organization fit, match both the content and context of the job. Whereas those who achieve person-job fit, only match the content of the job.

Chatman (1989) opposed person-job fit as the "traditional" mode for selecting employees, and stated that the selection process may be more "loosely" linked to P-J fit than industrial psychologists have claimed. For example, Arvey & Campion (1982) raised the question as to why organizations continue to interview applicants when in fact the interview has failed to be predictive of applicants' performance on the job. Dawes (1988) claimed that the interview is still used today because it allows the organization to assess whether job seekers' values are compatible with organizations' values and norms. Therefore, it appears that organizations may no longer only be looking for a fit between the tasks on the job and the person's

abilities, rather are looking for people with compatible values.

Along the same lines, Chatman (1989) recognized that individuals are also selecting more than a job, rather they are selecting an organization for which to work for. Specifically, research has supported her view in that job seekers tend to choose organizations based on the similarity between their values and organizational values (Hall, Schneider, & Nygren, 1970). Further, Wanous (1980) refers to the final job decision as the "organizational choice" rather than the "job choice". According to Wanous, individuals are interested in creating fit within the climate of the organization. Finally, Saks and Ashforth (1997) suggested that a successful job search extends beyond finding fit with a job, to finding a job in which one perceives a fit with the organization.

Hypotheses

Based upon the abundance of literature presented above, this study is proposing two hypotheses. First, this study will be assessing perceived P-O fit as a latent construct of the four dimensions of fit. Second, this study will be investigating whether perceived P-O fit predicts job choice intentions above and beyond perceived P-J fit.

Hypothesis 1: Perceived person-organization fit is a latent construct indicated by value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit.

In addition to Hypothesis 1, the areas of knowledge, skills, and abilities, in relation to matching the task requirements on the job, are proposed to be indicators of perceived P-J fit. As shown in the literature, the three dimensions have been referred to as P-J fit.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived person-organization fit as defined by value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit, will be predictive of job choice intentions above and beyond perceived person-job fit.

Although Hypothesis 2 suggests that perceived P-O fit predicts above and beyond perceived P-J fit, the literature suggests that perceived P-J fit also influences job choice intentions. Therefore, both variables will be assessed and included in the structural model.

CHAPTER TWO

Method

Participants

The participants of this study included 111 job seekers. The estimated number of participants was based upon 10 subjects for each of the 10 factors included in the analysis (Ullman, 1996). To be qualified as a job seeker, the participant must have been in the process of looking for a job. The job seeker could have been at the initial phase of his/her job search, for example, the information seeking phase, or could have actually been interviewing with the organization. However, the participant must have been considering at least two jobs. Those that had recently selected jobs, were not allowed to participate in this study. According to Moghaddam (1998), people change their perceptions and cognitions in order to decrease feelings of discomfort. This notion is referred to as cognitive dissonance. Specifically, people like to have balanced states. Incongruency often times leads to tension in which people change their perceptions to achieve a balanced state. Therefore, it would not have been appropriate to have people who had already made their job selections participate due to the possibility of them engaging in cognitive dissonance.

Job seekers ranged in age, sex, race, ethnicity, education, occupation, etc. Specifically, 69 females and 41 males, with a mean age of 28 years, participated in the study (1 participant did not identify his/her gender). The sample was made up of 59 Whites, 24 Hispanic/Latinos, 12 Asians, 5 African Americans, 2 American Indians, and 9 other. Most of the participants had some college (n = 56) and/or a bachelors degree (n = 40). In addition, most had either 1 - 5 years of work experience (n = 50) or 5 - 10 years of experience (n = 23). Lastly, most participants were considering either 2 jobs (n = 54) or 3 jobs (n = 24), at the time of their participation in the study. All subjects were treated in accordance with the "Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct" (American Psychological Association, 1992).

The data set was collected from three different sources. Specifically, it was collected at California State University, San Bernardino's Career Learning Center and Peer Advising Center. It was also collected at a large utility company, Southern California Edison. Due to the likelihood of participants ending up in a wide range of organizations, it would be difficult to contact them at later times. Therefore, it was beyond the scope of this study to collect performance and attitudinal outcomes of the participants.

Procedure

A pilot (n = 17) was conducted in order to make sure the survey instructions and items were clear and understandable. Pilot participants indicated that several of the instructions were too long and repetitive. Therefore, instructions were reworded to be more clear and concise. Further, a few questions were re-worded to add clarity.

After the pilot, the data collection began. Participants were only required to participate at one time. Participants were asked to voluntarily fill-out a survey that assessed their fit with two jobs they were considering. The participants were asked to base their fit perceptions on the information that was available to them while they were seeking the organizations. It was expected that the participants had a general understanding of the organizations they were seeking, whether it was through interactions with recruiters, job advertisements, media, etc. Participants were informed that the data would remain anonymous as well as be used for research purposes only. Participants were encouraged to fill-out the entire survey, yet were given the opportunity to withdraw at any time.

The survey consisted of 5 measures: 1) person-job fit, 2) value congruence fit, 3) goal congruence fit, 4)

personality/climate congruence fit, and 5) needs/supplies fit. The criterion variable consisted of the likelihood of participants accepting the jobs, if given the offer. (See Appendix A for the Informed Consent and complete survey).

A field study correlational design was used instead of the use of vignettes, which assess hypothetical organizations, due to the importance of real world experiences. Vignettes only convey information about the organization and the job through fictional advertisements. Research has shown that job seekers use multiple criteria (e.g., recruiter, realistic job previews, fairness of the selection process, etc.) when making judgments about organizations. Therefore, it seemed more appropriate to assess people's real world perceptions of their experiences in the actual job search process.

Measures

Previous studies in the areas of job seeking and person-job fit and person-organization fit, have only provided limited scales. A complete measure does not exist that taps into perceived person-organization fit or perceived person-job fit. The few studies that have looked at perceived fit have used one-item proximal scales in an effort to capture the different dimensions of fit. For example, "To what degree do your values fit with the values

of the organization?". Therefore, items had to be written specifically for this study. However, the items were based upon those used in previous studies (Cable & Judge, 1996; Saks & Ashforth 1997; Rentsch, Menard, & Scherer, 1999).

Two variables were used for job choice intentions. Specifically, the coded variables, Job 1 and Job 2, were used to distinguish between the jobs participants were more likely to choose if given the offer. Job 1 is referred to as the job participants would more likely choose if given the offer, while Job 2 is referred to as the job participants were less likely to choose.

Person-job fit. This scale consisted of 3 items. Items were based upon the concept of P-J fit as the match between one's knowledge, skills, and abilities to the task requirements of the job. An example item included, "To what degree does your knowledge match the task requirements of the job?" The items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale in which 1 = *Not at all*, while 7 = *Completely*. Items were averaged to represent one scale. Job 1 had an internal consistency of .86 and Job 2 had an internal consistency of .89.

Value Congruence. This scale consisted of 5 items. These items were created based upon the definitions of dominant work values provided by Ravlin and Meglino (1987).

An example item included, "Honesty can be referred to as the refusal to mislead others for personal gain and/or acting in accordance with one's true feelings. According to this definition, to what degree do your values of honesty match or 'fit' the organization's values of honesty?" The items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale in which 1 = *Not at all*, while 7 = *Completely*. Items were averaged to represent one scale. Job 1 had an internal consistency of .87 and Job 2 had an internal consistency of .88.

Goal Congruence. This scale consisted of 3 items. These items were general and did not tap into specific goals because organizational and individual goals vary to a large degree. An example item included, "To what degree are your goals similar to the organization's goals?". Again, items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale in which 1 = *Not at all*, while 7 = *Completely*. Items were averaged to represent one scale. Both Job 1 and Job 2 had an internal consistency of .88.

Personality/Climate Congruence. This scale consisted of 6 items. These items were based upon Costa and McCrae's Big Five Personality facets (1992). The big five personality traits include neuroticism, extroversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. The five traits are only appropriate as descriptors of individuals

and not of organizations. Judge and Cable (1997) did a study looking at the big five factors and how they related to organizational climates. Based upon their study, the descriptors of flexibility, sociability, creativity, cooperativeness, and conscientiousness were used to measure both individual and organizational characteristics. Their study was too specific for the items in this study to completely replicate their items. An example item included, "To what degree does your level of sociability meet the organization's level of sociability?". The example item taps into extroversion. Items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale in which 1 = *Not at all*, while 7 = *Completely*. Items were averaged to represent one scale. Job 1 had an internal consistency of .85 and Job 2 had an internal consistency of .84.

Needs/supplies Fit. This scale consisted of 5 items. Items were created based upon the concept that fit exists when individual needs are met by organizational supplies and organizational needs are met by individual supplies. An example item included, "To what degree do you feel the organization will give you what you need (e.g., pay, promotional opportunities, recognition, etc.)." Items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale in which 1 = *Not at all*, while 7 = *Completely*. Items were averaged to represent one

scale. Both Job 1 and Job 2 had an internal consistency of .85.

Person-Organization Fit. This scale consisted of the combination of the value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit scales, which equaled 19 items. This scale was created with the notion that the four variables make up perceived person-organization fit. The sub-scales were averaged to represent one scale, which had an internal consistency for Job 1 of .94 and for Job 2 of .93.

Job Choice Intentions. Job choice intentions, as the criterion variable, was assessed with 2 items. Based upon Cable and Judge (1996), the two items included, "Assuming you received a job offer from Job 1, how likely are you to accept it?" The same item was asked again, yet for Job 2. A 7-point Likert scale was used, with a 1 = *very unlikely* and 7 = *very likely*. Lastly, for coding purposes, one item asked participants to choose between the two jobs, "Assuming you have been offered both jobs, which would you more likely accept?"

Results

Prior to testing hypotheses, descriptives and frequencies were run. Tables 1 and 2 show the means and

standard deviations for each of the P-J fit and P-O fit variables, for Jobs 1 and 2.

Table 1. Descriptives for P-J Fit Variables

	N	Mean	SD
<u>Job 1</u>			
Knowledge Requirement	111	5.41	1.16
Skills Requirement	111	5.50	1.05
Abilities Requirement	111	5.81	1.00
Person-Job Fit	111	5.57	0.94
<u>Job 2</u>			
Knowledge Requirement	111	5.08	1.29
Skills Requirement	111	5.26	1.29
Abilities Requirement	111	5.51	1.31
Person-Job Fit	111	5.29	1.17

Table 2. Descriptives for P-O Fit Variables

	N	Mean	SD
<u>Job 1</u>			
Value Congruence	111	5.70	0.91
Goal Congruence	111	5.55	1.15
Personality/Climate Congruence	111	5.51	0.89
Needs/Supplies Fit	111	5.41	0.97
Person-Organization Fit	111	5.54	0.83
<u>Job 2</u>			
Value Congruence	111	5.19	1.13
Goal Congruence	111	4.96	1.27
Personality/Climate Congruence	111	5.02	1.02
Needs/Supplies Fit	111	4.73	1.08
Person-Organization Fit	111	4.98	0.92

Next, the data set was screened for normality. Histograms were computed for each of the scales in order to compare the distribution of scores to the normal curve. All scales were normally distributed, with the exception of the goal congruence scale for Job 1, which was slightly positively skewed. Such skewness might be expected for Job 1, as it is the job participants are more likely to accept. The degree of skewness was marginal, therefore, the scale did not require any transformation to meet assumptions for statistical analysis.

EQS Analyses

The data set was analyzed using both EQS and SPSS. First, the data set was run using EQS to address Hypothesis 1 and 2. The hypothesized model looked at the relationship of the three variables (knowledge requirement, skills requirement, and abilities requirement) to P-J fit, and the four variables (value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit) to P-O fit. In addition, the hypothesized model looked at the relationship of P-J fit and P-O fit to job choice intentions. The hypothesized model is presented in Figure 1 (see Appendix B). In Figure 1, circles represent latent factors and rectangles represent measured variables. The hypothesized model represented a marginal fit of the sample

data set as indicated by the comparative fit index, CFI = .92, χ^2 (df = 19) = 55.55, $p < .001$. According to Ullman (1996), the comparative fit index is a more appropriate index of fit than chi square, because chi square is sensitive to sample size. Ullman reports that a comparative fit index greater than or equal to .95, would represent a good fit of the model.

Based on recommendations of EQS, post hoc modifications were performed to better fit the data set. The link between person-job fit to job choice intentions was removed. Person-job fit was only found to lead to person-organization fit, which then lead to job choice intentions. The resulting, modified model for Job 1, indicated a good fit of the data set, CFI = .95, χ^2 (df = 19) = 40.46, $p > .001$. The modified model supported Hypothesis 1. Specifically, value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies congruence were indicators of the latent construct P-O fit. In addition, the knowledge requirement, skills requirement, and abilities requirement, were indicators of the latent construct P-J fit. The modified model is presented in Figure 2 (see Appendix B).

Hypothesis 2 was also supported by the modified model for Job 1. P-J fit was not a significant predictor of job choice intentions, while P-O fit was a significant predictor

of job choice intentions. Specifically, it was hypothesized that P-O fit would predict above and beyond P-J fit, which was demonstrated in the modified model.

The hypothesized model was compared to the modified model, which indicated that the modified model significantly increased the fit to the data set, $\chi^2(df = 19) = 15.09, p < .05$. To further confirm these results, the modified model was run for Job 2 (see Figure 3, Appendix B). The model was confirmed, $CFI = .99, \chi^2(df = 19) = 24.25, p > .05$. Hypothesis 1 and 2 were further supported.

Figures 2 and 3 present the standardized coefficients for each path within the models. Results indicated that the measured variables were significant indicators of the P-J fit and P-O fit factors. Person-organization fit was predictive of job choice intentions.

Regression Analyses

To further confirm Hypothesis 2, hierarchical regression analyses were run in SPSS (see Appendix C for intercorrelations). In block one, P-J fit was included, and in block two, P-O fit was included. Because the EQS analyses confirmed the 3 variables for P-J fit and the 4 variables for P-O fit to be significant indicators of the latent constructs P-J and P-O fit respectively, they were combined into the average P-J fit and average P-O fit for

the sake of the regression analyses. The regression indicated that P-J fit did not predict job choice intentions, $R^2 = .01$, $p > .05$. Further, the regression analysis indicated that P-O fit predicted job choice intentions above and beyond P-J, R^2 change = .05, $p < .05$. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

To reconfirm the results, the same analysis was run for Job 2. Similar results were found, in support of Hypothesis 2. P-J fit was not a significant predictor of job choice intentions, $R^2 = .03$, $p > .05$. P-O fit predicted job choice intentions above and beyond P-J fit, R^2 change = .10, $p < .05$. Results indicated that P-O fit not only predicted above and beyond P-J fit, person-job fit was not a significant predictor of job choice intentions.

Paired Comparison Analyses

A third analysis was run to account for the comparison between Job 1 and Job 2. Specifically, paired t-tests were run to see if there were significant differences between the jobs participants were likely to choose versus the jobs participants were not as likely to choose. As would be expected, the variable means were higher for Job 1 than Job 2, as seen in Tables 3 and 4. Running a series of t-tests opens the issue of Type 1 error. Therefore, the Bonferroni

approach was used to suggest a more conservative alpha ($p < .006$).

Table 3. Paired T-Tests for P-J Fit Variables

	t	sig.
Knowledge Requirement Job 1 - Job 2	2.47	.015
Skills Requirement Job 1 - Job 2	2.06	.042
Abilities Requirement Job 1 - Job 2	2.75	.007
Person-Job Fit Job 1 - Job 2	2.76	.007

* $p < .006$

Table 4. Paired T-Tests for P-O Fit Variables

	t	sig.
Value Congruence Job 1 - Job 2	5.90	.000*
Goal Congruence Job 1 - Job 2	4.94	.000*
Personality/Climate Congruence Job 1 - Job 2	5.37	.000*
Needs/Supplies Fit Job 1 - Job 2	6.41	.000*
Person-Organization Fit Job 1 - Job 2	6.94	.000*

* $p < .006$

As shown in Table 3, all the P-J fit variables were not significant at the .006 alpha level, while as shown in Table 6, all the P-O fit variables were significant. However, due to the extremely conservative alpha that was used, caution should be exercised when interpreting results.

Discussion

This study investigates what job seekers perceive as important when determining fit with organizations. Are job seekers looking for fit with tasks on the job or are they looking for fit between organizational variables?

Specifically, this study examines the components of person-job fit and person-organization fit, in relation to the job seeking process and whether people are looking for more than fit with the job, and looking for fit at the organizational level. In addition, this study examines whether perceived P-O fit can be defined by the dimensions of values, goals, personality/climate, and needs/supplies, and examines whether perceived fit on those dimensions, influence job choice intentions.

This study first assesses whether the four dimensions of fit (value congruence, goals congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit) are indicators of the latent construct perceived P-O fit. This assessment was done through testing the structural model in EQS. Results support Hypothesis 1. The model confirms that the four dimensions of fit are indicators of perceived P-O fit. In addition, the model confirms that knowledge, skills, and abilities in relation to meeting task requirements, are indicators of perceived P-J fit.

Hypothesis 2 was supported by both the EQS analyses and by the hierarchical regression analyses. Results found perceived P-O fit to predict job choice intentions above and beyond perceived P-J fit. In fact, P-J fit did not significantly predict job choice intentions, rather P-J fit was found to influence P-O fit.

The significant results from the paired t-tests further confirm the predictive relationship between P-O fit and job choice intentions. Specifically, there were significant differences between the P-O fit dimensions for Job 1 and Job 2, indicating that participants perceived higher degrees of fit on dimensions with the jobs they were likely to choose, than on the dimensions with the jobs they were not as likely to choose. Results for the P-J fit dimensions did not show significant differences, again indicating that fit at the job level is not the significant determinate in job choice.

Overall, results imply that perceived P-O fit is more influential of job choice than perceived P-J fit, which is consistent with much of the current literature. However, the initial attraction to a job or organization may result from perceived P-J fit. Perceived P-J fit then appears to lead to overall perceived fit with the organization, as results indicate in this study. For example, Saks and Ashforth (1997) indicated that a successful job search

extends beyond finding fit with a job, to finding fit with an organization. Similarly, Bowen et. al indicated (1991), that P-O fit matches both the content and context of the job, whereas P-J fit implies only fit with the content of the job. Hence, research and this current study highlight the importance of perceived fit at the organizational level when making job choice decisions.

As research has indicated, people search for organizations to find compatibility between their personal characteristics and organization characteristics (e.g., Kristof, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997). As identified by Kristof (1996) and Judge and Cable (1997), and as confirmed in this study, job seekers perceive fit based upon the congruence and/or complements of the four different dimensions. This study went beyond confirming that value congruence, goal congruence, personality/congruence, and needs/supplies fit are indicators of fit, to find that P-O fit is predictive of job choice intentions.

Limitations

Although this study indicated that job seekers' perceptions of fit with organizational characteristics are more predictive of job choice than perceptions with the job, results are limited due to the use of self-report data. Results are based upon individual perceptions. Perceptions

of fit have been shown to be more proximal indicators of behavior and decision making (e.g., Kristof, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997), when compared to actual fit. However, because this study does not have any direct information about the organizations people were seeking, rather only people's perceptions, findings are somewhat subjective. Participants may have exaggerated their responses with a generalized positive self-report bias, which could be a problem.

In addition to the self-report limitations, the criterion variable (job choice intentions), is also a limitation. This study asked job seekers to rate how likely they would have accepted a job, if given the offer. The scope of this study did not follow-through and see which jobs they actually choose. Therefore, we have to make the assumption that job seekers' intentions coincide with actual job choice decisions.

Future Research

Future research should focus on the longitudinal performance and attitudinal outcomes of P-O fit. Specifically, now that we know P-O fit includes compatibility between values, goals, personalities/climates, and needs/supplies, research should investigate how P-O fit relates to work attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and to performance measures, such

as productivity. Studies should assess whether perceptions of P-O fit prior to hiring, increase work attitudes and performance as an employee. In addition, future research should focus on how P-O fit impacts actual job choice, rather than job choice intentions. It is important to investigate whether job choice intentions are related to actual job choices.

It is also important for future research to look at where job seekers are at in their job search and assess how that may affect their perceptions of fit. For example, someone that is farther along in his/her job search may have a great degree of P-O fit because he/she had more time to assess organizational attributes. Lastly, future research should consider the different jobs that people are looking at and see how job type or profession impact the relationship between P-J fit, P-O fit, and job choice.

Implications

Findings from this present study provide support for the importance of perceived fit when making job choice decisions. This study has found perceived person-organization fit to be predictive of job choice intentions above and beyond perceived person-job fit, which indicates that compatibility with organizational attributes is important to individuals when seeking organizations. Much

of the research has focused on fit at the task level, rather than at the organization level (e.g., Saks & Ashford, 1997). We are beginning to find that contextual factors such as culture and climate are important when making choices. These results imply that organizations need to attend to factors that are important to job seekers. As shown in this study, values, goals, climate, and supplies are important factors that job seekers look at when searching for jobs. Individuals self-select organizations to work for, based upon perceptions of organizational fit.

Results suggest that in order for organizations to attract qualified candidates, they need to portray an organizational image that highlights such components of their values and goals. Whether it be through recruitment practices or the selection process itself, organizations need to find ways to make the job seeker aware of their attributes in order to attract "fitting" candidates.

In sum, this present study has identified value congruence, goal congruence, personality/climate congruence, and needs/supplies fit to be indicators of perceived person-organization fit. In addition, this study has demonstrated the importance of perceived person-organization fit to job choice intentions.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT AND SURVEY

Informed Consent

Thank you for taking your time to participate in this study. Your time is greatly appreciated. Carrie Rodgers, Masters Student of Industrial/Organizational Psychology, California State University San Bernardino, is conducting this study in part for her Master's thesis on Person Organization fit, under the supervision of Dr. Janelle Gilbert. The purpose of this research is to assess peoples' perceptions of "fit" or compatibility with the organizations and jobs they are seeking for employment.

To be qualified for a participant, you must be in the process of searching for jobs and must be at least 18 years old. You may be at the very beginning of your job search, (e.g., in the information seeking phase) or you may actually be interviewing with organizations. However, you must be considering at least two jobs and/or two organizations to work for.

Your participation includes filling out the attached survey. The survey should take about 20 minutes to complete. All of your responses will remain anonymous and be used for research purposes only. You are strongly encouraged to respond to all items, yet if you feel unable or unwilling to respond to a particular item, please skip it. Participation in this study is completely voluntary and if you have a need to withdrawal, you will not be penalized.

This study has been approved by the Institutional Review Board at California State University, San Bernardino. If you have any questions, please contact Carrie Rodgers at (909) 880-5587.

Thank you again for your participation.

INSTRUCTIONS

Many job seekers have alternatives they can choose from when making job choices. Assuming you are considering multiple jobs, please only pick two for the purposes of this study. This study is interested in assessing two of the jobs you are considering. The two jobs you choose to describe will be referred to as Job 1 and Job 2. Please briefly describe both jobs in the space provided.

JOB 1 - Please briefly describe the first job (Job 1) you are considering (e.g., position, salary, organization, industry, etc.):

JOB 2 - Please briefly describe the second job (Job 2) you are considering (e.g., position, salary, organization, industry, etc.):

INSTRUCTIONS

For items A and B, please rate your likelihood of choosing the jobs you are considering, independent of each other. Please circle the appropriate response. For item C, please compare the two job choices you are considering and indicate which you would more likely accept. There are no right or wrong answers. Please use your best judgment.

A. Assuming you received a job offer from Job 1, how likely are you to accept it?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Very Unlikely Likely Very Likely

B. Assuming you received a job offer from Job 2, how likely are you to accept it?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Very Unlikely Likely Very Likely

C. Assuming you have been offered both jobs, which would you more likely accept?

Job 1 _____

Job 2 _____

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SECTIONS 1 - 5

The remaining items on the survey will be assessing the degree to which you match or "fit" the two jobs you are considering. First, read through the items and rate each according to Job 1. Place the appropriate number using the scale below in each blank to indicate your degree of agreement. After you are done, repeat the process and answer the same items for Job 2. Please use your best judgment when rating each item. It may be helpful to consider such information as the job advertisement, organizational descriptions, friends, media, the recruiter, the interview process, etc. when rating the items. There are no right or wrong answers. Please use the following scale when rating the items:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all	Very small degree	Small degree	Moderate degree	Great degree	Very great degree	Completely

Section 1: Person-Job Fit. This section measures the degree to which you feel your knowledge, skills, and abilities meet the task requirements of the two jobs your are considering. Knowledge can be thought of in terms of your education or "what you know" (e.g., knowledge of mathematics or accounting). Your skills, for example, may include typing, giving presentations, or working on car engines. Abilities reflect what you can do (e.g., ability to work in team settings or work outside). The task requirements of the job include the specific duties that are required (e.g., tasks for an administrative job include typing, taking notes, answering phones, etc.).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all	Very small degree	Small degree	Moderate degree	Great degree	Very great degree	Completely

	Job 1	Job 2
1 To what degree does your knowledge match the task requirements of the job?	_____	_____
2 To what degree do your skills match the task requirements of the job?	_____	_____
3 To what degree do your abilities meet the task requirements of the job?	_____	_____
4 To what degree are you attracted to the tasks of the job?	_____	_____
5 To what degree are the tasks on the job similar to the tasks you want to perform?	_____	_____

Section 2: Value Congruence. This section measures the degree to which your values match or “fit” the values of this organization. Both you and the organization are most likely going to have values around honesty, fairness, concern for others, and achievement.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Not at all	Very small degree	Small degree	Moderate degree	Great degree	Very great degree	Completely
						Job 1	Job 2
1	Honesty can be referred to as the refusal to mislead others for personal gain and/or acting in accordance with one's true feelings. According to this definition, to what degree do your values of honesty match the organization's values of honesty?					_____	_____
2	Fairness can be defined as a state of impartiality, for example, judging disagreements in an impartial fashion, or considering different points of view before acting. According to this definition, to what degree to your values on fairness match the organization's values of fairness?					_____	_____
3	Concern for others can be defined as having a caring, compassionate demeanor. Often times this is shown through helping others perform difficult jobs or encouraging others who are having a bad day. According to this definition, to what degree to your values of concern for others match the organization's concern for others?					_____	_____
4	Achievement can be referred to as the concern for the advancement of one's career, or willingness to work hard and take upon additional responsibilities. According to this definition, to what degree do your values of achievement match the organization's values of achievement principles?					_____	_____
5	Overall, to what degree do you feel your values match the organization's values?					_____	_____

Section 3: Goal Congruence. This section measures the degree to which your goals match the organization's goals. Using the example of an academic setting, goals may include 1) increase student's basic skills, 2) increase breadth of courses, or 3) increase staff development, etc.

	1 Not at all	2 Very small degree	3 Small degree	4 Moderate degree	5 Great degree	6 Very great degree	7 Completely
						Job 1	Job 2
1	To what degree are your goals similar to the organization's goals?					_____	_____
2	To what degree do you strive for what the organization strives for?					_____	_____
3	To what degree do you agree with the goals of the organization?					_____	_____

Section 4: Personality/Climate Congruence. This section measures the degree to which your personality matches the personality of the organization (i.e., organizational climate). Organizational climate is usually made up of the physical work environment, communication patterns and expectations of employees. Individual personality as well as organizational climate can be thought of in terms of flexibility, sociability, creativity, cooperativeness, and conscientiousness.

	1 Not at all	2 Very small degree	3 Small degree	4 Moderate degree	5 Great degree	6 Very great degree	7 Completely
						Job 1	Job 2
1	To what degree does your level of flexibility meet the organization's level of flexibility?					_____	_____
2	To what degree does your level of sociability meet the organization's level of sociability?					_____	_____
3	To what degree does your level of creativity meet the organization's level of creativity?					_____	_____
4	To what degree does your level of cooperativeness meet the organization's level of cooperativeness?					_____	_____
5	To what degree does your level of conscientiousness meet the organization's level of conscientiousness?					_____	_____
6	Overall, to what degree does your personality match the personality of the organization?					_____	_____

Section 5: Needs/Supplies Fit. This section measures the degree to which you perceive your needs will be fulfilled by the organization's supplies. For example, individuals are likely to have financial and growth needs in which they expect organizations to fulfill those needs through pay, bonuses, challenging work, etc. On the other hand, the organization is also looking for needs to be fulfilled (e.g., productivity, skills, etc.) by individual supplies (e.g., time, effort, knowledge, skills, and abilities, etc.).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Not at all	Very small degree	Small degree	Moderate degree	Great degree	Very great degree	Completely
						Job 1	Job 2
1	To what degree do you feel the organization will supply you with what you need?					_____	_____
2	To what degree do you feel the organization will give you the rewards you need (e.g., pay, promotional opportunities, recognition, etc.)?					_____	_____
3	To what degree do you feel the organization will meet your needs for achievement? (Need for achievement is defined as the degree to which you need to be challenged at work, focus on individual effort, and have a competitive disposition).					_____	_____
4	To what degree do you feel you supply something that the organization needs, that others do not have?					_____	_____
5	To what degree do you feel your needs will be supplied by the organization as well as the organization's needs be met by your supplies?					_____	_____

Section 6: Demographics. This final section includes demographic questions regarding yourself and your background. Please answer each of the following by circling or checking the correct response or filling in the blank.

Gender

- a) Female
- b) Male

Age _____

Race

- a) African American
- b) Hispanic Latino
- c) American Indian
- d) Asian
- e) White
- f) Other _____

Education (please circle the highest level achieved)

- a) some high school
- b) high school degree
- c) some college
- d) Bachelors Degree
- e) Masters Degree
- f) Doctorate Degree

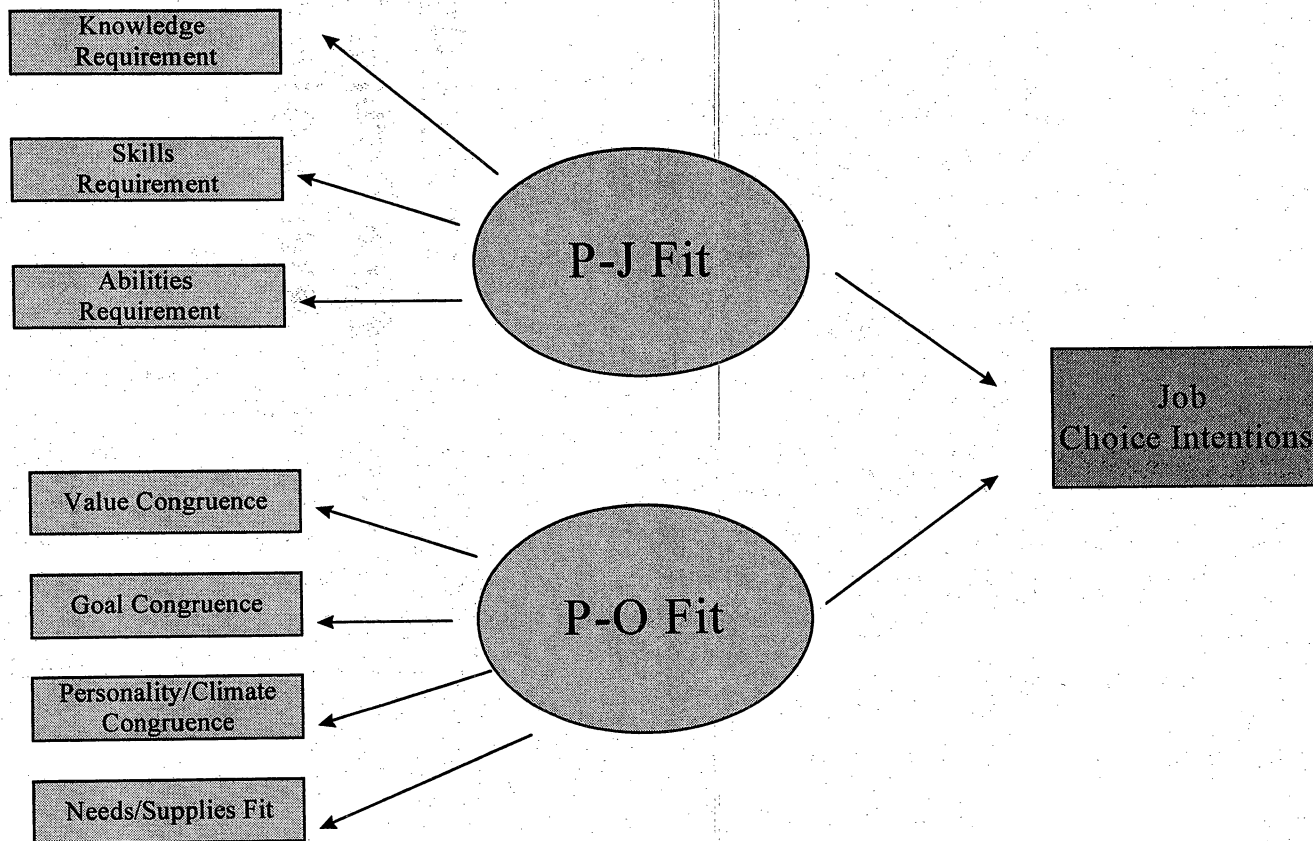
Years of work experience

- a) less than a year
- b) 1 - 5 years
- c) 5 - 10 years
- d) 10 - 20 years
- e) more than 20
- f) no work experience

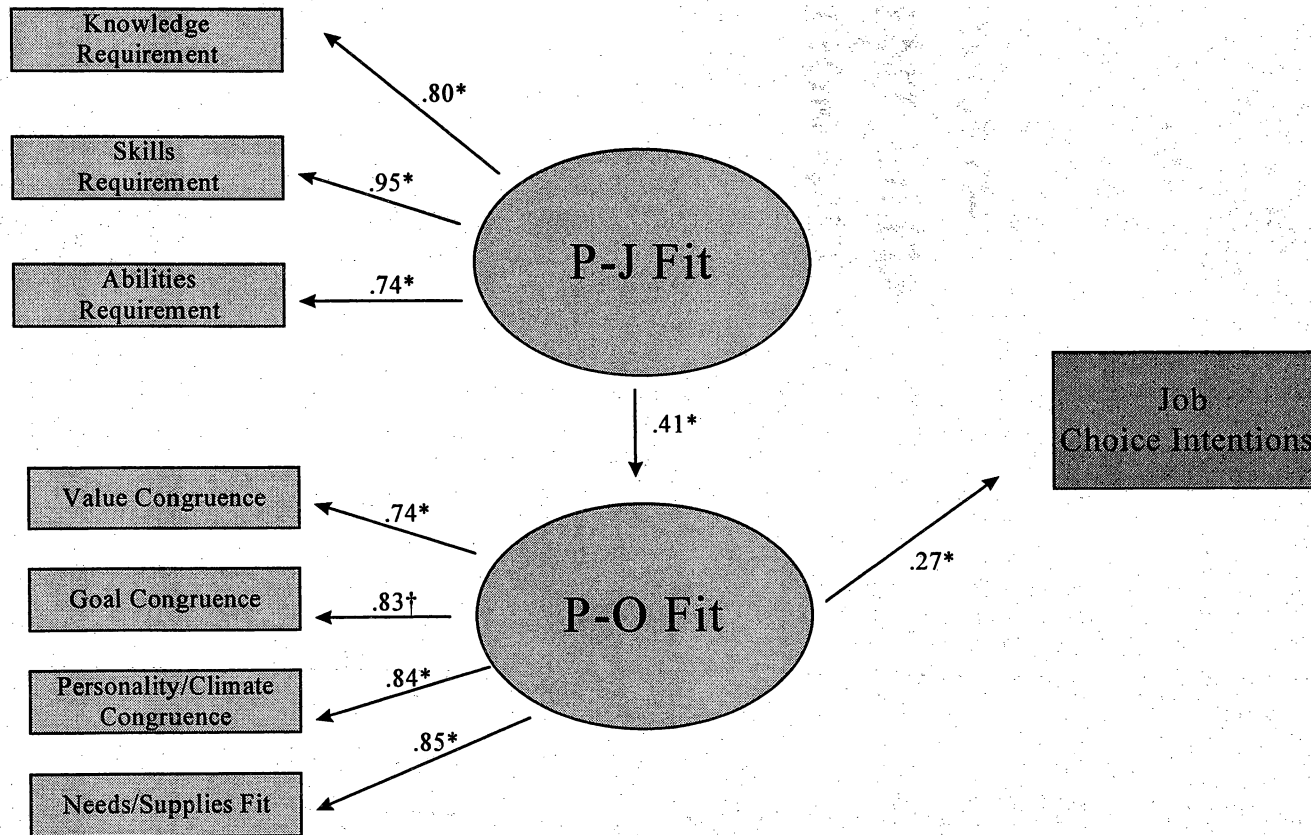
Current Occupation: _____

How many job options are you currently considering? _____

Appendix B: EQS Models
Figure 1: Hypothesized Model



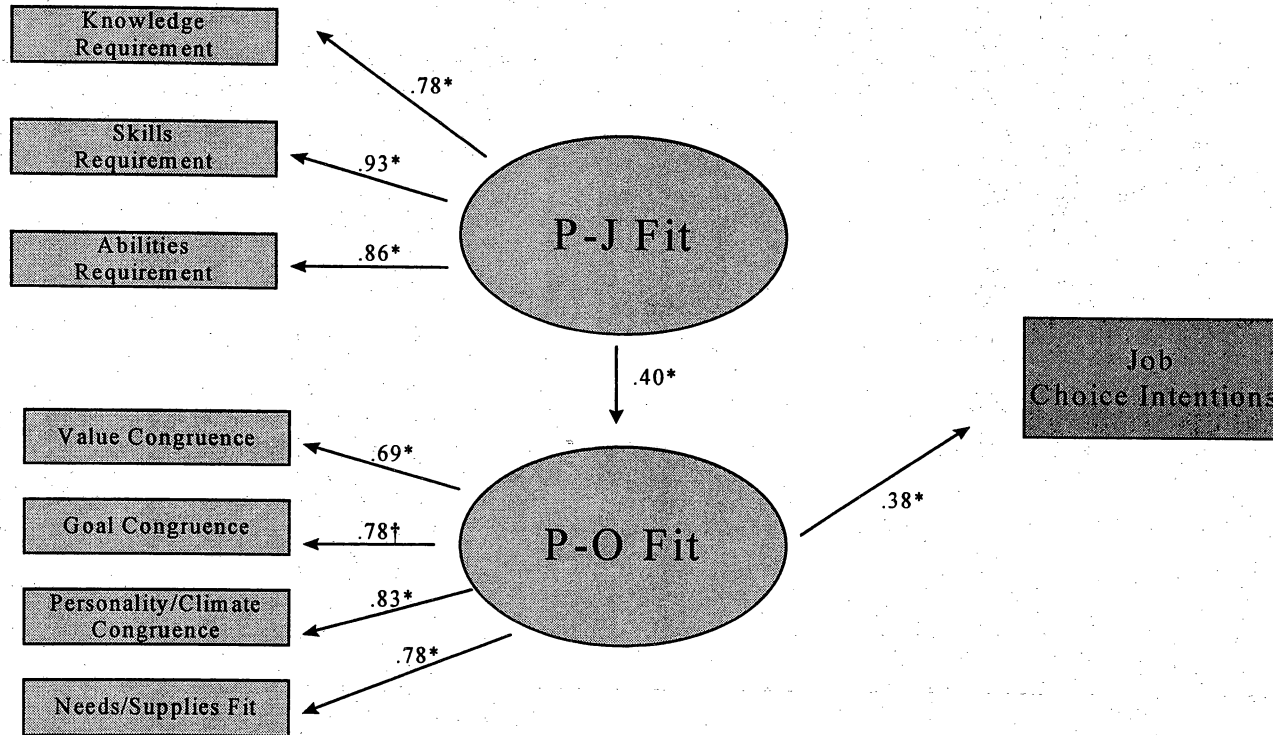
Appendix B: EQS Models
 Figure 2: Modified Model for Job 1



* = $p < .05$

† = Variance of path fixed to scale of Goal Congruence

Appendix B: EQS Models
 Figure 3: Modified Model for Job 2



* = $p < .05$

† = Variance of path fixed to scale of Goal Congruence

Appendix C: Tables of Intercorrelations

Intercorrelations for Job 1

Variables	Knowledge Requirement	Skill Requirement	Abilities Requirement	Person-Job Fit	Value Congruence	Goal Congruence	Personality/ Climate Congruence	Needs/ Supplies Fit	Person-Organization Fit
Knowledge Requirement									
Skill Requirement	.764**								
Abilities Requirement	.561**	.700**							
Person-Job Fit	.887**	.927**	.840**						
Value Congruence	.144	.216*	.205*	.211*					
Goal Congruence	.301**	.283**	.318**	.339*	.627**				
Personality/ Climate Congruence	.316**	.341**	.431**	.406**	.692**	.651**			
Needs/ Supplies Fit	.335**	.315**	.375**	.385**	.564**	.741**	.708**		
Person-Organization Fit	.317**	.337**	.391**	.391**	.834**	.848**	.900**	.872*	

** p < .001

* p < .05

Appendix C (continued): Tables of Intercorrelations

Intercorrelations for Job 2

Variables	Knowledge Requirement	Skill Requirement	Abilities Requirement	Person-Job Fit	Value Congruence	Goal Congruence	Personality/ Climate Congruence	Needs/ Supplies Fit	Person-Organization Fit
Knowledge Requirement									
Skill Requirement	.731**								
Abilities Requirement	.651**	.798**							
Person-Job Fit	.877*	.932**	.904**						
Value Congruence	.142	.125	.241*	.188*					
Goal Congruence	.246**	.235*	.237*	.265**	.573**				
Personality/ Climate Congruence	.299**	.307**	.387**	.366**	.589**	.636**			
Needs/ Supplies Fit	.241**	.318**	.347**	.334**	.480**	.614**	.651**		
Person-Organization Fit	.279**	.297**	.372**	.359**	.802**	.815**	.880**	.825**	

** p < .001

* p < .05

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