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DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

İNGİLİZCE IŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI

İNGİLİZCE IŞLETME YÖNETİMİ PROGRAMI

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSON-SUPERVISOR FIT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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Danışman

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2010

YEMİN METNİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum "**The Relationship between Person-Supervisor Fit and Organizational Commitment**" adlı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

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Anabilim Dalı	: İngilizce İşletme
Programı	: İngilizce İşletme Yönetimi
Tez Konusu	: The Relationship between Person-Supervisor Fit and Organizational Commitment
Sınav Tarihi ve Saati	: ……/……/……… ……:……

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ABSTRACT

Master Thesis

The Relationship between Person-Supervisor Fit and Organizational Commitment

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In order to gain competitive advantage in today's dynamic environment, organizations need individuals who can be congruent with their organizational values. Meanwhile, current research shows that individuals often continue working for organizations that enable them to best utilize their skills and abilities and that provide an environment which appropriately matches their personal attributes. Therefore, an individual whose personal values fit with the values of the organization would be more committed to the organization than an individual whose personal values differ. At this point, the importance of person-organization fit emerges.

Value congruence is one of the significant variables explaining organizational commitment. In this context, the value congruence between individuals and their supervisors also plays a critical role since supervisors are the vital point of contacts of individuals in an organization. Thus they mostly work at the same work environment and interact frequently. Therefore their value congruence plays an important role in shaping attitudes and behaviors of individuals.

With this in mind, the aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between person-supervisor value fit and organizational commitment. The study was conducted in one of the biggest universities of Turkey and questionnaires were

applied to a sample of 105 individuals from two faculties. We proposed three hypotheses explaining the relationship between person-supervisor fit and Allen and Meyer's (1993) organizational commitment scales. Regarding the results of the study, the first hypothesis was partially supported by the significant and positive relationship between person-supervisor fit and affective commitment scale, in terms of congruence with emphasis paid to authority. The significant and negative relationship between continuance commitment scale and person-supervisor fit in terms of reward confirmed our third hypothesis. The second hypothesis received no support in our research study. Person-supervisor fit had no significant relationship with normative commitment scale.

Keywords: Person-Organization Fit, Person-Supervisor Fit, Values, Value Congruence, Organizational Commitment.

ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi
Çalışan – Yönetici Uyumu ve Örgütsel Bağlılık Arasındakı İlişki
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Dokuz Eylül Universitesi
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Şirketler, dinamik çevrelerde rekabet yönünden avantaj sağlayabilmek için şirket değerleriyle uyum sağlayabilen bireylere ihtiyaç duymaktadır. Aynı zamanda, çalışanlar da beceri ve yeteneklerini kulanabilecekleri ve kişisel özelliklerinin uyum sağladığı iş ortamlarını tercih etmektedirler. Bu nedenle örgütle kişisel özellikleri ve değerleri uyum sağlayan çalışanlar uyum sağlamayanlardan oranla örgütlerine daha fazla bağlılık duyabilmktedirler. Bu noktada birey-örgüt uyumunun önemi ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Değer uyumu örgütsel bağlılığı açıklamak açısından en kritik değişkenlerden biridir. Bu kapsamda, iş ortamında çalışan ve yöneticilerin değerlerinin uyumu özel bir öneme sahiptir. Genelde aynı iş ortamında çalışmalarından ve çok sık etkileşim içinde bulunmlarından dolayı yöneticinin çalışanın tutum ve davranışları üzerindeki etkisi büyüktür. Bu amaçla, bu çalışmada çalışan-yönetici uyumu ve örgütsel bağlılık ilişkisi incelenmiştir. Araştırma Türkiye'nin en büyük üniversitelerinden birinde uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın örneklemi iki fakültede çalışan toplam 105 akademik personelden oluşmaktadır. Çalışmada, çalışan-yönetici ve Allen ve Meyer'in (1993) örgütsel bağlılık ilişkisine ilişkin üç hipotez önerilmiştir. Bu üç hipotezden ikisi desteklenmiştir. Araştırmanın sonuçlarına gore, otorite açısından çalışan-yönetici uyumu ve örgütsel bağlılık arasındakı anlamlı ve pozitif ilişki ilk hipotezi kısmen,

ödüllendirme açısından çalışan-yönetici uyumu ve devamlılık bağlılığı arasındakı anlamlı ve negatif ilişki üçüncu hipotezi kısmen desteklemektedir. İkinci hipotez çalışmada desteklenmedi. Çalışan-yönetici uyumuyla normatif bağlılık değişkeni arasında anlamlı ilişki bulunamadı.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Birey-Örgüt Uyumu, Çalışan-Yönetici Uyumu, Değerler, Değer Uyumu, Örgütsel Bağlılık.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSON-SUPERVISOR FIT AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACS	Affective Commitment Scale
ASA	Attraction-Selection-Attrition
A-V-L	Allport-Vernon-Lindzey
CCS	Continuance Commitment Scale
e.g.	exempli gratia (for example)
FFM	Five Factor Model
H&A	Hrebiniak and Alutto
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
NCS	Normative Commitment Scale
OCP	Organizational Culture Profile
OCS	Organizational Commitment Scale
OCQ	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire
P-E	Person-Environment
P-G	Person-Group
P-J	Person-Job
P-O	Person-Organization
P-P	Person-Person
P-S	Person-Supervisor
P-V	Person-Vocation
SPSS	Statistical Program for Social Sciences
WVI	Work Values Inventory

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of fit between an individual and the environment, job, machine or organization has attracted psychologists for a long time (Schneider, 1987), making it "one of the more venerable lines of psychological theorizing". Fit is broadly defined as the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are matched (Kristof, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005) and considered as an important concept for explaining various individual and organizational outcomes such as performance, commitment, satisfaction and stress (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991).

In studying person-environment fit (P-E), researchers have followed two different paths. One of these paths is the exploration of the interaction of individual characteristics and broad occupational attributes; the second path is the exploration of the fit between specific characteristics of an organization and individuals which ranges from studying the congruence of individual skills to job requirements, to studying the relationship between individual characteristics and organizational culture. This path named as person-organization (P-O) fit, has become more than ever prominent in the studies of person-environment fit (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991).

Explained as compatibility between individuals and the entire organization, person-organization fit is a topic that has attracted the attention of both scholars and managers. Essentially research on P-O fit includes the antecedents and consequences of compatibility between individuals and the organization in which they work. In other words, study of P-O fit examines the phenomenon of hiring people not just for jobs but for organizations (Westerman, Cyr, 2004). Achieving high levels of P-O fit through hiring and socialization is often touted as the key to retaining a workforce with the flexibility and organizational commitment necessary to meet competitive challenges (Schneider, Goldstein and Smith, 1995).

P-O fit is a confusing concept due to its multiple conceptualizations and operationalizations. Two distinctions exist in the conceptualization of P-O fit. The first

differentiation is between complementary and supplementary fit, the second distinction includes needs-supplies and demands-abilities fit. Based on these conceptualizations, relevant literature focuses on four operationalizations of P-O fit. Two of these operationalizations are related with supplementary fit, one related with the conceptualization of needs-supplies fit and the fourth is connected to either of these two. The most frequently used operationalization of supplementary fit is the congruence between individuals and organizational values (Kristof, 1996).

One of the most important forms of P-O fit is the value congruence between organizations and people (Enz, 1988), while values are guiding fundamentals of individual's lives and are important components of organizational culture which again guide employee's behaviors in the organization. Values are enduring constructs which describe characteristics of both individuals and organizations. As Chatman (1989) postulated, values provide the starting point with selection and socialization processes as complementary means to insure person-organization fit. Therefore, the match between values of both an individual and an organization is the heart of the person-culture fit (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991).

Value congruence in dyadic relationships, especially value congruence of supervisors and subordinates in organization settings captured the interest of researchers. Past researches explored that when values and priorities of individuals match with the values and priorities of the organization, they are more satisfied and are more likely to stay with that organization (Chatman, 1991). Congruence between employees' work values and values of supervisors was associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and reporting to work on time (Adkins, Russell and Werbel, 1994). Organizational commitment is very important outcome in terms of fit since committed employees support organizational values more (Lee and Gao, 2005).

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between person-supervisor fit and organizational commitment.

In the first part of the study, P-O fit and P-S fit concepts are discussed broadly. Since both fit are assessed in terms of value congruence, value concept is defined and value typologies used frequently in assessing value congruence in related studies are listed. In the second part of the study, organizational commitment is defined. The last parts are dedicated to the research conducted in an academic environment to explore the relationship between person-supervisory fit and organizational commitment.

CHAPTER 1

FIT AND VALUES

1.1. PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

The broad concept of fit or congruence has been significant in psychology and organizational behavior for a long time (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991). But the definition of fit still stays as a critical and unanswered question. Venkatraman (1989) postulated that although the concept of fit is a crucial one, it lacks the precise definition to test and recognize whether an organization has it or not. Van de Ven (1979) argued that inadequate attention to specifying the form of fit could fundamentally alter the meaning of the theory itself.

Person-environment (PE) fit, or the congruence between an individual and his/her work environment, from personality theory to vocational psychology and from personnel selection to social psychology is one of the dominant and penetrating concepts. "Described as a "syndrome with many manifestations", P-E fit is widely defined as the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched" (Schneider, 2001, p.142). Because of the simplicity of this definition, various types of fit attracted attention. Kristof (1996) first classified person-environment fit as person-vocation (P-V) fit, person-job (P-J) fit, person-organization (P-O) fit and person-group (P-G) fit. Jansen and Kristof (2006) proposed an additional dimension of fit that emphasizes the congruence between particular pairs of individuals in an organization and called it person-person fit (PP).

There are three assumptions which underlie P-E fit theory. First assumption suggests that individuals seek for an environment which is similar with their characteristics. Studies reveal that individuals are more effective, satisfied and committed to their organizations and jobs when their personal attributes corresponds with the attributes of their environments (Awoniyi, Griego and Morgan, 2002). Second, the extent of fit between the individual and the environment is conveying vital outcomes

for both the individual and his/her environment. Research shows that the fit between the individual and the environment causes stability, satisfaction and commitment and the poor fit causes outcomes such as low performance level, dissatisfaction and turnover. The third supposition postulates that the fit is mutual. The individual shapes the environment; the environment shapes the individual (Swanson and Fouad, 1999). Hence attitudes, behaviors and other individual-level outcomes result not from the individual or environment apart, but from the interaction between these two parties (Pervin, 1989). In other words, P-E fit makes concrete that situations are the function of the interaction between the environment and individuals. Individuals search for environments that enable them to use their abilities and skills and extract their values, on the other side; environments look for individuals who have specific abilities, skills and values with their selection and recruitment mechanisms (Swanson and Fouad, 1999).

Plato was the first theorist to propose a person-environment fit model. Plato argued for the wisdom of assigning individuals to jobs in accordance with their temperaments and abilities. A fundamental principle underlying Plato's notions about a republic was that "one man can not practice many arts with success" (Tinsley, 2000).

In the modern era, the earliest application of P-E fit theory was Parsons' (1909) congruence concept (Tinsley, 2000). The concept is also greatly influenced by Lewin's (1938) interaction theory. This theory postulates that an individual's behavior (B) is the interaction between the individual (P) and the environment (E) which is represented by the equation: $B = f(P, E)$ (Schneider, 2001).

Examining the fit between an individual and a single aspect of the environment was the dominant approach to most P-E fit studies. In fact, however, an individual does not interact with only a single dimension of his/her environment. Thus, PE fit is a multidimensional concept due to the fact that it is an "overall abstraction" which includes each of these different dimensions of fit such as person-vocation, person-job, person-group, person-organization and person-person fit (Jansen and Kristof, 2006).

Originating from roots in person-environment interaction theory, the basic assumption of fit study postulates that outcomes are a function of the interaction between individuals and their environments, where good fit typically leads to positive outcomes for the individual (Kristof, 1996). In organizational context, fit can be assessed in several ways with multiple aspects of the environment (Jansen and Kristof, 2006). Fit dimensions are briefly reviewed in the following sections.

1.1.1. Types of Person-Environment Fit

Mostly the scholars discuss four categories of P-E fit. P-E fit study is usually characterized by matching people to various levels of their work environment (Kristof, 1996). The most extensive of these levels is the vocation or occupation. The research on person-vocation (P-V) fit contains vocational choice theories which suggest matching individuals with careers that meet their interests, and the theory of work adjustment, which stresses that adjustment and satisfaction are the result of employees' needs being met by their occupational environment (Kristof, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005).

The vocational psychology literature was presented by Holland (1976). According to Holland's perspective, careers are empirically can be grouped into six major types: intellectual, artistic, social, enterprising, conventional, and realistic. Holland (1976) wrote that vocational choice is assumed to be the result of an individual's type or patterning of types and the environment. The character of an environment derives from the types of individuals which dominate that environment. Briefly, Holland (1976) explained that the career environments people join are alike to the individuals who join them (Schneider, 1987).

The second dimension is person-job (P-J) fit. Researchers broadly define P-J fit as individuals' compatibility with a specific job. Kristof (1996) identified P-J fit as the congruence between the abilities of an individual and the demands of a job or the needs/desires of an individual and what is provided by a job. This fit is commonly

considered relative to the tasks of the job, not the values, goals and mission of the organization that houses the job. Hence, employees may possess the KSAs demanded of the job; however, these employees may not share the same values or goals with the organization, while experiencing high P-J fit but low P-O fit (Kristof, 1996).

The third dimension is person-group (P-G) or person-team fit that focuses on the interpersonal compatibility between individuals and their work groups. P-G fit is the match between the new hire and the immediate workgroup such as coworkers and superiors (Werbel and Johnson, 2001). Team composition literature is most closely related to P-G fit. Though composition is a group level construct and P-G fit is most frequently considered for individuals, Kristof (1996) proposed that obtaining high levels of individual-team fit is the driving principle behind efficient team composition.

1.1.2. Person-Organization Fit

Person-organization (P-O) fit attracted the attention of both scholars and managers during recent years (Kristof, 1996). The definition of P-O fit has been subject to confusion due to its multiple conceptualizations and operationalizations, as well as its limited distinction from other forms of P-E fit (Van Vianen, 2000). Despite the general consensus that P-O fit involves the compatibility between individuals and their organizations, the exact nature of this compatibility has resulted in much confusion in defining P-O fit (Kristof, 1996). As Bretz, Rynes, and Gerhart (1993) remark, there has been no definite empirical basis for choosing one conceptualization of fit over another and absolutely no empirical justification for studying one aspect to the exclusion of the others. That's way fit is obviously multidimensional (Westerman and Cyr, 2004).

The use of person-organization fit theories can be traced to Argyris' theoretical work in job enlargement and participatory management. Argyris (1957) asserted that an individual's organizational behavior results from the interaction between the individual and the organization. Incongruence between the individual and the organization is

common and a definite amount of incongruence between the individual and the demands of the job may be motivating (Argyris, 1964). However, too much incompatibility can produce unmotivated individuals. Most fit theories postulate that fitting an individual to the organization is recommended but Argyris was in favor of fitting the organization to the individual. He conducted that reestablishing the organization to enable individuals to have more perceived control and decision making decrease incongruence and result in advantageous outcomes (Verquer, Beehr and Wagner, 2003).

Tom (1971) first proposed that individuals will be more successful in organizations which share their personalities and emphasized individual-organizational similarity as the crux of P-O fit. But the scholars in P-O fit especially focused on value congruence (Kristof, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005). According to Chatman (1989, p.339) P-O fit is the "congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of persons". Essentially, P-O fit theory assumes that there are characteristics of organizations which have the potential to be congruent with characteristics of individuals, and those individuals' behaviors and attitudes will be affected by the degree of fit between individuals and organizations (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006). Thus, P-O fit can be defined in terms of goal congruence, environmental congruence, personality congruence or value congruence (Westerman and Cyr, 2004).

Research on P-O congruence concerns essentially the antecedents and consequences of compatibility between individuals and the organizations in which they work (Kristof, 1996). As organizations confront downsizing, quality initiatives and changes in or removal of job structures, the benefits of employing individuals who can be mobile within an organization have been widely recognized. According to Kristof (1996), obtaining high levels of P-O fit through hiring and socialization is often touted as the key to retaining a workforce with the flexibility and organizational commitment necessary to meet these competitive challenges.

Chatman (1991) argued that organizations enhance person-organization fit by both selecting and socializing employees to manage more than a particular job. Selection

is the set of procedures through which an organization chooses its members and assess a candidate's knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs). Selection process can also serve as a function of selecting individuals whose values match with organizational values and filtering those whose values do not match. Van Vianen (2000) presented three domains of human characteristics which are important for personnel selection process. The first domain involves characteristics which are convenient to all work, such as cognitive ability and work motivation. The second domain concerns characteristics which are suitable to particular jobs or occupations, such as job specific cognitive abilities, knowledge, and personality traits. The third domain involves characteristics which are relevant to the way an individual matches to a special work setting, in other words, whether individual characteristics are congruent with the characteristics of the organization. In general, instruments employed in selection procedures mainly involve the first and the second domains.

Through socialization an individual begins to comprehend the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge which are necessary for surmising an organizational role and for participating as an organizational member. Thus, organizations find potential employees who will be responsive to organizational practices and by molding them to obey common norms and values they provide a stronger and more stable attachment between the individual and the organization (Chatman, 1991).

Kristof (1996) argues that high P-O fit results when one of the following three criteria is met: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both. This explanation focuses on congruence of the individual with the whole organization and leads to the multiple conceptualizations of P-O fit.

Two distinctions have been raised that help clarify these multiple conceptualizations. The first distinction is between supplementary and complementary fit. Supplementary fit occurs when an individual "supplements, embellishes, or

possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals" in an environment. In other words, individuals perceive themselves as "fitting in" because they are similar to other people possessing these characteristics in that organization. Process of investigating of supplementary fit focused on measuring the similarity between fundamental characteristics of individuals and organizations. In this model of person-organization congruence, the organization is defined primarily by the individuals in it. It is essentially a model of person-person fit. Conversely, complementary fit occurs when an individual's characteristics "make whole" or complement the characteristics of an environment. Complementary fit indicates that an individual adds strength to a deficient organization with the addition of his/her resources. In other words, complementary fit occurs when the weakness or need of the environment is balanced by the strength of the individual or vice versa (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987).

The definition of the environment is a main difference between the complementary and supplementary models. The environment in a supplementary model is described in respect to the individuals who inhabit it. In a complementary model, the environment is defined separately from its inhabitants (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987).

A second distinction in the conceptualization of P-O fit is proposed by the needs-supplies and demands-abilities difference which is frequently raised in discussions of other forms of congruence. If we approach from the needs-supplies perspective, P-O fit occurs when an organization satisfies individuals' needs, desires, or preferences. On the other hand, the demands-abilities viewpoint proposes that fit occurs when an individual possesses the abilities required to meet demands of the organization. Organizations supply financial, physical, and psychological resources as well as the task-related, interpersonal, and growth opportunities that are demanded by employees. Needs-supplies fit is achieved when these organizational supplies meet employees' demands. Similarly, organizations demand contributions from their employees in terms of time, effort, commitment, knowledge, skills, and abilities. When these employee supplies meet organizational demands, demands-abilities fit is achieved (Kristof, 1996).

Figure 1.1 may help in generating all above definitions of conceptualization of P-O fit.

Figure 1.1: Various Conceptualizations of Person-Organization Fit

ORGANIATION   **PERSON**

| **Characteristics:** Culture/Climate Values Goals Norms | ←— **Supplementary Fit** —→ **a** | **Characteristics:** Personality Values Goals Attitudes |

Supplies:
Resources
financial
physical
psychological
Opportunities
task-related
interpersonal

Supplies:
Resources
time
effort
commitment
experience
KSAs
task
interpersonal

Demands:
Resources
time
effort
commitment
experience
KSAs
task
interpersonal

c   **Complementary Fit**   **b**

Demands:
Resources
financial
physical
psychological
Opportunities
task-related
interpersonal

Source: Kristof-Brown, A. L. (1996). Person-Organization Fit: An Integrative Review of Its Conceptualizations, Measurement and Implications, *Personnel Psychology*, 49(1):1-49.

According to the literature, P-O fit primarily operationalized in four ways. Two of these express supplementary fit and one comes from the needs-supplies conceptualization. The fourth operationalization can be explained either of these two perspectives. Research on supplementary fit, the most important concern has been measuring the similarity between essential characteristics of individuals and organizations. The value congruence between individuals and organizations is the most

frequently used mode of operationalization (Kristof, 1996). Value congruence is a key type of fit due to the fact that values are "fundamental and relatively enduring" (Chatman, 1991, p.459) and are the components of organizational culture that guide employees' behaviors (Kristof, 1996). Since value congruence is the principal scope of this study, it will be discussed broadly in the next section.

Goal congruence between leaders and subordinates is another form of operationalization of P-O fit which derives from Schneider's attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, Goldstein and Smith, 1995). ASA is an individual based model proposed by Schneider in 1987. The testable predictions in the ASA model are essentially based on its major proposition that organizations become more homogeneous over time, although there are a lot of intriguing propositions in Schneider's framework (Schneider, Goldstein and Smith, 1995). This proposition is predicated upon three interacting processes.

The first process is the attraction process. People will be attracted to organizations where the modal personality and goals are most similar to their own (Slaughter, Stanton, Mohr and Schoel, 2005). In other words, individuals find organizations distinctively attractive as a function of their implicit judgments of the congruence between those organizations' goals and their own personalities. For instance, a designer may choose to work in company A versus company B based on his/her estimate of the fit or congruence between his/her own personality and goals he/she believes characterize the two companies (Schneider, Goldstein and Smith, 1995).

The second process is referred as the selection process which involves organizations and applicants preferring one another on the basis of their congruency of goals and personal characters. Through both formal and informal selection processes organizations are inclined to hire individuals which are most alike to the current members of organizations (Ployhart, Weekly and Baughman, 2006).

The third process is attrition. When individuals' goals and personalities do not "fit" with other employees' goals and personalities and they will leave the organization

voluntarily or involuntarily, the attrition process occurs (Slaughter, Stanton, Mohr and Schoel, 2005).

Central to the ASA framework is the goal concept. Schneider (1987) proposed that organizations are systems that are activated and directed by goals. Goals initially are set by the individuals who establish the organization. In the ASA framework, the goals of the organization are seen as operationalizations of the personality of the organization's founders. Schneider (1987) argued that some organizations follow innovation; others service quality and still others, a high level of worker quality of life as a function of the influence of the organization's founder. The logic underlying this statement is that: Founders' goals result in the enactment of specific policies and practices to achieve those goals. Combination of goals and their resulting policies and practices complies with an organization characterized by unique structure, process, and culture. At this point, the ASA cycle is thought to produce homogeneity.

Figure 1.2: The Attraction-Selection-Attrition Framework
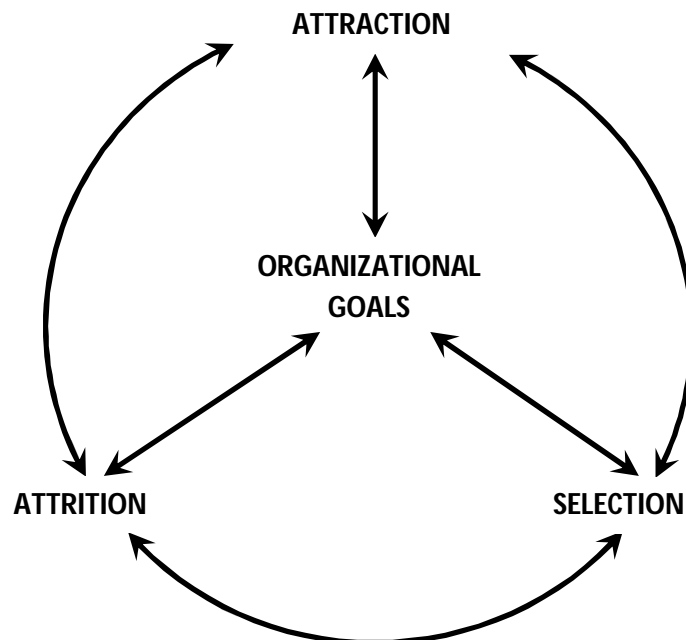
Source: Schneider, B. (1987). The People Make the Place, *Personnel Psychology*, 40(3):437-453.

The third operationalization of P-O fit investigates a needs-supplies perspective by defining fit as the congruence between individual preferences or needs and organizational systems and structures. This operationalization has its roots in needs-press theory in which environmental "presses" facilitate or hinder the meeting of people's physical and psychological needs. Needs-press theory comes from Levin's (1936) field theory. According to Levin (1936), individual's behavior is an outcome of an interaction between his/her needs and the press which act upon him/her. Needs are motivational, representing tendencies to move in the direction of certain goals and press are directional tendencies in the individual's environment which relate to these needs. According to Levin's (1936) model, for each kind of need, there is a corresponding press (Gardner, 1975).

Needs-supply perspective can also be thought of in terms of the theory of work adjustment (Kristof, 1996). According work adjustment theory, an individual is satisfied with work if his/her needs are fulfilled by the environment. Though the theory has mostly been used to study person-vocation fit, it has also been used as an explanation for P-O fit (Kristof, 1996).

The last operationalization defines P-O fit as the match between the characteristics of individual's personality and organizational climate. Since this operationalization describes congruence between the two entity's personalities, its measurement often suggests a complementary needs-supplies perspective. This explanation is best described by the acknowledgment that the measurement reflects a complementary needs-supplies perspective because organizational climate is mostly operationalized in terms of organizational supplies and individual personality is operationalized in terms of needs. Since few researchers specify their underlying conceptualization of fit, it is difficult to determine whether the supplementary or complementary needs-supplies perspective is the basis for their models of personality based P-O fit (Kristof, 1996).

1.1.3. The Measurement of Person-Organization Fit

The construct of P-O fit not only varies in conceptual and operational meaning, but also among measurement domains, as the methods used to capture P-O fit vary widely across the literature. P-O fit concept suggests that there are two different entities, person and the organization. Almost every researcher in this area considers these two entities as independent while some researchers investigate the objective attributes of both sides, on the other hand, some try to close the gap by using commensurate operationalizations (Turban and Keon, 1993).

Commensurate measurement describes both person and organization with the same content dimensions and assesses fit ensuring mutual relevance of the characteristics of both sides. Pervin's (1967) study, regarding adaptation among university students was the first real test of a P-O fit theory which used commensurate measure (Caplan, 1987). There are some objections to this measurement by stating that commensurate dimensions are not necessary and priori hypothesis can be used to determine the level of fit in an organization. This debate leads researchers to find how similar measures have to meet the standard of commensurability. As we see, achieving perfectly commensurate measures is very difficult. Commensurability can be easy for directly measured characteristics by asking commensurate questions. However, it is not appropriate to use commensurate measurement for hidden characteristics because of the multidimensionality of these characteristics. Kristof (1996) suggests that for supplementary fit, commensurability ensures that high levels of fit convey similarity between the individual and the organization on certain dimensions. However, the level of commensurability depends on the wideness of the construct for complementary fit.

A meaningful differentiation between types of fit studies is to discuss whether they assess fit directly or indirectly. According to Kristof (1996), direct measurement of fit involves simply asking individuals whether or not they think a good fit exists between them and their organization. Direct measures are beneficial if the construct under investigation is perceived fit, in other words, if fit is conceptualized as the judgment that an individual fits well in an organization. Perceived P–O fit (also called subjective fit)

measures directly asking individuals to describe him/her and the organization on similar dimensions (Erdogan, Kraimer and Liden, 2004). While subjective fit measures ask the individuals in a straightforward manner, how well they think their own characteristics match with the characteristics of organization, objective fit (also called actual fit) measures ask the individual to define his/her own characteristics and then ask other organizational members to describe the organization on the same dimensions. Thus, the fit measure is constructed from these two definitions. Subjective and objective measures are entirely distinct ways of measuring the same concept and any dissimilar results in previous research could easily be found to using different approaches for measurement (Verquer, Beehr and Wagner, 2002). Nonetheless, objective fit is a less proximal in determining factor of attitudes and behavior compared to perceived and subjective fit (Kristof, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005).

Several criticisms have been leveled against direct measures because direct measures confound both the individual and environment; thereby prevent estimation of their independent effects. Additionally, if the questions asked do not clearly describe what values or other characteristics are to be considered in the respondents' answers, it is impossible to ensure that commensurate dimensions are being considered. Finally, a consistency bias could affect the results if direct measures are used in with other work-related attitude measures together (Kristof, 1996).

In consideration of these drawbacks, some researchers rely on indirect measures to assess actual fit. Indirect measurement involves a comparison between individual and organizational characteristics which are rated separately. It provides assessment without asking for judgments of fit to those under investigation. In addition to the differentiation between direct and indirect measures of P-O fit, there are also different techniques for indirect measurement such as indirect cross levels measurement and individual level measurement. The cross levels technique involves measuring characteristics of the organization and the individual from independent sources. This technique is generally used in order to assess supplementary and complementary fit. Individual level of

analysis involves having individuals respond to questions about both their own characteristics and those of a particular organization (Kristof, 1996).

Researchers used methods which measure values independently of each other and assess preferences between different values; relatively the former one was labeled normative and latter one was named ipsative technique. The normative technique typically asks respondents to rate the degree they approve a set of items or statements defining a value or set of values. The ipsative technique typically requires respondents to either rank order a set of values or to select value or value statement at the expense of another in a forced choice format (Meglino and Ravlin, 1998).

Scholars who use normative methods assert numerous advantages. Normative techniques produce value scores that are independent of each other and in this way they enable an individual's value profile to be high or low on any or all values. Hence, it is impossible employing ipsative procedures because each value must be assigned a different rank. At the same time, when values are rated independently, it is possible to capture absolute differences between values. Correspondingly, normative procedures enable for values to be rated as equal in strength, which is impossible with ipsative measures (Meglino and Ravlin, 1998).

Scientists who employ advantages of ipsative methods also indicate advantages of their techniques. Possibly the most significant of these how they conceptualize the nature of values. Values are believed to be below an individual's level of complete awareness. Accurate value measurement requires assessments made in choice situations. Ipsative measuring techniques ask respondents to make such choices. Hence, ipsative scores are believed to more closely represent an individual's true values and are less tending to social desirability bias. The discussion above stresses that ipsative and normative scales each include unique information that is suitable to different phenomena. In other words, ipsative scales involves information concerned with values in choice situations that is not captured by normative scales. Normative scales, on the other hand, involve information about the similarities and absolute differences of values in comparative situations that is not contained in ipsative scales. Thus, each

measurement methodology captures relevant information which is unavailable employing with the other (Meglino and Ravlin, 1998).

1.1.4. Person-Supervisor Fit

The last form of P-E fit focuses on dyadic relationships between individuals and others in work settings. Despite the fact that dyadic fit may occur between coworkers (Jhen, Chadwick and Thatcher, 1997), applicants and recruiters (Graves and Powell, 1995), and mentors and protégés (Lee, Turban and Dougherty, 2000), the most well-researched domain is the fit between supervisors and subordinates (Van Vianen, 2000). Person-supervisor fit (P-S) is the only type of fit in which the dyadic relationship between employees and their supervisors is investigated (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005).

Before one can fully figure out the fit between person and supervisor, it is very important to understand what has been learned about the relationship between this important dyad. Past research has examined P-S fit through leader-follower value congruence (Krishnan, 2002), supervisor-subordinate personality similarity (Schaubroeck and Lam, 2002; Hui, Cheng and Gan, 2003) and manager-employee goal congruence (Witt, 1998).

Values of supervisors and subordinates in organization settings are phenomena that have captured interest of researchers, social critics, practitioners and the public at large. Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins (1989) examined fit on the dimension of work value congruence between supervisors and subordinates. Congruence between subordinates' values and those of their supervisors was associated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment and reporting to work on time. Adkins and Russell (1997) examined the relationship of superior-subordinate work value congruence to subordinate performance in a retail setting but found no relationship between them.

From a person-environment congruence perspective, personality similarity within a supervisor-subordinate dyad is significant to work performance (Hui, Cheng and Gan,

2003). Perception of similarity results in subordinates' trust and confidence in their leaders (Turban and Jones, 1988). Antonioni and Park (2001) investigated whether rater-ratee personality similarity influences peer ratings of work behaviors associated with performing work tasks and they found out that dyads with similar personalities may work together more effectively because they trust each other more, share similar perspectives and communicate better.

According to Lee, Dougherty and Turban (2000), personality and work values performs a perceptible role in mentor-protégé dyads. They argued that "mismatches" of both personality traits and values in mentor-protégé pairings can hamper the success of mentoring. Also using Five Factor Model (FFM), practical strategies for enhancing the matching of mentors and protégés are discussed.

Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence is conceptually analogous to Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) in that it focuses on the unique relationship between the leader and each of his/her subordinates (Graen and Schiemann, 1978). It should be underlined that higher quality exchange relationships with supervisors occur when leaders and members share similar values (Ashkanasy and O'Connor, 1997).

Previous research suggests that prevailing cultural norms of individualism/collectivism have an important influence on coworker integration and also influence the degree to which similarity influences other employee outcomes. Psychological collectivism essentially applies to a syndrome of attitudes and behaviors established upon the idea that the smallest unit of survival lies in collectives and not on individuals (Hui and Triandis, 1986). On the other hand, individualism is a syndrome of attitudes and behaviors based on the belief that the smallest unit of survival is the individual self (Hui, Cheng and Gan, 2003). Thus, collectivists would endeavor to maintain harmony with other employees – including supervisors.

1.1.4.1. Values

In recent years there has been growing interest in the analysis of general human values and especially work values (Elizur, 1996). Values have become a central construct in all of the social sciences and in the understanding of business phenomena (Agle and Caldwell, 1999). Extensive empirical attention has been devoted to typology and measurement of values (McDonald and Gandz, 1991), to the dynamics of value priorities such as stability and change (Furnham, 1984) and to the relationship between values and attitudes, goals and behavior (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991).

One of the most prominent researchers in the study of values is Rokeach. Agle and Caldwell (1999) stated that his work in the 1960s and 1970s was one of the most widely used studies for later research. Hence, Rokeach's (1973) definition of value is the most frequently referenced definition. Rokeach defines a value as "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence". According to Rokeach (1979) a powerful aspect of values as a concept is that it can be equally and usefully applied to study of individuals, groups, organizations, institutions, countries, since each of these entities possesses values (Kabanoff and Daly, 2002).

Chatman (1991) defined values as a type of social cognition that facilitates an individual's adaptation to his/her environment. According to Posner, Kouzes and Schmidt (1985) values comprise the things that are most important to us. They are deep seated, pervasive standards that influence almost every aspect of our lives: our moral judgments, responses to others, commitments to personal and organizational goals.

Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) presented the common point of all the above definitions. They viewed values as (a) concepts or beliefs, (b) about desirable end states or behaviors, (c) that transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance.

In the organizational literature values have been conceptualized in numerous ways. At the most basic level, theoreticians have focused on two types of values. The first type is the value that an individual places on an object or outcome. These objects or outcomes acquire value through their instrumental relationship with other objects or outcomes that in turn, are instrumental to still other objects or outcomes. Estimating an object in this way demands calculations that are beyond an individual's capabilities, this process is presumably more subconscious or automatic than active. A second form of value is employed to depict an individual as opposed to an object and this form subdivided into instrumental and terminal values. Terminal values are self-sufficient end-states of existence that an individual tries to achieve. Instrumental values are modes of behavior rather than states of existence (Meglino and Ravlin, 1998).

Work values are believed to be crucial elements of organizational culture which can ultimately serve to increase individual and organizational performance (Schein, 1985). Scientists claimed that values organize one's perceptions of the work environment, shape one's choices, and orient one's work behavior. Consequently, individuals with similar values may think and behave in compatible ways; despite the existence of different work habits, skill type, interpersonal style or background among them (Lee, Dougherty and Turban, 2000).

Values have a considerable influence on the affective and behavioral responses of individuals (Locke, 1976). Values influence the individual by affecting his/her decision about the choice of fitting behavior. According to Schein (1985), shared values: 1) affect individuals to behave in ways that facilitate the survival of the organization, a function that he named external adaptation; and 2) facilitate coordination and communication among individuals through shared elements of cognitive processing, a function he named internal integration (Ravlin and Meglino, 1987).

As mentioned before, one of the most important relationships studied in the construct of person-organization fit is the congruence of values between organizations and people. Value congruence could be conceptualized in two distinct ways – perceived

value congruence, and latent value congruence (Enz, 1988). In the first approach value congruence is treated as a purely perceptual construct that captures the espoused, recognized, explicitly stated, and socially defined levels of consensus defined by departments and executives. This is called perceived value congruence which supposes that values are conscious and explicitly articulated to perform normative or moral functions. The second approach of value congruence suggests that values of individuals and the organizations obtained in a separate way and then compared in order to achieve the consensus between them. This is a less direct method and measures the latent value congruence (Krishnan, 1997).

The researchers used various measures to assess P-O fit in terms of value congruence. The first measure which is to be discussed is Allport-Vernon-Lindzey (A-V-L) scale which continues to be one of the most popular measures of values in organizational research (Hodgets, 1987). This instrument is based on the work of the German philosopher Eduard Spranger (1928). Spranger clarified six types of men: theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political and religious. Actually, the A-V-L value taxonomy was formulated for extensive application in society and valuable as a general instrument. But these six value items are not specific to organizations and are not precise enough to enable the operationalization of P-O value congruence (McDonald and Gandz, 1991).

One of the popular taxonomies in value congruence studies is a taxonomy which was developed by Rokeach (1973). This taxonomy includes a set of 36 values, in order to study personal value differences across groups in society. In the taxonomy 18 values are terminal values that are ideal end states of existence and 18 are instrumental values that are ideal way of behavior. Rokeach's values-set well-matched with his research objectives, centered upon individual values within the extensive context of society and involves value concepts such as inner harmony, salvation, and a world of peace. But the relevance of such concepts to the discussion and operationalization of P-O value congruence can be questioned legitimately (McDonald and Gandz, 1991).

England's (1967, 1975) value taxonomy is a second noticeable set of values that appeared in the literature. He initially studied the value systems of American managers and later examined value differences across national cultures. England (1967) identified two major classes of personal values: operative values which have the greatest affect on behavior and intended and adopted values which can be professed but do not directly affect behavior to any great degree (McDonald and Gandz, 1991).

England's list is different from other taxonomies in the sense that it was particularly designed for the organizational context. The taxonomy was developed from an item pool of 200 concepts selected from literature. England then purified his list down to a set of 66 concepts organized into five categories: (1) goals of business organizations, (2) personal goals of individuals, (3) groups of people, (4) ideas associated with people, and (5) ideas about general topics. As mentioned before, England's value list was specifically designed for organizations but it can be questioned from a number of perspectives. First, the item pool was not derived empirically, though England employed a panel that contained representation from the business community to lessen the item pool. Second criticism is about the structure of items, while some items constituted values other items did not. Finally it was available primarily at the level of national cultures (McDonald and Gandz, 1991).

Liedtka (1989) introduced a value congruence theory related to individual and organizational value systems. Her theory originated from image theory and was a four-quadrant model, in which an individual's values were either internally consonant or internally contending and in which an organization's values were either consonant or contending. According to Liedtka's theory, an individual in quadrant I would endure internal value conflict, would count on the strong organizational culture as a frame of reference and would comply with organizational values. In quadrant II, both the individual and the organization have contending values and because of the lack of a powerful corporate culture the person feels confusion. In quadrant IV, the corporate culture is also weak due to contending values, but the person experiences internal value consonance. According to Liedtka, quadrant III may declare a condition without conflict

which would not be addressed within image theory. Liedtka in her theory recognized four types of conflict, involving conflict within the individual, conflict within the organization, conflict between the individual and the organization and multiple level conflicts.

Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory (WVI) is the best-known instrument for assessing values in terms of vocational behavior. There are six factors in Work Values Inventory: material success, heuristic-creative, achievement-prestige, conditions and associates, independence-variety and altruism. More recently, Super (1980) improved the Values Scale, an American version of the Work Importance Study, which measured 21 vocational values. But this taxonomy did not accept as much attention as the WVI (Dose, 1997).

Lofquist and Dawis (1971) discussed values as needs that are grouped according to their common points they share and developed Minnesota Importance Questionnaire. Their Minnesota Importance Questionnaire conceptualizes values much like Super's (1970) Work Values Inventory. The factor structure of the questionnaire explains six values: safety, autonomy, comfort, altruism, achievement and aggrandizement.

More recent and popular value instrument is Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) which is developed by O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991). The OCP was improved and employed to measure person-organization fit. This instrument is a value-based scale consisting of 54 value statements that can generically capture individual and organizational values. In the standard version of the questionnaire, respondents sort the 54 items into nine categories with a fixed number of items per category (2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 9, 6, 4, and 2), ranging from most "desired or characteristic" to "least desired or characteristic" using Q-sort. In this way a profile of the preferred and existing culture for each respondent is provided (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991). However with the OCP each individual's profile can also be compared to other profiles to assess relative fit or congruence (O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991). In sum, the Q-sort method enables for a broad measurement of personal and organizational values. The breadth

and complexity of values are captured because a large number of items are used in the OCP and each item is definitely compared to each other. Consequently, a distinct advantage of the Q-sort method is that more items can be used reliably (Chatman, 1991).

In conclusion, all the taxonomies discussed above have important contributions in their area and perspectives. When it is considered that there are variety of taxonomies in the value research literature, a need emerges to have a clear and agreed upon relevant glossary in order to enable both researchers and practitioners to discover and benefit from P-O value congruence (McDonald and Gandz, 1991).

1.1.4.2. Value Typology of Kabanoff

Schwartz (1992) asserted that value differences between individuals and organizations not come from whether they have or do not have a particular value since the same relatively small number of values is found in most settings. Individuals and groups are distinct in terms of the importance attached to different values and these differences can be described in terms of value hierarchies and value structures. According to Kabanoff (1991), value structure is a pattern of relations among a set of values and these patterns can differ in terms of both compatibilities and conflicts between them. He differentiated value structure from value hierarchy due to the fact that value structure contains compatibility and conflict and value hierarchy is a priority based ordering (Kabanoff and Daly, 2000).

Kabanoff (1991) distinguished between the values individuals personally hold and values which they express or espouse on behalf of an organization, so he defined values as espoused values. However, labeling them as espoused values does not imply that they are temporary or unimportant. Values that organizations espouse, in some cases, reflect organizational practices and reflect what senior managers actually believe their organizations to be like, what they would prefer their organizations to be like or what they would like significant stakeholders to believe the organization is like

(Kabanoff and Daly, 2002). Espoused values play another important role for organizations in that they are employed to enhance organization's reputations and images, that is to say, their external legitimacy. It can be thought that organizations enhance their legitimacy by espousing values which are congruent with their cultural environment (Kabanoff and Daly, 2000).

Following Schwartz's (1992) approach, Kabanoff defined (1991) a typology of four ideal types of organizations (elite, leadership, meritocratic and collegial) representing distinctive ways of dealing with the conflict between equity and equality and described value structures reflecting these four ideal types of organizations. Otherwise stated, according to Kabanoff, organizations in common, resemble just one of four ideal types regarding their value structures. He deduced these value structures from the theory. The value structures involve leadership, authority, teamwork, participation, performance, commitment, reward, affiliation and normative values (Kabanoff, Waldersee and Cohen, 1995).

Figure 1.3 shows this typology describing four organizational types and their associated value structures and reflecting the particular structure-process combination characteristic of each ideal type. The equity and equality ends of the two dimensions (structure and process) describe the four ideal types. For instance, the elite value structure stands for the pure unequal type which brings together unequal power values and inequality-oriented equity values. The elite value structure deemphasizes egalitarian power values (participation, normative) and cohesion values (affiliation, teamwork, commitment, leadership) and emphasizes unequal power relations (authority), performance and reward. Conversely, the leadership type indicates a mixed, compensatory pattern that retains the elite type's unequal power orientation but superimposes on it a set of cohesion values which are nevertheless consistent with unequal power relations, labeled, leadership, teamwork, commitment and affiliation. According to Kabanoff (1991, p.433-434), "Leadership has a paradoxical or dualistic quality – it both glorifies inequality and the differences between the leader and the led, while at the same time it creates identification and cohesiveness between the leader and

his/her followers". Similarly, the meritocratic type brings together equity and equality concerns by superimposing a set of equity-oriented values on a pure, egalitarian collegial type (Kabanoff, Waldersee and Cohen, 1995).

Figure 1.3: Typology of Value Structure

```
Process reinforces
structure              Unequal        STRUCTURE       Equal
                        Power                         Power

                   ┌──────────────────────┬──────────────────────┐
                   │      Elite            │    Meritocratic      │
                   │  a                    │  + Values            │
                   │    + Values  − Values │  Teamwork   − Values │
                   │             Teamwork  │  Participation       │
                   │  Authority  Leadership│  Commitment Authority│
     Equitable     │  Performance Participa│  Performance Leadership
                   │  Reward     tion      │  Reward              │
                   │             Commitment│  Normative           │
                   │             Normative │  Affiliation         │
                   │             Affiliation                      │
PROCESS            ├──────────────────────┼──────────────────────┤
                   │    Leadership         │     Collegial        │
                   │                       │                      │
                   │  + Values             │  + Values   − Values │
                   │  Authority  − Values  │  Teamwork   Authority│
                   │  Leadership Participat │  Participation Leadership
                   │  Teamwork   ion       │  Commitment Performance
                   │  Commitment Normative │  Normative  Reward   │
     Egalitarian   │  Performance          │  Affiliation         │
                   │  Reward               │                      │
                   │  Affiliation          │                      │
                   └──────────────────────┴──────────────────────┘

Process compensates
    for structure
```

Source: Kabanoff, B., Waldersee, R. and Cohen, M. (1995). Espoused Values and Organizational Change Themes, *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(4):1075-1104.

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The concern of this study is clearly with Kabanoff's espoused values. His organizational value structure which includes authority, leadership, teamwork, participation, commitment, performance, reward, affiliation and normative values is also used as the value typology of this study.

CHAPTER 2
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1. DEFINITION OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Previous research has shown that there is growing interest among researchers in the concept of commitment and in empirical measurements of its outcomes in a number of organizational settings (Buchanan, 1974). Organizational commitment has been accepted a great deal of attention in organizational psychology literature; however most of this attention has been directed towards recognizing the consequences of having committed individuals. Despite the fact that the results of these studies were not always consistent; they proposed that commitment is positively associates with motivation and involvement, expressions of positive affect and loyalty and job performance (Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly, 1990). Additionally, some studies suggest that commitment is negatively associated with potentially costly behaviors such as absenteeism (Angle and Perry, 1981) and the likelihood of turnover (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974).

Commitment is an important concept with important relevance for both individuals and organizations. For employees, commitment to work and an organization represents a positive relationship that could potentially add meaning to life. From the perspective of organizations, committed employees would be beneficial due to the potential for increased performance and reduced turnover and absenteeism (Mowday, 1998). Individuals who are committed to their organizations "tend to identify with the objectives and goals of their organizations and want to remain with their organizations" (Hunt, Wood and Chonko 1989).

What does the concept commitment point out? As with other concepts in organizational behavior literature, commitment has been defined and measured in many distinct ways (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). According to Buchanan (1974, p.533), commitment is "a partisan, an affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to goals and values and to the organization for its

own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth". The process of accepting organizational goals and values and integrating them into a system of personal goals and values is shown by all scholars as "organizational identification." The identification approach postulates commitment to be an attitudinal intervening construct, mediating between certain antecedents and outcomes, and views this attitudinal process as primarily affective, rather than cognitive-calculative (Wiener, 1982).

Mowday and McDade (1979) define organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization. Sheldon (1971) views commitment as "an attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization". Steers (1977) defined the concept as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.

Grusky (1966, p.490) provided a very broad definition of commitment. He postulated that commitment "refers to the nature of the relationship of the member to the system as a whole". Grusky hypothesized that two factors affect the strength of commitment: a) the grater the rewards one receives from an organization, the greater one's commitment will be; and b) the greater the obstacles one has to overcome in order to receive the rewards, the greater one's commitment will be.

In general, researchers distinguished two different perspectives of commitment in the organizational commitment literature, which are termed attitudinal and behavioral commitment. According to Arbak and Kesken (2005), attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which an individual think about his relationship with the organization. Otherwise stated, individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals match with goals and values of the organization which they are employed. In the attitudinal perspective, research has been aimed largely at identification of the antecedent conditions that contribute to the development of commitment (Buchanan, 1974). For example, Porter and his colleagues (1974) have initiated a number of studies to identify the factors influencing individuals to develop a belief in the goals and values

of the organization, a willingness to put effort in pursuing of these goals, and a desire to remain a part of the organization.

Behavioral commitment relates to the process by which individuals become fixed into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem (Mowday et al., 1979). Different from attitudinal perspective, in the behavioral perspective, research has focused primarily on recognizing under which conditions a behavior tends to be repeated, also on the effects of such behavior on attitude change (Meyer and Allen, 1991). Interest in behavioral commitment also has focused on situational factors which make a particular action difficult to change. For example, Kiesler and Sakumara (1966) identified several factors which may increase an individual's commitment to a specific course of action: 1) number of acts performed by the individual; 2) significance of the act to the individual; 3) explicitness of the act; 4) degree of revocability of the act; and 5) degree of choice perceived by the individual in performing the act.

A schematic representation of the basic postulates of the attitudinal and behavioral perspectives is presented in Figure 2.1:

Figure 2.1: Attitudinal and Behavioral Perspectives on Organizational Commitment

Attitudinal Perspective

Behavioral Perspective
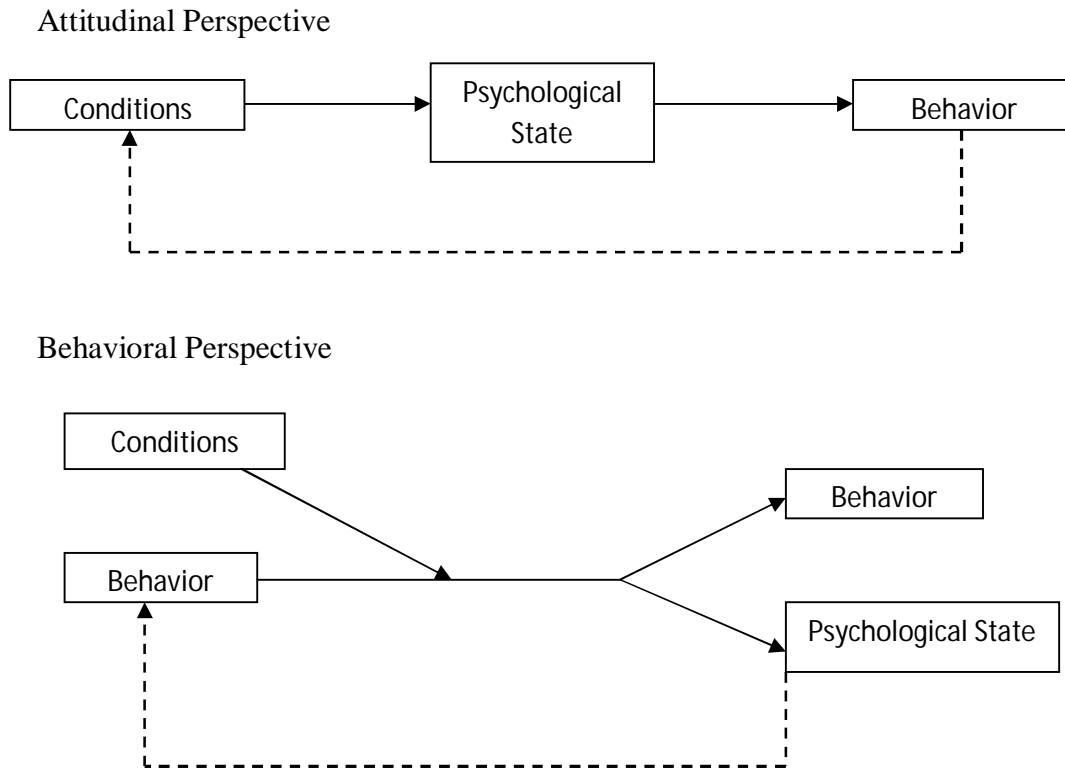
Source: Meyer, J. P. and Allen, N. J. (1991). A Three-Component Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment, *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1):61-89.

According to the figure, in the attitudinal approach the behavioral consequences of commitment influence on the conditions that contribute to stability or change in commitment. In the behavioral approach, attitudes resulting from behavior affect the likelihood of that behavior occurring again in the future (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Despite the fact, there are a number of definitions about organizational commitment; an emerging consensus from the broad organizational commitment literature is that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct (Lee and Gao, 2005). Early research suggested organizational commitment to be a unidimensional construct, but now it is widely accepted as being a multidimensional (Barlett and Kang, 2004). However, there has been a debate about the number of dimensions organizational commitment has (Abbott, White and Charles, 2005).

2.1.1. Conceptualization of Organizational Commitment

Over years, several definitions and measures of the commitment concept have been developed and used in different studies (Morris and Sherman, 1981). According to Morrow (1983), there are over than 25 conceptual frameworks in the organizational commitment literature and in these frameworks commitment is conceptualized as unidimensional or multidimensional construct, each accompanied by advocated measure or set of measures. Beginning with Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974), early studies of the concept viewed it as unidimensional construct focusing only on affective attachment. The Porter et al. (1974) developed their instrument on the basis of three factors that characterize organizational commitment: (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Under this study, commitment is conceptualized as a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organization and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate those goals (Mowday and McDade, 1979). Porter's measure of commitment, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), presented a single score reflecting the employees' overall commitment to the organization. This view is confirmed by factor analysis which showed that 15 items of organizational commitment scale loaded on a single factor (Mowday, 1998). The 15 items reflect a combination of attitudes and behavioral intentions and emphasize the employee's moral involvement with the organization (Ferris and Aranya, 1983).

In the intervening years, scholars have widened and advanced the understanding of commitment by viewing it as having multiple dimensions. Until the present time, the model which developed and presented by Meyer and Allen (1991) is one of the most supported and reliable measurement instruments (Arbak and Kesken, 2005). At the beginning Meyer and Allen (1984) suggested two distinct component of commitment. They called these components affective and continuance commitment. Affective commitment denoted an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement

in the organization and continuance commitment symbolized the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization.

Allen and Meyer (1990) later suggested a third distinguishable component of commitment, normative commitment, which reflects a perceived obligation to remain in the organization (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, Topolnytsky, 2002). They evaluated three-component model, based on the observation that had both similarities and differences in existing unidimensional conceptualizations. They agreed with the majority that commitment binds of an individual to an organization, and thereby reduces turnover. The significant distinctions were in the minds-sets suggested to characterize commitment. These minds-sets express three distinguishable themes: affective attachment to the organization, perceived cost of leaving and obligation to remain. Meyer and Allen (1991) claimed that commitment accompanied by one or more of these minds-sets hence included all three in their model. In order to differentiate among commitments characterized by these different mind-sets, they named them affective, continuance and normative commitment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001). Affective, continuance and normative commitment are viewed as distinguishable components, rather than types of commitment; that is, individuals can experience each of these psychological states to varying degrees (Wasti, 2003).

Regarding Meyer and Allen's (1991) conceptualization, affective commitment is described as individuals' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and its goals. It results from person and organization value congruency. Therefore commitment becomes nearly natural for the individual to be emotionally attached to and enjoy continuing membership in the organization. Affectively committed employees stay with the organization because they want to. Researchers presented factors that are helpful in creating fundamental rewarding situations for individuals to be antecedents of affective commitment. These factors contain job characteristics, perceived organizational support and the degree that employees are involved in the goal-setting and decision-making processes (Ugboro, 2006). According to Meyer and Allen (1991) the antecedents of affective commitment

fall into four categories such as personal characteristics, job related characteristics, structural characteristics and work experiences.

Continuance commitment is an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Mowday, 1998). Individuals with continuance commitment remain in the organization because they need to do so. Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed that continuance commitment would be developed on the basis of two factors: the magnitude or number of investments (side-bets) individuals make and a perceived lack of alternatives. These predictions come from the theoretical work of Becker. Becker (1960) argued that individuals make side-bets when they take an action which increases the costs associated with discontinuing another related action. For instance, individuals who invest substantial time and energy on mastering a job or skill can not be transferred easily to other organizations. In other words, personal investment in the form of nontransferable investments, such as close working relationships with coworkers, acquired job skills which are unique to a particular company, retirement investments and career investments and other benefits which make it too costly for one to leave and seek employment elsewhere.

As mentioned before, normative commitment reflects a felt obligation to remain a member of an organization (Mowday, 1998). Wiener (1982) mentioned that the feeling of obligation to stay in the organization can result from the internalization of normative pressures exerted on an individual before entering to the organization. Normative commitment can be also increased with rewards in advance such as training, paying college tuition and consideration of special needs such as forgiveness for missed deadlines due to personal commitments. Recognition of these investments on the part of the organization can develop an imbalance in the employee-organization relationship and causes employees to feel an obligation to reciprocate by committing themselves to the organization until the debt has been repaid (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

The role of normative commitment simultaneously causes appearing number of questions in both Western and non-Western organizational settings. Both affective and

continuance commitment are rooted originally in the individual's association with the organization. But normative commitment arises both from interaction with the organization and from more cultural and familial socialization processes whereby the individual learns the appropriateness of concepts such as loyalty, obligation and self-interest (Gautam, Van Dick, Wagner, Upadhyay and Davis, 2005). Chen and Francesco (2003) propose an increased importance for normative commitment in collectivist cultures, where group expectations and social performance are relatively more significant issues than individual attitudes and attachments. This finding has received some support from Wasti (2003) considering commitment in a Turkish context.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined commitment as the basis of an individual's psychological attachment to the organization. This basis of attachment is different from the antecedents of commitment or its consequences (Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly, 1990). Their multidimensional framework was developed on Kelman's (1958) work on attitude and behavior change to conceptualize alternative forms of attachment (Mowday, 1998). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) argue that the bond between an employee and an organization could take three forms: compliance, identification and internalization. Compliance relates to instrumental attachment which taken on for certain rewards. Identification occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish a satisfying relationship. Internalization refers to congruence between individual and organization values. For example, organizations whose recruitment practices explain the organizations' values for potential employees are more likely to select for and improve internalized attachment among new recruits than organizations which do not screen applicants for value congruence. Because if values are clear, candidates will have more information on which to determine if they agree with and conform to those values, and organizations can more easily match prospective candidates both to the organization culture and to the specific job (Caldwell, Chatman and O'Reilly, 1990). In subsequent researches, investigators had some difficulty in differentiating internalization and identification, because measures tended to correlate highly with one another and showed similar patterns of correlations with measures of other variables. Consequently, O'Reilly

and his colleagues combined the identification and internalization items and formed normative commitment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001) which corresponds more closely to affective commitment in Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model.

Obviously, there is a similarity in the way that Porter et al. (1974) conceptualized commitment and the subsequent work of both O'Reilly and Chatman (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1991). O'Reilly and Chatman's internalization dimension and Meyer and Allen's affective commitment dimension is alike to Porter's approach to commitment. Actually, Meyer and Allen (1991) propose that research employing Porter's OCQ can be interpreted as reflecting affective commitment.

Kanter (1968) proposed three distinct "axes" of commitment: continuance, cohesion and control. According to Kanter, continuance commitment results from positive cognitions and the need for cognitive consistency. Cognitive consistency is particularly related to the consideration of costs and are benefits related to leaving versus remaining part of the social system. Cohesion commitment is the commitment to the group and social relationships and based on positive cathexis. Control commitment is the commitment to "uphold norms and obey the authority of the group" and results from positive evaluative orientations. High levels of value congruence between the individual and the social system should be associated with high level of control commitment.

Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) developed the H&A instrument on the basis of the exchange or reward-cost model in terms of Becker's notion of side bets. This instrument assesses the individual's inclination to leave an organization as a function of four alternative external inducements. Commitment under this approach is initially a structural phenomenon which appears as a result of individual-organizational transactions.

Angle and Perry (1981) differentiated "value commitment" and "commitment to stay" based on the results of a factor analysis of items from the Porter et al.'s Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. In their study commitment is discussed as a multidimensional taxonomy and revealed two factors underlying the OCQ. The first

dimension was defined by items measuring willingness to remain (commitment to stay) and the second dimension was described by items estimating support for organizational goals (value commitment). Later, Mayer and Schoorman (1992) based on Angle and Perry's (1981) findings, proposed two dimensions of organizational commitment which they named continuance commitment and value commitment.

There is a significant difference between the dimensions of organizational commitment identified by Angle and Perry (1981) and Mayer and Schoorman (1992) and those identified by Meyer and Allen (1991). According to Meyer and Allen, the three components of commitment are different mainly in terms of the mind-set that binds the employee to the organization. However, continued employment is the primary behavioral consequence of all three mind-sets. In contrast, Angle and Perry (1981) and Meyer and Schoorman (1992) make their distinction in terms of behavioral consequences rather than mind-sets – continuance commitment is assumed to be associated with the decision to remain or leave the organization, however value commitment is associated with the exertion of effort toward the achievement of organizational goals (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Jaros, Jermier, Koehler and Sincich (1993) have also proposed a multidimensional conceptualization of commitment which appears to be alike to that of Meyer and Allen (1991). Even though both focus on the distinction between three different commitments; there are some vital differences which catch attention. Firstly, though both scholars describe affective commitment as reflecting a feeling of emotional attachment to the organization, Jaros et al. (1993) placed substantially more emphasis on the actual affect experienced by individuals than did Meyer and Allen. The measure utilized by Jaros et al. (1993) contains an affect adjective check list. In addition, Jaros et al.'s (1993) definition of moral commitment (internalization of goals and values) matches more closely to Meyer and Allen (1991) definition of affective commitment than to their definition of normative commitment. Their multidimensional construct correspond only in the case of continuance commitment (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Penley and Gould (1988) improved a multidimensional framework based on Etzioni's (1961) earlier work on organizational involvement. Especially, they differentiated three forms of commitment: moral, calculative, and alienative. The definition of moral commitment is characterized by the acceptance of and identification with organizational goals and matches to Jaros et al.'s (1993) definition, and overlaps conceptually with affective commitment in Meyer and Allen's model, and with value commitment in Angle and Perry's (1981) and Meyer and Schoorman's (1992) frameworks. Considering the dimension stated as calculative commitment in this work, commitment to an organization which is based on the employee's accepting inducements to match contributions and corresponds most to compliance as described by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and maybe considered a form of instrumental motivation rather than commitment (Penley and Gould, 1988). The concept of alienative commitment matches to some degree to continuance commitment as described by Meyer and Allen and Jaros et al. (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Despite the debate about the components of organizational commitment, these dimensions appear to capture different aspects of this multifaceted construct. As a whole they describe a connectedness of an individual and an organization (Marchiori and Henkin, 2004).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH STUDY

3.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Current research shows that individuals often continue working for organizations that enable them to best utilize their skills and abilities and that provide an environment which appropriately matches their personal attributes. Thus, individuals place themselves in organizations that best suit their characteristics and leave organizations that do not provide a positive match (Kristof, 1996). Chatman (1991) suggests that when values and priorities of individuals match the values and priorities of a particular organization they are more satisfied and more probably to maintain an association with that organization. Investigating person-organization (P-O) fit has shown important implications for individual well-being and organizational outcomes, commonly, indicating that their fit between an individual's values and organizational values is associated with greater organizational commitment (Van Vianen, 2000). Thus, authors of current research has considered values in general and work values specifically as important variables in explaining organizational commitment (e.g., Kidron, 1978; O'Relly et al., 1991; Valentine et al., 2002).

According to Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974), commitment is a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. From this definition it is clear that values play a significant role in conceptualizing of commitment. Therefore, an individual whose personal values fit with the values of the organization would be more committed to the organization than a person whose personal values differ (Finegan, 2000).

In addition to the studies previously mentioned, several studies have focused on the relationship between supervisor support and organizational commitment. Bartlett (2001) and Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe (2003) found out that social support,

including supervisor support, was positively related to organizational commitment. Kidd and Smewing (2001) found a positive relationship between low/high levels of supervisor support and organizational commitment, but when support was moderate, organizational commitment decreased. They concluded that a supervisor who displayed moderate levels of support was perceived to be lacking in conviction or sincerity and this led to a decline in organizational commitment.

Good fit between supervisor and subordinate has been found to have many benefits for employee's attitudes and behaviors. Despite, Schein (1992) implied that shared values make individuals to behave in ways that facilitate the survival of that organization and develop communication and collaboration between individuals through similar cognitive processing. This specifies that value congruence between employees and their supervisors may lead to organizational commitment (Adkins and Russell, 1997).

In this study, the relationship between person-supervisor (P-S) fit and organizational commitment is examined. Thus, dyadic relationship between supervisor and subordinate is analyzed since supervisors are the main point of contacts of employees in organizations. Since they mostly work at the same work environment and interact frequently, their congruence plays an important role in attitudes and behaviors of employees (Adkins and Russell, 1997).

3.1.1. Theoretical Framework

In a longitudinal study with government employees, accountants and MBA students, O'Relly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) found P-O fit to be significantly correlated with normative commitment. Although the scale they used to capture normative commitment more closely pointed Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective commitment, conceptually.

According to the study with 66 hospital workers conducted by Sims and Kroeck (1994), P-O fit significantly related to continuance and affective commitment. In their study they used McGee and Ford's (1987) affective and continuance commitment scales. Specifically, they found that affective commitment was significantly related to P-O fit in "caring" and "independence" work climates, whereas continuance commitment was significantly related to P-O fit in an "instrumental" climate. P-O fit in "low" and "rules" climates was not significantly related to organizational commitment.

Finegan (2000) examined both the interaction effect between person and organization values and the direct effects of each on the organizational commitment of 121 employees of a petrochemical plant. In her study, she used Meyer et al.'s (1991) affective, normative and continuance commitment scales and McDonald and Gandz's (1991) 24-value taxonomy. Finegan discovered interesting three-dimensional relationships. When individuals perceived humanity or vision factors as being characteristic of the organization, their affective commitment was higher. When the interaction term was added, significant incremental variance in affective commitment was explained by the similarity between individual and organizational values. Despite, Finegan found that humanity and vision factors were also positively related to normative commitment. At the same time, individuals who highly valued "obedience, cautiousness and formality" were normatively committed. When individuals perceived that the organization as either being highly valued or not valued at all on obedience, cautiousness and formality dimensions, they were less normatively committed. Humanity and vision factors did not display main effects on continuance commitment, but when individuals perceived the organization being highly valued on obedience, cautiousness and formality dimensions, they were highly continuatively committed. Finally, Finegan concluded that individual values and P-O fit were less important predictors of commitment than were organizational values.

McConnell (2003) analyzed the "interactional" effects between P-O fit and three forms of organizational commitment, using Meyer et al.'s (1993) commitment scales along with the revised OCP (Cable and Judge, 1996) to asses P-O fit. As hypothesized,

McConnell found out that P-O fit was positively related to affective and normative organizational commitment. He also made concluded that organizational tenure and P-O fit produced an interaction effect on continuance commitment. Though the instrumentation employed would have enabled McConnell to control for main effects of individual and organizational value structures in order to test the interactional effect of P-O fit, his sample size did not provide adequate degrees of freedom to analytically separate the effects.

Dale (1997) investigated the effect of value congruence of subordinate-superior dyad on organizational commitment and found this congruence to have a direct influence on organizational commitment. Bendik (1999) examined the relationship between value congruence and affective, normative and continuance commitment and the result of his analysis showed that value congruence was positively related to affective and normative commitment but not to continuance commitment.

According to Gill (1999), the value congruence and affective commitment of the respondents are highly correlated. In her study results indicated that affective commitment and normative commitment were predicted by organizational values in most of the subscales. No significant results were obtained for continuance commitment.

A great extent of studies regarding the relationship between supervisor and subordinates is centered on the domain of leader-member exchange theory. A meta-analysis conducted on person-supervisor fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) showed that this sort of fit was highly correlated ($r = .43$) with leader-member exchange. Ashkanasy and O'Connor (1994) also explored that leader-member exchange quality is related to the similarity of values between the supervisor and subordinate both service and industrial organizations. In addition, their implications display that positive quality exchange was related to two things: acceptance of authority by the member and recognition of member's independence by the leader. More broadly, fit between subordinate and supervisor values have been found to have positive outcomes.

Kacmar and Carlson (1999) conducted a study which aimed to examine the similarities and differences of two organizational commitment measures: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS) and their relationship with antecedents and consequences. They found out that LMX appears to be positively related to all forms of commitment.

Although the methodologies used were somewhat different, overall these empirical findings and theoretical reasons support the expectation that value congruence of person-supervisor will be positively and highly related to Allen Meyer's (1991) affective, normative commitment scales since there is low or no significant relationship between person-supervisor fit and continuance commitment scale.

According to the above discussed researches which investigated the concepts of value congruence between person-supervisor fit and organizational commitment, we propose the following model (Figure 3.1) and hypotheses:

Figure 3.1: The Relationship between Person-Supervisor Fit and Organizational Commitment
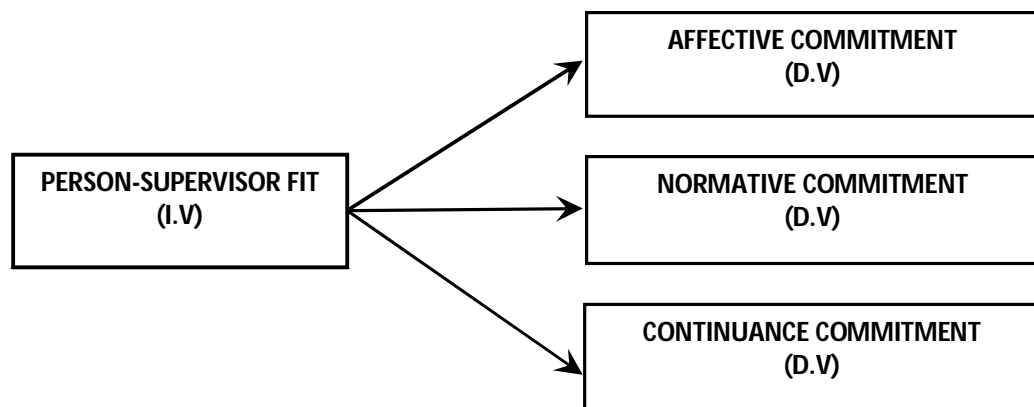
Hypothesis 1: *There is a positive relationship between person-supervisor fit and affective commitment scale.*

Hypothesis 2: *There is a positive relationship between person-supervisor fit and normative commitment scale.*

Hypothesis 3: *There is low or no significant relationship between person-supervisor fit and continuance commitment scale.*

3.1.2. Sample

This study was conducted in the context of a non-profit organization at a university. The non-profit organization may provide a stronger test of the hypotheses and it is possible that employees of non-profit organizations may weight supervisor-subordinate values more heavily than employees of for-profit organizations. So that person-supervisor congruence has a stronger influence on subordinate outcomes such as organizational commitment. For example, McKinney (1999) investigated the relationship between personal values and organizational commitment among teachers and administrators in 8 public high schools. The results showed statistically significant correlations between teachers' perceived value congruence and organizational commitment. On the other hand, superior-subordinate relationship is very different in universities. Since this relationship requires closer study and superior plays a great role in development of subordinates, this makes necessary to achieve more value-based relationship between them.

The university chosen for the study is one of the biggest universities of Turkey. The university employs 2.983 academic personal and there are 44.488 students studying. Firstly, the aim was to conduct survey in all faculties but because of difficulties with technical facilities and permission requirements for the study, the survey was restricted with the academic personnel from two faculties. Additionally, similarity of educational

spheres of these faculties prevents educational sphere difference biases. So these two faculties were labeled as Faculty A and Faculty B.

In Faculty A 68 individuals from 4 departments and in Faculty B 37 individuals from 2 departments participated in the study. Thus our sample consists of total 105 individuals. The sample in Faculty A consists of 42 (61.8%) females and 26 (38.2%) males. In Faculty B there were 17 (46%) females and 20 (54%) males who had participated in our survey (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Descriptive Statistics of Gender

	Faculty A		Faculty B	
Gender	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Female	42	61.8	17	46
Male	26	38.2	20	54
Total	**68**	**100%**	**37**	**100%**

Table 3.2: Descriptive Statistics of Administrative Duties

	Faculty A		Faculty B	
Administrative Duties	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Dean	-		-	
Head Department	3	4.4	2	5.4
Main Science Branch Chief	8	11.8	3	8.1
Other	5	7.4	8	21.6

Table 3.3: Descriptive Statistics of Academic Rank

	Faculty A		Faculty B	
Academic Rank	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Research Assistant	33	48.5	17	45.9
Lecturer	5	7.4	1	2.7
Assistant Professor	16	23.5	6	16.2
Associate Professor	10	14.7	5	13.5
Professor	4	5.9	8	21.7
Total	**68**	**100**	**37**	**100**

Since this study measured person-supervisor fit, administrative duties and academic ranks of participants were very important. In Faculty A 3 (4.4%) Head Departments and 8 (11.8%) Main Science Branch Chief participated in our survey; in Faculty B they are only 2 (5.4%) and 3 (8.1%) analogously (Table 3.2). According to the academic ranks of respondents 4 (5.9%) were Professors, 10 (14.7%) were Associate Professors and 16 (23.5%) were Assistant Professors from Faculty A, while there were 8 (21.7) Professors, 5 (13.5%) Associate Professors and 6 (16.2%) Assistant Professors from Faculty B. On the other side, number of Research Assistants and Lecturers is 33 (48.5%) in Faculty A and 17 (45.9%) in Faculty B (Table 3.3).

3.1.3. Data Collection

A questionnaire was used to collect data from respondents. The questionnaires were distributed in January-February 2009 and were completed in 3 weeks period. For distributing the questionnaires two meeting were conducted with the deans of each faculty and purpose and procedure of the study was explained. Firstly a pilot test was conducted prior to the main study. The pilot test was conducted on 15 individuals in order to test the wording and comprehension of the items. With the permission of faculty

administrations, totally 116 (100%) questionnaires were distributed and collected individually from the sample. 109 (94%) of them were returned. Since 4 of the returned questionnaires were unusable, 105 (90.5%) questionnaires were coded and used for the study.

The questionnaire consisted of 4 independent sections including items designed to assess the constructs of interest and demographic information. In the first section, a cover letter providing information to the respondents regarding the purpose of the study that their participation and responses would be confidential (Appendix 1). The second section, included items to assess demographic characteristics of the respondents (Appendix 2). The third section aimed to measure person-supervisor fit (Appendix 3) while items regarding organizational commitment were included in the fourth section (Appendix 4).

3.2. MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

3.2.1. Statistics

Data analysis was conducted in several phases. First, factor analysis was conducted on all items from organizational commitment measures. Then, all scales and subscales were subjected to reliability analysis using Cronbach Alpha. Multiple Regression analysis was conducted to test the main effects of P-S dimensions on commitment scales. T test was used to analyze the effects of demographic variables on study variables. Also descriptive statistics were calculated on dependent and independent and demographic variables. The SPSS (Statistical Program for Social Sciences) 13.0 for Windows was used in all data analyses.

3.2.2. Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured using the 18-item Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1993). The test consists of three subscales, namely affective (ACS), continuance (CCS) and normative commitment (NCS). Though these three variables tend to be somewhat intercorrelated, they are conceptually different and they have been treated separately in over 150 previous empirical studies. (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, Topolnytsky, 2002). ACS, CCS and NCS were altered among one another. In this scale 6 items (1, 5, 7, 10, 11, 15) measured affective commitment, 6 items (2, 3, 6, 14, 16, 18) measured continuance commitment and 6 items (4, 8, 9, 12, 13, 17) measured normative commitment. Items 2 and 15 were reverse scored. Meyer et.al (1991) reported coefficient alpha reliabilities as .82 for ACS, .83 for NCS and .74 for CCS. A 6-point response scale was employed for organizational commitment test, ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (6) (Appendix 4).

As mentioned before affective commitment measures employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization and its goals. An example of items included in the affective subscale is "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization". The continuance commitment assesses the costs associated with leaving the organization and availability of attractive alternatives. A sample item included in the continuance subscale is "Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now". The normative commitment subscale measures the level of obligation an individual feels to go on with the organization because it is the right thing to do so. An example of the items included in normative subscale is "I would feel guilty if I leave my organization".

In order to find the factor structures of organizational commitment measures, factor analysis using principal components solution with varimax rotation was conducted. Any item with a factor loading less than .50 or loading to more than one factor was discarded from the analysis. Factors with Eigenvalues 1.00 or more were

taken into consideration in total variance explained. 18 items of organizational commitment measure were entered into factor analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .843 which is above the accepted value (meritorious). This result marked the homogeneous structure of the variables and the result of Bartlett Test (.000, Chi-Square: 1018.010, df: 153) showed that these data are approximately multivariate normal and acceptable for factor analysis.

Table 3.4: Factor Analysis Results of Organizational Commitment Scale (Rotated Component Matrix)

		Component		
		1	**2**	**3**
C1	Affective Commitment Scale	.758		
C2	Normative Commitment Scale	.657		
C3	Continuance Commitment Scale			.877
C4	Normative Commitment Scale		.521	
C5	Affective Commitment Scale	.651		
C6	Continuance Commitment Scale			.801
C7	Affective Commitment Scale	.714		
C8	Normative Commitment Scale	.595	.558	
C9	Continuance Commitment Scale		.488	.603
C10	Affective Commitment Scale	.772	.435	
C11	Affective Commitment Scale	.783		
C12	Continuance Commitment Scale	.649	.400	
C13	Normative Commitment Scale		.711	
C14	Normative Commitment Scale		.557	.472
C15	Affective Commitment Scale	.613		
C16	Continuance Commitment Scale			.863
C17	Normative Commitment Scale	.472	.654	
C18	Continuance Commitment Scale		.564	

Organizational Commitment Scales	**Chronbach Alpha**
Affective Commitment	**.86**
Continuance Commitment	**.79**
Normative Commitment	**.79**

Reliability analysis was conducted for organizational commitment scales and their subscales. Affective commitment factor of organizational commitment scale has fairly high internal consistency (.86). Internal consistency of continuance and normative

commitment factors are slightly below and was found .79 respectively (Table 3.4).

3.2.3. Person-Supervisor Fit

The present study used Kabanoff's value typology to measure person-supervisor fit (Table 3.5). Value typology included nine values which were deduced from the theory by Kabanoff namely; authority, leadership, teamwork, participation, commitment, performance, reward, affiliation and normative values (Kabanoff, Waldersee and Cohen, 1995).

Kabanoff developed a value dictionary to measure the majority of the values specified by the theory. Two values came from the existing dictionaries. Affiliation value category was used from Harvard IV Psycho-Social Dictionary and normative value category was used from Lasswell Value Dictionary. Lasswell Value Dictionary is a dictionary which includes seventy categories based on the framework for political analysis developed by Lasswell and Kaplan (1950) and it is considered as a broad meaning classification of Lasswell's theory. Harvard IV Psycho-Social Dictionary includes operationalizations of various social sciences concepts drawn from psychology and sociology. There are some advantages of using these content dictionaries. First, users do not have to construct and validate a new dictionary because a lot of effort and time is invested in development and validation. Second, it makes easy to collect other research findings over time (Dowling and Kabanoff, 1996).

Kabanoff's same value typology was used in assessing both supervisor and person side of P-S fit. A forced-choice measure was developed by the researcher using same nine values (authority, leadership, teamwork, participation, commitment, performance, reward, affiliation and normative). This forced-choice measure contained 36 pairs of statements reflecting each of the nine values (Appendix 3). Statement preparation was based on the definitions of each value category. For each pair of statements, respondents chose one of two statements which they thought were more

important. Each value was represented on the scale 8 times, therefore respondents could score maximum of 8 points on any value.

Considering the purpose of the study and that supervisor-subordinate measure might take in different forms in academic settings, 3 types of P-S (FIT1, FIT2, FIT3) fit measures were used in the study. First type of fit is FIT1 which was calculated by subtracting Academic Personnel in Main Science Branch from the mean of Main Science Branch Chief. The second fit (FIT2) was measured by Academic Personnel in Head Department minus mean of Head Department Chief. The last type of P-S fit (FIT3) was obtained by subtracting Research Assistants from the mean of Teachers. Besides three forms of person-supervisory fit, 2 measures of person-organization fit was used which organizational context was Main Science Branch Total in FIT4 and Head Department Total in FIT5. FIT4 calculated by subtracting Academic Personnel in Main Science Branch from the mean of Main Science Branch, FIT5 calculated by subtracting Academic Personnel in Head Department from the mean of Head Department. After calculations absolute values were taken. The reason for using these two measures was to explore what type of fit predicts organizational commitment better.

FIT1 = Fit with Main Science Branch Chief

FIT2 = Fit with Head Department Chief

FIT3 = Fit with Teacher Total

FIT4 = Fit with Main Science Branch Total

FIT5 = Fit with Head Department Total

Table 3.5: Values Used in the Study

Category	Definition	Examples
Authority	Concerned with authority figures and relations	Executive, manager
Leadership	Concerned with leadership	Leader, leadership
Teamwork	Concerned with teams and teamwork	Team, cooperation
Participation	Concerned with participation by Non managerial employees	Participation, consultation
Commitment	Concerned with organizational commitment and loyalty	Commitment, loyalty dedication
Performance	Concerned with performance	Achievement, service performance, efficiency
Reward	Concerned with organizational reward, system, especially remuneration	Bonus, compensation reward, salary
Affiliation	All words with connotation of affiliation or supportiveness	Share, enthusiasm, appreciate, join together
Normative	All rectitude values invoking in final analysis social order and its demands as justification	Responsibilities, fair, rights

Source: Kabanoff, Walderse, B., R. and Cohen, M. (1995). Espoused Values and Organizational Change Themes. *Academy of Management Journal*. 38(4):1075-1104.

3.3. RESULTS

3.3.1. Descriptive statistics

As detailed in Tables (Table 3.7, 3.8, 3.9, 3.10, 3.11), mean scores and standard deviations of each value were compared for each fit type and two faculties using independent sample T-test. Also, mean scores and standard deviations for each value type and commitment scale was calculated (Table 3.6, 3.12).

Results of T-test according to value types shows three significant difference between two faculties; leadership, performance and participation with significance level at [***]P ≤ .001 (Table 3.6).

Table 3.6: Descriptive Statistics of Value Types

Value Type	Faculty	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation	T
Teamwork	A	43	5.12	1.29	-.33
	B	21	5.24	1.61	
Commitment	A	43	2.33	1.54	1.32
	B	21	1.76	1.73	
Leadership	A	43	3.14	1.23	3.50[***]
	B	21	2.38	.50	
Performance	A	43	5.23	1.07	-4.17[***]
	B	21	6.67	1.39	
Participation	A	43	4.42	1.22	5.97[***]
	B	21	3.19	.40	
Authority	A	43	.70	.56	-.34
	B	21	.76	.77	
Reward	A	43	4.19	1.30	-.83
	B	21	4.71	2.78	
Affiliation	A	43	4.93	1.65	-.96
	B	21	5.33	1.39	
Normative	A	43	5.95	1.45	.00
	B	21	5.95	1.69	

Notes: [*]P ≤ .05, [**]P ≤ .01, [***]P ≤ .001

In FIT1, teamwork and reward are statistically significant at P≤ .05 level between Faculty A and Faculty B. If we look mean scores of teamwork in both faculties, we can see that teamwork value is more preferable in Faculty A than in Faculty B (Table 3.7). Compared to FIT1, in FIT2 there is no significant difference between two faculties according to value types (Table 3.8).

Table 3.7: Descriptive Statistics of FIT1 (Main Science Branch Chief Fit)

Value Types	Faculty	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation	T
Teamwork	A	43	1.72	1.18	-2.28[*]
	B	20	2.65	1.63	
Commitment	A	43	1.33	1.15	-1.82
	B	20	1.90	1.21	
Leadership	A	43	2.09	1.51	-.82
	B	20	2.45	1.82	
Performance	A	43	1.65	1.21	.27
	B	20	1.55	1.73	
Participation	A	43	1.51	1.30	.34
	B	20	1.40	.94	
Authority	A	43	1.44	1.42	1.52
	B	20	1.00	.86	
Reward	A	43	1.77	1.34	-2.37[*]
	B	19	2.74	1.76	
Affiliation	A	43	1.56	1.35	-1.40
	B	20	2.20	2.28	
Normative	A	43	1.37	1.05	-1.64
	B	20	1.90	1.45	

Notes: [*]P ≤ .05. FIT1 = Values of Main Science Branch Chief – Values of Academic Personnel in Main Science Branch.

Table 3.8: Descriptive Statistics of FIT2 (Head Department Chief Fit)

Value Types	Faculty	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation	T
Teamwork	A	56	2.29	1.56	-.11
	B	34	2.32	1.65	
Commitment	A	56	2.11	1.22	-1.18
	B	34	2.50	1.69	
Leadership	A	56	2.43	1.71	.45
	B	34	2.26	1.62	
Performance	A	56	2.50	1.61	1.20
	B	34	1.85	1.37	
Participation	A	56	1.75	1.35	-1.27
	B	34	2.15	1.58	
Authority	A	56	1.29	.87	1.22
	B	34	1.03	1.11	
Reward	A	56	2.63	1.77	1.54
	B	34	2.03	1.74	
Affiliation	A	56	1.34	1.00	-2.40
	B	34	2.24	2.03	
Normative	A	56	1.57	1.09	-.46
	B	34	1.71	1.47	

Notes: FIT1 = Values of Head Dep. Chief – Values of Academic Personnel in Head Dep.

In FIT3, the difference was significant regarding affiliation at $P \leq .05$ level with the T value 2.31, while other value types did not show any significant difference between two faculties (Table 3.9). In FIT4, leadership has a significant relationship at $P \leq .05$ level (Table 3.10) with the t value 2.76. There is no significant relationship in FIT5 between two faculties (Table 3.11). At the same time, t test failed to reveal a statistically reliable difference between two faculties regarding commitment scales (Table 3.12).

Table 3.9: Descriptive Statistics of FIT3 (Teacher Total Fit)

Value Types	Faculty	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation	T
Teamwork	A	38	1.70	1.03	.43
	B	17	1.58	.86	
Commitment	A	38	1.37	.98	-1.23
	B	17	1.73	1.02	
Leadership	A	38	1.75	1.12	-1.87
	B	17	2.63	1.80	
Performance	A	38	1.71	1.23	1.54
	B	17	1.15	1.25	
Participation	A	38	1.54	1.19	.09
	B	17	1.51	1.1	
Authority	A	38	1.59	.97	-.31
	B	17	1.69	1.37	
Reward	A	38	1.72	1.18	.12
	B	17	1.68	1.11	
Affiliation	A	38	1.05	.89	-2.31[*]
	B	17	1.73	1.25	
Normative	A	38	1.26	1.01	-.40
	B	17	1.38	1.05	

Notes: [*]P ≤ .05. FIT3 = Values of Mean of Teachers – Values of Research Assistants

Table 3.10: Descriptive Statistics of FIT4 (Main Science Branch Total Fit)

Value Types	Faculty	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation	T
Teamwork	A	68	1.39	.84	.12
	B	36	1.36	.94	
Commitment	A	68	1.11	.79	-1.79
	B	36	1.40	.79	
Leadership	A	68	1.19	.90	-2.76[*]
	B	36	1.69	1.13	
Performance	A	68	1.32	.93	.30
	B	36	1.26	.99	
Participation	A	68	1.18	.86	-.01
	B	36	1.19	.95	
Authority	A	68	1.24	.79	1.47
	B	36	.99	.90	
Reward	A	68	1.34	.93	-.22
	B	35	1.38	.98	
Affiliation	A	68	.96	.75	-1.87
	B	36	1.36	1.46	
Normative	A	68	.97	.67	-.86
	B	36	1.09	.77	

Notes: [*]$P \leq .05$. FIT4 = Values of Main Science Branch Chief – Values of Academic Personnel in Main Science Branch

Table 3.11: Descriptive Statistics of FIT5 (Head Department Total Fit)

Value Types	Faculty	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation	T
Teamwork	A	68	1.46	.90	-.23
	B	36	1.51	1.06	
Commitment	A	68	1.20	.86	-1.83
	B	36	1.53	.87	
Leadership	A	68	1.40	1.01	-1.60
	B	36	1.75	1.21	
Performance	A	68	1.40	1.01	.55
	B	36	1.28	.99	
Participation	A	68	1.26	.98	-.15
	B	36	1.29	.90	
Authority	A	68	1.25	.86	1.10
	B	36	1.05	.93	
Reward	A	68	1.46	.98	-.52
	B	35	1.57	1.11	
Affiliation	A	68	1.05	.82	-1.08
	B	36	1.30	1.55	
Normative	A	68	1.09	.76	-.33
	B	36	1.14	.85	

Note: FIT5 = Values of Mean Head Dep. Chief – Values of Academic Personnel in Head Dep.

Table 3.12: Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Commitment Scales

Commitment Type	Faculty	N	Mean	Stand. Deviation	T
Commitment1 (affective)	A	68	3.75	.83	-.91
	B	37	3.91	.84	
Commitment2 (continuance)	A	68	3.43	1.18	-.28
	B	37	3.36	1.41	
Commitment3 (normative)	A	68	3.51	.88	-.86
	B	37	3.65	.63	

3.3.2. The Relationship between P-S Fit and Organizational Commitment

In order to analyze the relationship between P-S fit and organizational commitment Multiple Regression analysis was used, where academic rank was treated as a control variable.

Significant and positive effect (β=.29; p<.05) of FIT1 (Main Science Branch Chief Fit) in terms of authority was found on affective commitment. The multiple R (R=.29) shows a substantial correlation between predictor variable FIT1 (authority) and dependent variable (affective commitment). At the same time, R^2 value indicates that 8.5% of the variance of affective commitment is explained by independent variable FIT1 (authority). This means that there is coherence between the person and supervisor regarding emphasize paid to authority as value affective commitment increases (Table 3.13).

Table 3.13: Results for Regression Analysis Conducted for P-S fit (FIT1) – Affective Commitment Relationship.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
FIT1 (authority)	Affective Commitment
R^2	.09
Adjusted R^2	.07
B	.21
T	2.36[*]
F	5.56[*]
Df	61

Note: [*]p ≤ .05

As shown in the Table 3.14, in the relationship between independent variable of FIT2 (Head Department Chief Fit) values and dependent variable of continuance commitment only reward had significant relationship. Besides, the multiple R (R=.24) shows a substantial correlation between independent variable FIT2 (reward) and dependent variable (continuance commitment). R^2 value indicates that 5.5% of the variance of continuance commitment is explained by independent variable FIT2

(reward). Significant and negative effect of P-S (FIT2) fit in terms of reward value (β = -.24; p<.05) was found on continuance commitment.

Table 3.14: Results for Regression Analysis Conducted for P-S fit (FIT2) – Continuance Commitment Relationship.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
FIT1 (reward)	Continuance Commitment
R^2	.06
Adjusted R^2	.05
B	-.24
T	-2.26[*]
F	5.11[*]
Df	88

Note: [*]p ≤ .05

Compared to above shown relationships, significant and negative relationship between FIT4 (Main Science Branch Total Fit) and continuance commitment was found in terms of congruence with emphasis paid to authority (β = -.21; p<.05) and participation (β = -.21; p<.05). Additionally, R^2 value expresses that 4.6% of the variance of continuance commitment is accounted for by FIT4 (authority) and 8.6% of the variance of continuance commitment is accounted for by FIT4 (participation) (Table 3.15, 3.16).

Table 3.15: Results for Regression Analysis Conducted for P-O fit (FIT4) – Continuance Commitment Relationship.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
FIT4 (authority)	Continuance Commitment
R^2	.05
Adjusted R^2	.04
B	-.21
T	-2.20[*]
F	4.85[*]
Df	102

Note: [*]p ≤ .05

Table 3.16: Results for Regression Analysis Conducted for P-S fit (FIT4) – Continuance Commitment Relationship.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
FIT4 (participation)	Continuance Commitment
R^2	.09
Adjusted R^2	.07
B	-.20
T	-2.09[*]
F	4.68[*]
Df	102

Note: [*]p ≤ .05

In the relationship between FIT5 (Head Department Total Fit) values and affective commitment only commitment value was significantly related. R (R=.244) shows that relationship between independent variable FIT5 (commitment) and dependent variable (affective commitment) is not strong. In addition, according to R^2 value, 6.0% of the variance of affective commitment is explained by independent variable FIT5 (commitment). Significant effect of P-O (FIT5) fit in terms of authority value (β=.24; p<.05) was found on affective commitment. The direction of influence is positive (Table 3.17).

Table 3.17: Results for Regression Analysis Conducted for P-O fit (FIT5) – Affective Commitment Relationship.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
FIT5 (commitment)	Affective Commitment
R^2	.06
Adjusted R^2	.05
B	.24
T	2.53[*]
F	6.41[*]
Df	102

Note: [*]p ≤ .05

Two values of independent variable FIT5 (Head Department Total Fit) (affiliation) and FIT5 (authority) had significant relationship with dependent variable of continuance commitment. Between these two values, authority had a stronger relationship than affiliation (R= .308, R= .198) with dependent variable of continuance commitment. R^2 value presented that 3.9% of the variance of continuance commitment was accounted for by FIT5 (affiliation) and 9.5% of the variance of continuance commitment was accounted for by FIT5 (authority). Significant negative effect of P-O (FIT5) fit in terms of both affiliation and participation value (β = -.24; p<.05, β = -.24; p<.05) was found on continuance commitment (Table 3.18, 3.19).

Table 3.18: Results for Regression Analysis Conducted for P-O fit (FIT5) – Continuance Commitment Relationship.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
FIT5 (affiliation)	Continuance Commitment
R^2	.04
Adjusted R^2	.03
B	-.20
T	-2.03[*]
F	4.13[*]
Df	102

Note: [*]p ≤ .05

Table 3.19: Results for Regression Analysis Conducted for P-O fit (FIT5) – Continuance Commitment Relationship.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable
FIT5 (authority)	Continuance Commitment
R^2	.10
Adjusted R^2	.08
B	-.24
T	-2.48[*]
F	5.24[*]
Df	102

Note: [*]p ≤ .05

Multiple regression analysis did not display any significant relationship for the dependent variable normative commitment in terms of none of the fit types. In general, 2 value types of P-S fit and 5 value types of P-O fit significantly related to organizational commitment scales (Table 3.20). Regarding the results of this study, P-O fit predicts organizational commitment better than P-S fit.

Hypothesis 1, stating "There is a positive relationship between person-supervisor fit and affective commitment scale", partially supported with the finding of the significant and positive relationship between P-S fit (FIT1) and affective commitment, in terms of congruence with emphasis paid to authority. Hypothesis 3 which states, "There is very low or no significant relationship between person-supervisor fit and continuance commitment scale" was also partially supported. Significant and negative relationship between P-S fit (FIT2) and continuance commitment in terms of reward, was detected. Hypothesis 2, stating "There is a positive relationship between person-supervisor fit and normative commitment scale" was not supported in this study (Table 3.20).

Table 3.20: Fits-Commitment scales relationship

Type of Commitment	Type of Fit	Value
Affective	FIT1	Authority (+)
Affective	FIT5	Commitment (+)
Continuance	FIT2	Reward (-)
Continuance	FIT4	Participation (-)
Continuance	FIT4	Authority (-)
Continuance	FIT5	Authority (-)
Continuance	FIT5	Affiliation (-)

FIT1: Main Science Branch Chief Fit;   **FIT2:** Head Department Chief Fit;

FIT4: Main Science Branch Total Fit;   **FIT5:** Head Department Total Fit.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between person-supervisor fit and organizational commitment. According to the literature review, three hypotheses were proposed. The first hypothesis was partially supported by the significant and positive relationship between person-supervisor fit and affective commitment scale in regarding congruence with emphasis paid to authority .Significant and negative relationship was found between continuance commitment and person-supervisor fit in terms of reward partially confirmed our third hypothesis. The second hypothesis received no support in our research study, no significant relationship between P-S fit and normative commitment was detected.

According to the findings, regarding the value dimension of authority, as FIT1[1] increased affective commitment also increased. Mean scores for authority value fit with FIT1 (Table 3.6) in both faculties are sufficiently low (.70 in Faculty A, .76 in Faculty B) compared to the scores of other value types. This highlights that in general not paying to much emphasis to authority practices in an academic setting might be a good practice for providing affective commitment of employees.

Thus, significant and negative relationship was found between FIT5[2] and continuance commitment in terms of authority. Considering this findings for both faculties, it is meaningful to assert that authority is unwilling value type in academic setting.

Significant and negative relationship between FIT2[3] and continuance commitment was detected in terms of emphasis paid on rewards. Mean scores of reward

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[1] P-S fit (Fit with Main Science Branch Chief)
[2] P-O Fit (Fit between Head Department Total)
[3] P-S Fit (Fit with Head Department Chief)

value are sufficiently high (Table 3.6) in both faculties indicating that rewarding is important for both the supervisors and subordinates. Thus congruence on this value dimension decreases continence commitment which might be regarded as a positive finding, both there is no evidence showing that it would increase affective or normative commitment.

Significant and positive relationship was found between FIT5 and affective commitment in terms of commitment value. This finding is reasonable and consistent. When an individual gives importance to commitment value and in turn when the organization sees commitment as an important value, individual's affective commitment to the organization increases. The fit between the individual and the organization in terms of commitment value positively affects individuals' feelings of belonging, attachment to the organization and involvement in the organization and its goals.

Significant and negative relationship was found between FIT5 and continuance commitment in terms of affiliation. In other words, when P-O fit exist in terms of affiliation value, continuance commitment of individuals decreases. Affiliation is related with the desire for friendly and close interpersonal relationships (Robbins, 1998). Individuals who give importance to affiliation value want reassurance, approval from others and usually are concerned about others' feelings. They are likely to act and think as they believe others want them especially those with whom they strongly identify and desire companionship (Moorhead and Griffin, 1995, p.94). Especially, in academic setting as mentioned before values play a significant role. So, significant and negative relationship between P-O fit and continuance commitment is logical.

Regarding the results of the study, the significant and negative relationship between FIT4[4] and continuance commitment with emphasis paid to participation was found. Main Science Branch Total Fit (P-O fit) in terms of participation value was found on continuance commitment. This means that when P-O fit exist in terms of participation value continuance commitment of individuals decreases. In other words,

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[4] P-O Fit (Fit with Main Science Branch Total)

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participation is an important value for individuals and their organizations which provide participation for them. Results of the mean value scores revealed that participation is one of the strongest values for both faculties (Table 3.6). Considering this finding for both faculties, it is meaningful to assert that the fit between individuals and the organization on participation value is enough to decrease continuance commitment.

All these findings reveal that having value congruence with supervisors is important both for individuals and the organization. Supervisors as being the most interacted contact of the organization are powerful role models for individuals. They have significant influence on their subordinates and their attitudes. Schein (1992) also postulated that shared values make individuals to behave in ways that facilitate the survival of the organization.

4.2. Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of the study comes from its sample size. Sample of the study consisted of only two faculties of the university. Since the sample size was small, generability of the results are limited. Despite the generability, a large sample size would also give the opportunity to compare between different faculties. The individuals were asked to participate voluntarily to the study. So, not all the individuals of the faculties answered the questionnaire. This may create a self-selection bias.

Another limitation is the organizational commitment scale used in the study. Since the scale reflects Western cultural context, some of the items did not aggregate under the correct factors as a results of the factor analysis. Using some emic items reflecting Turkish context could have been provided different results.

4.3. Recommendations

Research concerning person-organization fit usually focuses on person organization or person job fit. There are other fit domains such as person-supervisor fit, person-group fit and person‐vocation fit. Focusing on these aspects could open new and interesting perspectives. Future research also should focus on large sample size which would give opportunity to generalize the results. Also, there are very few studies examining person-organization fit, especially person-supervisor fit in academic settings. Value congruence is a significant factor in both person-organization and person-supervisor fit area. Since value congruence in a supervisor-subordinate relationship is an important factor in an academic setting, investigations in this direction could also lead to new and significant perspectives. Additionally, the relationship between person-supervisor fit and organizational commitment in academic settings is one of the least investigated areas in organizational behavior literature.

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APPENDIX 1: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES TEST

Bu araştırma, Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü yüksek lisans öğrencisi olarak tarafından yürütülen iş yaşamınızdaki uygulamalara ilişkin bir tez çalışmasıdır. Bu amaçla hazırlanmış olan bu soru formunda sizden istediğim, soruları kendi fikirlerinizi ve yaklaşımlarınızı dikkate alarak doldurmanızdır. Ankette yer alan sorunun ya da ifadenin kesinlikle doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Önemli olan cevapların samimiyetle verilmesidir. Lütfen cevaplarınızı soru formu üzerinde işaretlemeden önce açıklamaları ve soruları dikkatlice okuyunuz.

Araştırmada yanıtlarınız ve aktardığınız veriler, bilimsel ahlaka uygun olarak gizlilik ve güven ilkelerine bağlı kalınarak sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Cevaplarınızın gizli tutulacağına dair güveninizi sağlamak için sizden isminizi veya kimliğinizi açığa çıkartacak herhangi bir işareti anket formu üzerine yazmamanızı önemle hatırlatırım. Verilerin doğru toplanması ve yapılacak istatistik analizlerinin anlamlı çıkması açısından **ankette hiçbir sorunun boş bırakılmamasını önemle rica ederim.** İlginiz ve katılımınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Ruslan Guliyev
Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
İşletme Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

BÖLÜM I

1. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek

2. Yaşınız :   _____

3. Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatındasınız?   _____

4. Bu kurumda kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?   _____

5. Üstlenmiş olduğunuz idari görevler:

   ( ) Dekan   ( ) Bölüm Başkanı

   ( ) ABD Başkanı   ( ) Diğer (Lütfen Belirtiniz)

6. Görev Unvanınız:

   ( ) Araştırma Görevlisi   ( ) Yardımcı Doçent

   ( ) Öğretim Görevlisi   ( ) Doçent   ( ) Profesör

APPENDIX 2: PERSONAL VALUES AND PERSON-SUPERVISOR FIT TEST

Aşağıda size çalışma yaşamınıza ilişkin 36 çift kavram verilmiştir. Her kavramın yanında bir kutu bulunmaktadır. Sizden istenen **her bir çift içinden sizin için en önemli olan birini seçmeniz** ve seçtiğiniz kavramın yanındaki kutuya işaret koymanızdır.

Sizin için hangisi daha önemli?

☐   1. Takım içinde yer almak   —   Kurumunuza bağlılığınız   ☐

☐   2. Size destek olan öğretim üyesi   —   performansınız   ☐

☐   3. Kararlara katılımınız   —   Kurumunuza bağlılığınız   ☐

☐   4. Kurumunuza bağlılığınız   —   Başarı elde etmeniz   ☐

☐   5. Bağlı olduğunuz öğretim üyesi   —   Destek olan öğretim üyesi   ☐

☐   6. Takım çalışması yapmak   —   Başarı elde etmeniz   ☐

☐   7. Size destek olan öğretim üyesi   —   Takım çalışması   ☐

☐   8. Kararlara katılımınız   —   İşinizdeki veriminiz   ☐

☐   9. Kurumunuza sadakatiniz   —   Gösterdiğiniz performans karşılığında ödüllendirilmeniz   ☐

☐   10. Ödüllendirilmeniz   —   büyük bir ailenin parçası gibi hissetmeniz   ☐

☐	11. Kararlara katılımınız	—	Kurum içerisinde paylaşım	☐
☐	12. Size yol gösterilmesi	—	Maaşınız	☐
☐	13. Ast-üst ilişkisi	—	Adil Olunması	☐
☐	14. Kurumunuza bağlılığınız	—	Adil Olunması	☐
☐	15. Yardımlaşma	—	Kıymetinizin bilinmesi	☐
☐	16. Bağlı olduğunuz öğretim üyesi	—	Karşılıklı tartışabilmek	☐
☐	17. Maaşınız	—	Adil Olunması	☐
☐	18. Kurumunuza kendinizi adamanız	—	Kurum içerisinde paylaşım	☐
☐	19. Destek olan öğretim üyesi	—	Sorumluluklarınız	☐
☐	20. Kurum içerisinde paylaşım	—	Sorumluluklarınız	☐
☐	21. Bağlı olduğunuz öğretim üyesi	—	Kurumunuza bağlılığınız	☐
☐	22. Başarı elde etmeniz	—	Ödüllendirilmeniz	☐
☐	23. Takım çalışması yapmak	—	Ödüllendirilmek	☐

☐	24. Bağlı olduğunuz öğretim üyesi	— Başarı elde etmeniz	☐
☐	25. Yol gösteren öğretim üyeniz	— Kararlara katılma	☐
☐	26. Bağlı olduğunuz öğretim üyesi	— Kurum içerisinde paylaşım	☐
☐	27. İşbirliği yapmak	— Çalışanlara Danışılması	☐
☐	28. Size yol gösterilmesi	— Kurumunuza sadakatiniz	☐
☐	29. İşbirliği	— Haklarınız	☐
☐	30. Ast-üst ilişkisi	— Gösterdiğiniz performans karşılığında ödüllendirilmeniz	☐
☐	31. Size yol gösterilmesi	— Kendinizi büyük bir ailenin parçası gibi hissetmeniz	☐
☐	32. Çalışanlara Danışılması	— Kurumuzdaki terfi/ödül sistemi	☐
☐	33. Performansınız	— Kıymetinizin bilinmesi	☐
☐	34. Kararların sizinle karşılıklı tartışılması	— Adil Olunması	☐
☐	35. Performansınız	— Haklarınız	☐
☐	36. Ast-üst ilişkisi	— İşbirliği yapmak	☐

APPENDIX 3: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT TEST

Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınıza ilişkin görüşünüzü "Tamamen katılıyorum"dan "Hiç katılmıyorum" a doğru uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden birine **X** işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Çok Az Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Hiç Katılmıyorum
1. Kariyerimin kalan kısmını bu kurumda geçirmekten mutluluk duyarım.						
2. Şu anda çalıştığım kurumda çalışmaya devam etmek için herhangi bir mecburiyet hissetmiyorum.						
3. Çalıştığım kurumdan ayrılmamın olumsuz sonuçlarından biri dışarıdaki iş imkanlarının azlığı olabilir.						
4. Şu anda çalıştığım işimden ayrılmak benim lehime olsa bile bunun doğru bir davranış olduğunu düşünmüyorum.						
5. Çalıştığım kurumun sorunlarını kendi sorunlarımmış gibi görüyorum.						
6. Şu anda çalıştığım kurumda kalmaya devam etmemdeki esas sebep ihtiyacım olmasıdır.						
7. Bu kurumda kendimi "ailenin parçası" gibi hissediyorum.						
8. Çalıştığım kuruma çok şey borçluyum.						
9. İstesem bile şu anda işimi bırakmak benim için zor olurdu.						
10. Kendimi bu kuruma "duygusal olarak bağlı" hissediyorum.						
11. Bu kurumda çalışıyor olmak benim için çok şey ifade ediyor.						
12. Çalıştığım kurum sadakatimi hak ediyor.						
13. Eğer şu anda işimi bıraksaydım kendimi suçlu hissederdim.						
14. Şu anda işimden ayrılmaya karar verseydim hayatımda pek çok şey sekteye uğrardı.						
15. Kendimi bu kuruma aitmiş gibi hissetmiyorum.						

16. Dışarıdaki iş imkanları az olduğu için bu kurumdan ayrılmayı düşünmüyorum.						
17. Şu anda işimden ayrılmazdım çünkü bu kurumun İnsanlarına karşı yükümlülüklerim olduğunu hissediyorum.						
18. Eğer bu kuruma kendimden çok fazla şey vermeseydim başka bir yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.						