

THE ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF MANAGERS' PERCEPTIONS
OF EMPLOYEE FIT

by

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(Under the Direction of Daniel C. Feldman)

ABSTRACT

The person-environment (P-E) fit literature has largely focused on employees' self-perceptions of their own fit with the workplace. This dissertation examines managers' perceptions of employees' P-E fit instead, since employees are likely to have positive biases in their self-assessments. Grounded in social perception, behavioral confirmation, and social exchange theory, the dissertation hypothesizes that: (1) managers' perceptions of employee fit are influenced by employees' individual differences and work behaviors; (2) managers' perceptions of employee fit are related to managers' subsequent treatment of employees, and; (3) managers' perceptions of employee fit partially mediate the relationships between employees' work behaviors and managers' treatment of employees. Using field samples of full-time personnel at three hospitals, the results of the dissertation indicate that managers' perceptions of employee fit are strongly influenced by employees' core task and citizenship performance and are moderately influenced by managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience and demographic similarity to themselves. Results also indicate that managers' perceptions of employee fit have strong positive relationships with employees' reports of

managers' supportiveness and fairness, the level of empowerment they are given on the job, and the discretionary rewards/bonuses they receive. Moreover, the results indicate that managers' perceptions of employee fit significantly and partially mediate some of the effects from employees' work behaviors to managers' treatment of employees. The dissertation concludes with a discussion of theoretical, empirical, and practical contributions to the P-E fit literature and outlines potential avenues for future research in this area.

INDEX WORDS: Managers perceptions of employee fit, person-environment fit, person-organization fit, person-job fit, manager-employee relationship.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of my uncle, Stephen G. Whalen.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	8
Supplementary vs. Complementary Fit.....	8
Content Dimensions of Person-Environment Fit.....	9
Global Fit	10
Levels of Person-Environment Fit.....	11
Static vs. Dynamic Fit.....	14
Person-Environment Fit Pre-Hire and Post-Hire	16
Measuring Person-Environment Fit.....	18
Self-Perceptions vs. Others' Perceptions of the Individual	19
3 THEORY AND HYPOTHESES	24
Antecedents of Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit.....	25
Moderating Effect of Length of Manager-Employee Relationship	35
Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit and Managers' Treatment of Employees.....	38

	Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit as a Mediator	43
4	METHOD	47
	Study One.....	47
	Study Two.....	51
5	RESULTS	59
	Study One.....	59
	Study Two.....	62
6	DISCUSSION.....	93
	Key Results	93
	Contributions of the Dissertation.....	101
	Directions for Future Research	109
	Conclusion	117
	REFERENCES	118
	APPENDICES	
	A STUDY ONE SURVEY ITEMS	136
	B STUDY TWO SURVEY ITEMS	138

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Study 1 CFA Results	81
Table 2: Study 2 CFA Results for Manager-Rated Variables.....	82
Table 3: Study 2 CFA Results for Employee-Rated Variables.....	83
Table 4: Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table	84
Table 5: Path Analytic Results for Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit	86
Table 6: Path Analytic Results for Interaction Hypotheses	87
Table 7: Path Analytic Results for Dependent Variables	89
Table 8: Results for Analysis of Change in Variance Explained for Outcome Variables.....	91

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Theoretical Model	46
Figure 2: Significant Direct Effects of the Model	92

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The match, similarity, or congruence between characteristics of individuals and the environments in which those individuals work has long been a topic of interest for both researchers and human resources practitioners (Argyris, 1964; Edwards, 2008; Kristof, 1996; Parsons, 1909). Commonly referred to as person-environment (P-E) fit, this phenomenon has been linked to both individual and organizational level outcomes (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Meta-analytic results of decades of studies in the organizational literature indicate that P-E fit significantly predicts most of the commonly researched employee attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003).

Almost all of the knowledge that has been developed about P-E fit is based upon individuals' self-perceptions of their congruence with the work environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Extant research has found very strong relationships between individuals' self-perceptions of fit and job attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions; Verquer et al., 2003) while finding fairly weak relationships between self-perceptions of fit and job behaviors (e.g., performance, turnover; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). This pattern of results suggests that how individuals see their own fit and how others see their fit differ.

There are several reasons why self-perceptions of fit may differ from others' perceptions of fit. Self-judgments are problematic because of individuals' propensity to

repress undesirable or unwanted thoughts and feelings (see Wilson & Dunn, 2004 for a review). Negative information about a situation is often disregarded, especially when this information conflicts with the awareness that one must remain in that environment going forward (Festinger, 1957). Therefore, when an employee is a poor fit at work, his or her self-assessment of fit might be ignoring important negative information and, therefore, be biased upward.

Attribution theory further suggests that individuals have a tendency to attribute the cause of problems to external, temporary environmental factors (Heider, 1958; Jones & Nisbett, 1972). In contrast, external observers are more inclined to ascribe the causality of others' problems to stable or enduring personality dispositions. Indeed, this actor-observer bias (Jones & Nisbett, 1972) can explain why individuals' self-assessments might be incorrect or, at the very least, different from others' assessments of those individuals.

Greenwald (1980) maintains that there are inherent deficiencies in self-awareness designed to protect individuals' self-esteem. Objective reality is filtered through the subjective lens of the individual and is reconstructed to maintain a positive sense of self. Negative self-views are avoided to prevent negative thoughts and feelings from occurring. Thus, employees are reluctant to admit when they have poor fit with their work environments because doing so would highlight their failure to attain good fit and would heighten negative affect toward their work environments. Ultimately, exclusive reliance on individuals' self-perceptions may limit or constrain our understanding of the P-E fit phenomenon.

Despite the volume of research studies that have focused on P-E fit, almost no studies have considered others' perceptions of whether an employee fits his or her environment or not. In the few studies that have addressed this topic, the focus has been on recruiters' perceptions of job candidates' fit prior to organizational entry (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000). The results of these few studies indicate that others' perceptions of an individual's fit are important predictors of behavior; recruiters' perceptions of job candidates' fit are very highly correlated with subsequent hiring recommendations and job offers. However, simply obtaining managers' perceptions of employees' fit at the time of hiring only partially addresses the gaps in the P-E fit literature. Both individuals and organizations change over time (Tinsley, 2000), so initial fit does not guarantee long-term fit. Moreover, because the criteria used to assess others' fit are highly idiosyncratic across managers even within the same organization (Kristof-Brown, 2000), an employee's current manager may have a much different perception than the recruiter has of whether the employee is a good fit.

Managers' perceptions of fit, therefore, are an important element in the P-E fit nomological network. Managers play an important role in the work lives of employees and control many of the outcomes impacting employees' success at work (Bass, 1990; Turner, 1960). Since research demonstrates that managers' perceptions of employees impact their behavior toward those employees (Eden, 1990), managers' perceptions of employee fit will influence whether they facilitate individuals' efforts to achieve greater fit in the future (Schneider, 1987).

The purpose of this dissertation is to examine the managers' perceptions of employee fit construct. I discuss what leads managers to conclude employees have good

fit and how managers' perceptions of employee fit influence how they treat employees. I propose that managers make inferences about the fit of employees' characteristics to the work environment by looking to salient characteristics and work behaviors of employees. Indeed, others' categorizations and assessments of an individual are influenced by relevant social characteristics (Feldman, 1981, 1986) and relevant behaviors performed by the individual (Fiske & Taylor, 1991).

I further propose that managers' perceptions of employee fit influence managers' behavior toward employees. Employees perceived to fit will be provided more support, fair treatment, empowerment, and rewards, and will be less closely monitored. Behavioral confirmation theory (Snyder, Tanke, & Berscheid, 1977) suggests that perceptions of other individuals create expectations of those individuals' future behavior; in turn, perceivers' actions facilitate the successful performance of those behaviors. Ultimately, employees who fit remain longer in the organization (Schneider, 1987), perform well, and become loyal and committed citizens (Chatman, 1989). Thus, managers' behaviors toward employees they perceive as having high fit contribute to employees' meeting those expectations.

Finally, I propose that managers' perceptions of employee fit partially mediate the relationships between the behavioral antecedents and consequences of the presented theoretical model. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) suggests that the relationship between two parties can change based on the extent to which beneficial behaviors are reciprocated. Positive reciprocation promotes trust, loyalty, and commitment between the two parties and makes the relationship more stable. Thus, when employees exhibit more positive and fewer negative behaviors, managers assess that

employees have established themselves as stable members of the work environment. In turn, managers are likely to provide greater positive resources to these employees which help them sustain this stability and fit.

This dissertation contributes to the P-E fit literature in several ways. First, social perception researchers acknowledge that individuals' self-awareness is not always perfect (Andersen, 1984) and that some characteristics are better perceived and evaluated by others (e.g., Vazire, 2010). Just because an employee thinks that he/she is a good fit does not necessarily mean that others think that also. The manager's perception of how that employee fits with the demands of the role and the values of the organization might allow for a richer explanation of how fit impacts employees' work lives.

Including managers' perceptions in our conceptualizations of P-E fit will also allow researchers to use the fit framework in investigations of a wider range of outcomes affecting employees' experiences at work. Although managers' behavioral intentions have been researched within the fit paradigm (e.g., Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009), it is important to understand whether managers' actual behaviors toward employees can be predicted by their perceptions of employees' fit. The methodologies and analytical tools involved in P-E fit research allow for the simultaneous consideration of the person and environment (Edwards, 2001). Demonstrating that managers' perceptions of employees' fit are related to behavioral outcomes is an important first step in this regard.

Third, by integrating principles of social perception theory into the P-E fit literature, the dissertation provides a good first step to understanding the processes how perceptions of fit are shaped. It has been pointed out by P-E fit researchers that, although we know so much about what happens when characteristics of a person and his/her work

environment are congruent, we do not have a comprehensive understanding of how individuals think about their own and others' fit (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). Taking a social perception theory approach to P-E fit might yield insights into how both types of assessments are made.

In addition, the dissertation might lend further insight into the processes underlying the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, 1987). P-E fit is an important explanation for the processes of ASA theory; people who are similar to those in the organization are more attracted to it, are more likely to be selected in by those similar others, and are more likely to be retained over time. In contrast, P-E fit predictions would suggest that those who do not fit select themselves out prior to hire or leave the organization once misfit becomes salient and intolerable. Most research in the ASA area has taken the employee's perspective. However, little attention has been given to the manager's role in this equation. If managers differentially treat employees according to their perceptions of employee fit, then in order to fully understand the ASA process, these dynamics involving the manager must be taken into account. The hypotheses made here about the consequences of managers' fit perceptions suggest that managers' perceptions of misfit might create a downward-spiraling environment for employees so identified. Further, research evidence suggests that employees are more likely to withdraw and to give greater consideration to job alternatives in such an environment (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

Most research within the social exchange tradition has focused solely on the reciprocal exchanges between partners while ignoring the conceptualization of employees' stability in the work environment. Instead, I frame managers' perceptions of

employee fit as a mediator in the relationship between employees' and managers' exchange contributions. I suggest that managers look to employees' characteristics and behaviors to assess whether employees are stable members of the work environment. When employees are perceived to be a good fit, managers provide greater resources (i.e., reciprocate employees' positive exchanges) in an attempt to ensure employees remain stable, contributing members of the organization. Thus, the dissertation provides an exchange-based explanation for how supervisors' perceptions of employees' fit can be a theoretical mechanism underlying the relationship between employee fit (e.g., characteristics, behaviors) and managers' behaviors toward employees.

Last, the dissertation has practical significance as well. Managerial allocation of both tangible and relational resources is prompted by factors other than just performance (Freedman & Montanari, 1980). Because achieving fit between person and environment is so important for organizational success (Schneider, 1987), managers' decisions about resources and opportunities that affect employees are likely to be impacted by their perceptions of whether those employees fit. If managers act in more supportive, empowering, and rewarding ways toward employees who fit—and neglect employees who do not—it is critical for human resource practitioners to understand the factors contributing to these perceptions. Moreover, although managers' perceptions of employee fit provide a different angle in the assessment of fit than employees' self-perceptions, this does not necessarily mean that managers' perceptions are unbiased, either. Ignoring the factors that contribute to managers' misperceptions and the ways that these misperceptions impact how they treat employees could needlessly contribute to voluntary turnover or destructive employee behavior.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Within the person-environment (P-E) fit literature, many different conceptualizations, ‘levels’ of fit, and measurement issues have been identified. In this chapter, a review of the issues critical to shaping an understanding of managers’ fit perceptions is presented. Furthermore, theory and research on the differences between self-perception and other-perception is reviewed to provide a foundation for the theory presented in Chapter 3.

P-E fit (or, used here interchangeably with P-E congruence) has been defined as the match, similarity, or correspondence of an individual and his or her work environment (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). The idea that positive outcomes result from the compatibility of an individual and his or her environment has long been suggested in the organizational behavior literature. Indeed, person-environment congruence is a common feature of many important theories in the field from early vocational choice theories (Holland, 1985; Parsons, 1909; Super, 1953) and need fulfillment models (e.g., Murray, 1938) to more recent theories of stress (Edwards, 1992), adjustment (French, Rodgers, & Cobb, 1974), and socialization (Chatman, 1989, 1991).

Supplementary vs. Complementary Fit

Two broad conceptualizations have been used to understand how individuals achieve fit with work environments (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). The first, known as *supplementary fit*, occurs when the individual’s characteristics are similar to those of the

work environment. An employee having identical values to those of his or her employing organization is an example of this type of fit. The second type, labeled *complementary fit*, occurs when the individual brings something to the environment that is previously lacking. Complementary fit is further separated into two classifications. When an individual brings skills or abilities that are needed to a job, *demands-abilities* fit occurs (Edwards, 1991); when the individual's needs are provided for by aspects of the work environment, *needs-supplies* fit occurs.

When assessing the fit of employees, managers are likely to refer to both supplementary and complementary fit (Kristof-Brown, 2000). While employees' value congruence (i.e. supplementary fit) increases the likelihood of employees' decision-making consistent with organizational expectations (Chatman, 1989), achieving a good match of employees' abilities to job demands is important for organizational performance as well.

Content Dimensions of Person-Environment Fit

P-E fit may be evaluated on one of many content dimensions; values, abilities, and personality attributes are often used to describe the congruence of person and environment. Each of these can be considered at varying levels of specificity ranging from a global assessment that considers the individual and environment holistically to a narrower view that captures similarity on one particular characteristic (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Values fit. Values are defined as enduring beliefs which guide individuals' and organizations' decision-making and actions (Rokeach, 1973). The similarity in values between an individual and his or her workgroup or organization, called values fit, is often

used to assess P-E fit (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). Achieving values fit with an entity leads to positive outcomes such as satisfaction and commitment through its effect on trust, communication, and interpersonal attraction (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

Abilities fit. Abilities fit results from a match of an individual's cognitive and physical abilities, skills, and work experience with the requirements of the job (Edwards, 1991). Selection and staffing criteria often involve the fit of individual abilities to the specifications of a particular position (Borman, Hanson, & Hedge, 1997). However, while self-reports of abilities fit are strongly related to worker attitudes, they share only weak relationships with indicators of performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Personality fit. P-E fit is also assessed on dimensions of personality, those relatively stable dispositional qualities of individuals. Personality fit is achieved when individuals have similar personality traits to others in the organization or to the overall organizational culture (Christiansen, Villanova, & Mikulay, 1997). Individuals with fit on personality traits are more satisfied with their jobs and workgroups because of lower levels of conflict, greater cohesion, and greater levels of interpersonal liking with coworkers (e.g., Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001).

Global Fit

In early years of research on P-E fit, researchers were interested in individuals' overall congruence with their work environments (e.g., Blau, 1987; French et al., 1974), viewing the person-environment fit interaction holistically. Since Argyris' (1964) suggestion that compatible goals between the individual and organization result in positive outcomes, researchers have taken a general approach to studying fit; poor fit in one area might be compensated for by close fit in another.

Some researchers today continue to focus on an individual's global fit with his/her work environment (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). Although employees can and do make distinctions in their assessments of different aspects of the workplace when prompted, theorists have suggested that employees are more likely to make holistic assessments of the work environment (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). The idea that an individual perceives fit in rather general terms is more consistent with current theories of perception and cognition, too (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002; Park, DeKay, & Kraus, 1994). Kristof-Brown (2000) also found that managers form more general assessments when assessing employee fit at the time of hiring.

Levels of Person-Environment Fit

More recent research, though, has investigated narrower conceptualizations of P-E fit by considering an individual's congruence with a particular 'level' of his or her work environment. Most research has focused on individuals' fit with their organizations and jobs; however, researchers have also explored fit at the vocational, group, and dyadic levels.

Although most studies have examined fit at just one level, a few exceptions exist and have suggested that achieving fit at multiple levels simultaneously is important (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Jansen, & Colbert, 2002; Vogel & Feldman, 2009). While their nomological networks are quite similar, different levels of fit contribute unique variance to outcomes (e.g., Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Furthermore, research has suggested that one level of fit may moderate

the effects of another level of fit on work outcomes (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2002; Vogel & Feldman, 2009).

Person-vocation (P-V) fit. At the broadest level, fit can be achieved when an individual's interests or abilities match the characteristics or requirements of a particular profession or vocation. Extensive research in the vocational choice literature indicates that satisfaction is greatest when an individual's personality is congruent with his or her chosen vocation (Holland, 1985; Spokane, 1985; Spokane, Meir, & Catalano, 2000). Individuals with similar personalities are attracted to a profession while individuals not fitting select themselves out, thereby increasing homogeneity within the vocation and reinforcing the self-concept of individuals who enter it (Schneider, 1987). It has been suggested that achieving P-V fit is an important precondition of achieving other forms of fit (Vogel & Feldman, 2009). Fit with the vocation dictates the types of jobs and organizations in which individuals will be able to achieve good fit. Less research has considered the relationship between P-V fit and performance; however, when individuals are given opportunity to utilize their skills in a profession, their satisfaction is greater (e.g., Meir & Green-Eppel, 1999).

Person-organization (P-O) fit. The compatibility between an individual's and organization's value, goals, or personality is commonly referred to as P-O fit (Kristof, 1996). People are attracted to organizations which exemplify similar characteristics to themselves (Tom, 1971); once in this type of environment, employees sharing qualities with the organization are more likely to be better performers (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). P-O fit leads to positive outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational

identification through its effects on interpersonal trust, communication, and mutual liking with others in the organization (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

Person-job (P-J) fit. Congruence between an individual and the narrower parameters of his/her role at work can be defined in two different ways. Needs-supplies fit and demand-abilities fit make up the P-J fit domain (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Edwards, 1991; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). P-J fit has strong relationships with employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions but, surprisingly, the correlations between P-J fit and performance are considerably lower (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Furthermore, individuals who fit with their jobs are less likely to experience physiological and psychological strain due to stress at work (Edwards, 1992; French et al., 1982).

Person-group (P-G) fit. P-G fit is defined as the match or similarity on personal characteristics between an individual and other members of his or her workgroup (Ferris, Youngblood, & Yates, 1985). Similarity on personality traits has been associated with less group conflict, more cohesion, and greater performance (Barsade, Ward, Turner, & Sonnenfeld, 2000). Further, value congruence among team members is associated with greater performance when task interdependence is high (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996). P-G fit is also related to greater satisfaction with group members and the desire to remain in the organization (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). High P-G fit also can act as a moderator in the relationship between fit at other levels of the environment (e.g., P-O fit and P-J fit; Vogel & Feldman, 2009).

Person-supervisor fit. Some researchers have studied the congruence of personal characteristics between two individuals in the workplace. Supervisor-subordinate fit on

demographic characteristics is associated with positive work outcomes for the subordinate through its effect on the attitudes and behaviors of the supervisor toward that subordinate (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Further, the research on recruiters and applicants (Cable & Judge, 1997; Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof-Brown, 2000) and supervisors and subordinates (e.g., Tsui, Porter, & Egan, 2002) often frames person-supervisor fit as congruence on personality or values. Fit between a manager and employee on these characteristics is related to mutual satisfaction and to a higher quality relationship. In terms of the recruiter and applicant, fit is associated with positive hiring recommendations (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Static vs. Dynamic Fit

Characteristics of people and work environment can both change and, thus, the fit between the two can change as well (Tinsley, 2000). Yet, researchers have mainly studied fit as a static phenomenon. Lately, theorists have discussed ways that fit might change over the course of a job or career and have considered several conceptualizations of a more dynamic view of P-E fit.

Most empirical studies of individuals' fit with the work environment have been cross-sectional. As a result, cumulative knowledge about the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of P-E fit is based mostly on what is known at just one point in time (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005); however, information about individuals' prior levels of fit is important in understanding the impact of current fit on individuals' work outcomes (Shipp & Jansen, 2011). Previous research has found that individuals experience changes in skills and abilities, values, goals, and even in the strength of certain personality traits (cf. Feldman & Vogel, 2009). There can also be variations in individuals' perceptions of

those characteristics in relatively short periods of time (Bandura, 1977). Work environments change, too. Advances in technology, macroeconomic trends, internal restructuring, and top management turnover cause shifts in the cultures and climates of organizations. Since individuals and environments change over time, it should also be expected that P-E fit changes over time, too (Schneider, 2001).

A few studies have investigated changes in fit over time. Widespread organizational change can have implications for employees' perceptions of both P-J and P-O fit (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004). This study showed that younger employees' fit perceptions were affected less negatively by organizational change than older employees' fit perceptions. Indeed, fit perceptions are malleable and can change relatively quickly (Chatman, 1991).

Recently, Shipp and Jansen (2011) proposed that P-E fit can be thought of in terms of narratives; they suggest that employees craft stories about their previous, current, and anticipated work experiences to help them make sense of their careers. These authors stress that it is not sufficient to consider an individual's fit only at one point in time as employees' retrospective and anticipated fit shape their perceptions of current fit. Although their theory has not yet been tested empirically in the fit literature, some other research points to the value of this perspective. For example, researchers have found that more variance is explained in work outcomes when incorporating changes in—rather than absolute levels of—predictors (e.g., job satisfaction, Boswell, Shipp, Payne, & Culbertson, 2009; organizational commitment, Bentein, Vandenberghe, Vandenberg, & Stinglhamber, 2005).

Person-Environment Fit Pre-Hire and Post-Hire

Researchers have acknowledged that achieving P-E fit is important across all stages of employment (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006) and across all stages of an individual's career (Feldman & Vogel, 2009). Extant P-E fit studies can be placed into one of two categories; those considering fit at the pre-hire stage (recruiting and job selection) and those considering fit at the post-hire stage (socialization and ongoing employment).

Pre-hire. Recruiters and human resources personnel largely attend to the fit of job candidates' values and abilities when making hiring decisions (Bretz, Rynes, & Gerhart, 1993; Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000). It is not known exactly how these assessments are made; Judge and Ferris (1992) suggested that recruiters use their own characteristics to gauge candidates' fit. Moreover, there does not seem to be clear consensus among hiring managers about which specific characteristics provide good fit to any particular job. Kristof-Brown (2000) found that even within companies, recruiters hiring for the same position used different criteria for assessing the fit of job candidates. For instance, one recruiter may judge an individual to be a great fit because his/her values are similar to those of the company, while another recruiter might assess the same individual to be a good fit based on his/her skills being complementary to the job requirements.

Job candidates also attempt to assess their own fit with organizations and jobs prior to accepting positions (Cable & Judge, 1994, 1996; Darnold, 2008; Judge & Cable, 1997; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Greater occupational experience gives job applicants

more information on which to base employment decisions (Carr, Pearson, Vest, & Boyar, 2006) and is associated with achieving better fit in the job.

Applicants' attraction to companies can be explained by perceived value congruence with those organizations (Cable & Judge, 1994; Darnold, 2008). Subsequent decisions to take job offers are influenced by applicants' perceptions of similarity in "personality" to organizations to which they apply as well as by their perceived and actual value congruence to those organizations (Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Bretz, 1992). These effects are often explained using similarity-attraction principles (Byrne, 1971); individuals are attracted to entities (e.g., organizations, vocations) in which the incumbents are similar to themselves (Holland, 1985; Schneider, 1987).

Employees with values congruent to those of the organization at the time of hire are more satisfied with their jobs and less likely to leave their organizations one year after they are hired than are individuals having lower fit at the time of hire (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). This is due to more rapid adjustment to the new job by those with higher P-O fit (Chatman, 1989).

Ongoing employment. For employees to achieve success in the organization, it is important that fit is maintained with the organization, job, and workgroup after they are hired (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). When employees perceive low fit with the work environment, they are likely to begin to search for other jobs and intend to leave the organization. Often, individuals' needs change in importance and jobs may no longer fulfill those needs. Indeed, need fulfillment is an important explanatory mechanism underlying the link between fit and attitudinal consequences (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Locke, 1976; Murray, 1938).

Alternatively, individuals' skills may become obsolete relative to changing job demands (Feldman & Vogel, 2009). Misfit may even occur in the form of underemployment, when individuals' KSAs exceed what is demanded of them at work. Both of these scenarios are likely to result in lower employee performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Still other slippages in fit may occur when the composition of the employee's workgroup changes. Kristof-Brown et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis demonstrates that P-G fit is significantly related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and overall performance.

Measuring Person-Environment Fit

A final distinction used within the P-E fit literature regards its measurement. Researchers have distinguished indirect measures of fit from direct measures (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010).

Indirect measures of P-E fit are used when researchers are interested in assessing the actual congruence or discrepancy between person and environment dimensions. These measures separately evaluate individual and environment on the domain of interest and then compare these assessments through the use of difference scores, profile similarity indices (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991) or polynomial regression methodology (Edwards & Parry, 1993). For example, an indirect measure of needs-supplies fit could examine the congruence between an individual's self-reported need for autonomy and the actual level of autonomy offered by a job (as reported by either the individual or another organizational member). Perfect or optimal fit would exist if these values were equivalent while positive or negative deviations of the individual's preference for autonomy from the actual level would indicate lower fit.

In contrast, direct measures ask respondents to assess their perceptions of fit with the environment by referring to and rating the extent to which they agree with a statement such as, “My values are similar to those of the organization.” Direct measures are particularly useful when a respondent is assessing another individual’s fit such as in contexts like recruiting (e.g., Kristof-Brown, 2000). When fit is less than perfect, this type of measure does not allow the researcher to determine why there is misfit. That is, when fit is less than optimal, direct measures do not indicate whether the person’s characteristics exceed those of the environment or vice versa.

The proximal relationship between direct measures of fit with attitudes makes them useful for understanding the feelings individuals have about their fit at work (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). Indeed, individuals’ perceptions of fit within their environments are more predictive of work outcomes than is their actual fit, since individuals filter objective reality through subjective lenses shaped by their own experiences and biases (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Moreover, the lens used by an external observer in assessing a target’s fit is likely to be different than the one used by the target to assess his/her own fit.

Self-Perceptions vs. Others’ Perceptions of the Individual

A large majority of research studies in the P-E fit field have relied on individuals’ self-perceptions of fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Even when fit is measured as congruence between separate person and environment dimensions, researchers largely depend on self-reports of both the person and environment dimensions by the same individual. Consequently, researchers know a considerable amount about the consequences of individuals’ self-perceptions of fit.

Social perception researchers have noted limitations to how well individuals are able to make assessments of their own characteristics, though (e.g., Vazire & Mehl, 2008). A variety of perspectives, in fact, underscore the point that people are predisposed to view themselves in a positive light. The ego protects itself from negative self-evaluations (Andersen, 1984; Miller & Ross, 1975), and therefore self-awareness is not always perfect (Greenwald, 1980). This, of course, has implications for self-perceptions of fit; individuals are likely to reinterpret or ignore information indicating that they fit poorly.

In contrast, others' perceptions of individuals are influenced primarily by observable characteristics of those individuals; overt behaviors and salient social characteristics shape observers' assessments of target individuals (Andersen, 1984; Feldman, 1981; Park et al., 1994). Thus, while others' perceptions of an individual are not free of bias (e.g., halo error; Cooper, 1981), they are formed using different cues and can tell a different story than self-perceptions. For example, a manager observing a high-performing employee helping a coworker with his/her work may infer that the employee shares values with the coworker and the organization and is performing this action to give back and be a good citizen. In contrast, the employee may actually be annoyed with the slow pace of the coworker and desire to move forward on his/her own part of the group project.

Person categorization theory (Feldman, 1981, 1986) explains how perceptions of others are formed. This theory explains that people categorize others based on salient characteristics of that individual. The general characteristics of these categories are then used in the future when inferring unknown information about those individuals. For

example, knowing only that an individual is a salesperson might cause an observer to infer that the individual is extroverted only because the observer's experience tells him or her that most salespeople are high in extraversion.

Although visible demographic characteristics are often used to characterize others, additional social information is also used. When forming perceptions of others, people first attempt to assess the type of information that is relevant to the judgment within the context of the environment (Feldman, 1981; Ilgen & Feldman, 1983). For instance, Hoobler et al. (2009) surmised that managers use cues about how much employees' non-work lives conflict with work when assessing employees' fit with the organization and job.

Moreover, observers' own characteristics are often used as referents when making assessments of others (Markus, 1977). The self is the "frame of reference in terms of which all other perceptions gain their meaning" (Combs & Snygg, 1959, p. 145). Thus, perceptions of others can be framed in terms of the similarity in characteristics between the observer and target. Indeed, social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985) predicts that similar others will be assessed more favorably in individuals' self-conscious efforts to boost self-esteem. Additionally, research demonstrates that perceptions of others are made in a self-serving manner (Dunning, 1993; Beauregard & Dunning, 1998). Following this argument, characteristics that allow the observer to be regarded in a positive light by others are more likely to be used when making assessments of those individuals.

The extent to which individuals' behaviors impact observers' assessments of those individuals varies according to the familiarity between the pair (Fiske & Taylor,

1991). When familiarity with another individual is low, the target's recent, isolated behaviors are only representative of the entire pool of information about that individual (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973). In contrast, when familiarity with another individual is greater, the observer's perceptions of the individual are more representative of the pool of the target's behaviors. Behaviors inconsistent with those perceptions are more likely to be disregarded and forgotten (Higgins & Bargh, 1987). Moreover, information confirming the perception is afforded greater attention (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973). Thus, others' perceptions of an individual are less impacted by an individual's isolated behaviors.

Further, people behave toward others in ways consistent with the nature of their categorizations of those others (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Person categorization theory also predicts that people confirm their perceptions of others through their behaviors toward others (Feldman, 1981). These effects can be explained through research on self-fulfilling prophecies; simply expecting an event will increase its likelihood of occurring (Merton, 1948). In short, perceivers act toward others in ways that facilitate and reinforce expected behaviors (Snyder, 1984).

Rosenthal (1973) has explained how self-fulfilling prophecies unfold. First, the perceiver provides greater socioemotional resources (e.g., warm, supportive behavior) toward the target. Second, the perceiver provides the individual feedback consistent with the expectation of the other individual's behavior, sending cues that guide behavior. Third, the perceiver allots tangible resources that are instrumental in helping the individual behave in expected ways. Last, behavior consistent with expectations is rewarded, thereby reinforcing the perceiver's beliefs.

Self-perceptions of fit dominate the P-E fit literature (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). By only considering individuals' perceptions, though, we limit our understanding of how fit impacts individuals at work (Cable & Judge, 1997; Hoobler et al., 2009; Kristof-Brown, 2000). The next chapter of this dissertation presents a theoretical model of the antecedents and consequences of managers' perceptions of employee fit for how their employees perform and how they are rewarded.

CHAPTER 3

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Managers' perceptions of employee fit are defined here as managers' subjective assessments of the match, similarity, or congruence between characteristics of the employee and characteristics of the work environment. A model of the relationships proposed in this dissertation is shown in Figure 1.

Managers' perceptions of employee fit are proposed to be influenced by two classes of variables: salient characteristics of employees and employees' work behaviors. The length of the manager-employee relationship is posited to moderate the strength of the antecedent—managers' perceptions of employee fit link. There are five hypothesized ways in which managers' perceptions of good employee fit influence how they treat employees: greater supportive behavior, fairer treatment, less monitoring, greater empowering behavior, and greater allotment of rewards and bonuses.

The relationships between employees' behaviors and managers' behaviors toward employees are hypothesized to be partially mediated by managers' perceptions of employee fit. Although research on manager-employee relationships has demonstrated the reciprocal nature of both positive and negative behavior between exchange partners (cf. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), theory development has often neglected to model the mediating mechanisms underlying these patterns.

Antecedents of Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit

Extant P-E fit research has demonstrated that criteria used for the evaluation of others' fit are highly idiosyncratic across raters; even individuals working for the same organization use different criteria to make these judgments (Kristof-Brown, 2000). However, empirical research has demonstrated that when assessing others' fit with the work environment, individuals typically attend to values and knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) (Kristof-Brown, 2000). Managers infer these characteristics about employees using various sources of information.

Research on social perception and cognition (Feldman, 1981, 1986; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Park et al., 1994) suggests two primary ways by which others' perceptions of an individual develop. The first way that others make inferences about an individual's values and KSAs is through salient social characteristics of the individual (Feldman, 1981, 1986). The second is through observation of individuals' behavior (Park et al., 1994). Each of these is considered in turn below.

Salient Employee Characteristics

Perceptions formed about individuals are based on external cues that cause others to make categorizations about those individuals (Feldman, 1981). These categorizations act as heuristics or biases when assessing individuals' other characteristics (Feldman, 1981, 1986). The process of social categorization of others occurs to reduce uncertainty and enhance predictability of others' behavior (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Managers use these broad categories in order to enable quicker decision making and to avoid processing information based on isolated or random interactions with those employees.

This section outlines four factors that are hypothesized to influence managers' perceptions of employee fit through broad categorizations made about employees: whether the manager hired the employee, demographic similarity between the manager and employee, the frequency of employees' previous job changes, and managers' perceptions of the salience of employees' non-work identities.

Employee hired or promoted by manager. Whether or not the manager was involved with the hiring or promotion of that employee to his/her current position might influence the manager's perception of that employee's fit. Research has demonstrated that managers' perceptions of job candidates' fit with the organization are very highly correlated with subsequent job offers (Cable & Judge, 1997). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that when a manager hires an employee, the manager expects that the employee will be a strong fit with the work environment. When assessing an employee's fit, the manager will refer to whether the employee *was* a good fit. Going forward, managers will pay more attention to employee behaviors consistent with this categorization while employee behaviors inconsistent with this will be largely ignored (Higgins & Bargh, 1987).

Research on escalation of commitment supports this hypothesis. It has demonstrated that when individuals make decisions, they attempt to convince themselves that their decisions were correct (Staw, 1976), especially when they believe that others perceive that they were personally responsible for the decision (Brockner, 1992). When a decision is deemed to have resulted in negative consequences, the individual responsible for the decision is also likely to escalate commitment toward that decision through the investment of greater resources (Schoorman, 1988; Staw, Barsade, & Koput, 1997).

The goal of successful hiring is to achieve a good fit between the individual and the job and/or organization (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990) and the extent to which this goal is realized reflects directly on the manager's skill in making selection decisions.

Therefore, if an employee turns out to be a poor fit, the manager might be more likely to invest resources into ensuring that the employee is perceived by others to be a good fit, in part to protect the manager's own reputation in the organization (Brockner, 1992; Harrison & Harrell, 1993). Indeed, empirical research has demonstrated that supervisors feel personally responsible for employees they have hired, are more reluctant to admit those employees' mistakes, and are more likely to favorably assess those employees (Bazerman, Beekun, & Schoorman, 1982).

When the manager has been involved in the hiring of an employee, the characterization of this employee as being a good fit will lead the manager to assess the employee's fit similarly high in the future. This may occur through one of several mechanisms. The manager could invest tangible resources into raising the fit of an individual who is a poor fit. Alternatively, the manager might simply report a biased assessment of the employee's fit that is consistent with his/her attitude (Festinger, 1957; Staw, 1981). Regardless of the mechanism by which this occurs, the link between past hiring of an employee and the manager's subsequent rating of that employee's fit is hypothesized to be positive.

Hypothesis 1: Employees hired or promoted by a manager will be rated as higher in fit by that manager than employees not hired or promoted by the manager.

Demographic similarity. Individuals classify others based on their visible demographic characteristics; the extent to which a manager and employee are similar

demographically will influence the manager's perceptions of employee fit. People generally adopt self-serving standards for evaluating others and, therefore, make positive evaluations when it is believed that they have similar characteristics to those others (Beauregard & Dunning, 1998). When individuals are attempting to infer deep-level characteristics (e.g., values, personality) about others, they tend to ascribe their own characteristics to people who appear, on the surface, to be similar to them (Park et al., 1994).

P-E fit research supports these suggestions and demonstrates that when assessing job candidates' fit at the hiring stage, managers use their own characteristics as points of comparison (Judge & Ferris, 1992). Managers believe that if they themselves experience good fit at work, those similar to them are likely to experience good fit as well. Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985) also provides support for this hypothesis. This theory suggests that people classify themselves into groups based on salient social characteristics such as demographics (age, gender, and race). Identification with a particular group causes individuals to evaluate members of that group more favorably than members of dissimilar groups in an effort to protect self-esteem (Turner, 1975). In sum, the evidence suggests that employees who are similar to the manager in demographic status will be judged by the manager to have greater fit.

Hypothesis 2: Employees demographically similar to a manager will be rated higher in fit by that manager than employees demographically dissimilar to the manager.

Frequency of previous job changes. Research has demonstrated that observers also categorize others based on information relating to attachment (Cantor & Mischel, 1979). Employees placing an emphasis on their careers are more favorably treated by

managers (Noe, Noe, & Bachhuber, 1990). Empirical results have indicated that managers make assessments of indicators of or impediments to employee attachment (e.g., commitment, Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995; work-family conflict, Hoobler et al., 2009) and that those assessments impact employee outcomes. Further, managers look to employees' previous work experience to gauge their potential for future success.

While some previous experience may be considered an asset, an employee who has frequently switched jobs may be perceived by the manager as a chronic misfit. Since individuals remain in jobs in which they experience good fit but leave jobs when they do not (Schneider, 1987), managers might perceive that employees who have frequently switched jobs are not successful in attaining fit anywhere. The fact that an employee has not taken root elsewhere may be a signal to the manager that the individual does not readily identify opportunities for good fit or is not successful in accommodating to situations in which perfect fit cannot be achieved. While a wider variety of job experiences could suggest a broader knowledge base, numerous job or career changes might lead managers to have negative opinions of "job hoppers" (Bills, 1990).

Further support for this hypothesis can be found in the literature on the careerist orientation to work (Feldman & Weitz, 1991). Although a new job may be an opportunity for an individual to begin with a clean slate, the best indicator of how an individual will act is his or her past behavior. Frequent switching of jobs in the past suggests to the manager that the employee will jump at newer and better opportunities when they arise and this type of behavior is often resented by managers (Brehm, 1966). In sum, the frequency with which an employee has changed jobs in the past will be negatively related to managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between the frequency of employees' past job changes and managers' perceptions of employee fit is negative. Employees are rated by managers as higher in fit when employees have switched jobs less frequently during their careers.

Managers' perceptions of employee non-work identity. It is argued here that managers' perceptions of the relative importance of work and non-work factors to employees are a key factor in the prediction of managers' perceptions of employee fit. Indeed, empirical research suggests that the relative salience of individuals' work versus family identities is more predictive of work behavior than is work-family conflict (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001).

Hoobler et al. (2009) suggested that managers characterize employees based on gender; stereotypes held by managers cause them to perceive that females experience greater work-family conflict than males. However, family responsibilities are now shared to a greater degree by both partners, especially in younger couples (Carr, 2002). Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1985) posits that individuals have multiple hierarchically-arranged identities relating to their roles in various life domains (Stryker, 1968). Consistent with this theory, research suggests that investments of energy and personal resources are made consistent with the strength of the identity associated with a particular role (Lobel, 1991). Further, the strength of an individual's identity is positively related to the activities in which that individual engages (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Indeed, research shows that withdrawal from work is largely dependent upon the relative salience of an individual's family versus work identity (Greenhaus et al., 2001). Thus, the more the manager perceives an employee to strongly identify with roles outside of the

workplace, the greater the expectation that the employee will spend greater effort, time, and resources in those off-the-job roles.

Since employees only have a finite amount of time and resources, those who focus on off-the-job efforts will likely reduce their organizational efforts and commitment (Lobel & St. Clair, 1992). This lower work commitment, in turn, will negatively affect managers' perceptions of those employees. Moreover, when a manager believes that an employee's non-work identity is stronger than his or her work identity, the manager will pay greater attention to behaviors consistent with these beliefs. Thus, conversations about family and leisure activities could be interpreted as evidence the employee does not place great emphasis on work. These conversations will reinforce managers' perceptions of poor employee fit (Feldman, 1981, 1986).

Hypothesis 4: Managers' perceptions of employee's non-work identity salience are negatively related to managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Employees' Performance Behaviors

A second way managers make inferences about employees' fit is by observing their behaviors (Andersen & Ross, 1984). Employees' performance behaviors are frequently categorized into core task performance, citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Here, it is hypothesized that each type of performance behavior will influence managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Core task performance. Core task performance behaviors are those which contribute directly to the functioning of the organization's key activities (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). With respect to P-E fit, greater task performance has been shown to

result from the match of employees' skills or abilities to the demands of the job or from the match of organizational supplies to individual needs (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

Managers are likely to look at employees' core task performance when assessing employees' fit. High task performance suggests that the employee has learned and mastered the appropriate skills to succeed in the workplace. Indeed, research suggests that managers make attributions about the adequacy of employees' abilities when task performance is both low (Bernardin, 1989; Martinko & Gardner, 1987) and high (Weiner, Frieze, Kukla, Reed, Nest, & Rosenbaum, 1971). Moreover, employees' low task performance is likely to trigger managers' attributions that employees are low in ability (e.g., LePine & Van Dyne, 2001).

Low core task performance can also indicate that employees' skills and abilities are underutilized (Feldman, 1996) and that the employee's fit is correspondingly low. Similarly, employees who are clearly overqualified may be perceived as poor fits, too (Bolino & Feldman, 2000). Although they have the skills to perform, these employees may be perceived as low in motivation to do so. In sum, it is expected that employees' prior task performance will be positively related to managers' subsequent perceptions of employees' fit.

Hypothesis 5: Employees whose core task performance is rated high at Time 1 will be rated by managers as higher in fit at Time 2 than employees rated lower in core task performance at Time 1.

Citizenship performance. Citizenship performance reflects behaviors outside the boundaries of formal job descriptions that contribute to the well-being of the organization and its members (Organ, 1988). It includes actions such as defending the reputation of the

company, offering to help the supervisor without being asked, and helping coworkers with their tasks (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Most scholars agree that organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is largely discretionary (Organ, 1990). This suggests that inferences about an employee's values can be made according to how much they display OCB (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993).

If an employee is displaying OCB, the manager is likely to perceive that the employee has achieved good fit with the work environment. Indeed, research shows that managers typically characterize employees regularly performing OCB as "good employees" (Murphy & Cleveland, 1991) since this behavior demonstrates loyalty to the organization and considerate conduct toward others (Organ, 1990). Managers generally attribute the cause for these kinds of behavior to the employee's concern for the organization or prosocial motives (Allen & Rush, 1998; Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino, & Turnley, 2010). In general, managers favorably evaluate employees who perform OCB, especially when managers' attributions for those actions are to positive motives (rather than to motives such as impression management) (Eastman, 1994).

The absence of an employee's citizenship behavior might not necessarily indicate that he or she does not have good fit. However, when employees perform few or no citizenship behaviors, this might indicate to the manager that the individual is a poor fit with the job. For example, low OCB can suggest that the employee does not have sufficient ability to help out, sufficient time available to perform the extra duties considered citizenship, or does not sufficiently value co-workers. Therefore, it is predicted:

Hypothesis 6: Employees whose citizenship behavior is rated high at Time 1 will be rated by managers as higher in fit at Time 2 than employees rated lower in citizenship behavior at Time 1.

Counterproductive work behavior. Naturally, not all employee work behaviors are positive in nature. Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) consists of acts that violate organizational norms and harm the organization or its members (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Most commonly, absenteeism, lateness, and organizational deviance are included in conceptualizations of CWB. Although research on the relationship between P-E fit and CWB has been limited, a weak negative association has been observed in the few studies which have examined these variables (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Considerable research, though, has focused on others' perceptions of the characteristics of individuals who engage in CWB; this research sheds light on the ways that perceptions of employees' CWB influence managers' perceptions of employees' fit. Managers are likely to perceive employees who perform high levels of CWB to be poor fits at work. Like OCB, CWB is discretionary behavior, but it suggests to the manager that the employee has incongruent values to those of the organization (Boye & Jones, 1997; Collins & Griffin, 1998). Employees displaying CWB are engaging in actions that are contrary to organizational norms; since values are a key driver of behavior, CWB is indicative of value incongruence with the prevailing environment (Bennett & Robinson, 1995). Previous research has also demonstrated that when employees engage in CWB, managers most often attribute this behavior to employees' dispositions (i.e., values), especially when the behavior is consistently counterproductive (Butterfield, Treviño, & Ball, 1996; Mitchell & Wood, 1980).

Further, employees' volitional behavior that harms the organization causes managers to characterize employees as "poor employees," to conclude employees have poor fit, and to attend to other negative characteristics of those employees (Cooper, 1981; Murphy & Cleveland, 1991). Subsequently, these negative characteristics are later recalled when managers are conducting performance appraisals (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977).

Hypothesis 7: Employees whose counterproductive work behavior is rated high at Time 1 will be rated by managers as lower in fit at Time 2 than employees rated lower in counterproductive work behavior at Time 1.

Moderating Effect of Length of Manager-Employee Relationship

As familiarity with another individual grows, new information not conforming to the perception of that individual is given less attention and evidence confirming the perception is more salient (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973). Simply put, when familiarity is greater, there is less need to process new behavioral information about the employee and perceptions are formed relatively automatically and influenced by social characteristics of the employee (Fiske & Taylor, 1991).

Managers' schemas based on employees' salient characteristics should therefore more powerfully affect managers' perceptions of employee fit the longer the manager and employee have known each other. It is proposed, then, that two salient characteristics discussed earlier (employees hired/promoted by the manager and employees' non-work salience) will have stronger effects on managers' perceptions of employee fit when the length of the manager-employee relationship is high rather than low.

Hypothesis 8a: The length of the manager-employee relationship will moderate the relationships between two employee characteristics (whether the employee was hired or promoted by the manager and employees' non-work salience) and managers' perceptions of employee fit. The relationships will be stronger when the length of the manager-employee relationship is high rather than low.

Empirical research findings suggest that, as the length of the manager-employee relationship increases, judgments made by managers are also less influenced by demographic similarity (e.g., Riordan, 2000). As the length of time that two individuals spend together increases, similarity on demographic characteristics becomes less predictive of outcomes while similarity on deeper characteristics such as values and personality become more important (Chi, Feltovich, & Glaser, 1981). Thus, fit assessments made by managers toward the beginning of the manager-employee relationship might be influenced to a greater extent by demographic similarity. Indeed, when selecting employees, managers rate those similar to themselves as higher in fit (Judge & Ferris, 1992) when other information is not readily available. However, as the relationship progresses, there are greater opportunities for the manager to learn more about employees' deeper characteristics (e.g., values) through daily interactions and conversation.

Similarly, the extent to which employees' previous job experiences impact managers' assessments of employees should be weaker when the length of the manager-employee relationship is greater. When the manager has known the employee for a longer period of time, he/she has had greater opportunities to assess how the employee's skills match the demands of the current position. Before hire and in the early stages of

employment, the manager may need to make inferences about fit using information from the employee's resume (Bretz et al., 1993). However, greater familiarity with the employee gives the manager more concrete information about the characteristics of the employee from which fit perceptions develop. Even if the employee frequently switched jobs prior to being hired to the current one, these cues will not be as relevant to the manager's assessment of the employee when the length of the manager-employee relationship is greater. Therefore, it is predicted:

Hypothesis 8b: The length of the manager-employee relationship will moderate the relationship between two employee characteristics (demographic similarity and the frequency of past job changes) and managers' perceptions of employee fit. The relationship will be weaker when the length of the manager-employee relationship is high rather than low.

Toward the beginning of the manager-employee relationship, the manager has little familiarity with the employee. The manager has not yet fully formed a perception of the employee's fit and his/her perception will be receptive to new information (Higgins & Bargh, 1987). When familiarity between two individuals is low, recent behaviors represent a larger proportion of the universe of information that the observer knows about the target of perception and, therefore, are more highly related to perceptions of the target than when familiarity is high (Tversky & Kahneman, 1973). Thus, when the manager-employee relationship is relatively new, the employee's work behaviors represent a larger majority of the information the manager knows about the employee. Therefore, it is predicted that employees' work behaviors will be more strongly related to managers' fit

perceptions when the length of the manager-employee relationship is low rather than high.

Hypothesis 8c: The length of the manager-employee relationship will moderate the relationships between employee performance variables (core task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior) and managers' perceptions of employee fit. The relationships will be stronger when the length of the manager-employee relationship is low rather than high.

Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit and Managers' Treatment of Employees

Individuals' behavior toward others is shaped by perceptions held about those others (Snyder et al., 1977). More specifically, theory suggests that managers will act in more positive ways toward employees who are perceived to have high fit with the work environment. Support for this argument comes from research on behavioral confirmation. A belief held about another person causes the perceiver to "channel their interaction with this individual in ways that cause the target's behavior to confirm these beliefs" (Snyder & Swann, 1978, p. 150). Thus, managers' behaviors toward employees perceived to have high fit will enable higher levels of fit to emerge; managers will provide more resources and support to these employees than to ones perceived to have low fit.

As Feldman (1981) notes, individuals will allocate resources to others based on the categorizations made about those others. When supervisors categorize employees as "good fits," they are more likely to allocate greater resources to them as well. These ideas of resource allotment and behavioral confirmation are consistent with Rosenthal's (1973) discussion of how self-fulfilling prophecies occur.

Social exchange theory, too, can help us understand the relationship between managers' perceptions of employee fit and managers' behaviors toward employees. Gouldner's (1960) original work emphasized that social relationships become more stable as resources are exchanged reciprocally between two parties. When employees meet managers' expectations, employees are seen as more trustworthy, loyal, and committed to the organization and are more likely to be viewed as stable members of the firm. Managers desire to reciprocate these positive employee behaviors through the provision of additional resources. These resources, in turn, increase the likelihood that employees with good fit will remain stable, productive members of the company (Blau, 1964; D. C. Feldman, 1981). Five ways in which managers' behaviors toward employees are influenced by their perceptions of employee fit are discussed below.

Support of the employee. The provision of socioemotional resources is the first type of behavior proposed to underlie behavioral confirmation (Rosenthal, 1973). Social support is managerial behavior that communicates to the employee that the manager values his/her contributions and cares about his/her well-being (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Social support includes such actions as providing help to the employee, showing concern for the employee as an individual, and giving the employee personal attention (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997).

Managers' perceptions of employee fit should be positively related to the levels of support they provide. Behavioral confirmation theory suggests that managers' behavior will facilitate and confirm the perceptions of employee fit held by the manager (Feldman, 1981). Indeed, supervisor support is associated with higher performance, citizenship

behavior, and intentions to remain in the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Thus, by showing concern for and establishing closer personal relationships with high fit employees, managers reinforce employees' fit and enable even greater fit.

Social exchange theory also predicts that managers will act more supportively toward employees with high fit (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Principles of social exchange theory stress that managers reciprocate employees' positive behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005); support is a resource that is provided as reciprocation for achieving high fit (Chen, Tsui, & Zhong, 2008). Thus, managers should act more supportively toward employees judged to fit well with their environments.

Hypothesis 9: Managers' perceptions of employee fit are positively related to employees' reports of supportive behavior from managers.

Fair treatment of the employee. Managers will also be more likely to give fair treatment to employees perceived to have high fit. Fair treatment is another socioemotional resource that employees may receive from managers (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2001). Managerial fair treatment consists of an equitable distribution of resources, thorough explanations about decisions, and respectful interpersonal treatment (Colquitt, 2001). Fair treatment enables greater performance and is associated with higher employee retention (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001).

Managers who perceive that employees have high fit will feel compelled to provide these employees with their fair share of resources to help them succeed and remain as stable organizational members (Gouldner, 1960). Moreover, when managers perceive employees have achieved high fit, the manager will be more inclined to reciprocate in the form of fair behavior toward those employees.

Hypothesis 10: Managers' perceptions of employee fit are positively related to employees' reports of fair treatment received from their managers.

Supervisor close monitoring. Managers will more closely monitor employees perceived to have low fit. Close monitoring occurs when managers continually watch and micromanage their employees (George & Zhou, 2001). This type of managerial behavior is a form of negative, non-verbal feedback (Ryan, 1982). Indeed, behavioral confirmation theory (Feldman, 1981; Rosenthal, 1973) would predict that the more a supervisor perceives a subordinate as a good fit, the less likely the supervisor will provide negative feedback via close monitoring.

Research has shown that managers more closely monitor employee actions when they believe employees have low abilities relative to the demands of the job (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). However, when managers spend more time closely monitoring employees perceived to have low fit, their perceptions are more likely to be confirmed. Close monitoring can distract employees from fulfilling their duties and can negatively affect employees' attitudes, too (Becker & Klimoski, 1989; Leventhal, 1980). In addition, the closer the monitoring, the more opportunities managers will have to see employees' errors and to have their perceptions of low fit confirmed.

Hypothesis 11: Managers' perceptions of employee fit are negatively related to employees' reports of close monitoring.

Empowering management behaviors. Managers will also act in more empowering ways toward employees perceived to have high fit. Empowering management behaviors include communicating beliefs in employees' abilities, demonstrating how employees' jobs are tied with the overall mission of the organization, and giving greater autonomy to

employees (Ahearne, Mathieu, & Rapp, 2005). Previous research has demonstrated that managers give more challenging tasks and greater autonomy to employees based on their perceptions of demands-abilities fit (e.g., Leana, 1986; Yukl & Fu, 1999). The empowerment of employees, in turn, leads to higher performance, more positive attitudes, and a lower likelihood of turnover (Raub & Robert, 2010; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Thus, the more positive the manager's perceptions of employee fit, the more likely the manager will be to empower that employee.

Social exchange theory also suggests that managers will act in empowering ways toward employees perceived to have high fit. Here, it is argued that managers will empower employees as reciprocation for having achieved fit in the work environment. This enables employees to continue being productive, loyal members of the organization and increases the chances of retention. In sum, then, it is hypothesized that employees perceived by their managers to have greater fit will report their managers displaying greater empowering behaviors.

Hypothesis 12: Managers' perceptions of employee fit are positively related to employees' reports of managers' empowering behaviors.

Rewards and bonuses. Greater discretionary rewards and bonuses are more likely to be given to employees perceived to have high fit. Although rewards and bonuses are often associated with high task performance, research demonstrates that managers give these discretionary resources for other reasons, too (Freedman & Montanari, 1980; von Glinow, 1985).

Behavioral confirmation theory (Snyder et al., 1977) suggests that managers will reward employees who are perceived to fit well. Thus, by providing discretionary perks,

managers increase the likelihood of seeing behavior that confirms their perceptions of employee fit as rewards and bonuses are associated with employees remaining in the organization (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000) and greater motivation and satisfaction. That is, those who fit will be given greater rewards and, as a result, their fit will be sustained and increase over time.

Social exchange theory predicts a similar relationship. Managers are likely to reciprocate employees' fit with the work environment and sustain employees' stability in the work environment by allocating a greater share of rewards and bonuses to employees who are perceived to have greater fit (Blau, 1964). Indeed, research has demonstrated one way by which managers reciprocate employees' contributions is with greater discretionary rewards (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Thus, it is predicted:

Hypothesis 13: Managers' perceptions of employee fit are positively related to rewards and bonuses employees receive.

Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit as a Mediator

Most organizational research using social exchange theory examines what employees do when they are treated well or poorly by their supervisors or organizations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The same explanation could be used to explain managers' behaviors toward employees. When employees perform core tasks well or go over and above prescribed duties, managers are inclined to reciprocate with positive resources such as support and discretionary rewards. Similarly, social exchange theory predicts that managers respond to employees' negative behaviors with negative treatment in kind (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960).

Organizational researchers have largely neglected the role of causal mechanisms underlying the relationship between employees' behaviors and managers' treatment of employees, though. Understanding why managers treat employees positively (negatively) when employees exhibit positive (negative) work behaviors is important for researchers and practitioners.

Gouldner's (1960) original work points to the role of fit in this equation. As discussed, managers' perceptions of employee fit can be conceptualized as managers' assessment of whether employees have successfully established themselves as stable, productive members of the work environment (Gouldner, 1960). When employees fulfill expectations for members of the organization (i.e., perform core tasks well, display citizenship, or refrain from behaving counterproductively), they are seen as good fits (Shore et al., 2004) and managers are likely to behave toward them accordingly. This suggests that managers' perceptions of employee fit mediate the relationship between employees' work behaviors and managers' treatment of employees. In other words, the effects from employees' behaviors to managers' behaviors toward employees are indirect, through the mediator, managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Of course, there might be other factors that mediate the relationships that exist between employees' and managers' reciprocated behaviors; the quality of the relationship between the manager and subordinate is likely to partially mediate these effects as well. For that reason, it is posited that managers' perceptions of employee fit partially mediate the relationships here.

Hypothesis 14: Managers' perceptions of employee fit partially mediate the relationships between employees' work behaviors and managers' behaviors toward employees.

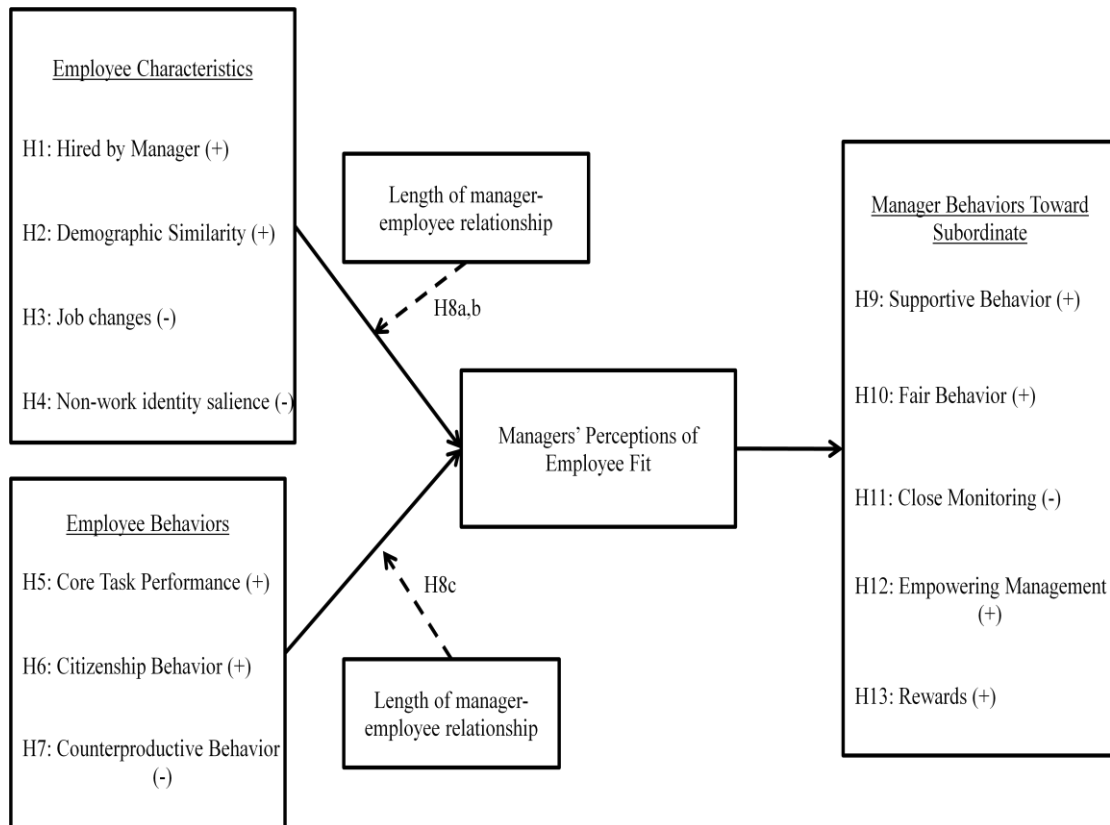


Figure 1
Theoretical Model

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

Two studies were undertaken to test the hypotheses of this dissertation. The first study was a survey study of managers. It included two online surveys separated in time by two weeks. The purpose of that study was to investigate the measurement properties of the managers' perceptions of employee fit construct and to determine whether this construct exhibited adequate convergent and discriminant validity. The second study was a two-time, two-source survey study. This study tested the predictions outlined in the previous chapter.

Study One

Data Collection and Sample

Managers from three hospitals in the State of Georgia were recruited for the study. In total, fifty-nine managers participated in the study (N = 42 from Hospital 1, 5 from Hospital 2, and 12 from Hospital 3). Participation rates were 42.8% at Hospital 1, 13.9% at Hospital 2, and 24.0% at Hospital 3. Seventy-eight percent (78.0%) of the sample was female, 95% was white, the average age was 44.9 years (SD = 9.22 years), and 70% had completed a four-year college degree and/or some graduate education. On average, managers had worked at their organizations for 14.83 years (SD = 10.02 years) and most managers were in middle management. Specifically, 13.6% of managers classified themselves as top management (executive level), 74.6% were middle management, and the remainder was front-line management (e.g., nursing managers).

Managers in Hospital 1 had significantly fewer years of formal education than managers in Hospitals 2 and 3. Further, managers in Hospital 1 had significantly greater tenure (mean = 17.25 years, SD = 9.85 years) in their organization than managers in Hospital 3 (mean = 9.15 years, SD = 8.38 years).

Design

Contact was made with senior administrative personnel at each facility to request permission to collect data from employees who had supervisory responsibilities. Emails containing links to the online surveys were sent directly to potential participants by human resources personnel. The cover letters attached to both the email and survey included assurances of confidentiality in the research process. I asked managers to complete the survey while referring to one specific employee chosen by alphabetical order (e.g., “Please respond to this survey while referring to the employee whose last name starts with the letter closest to ‘R’”).

Managers completed measures of task performance, relationship quality (LMX), and trust at Time 1. Approximately two weeks later, managers completed measures of person-environment fit, perceived similarity with the employee, and liking of the employee. The measures were separated in time to reduce the chance that common method variance (CMV) biased the intercorrelations among them (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Constructs included in Study 1 were chosen because of their widespread use in research on manager-employee relationships. It was necessary to show that managers’ perceptions of employee fit were distinct from other constructs used in managers’ evaluations of employees.

Measures

Validated, existing measures were used in this study. All items appear in Appendix A.

Managers' perceptions of employee fit. Since fit is most often conceptualized as P-O fit and P-J fit, existing measures of these two constructs were used. Kristof-Brown (2000) measured recruiters' perceptions of job applicants' fit with the organization with two scales. The first was a four-item scale measuring perceived P-O fit and the second was a three-item scale measuring perceived P-J fit. These seven were adapted here to refer to an existing employee rather than to a job candidate. Managers were asked to rate the extent to which the employee fits at work on a five-point scale (1 = "Not at all", 5 = "Completely"). Sample items were: "To what extent does this employee fit with your organization?" and "To what extent does this employee fit the demands of his/her job?" Coefficient alpha (α) for the measure was 0.95.

Task performance. Task performance of the subordinate might overlap with fit perceptions as both are evaluated by managers and both include an assessment of subordinate ability. The two constructs are not isomorphic, though, since fit perceptions also capture values and personality (e.g., Kristof-Brown, 2000) which are less directly germane to performance. Previous research on performance and fit has also demonstrated that they are distinct constructs (Hoobler et al., 2009).

Task performance was measured using the five positively-worded items from Williams and Anderson (1991). The two negatively-worded items from this scale have been shown to load onto a separate factor than the other positively worded items (Vogel & Feldman, 2009); thus, they were not used here. Managers were asked to rate the

frequency with which the employee displayed each behavior on a five-point scale (1 = “Never”, 5 = “Very Often”). A sample item was: “Fulfilled responsibilities specified in job description” ($\alpha = 0.81$).

Relationship quality. Relationship quality between the manager and employee was measured using a seven-item manager-rated measure (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993) on a five-point scale. A sample item in the relationship quality scale was: “How would you describe your working relationship with this employee?” ($\alpha = 0.87$).

In the literature, relationship quality and LMX are very often used interchangeably (e.g., Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001). Managers’ perceptions of fit and the manager-employee relationship quality (LMX) are likely related to each other since both are influenced by perceptions of subordinate competence. However, LMX is likely to be distinct from fit perceptions. Eden (1990) suggests that managers’ perceptions lead to quality of the manager-subordinate relationship; thus, LMX is likely an outcome of fit.

Trust in the employee. Trust in the employee was measured using a scale developed by Mayer and Davis (1999). A sample item was: “I would be comfortable giving this employee a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.” Managers were asked to rate the extent to which they agree with each statement on a five-point scale (1 = “Strongly Disagree” to 5 = “Strongly Agree”) ($\alpha = 0.89$).

Trust was included here because it predicts many of the outcomes hypothesized in the model. In addition, interpersonal trust might overlap with overall fit perceptions

because trust is also evaluated based on an individual's competence and character (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995).

Perceived similarity. Perceived similarity was measured using the three-item scale developed by Liden et al. (1993). A sample item was: "This employee and I are similar in terms of our outlook, perspective, and values." Managers rated each item on a five-point scale (1 = "Strongly Disagree", 5 = "Strongly Agree") ($\alpha = 0.96$). Since perceptions of fit could be strongly influenced by perceptions of similarity (Cable & Judge, 1997), it was important to include this construct as well.

Interpersonal liking. The two items developed by Liden et al. (1993) were used to measure interpersonal liking of the employee. Managers were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a five-point scale. A sample item was: "I like this employee very much as a person" ($\alpha = 0.91$).

Interpersonal liking might be related to managers' perceptions of employee fit as it has been shown to relate to the fit assessments of hiring managers (Cable & Judge, 1997). However, as with similarity, liking is distinct from and best conceptualized as an antecedent to fit perceptions.

Study Two

Data Collection and Sample

Managers and employees from three hospitals in the state of Georgia were recruited for the study which included two surveys each of managers and employees. Across the three hospitals, approximately 300 managers were invited to participate in the study. Two hundred sixty-one managers (87.0%) completed the first survey. Of those

who completed the first survey, 92% (240 managers) responded to the second survey. Thus, the effective response rate for managers was approximately 80%.

Across the three hospitals, approximately 1800 employees were invited to participate in the study. In total, 646 employees (35.9%) completed the first survey. Of those who completed the first survey, 409 (63.3%) responded to the second survey. The effective response rate for employees was approximately 22.7%.

The final sample included 175 matched manager-employee dyads for which complete data were available for the study's variables. Two reasons exist for the large difference among completed manager surveys, employee surveys, and matched responses. First, some managers responded about employees who did not complete surveys. Second, there were some employees who responded about a manager who completed surveys about other employees.

Of the 175 matched dyads, 35.4% were from Hospital 1, 30.9% were from Hospital 2, and 33.7% were from Hospital 3. In Hospital 1, there were 62 dyads representing 50 responding managers. Thirty-eight of these managers reported on just one employee while the remaining 12 managers completed surveys for two employees. In Hospital 2, there were 54 dyads representing 26 responding managers. Six managers reported on one employee, 14 managers reported on two employees, four managers reported on three employees, and two managers reported on four employees. In Hospital 3, there were 59 dyads representing 38 responding managers. Eighteen managers reported on one employee, 19 managers reported on two employees, and one manager reported on three employees.

Managers' average age was 45.8 years ($SD = 9.3$ years), 83.6% were female, 99.4% were white, and average organizational tenure was 14.4 years ($SD = 8.4$ years). The majority of managers (74.3%) had completed a four-year college degree. Seventeen percent (17%) of responding managers identified themselves as top managers, 73% reported that they were middle management, and the remaining 10% were front-line managers. Managers in Hospital 3 were significantly older than managers in the other two organizations. Furthermore, managers in Hospital 1 had significantly lower levels of formal education than managers in the other hospitals.

Employees' average age was 39.7 years ($SD = 11.7$ years), 81.7% were female, 91.9% were white, and average organizational tenure was 9.8 years ($SD = 8.3$ years). Forty-six percent (46.0%) of employees had completed a four-year college degree while 55.4% identified themselves as non-management. Employees in Hospital 2 were significantly older than employees in the other two organizations.

Design

Recruitment procedures at the three hospitals were identical for managers and employees. Participants were sent a link to a confidential, online survey by senior administrative personnel via company intranet or email. In the attached message, organizational support for the study was communicated. Managers and employees who decided to participate completed the first survey and provided their email addresses so that the second email could be sent directly to them. Approximately two weeks later, the second survey was emailed directly to managers and employees who had completed the first. Participants were assured of confidentiality throughout the entire process.

Managers were asked to respond to each set of survey items twice; each set of responses corresponded with a specific employee reporting to the manager. The employees to which managers referred on the surveys were chosen by alphabetical order (similar to Study 1).

Managers completed measures of antecedents (whether they were involved in hiring the employee, frequency of job switching, perceptions of employees' non-work salience, core task performance, citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior), some of the control variables (relationship quality and trust), and their own demographics at Time 1. Managers' Time 2 survey contained measures of managers' perceptions of employee fit, some of the control variables (perceived similarity, liking), and the amount of rewards/bonuses allotted to employees.

Employees responded to both surveys while referring to their direct manager. Employees' Time 1 survey contained measures of demographics while their Time 2 survey contained measures of outcome variables (managers' support, fairness, close monitoring, and empowering behaviors).

After all of the surveys had been completed, managers' and employees' survey responses were matched to each other. In total, 175 matched manager-employee dyads with complete responses for the study's variables were used in the analyses.

Measures: Antecedents

Employee hired or promoted by manager. Managers reported whether or not they were involved in the hiring or promotion of the employee to their current position. This was one item created specifically for this study: Did you have input into the decision to hire/promote this employee to his/her present position?

Demographic similarity. Demographic similarity was computed following procedures as described by Liden et al. (1993). Gender, race, and age of the manager and employee were coded on identical scales (gender: male = 0, female = 1; race: white = 0, non-white = 1; age: 20 to 29 = 1, 30 to 39 = 2, 40 to 49 = 3, 50 to 59 = 4, 60 to 69 = 5, 70 and above = 6). Gender and race discrepancy were coded as the same (0) or different (1). Age discrepancy was coded as the absolute difference between the manager's and subordinate's responses on the above scale. The gender, race, and age discrepancy scores were standardized (divided by their respective standard deviations), summed, and then reverse scored so that greater demographic similarity was indicated by higher scores.

Frequency of job changes. Managers reported their perceptions of the number of jobs held by the employee since finishing his/her formal education in addition to their perceptions of the number of years since the completion of his/her formal education. The frequency of job changes metric, therefore, was computed by dividing the number of job changes (total number of jobs – 1) by the number of years since the completion of the employee's formal education.

Perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience. Two items from the five-item scale developed by Lobel and St. Clair (1992) were used to measure managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience. Three of the items in the original scale tapped the salience of employees' work identities and so these were excluded from this study. A sample item was: "The major satisfactions in this employee's life seem to come from his/her family." Managers rated the extent to which they agreed that each item accurately reflected the employee's priorities on a five-point scale (1 = "Strongly Disagree", 5 = "Strongly Agree") ($\alpha = 0.94$).

Core task performance. Core task performance was measured using the seven-item scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991) ($\alpha = 0.91$). Managers rated the extent to which employees displayed each of the seven behaviors over the previous three months (1 = Not at All, 5 = Very Often). This scale was identical to the one used in Study 1 except it also included the two reverse-scored items contained in the original measure. Since this study had a much larger sample size, it was decided that the two reverse-coded items removed from the first study would be included in the analyses here and that CFA would permit a test of whether these items were problematic.

Citizenship behavior. Eight items adapted for use when rating citizenship behavior with a specific time referent (e.g., “rate the extent to which employees displayed this behavior *over the last three months*”) were used to measure this construct (Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009). Managers were asked to rate the extent to which the employee displayed each of the eight behaviors over the previous three months. The scale ranged from 1 = *Never* to 5 = *Very Often*. A sample item was: “Volunteered to do something that was not required” ($\alpha = 0.92$).

Counterproductive work behavior. Eight items adapted by Dalal et al. (2009) were used to measure counterproductive work behavior. Managers rated the extent to which the employee displayed each of the eight behaviors over the previous three months. The five-point scale had the same endpoints as the scale used to measure citizenship behavior. A sample item was: “Spent time on tasks unrelated to work” ($\alpha = 0.87$).

Measures: Person-Environment Fit

Managers' perceptions of employee fit. Similar to Study 1, it was important to determine whether managers distinguished between P-O fit and P-J fit when assessing the fit of employees. Thus, Kristof-Brown's (2000) measures of P-O fit (4 items) and P-J fit (3 items) were adapted for use in this study. The original items were written to reflect recruiters' assessments of job candidates' fit so they were re-written to refer to a current employee. Managers were asked to rate the extent to which the employee fits at work on a five-point scale (1 = "Not at all", 5 = "Completely"). The coefficient alpha for the four-item P-O fit measure was 0.89, for the three-item P-J fit measure was 0.90, and for the seven-item combined scale was 0.92.

Measures: Consequences

Managers' supportive behavior. Supportive behavior directed toward the employee was measured with the eight-item perceived supervisor support scale adapted by Eisenberger et al., (1997). Employees rated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a five-point scale (1 = "Strongly Disagree", 5 = "Strongly Agree"). A sample item was: "My supervisor helps when I have a problem" ($\alpha = 0.95$).

Managers' fair treatment of employees. Fair treatment by the manager was measured with a three-item scale created by Choi (2008). Employees rated the extent to which they agreed with items on a five-point scale. A sample item was: "My supervisor always gives me a fair deal" ($\alpha = 0.96$).

Managers' close monitoring. Close monitoring was measured with the six-item scale from George and Zhou (2001). Employees rated the extent to which they agreed

with each item on a five-point scale. A sample item was: “It sometimes feels like my supervisor is always looking over my shoulder.” ($\alpha = 0.84$).

Managers’ empowering behaviors. The twelve-item scale created by Ahearne et al., (2005) was used to measure managers’ empowering behaviors toward employees. Employees rated the extent to which they agreed with each item on a five-point scale. A sample item was: “My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to that of the company.” ($\alpha = 0.95$).

Rewards and bonuses. One item was used to measure the amount of rewards and bonuses received by the employee. Managers (rather than employees) responded to the item: “The pay raises and bonuses you recommended for this employee over the past year were” on a five-point scale (1 = “Among the lowest in his/her group”, 5 = “Among the top in his/her group”).

Measures: Control Variables

Data collection site. To account for differences in managers’ and employees’ responses due to organizational culture and climate, two dummy coded variables were created and controlled for in all analyses.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Study One

Analytical Strategy

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to determine the discriminant validity of the measures. Included in these analyses were managers' reports of perceived relationship quality (LMX), employee performance, perceived similarity with the employee, interpersonal liking of the employee, trust of the employee, perceptions of employees' P-O fit, and perceptions of employees' P-J fit. All items were specified to load onto their respective constructs. In addition to determining whether the perceptions of fit items were empirically distinguishable from other related constructs, it was important to determine whether the P-O fit items loaded onto a separate factor than the P-J fit items. As reviewed in the second chapter, correlations among different levels of P-E fit are often very strong (e.g., Kristof-Brown, 2000). Some theorists have suggested that a global fit construct is a more appropriate representation of how individuals view fit (e.g., Harrison et al., 2006).

Fit of the measurement model was assessed using the chi-square value, confirmatory fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Researchers typically use cut-off values to assess goodness of fit. For example, CFI and TLI values greater than 0.90 or 0.95 and RMSEA values lesser than 0.08 is used to indicate close fit to the data (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999). After the fit

of the hypothesized measurement model has been assessed, this model is compared against alternative models to determine whether the hypothesized model represents the best fit to the data.

Model comparisons are assessed with chi-square difference tests. The six-factor hypothesized measurement model (Model A) is compared against six alternative models: a seven-factor model in which the P-O fit items and P-J fit items are specified to load onto separate factors (Model B); a five-factor model in which the fit and performance items are specified to load onto one factor (Model C); a five-factor model in which the fit and LMX items are specified to load onto one factor (Model D); a five-factor model in which the fit and trust items are specified to load onto one factor (Model E); a five-factor model in which the fit and perceived similarity items are specified to load onto one factor (Model F), and; a five-factor model in which the fit and interpersonal liking items are specified to load onto one factor (Model G).

Results

Results of the CFA indicate that the hypothesized measurement model represented adequate fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 514.74[309]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.88; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.11). This model was compared to several alternative models as described above. Table 1 shows the fit of the hypothesized and alternative models and the results of the chi-square difference tests. The results suggest that the hypothesized measurement model was a better fit to the data than Model B ($\chi^2 = 510.44[303]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.88; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.11; $\Delta\chi^2 = 4.30[6]$, *ns*), Model C ($\chi^2 = 606.44[314]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.83; TLI = 0.81; RMSEA = 0.13; $\Delta\chi^2 = 91.70[5]$, $p < .001$), Model D ($\chi^2 = 594.54[314]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.83; TLI = 0.82; RMSEA = 0.12; $\Delta\chi^2 = 79.80[5]$, $p <$

.001), Model E ($\chi^2 = 581.21[314]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.84; TLI = 0.82; RMSEA = 0.12; $\Delta\chi^2 = 66.47[5]$, $p < .001$), Model F ($\chi^2 = 635.45[314]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.81; TLI = 0.79; RMSEA = 0.13; $\Delta\chi^2 = 120.71[5]$, $p < .001$), and Model G ($\chi^2 = 591.72[314]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.84; TLI = 0.82; RMSEA = 0.12; $\Delta\chi^2 = 76.98[5]$, $p < .001$). Thus, it can be concluded that the hypothesized measurement model, which specifies the items of the managers' perceptions of employee fit measure as a separate factor than the items of the task performance, relationship quality, trust, perceived similarity, and interpersonal liking constructs, is the best fit to the data.

Notably, these results also indicate that the managers' perceptions of employee fit items were better represented as one overall factor instead of two factors (P-J fit and P-O fit). This suggests that managers' perceptions of employee fit are global in nature rather than differentiated by level of the environment. It appears, therefore, that individuals develop holistic perceptions of the work environment and that this reflects the way managers think about employee fit (Harrison et al., 2006).

However, this conclusion is preliminary for two reasons. First, the chi-square difference test between the hypothesized, six-factor model and the seven-factor model was not significant ($\Delta\chi^2 = 4.30$, $\Delta df = 6$, *ns*). Thus, guidelines indicate that only for the purposes of parsimony, the six-factor model should be selected (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 2006). Second, the sample size in this study was very small. Although the ratio of the sample size to number of factors hypothesized was reasonable (Bandalos & Boehm-Kaufman, 2008), caution should be employed when making conclusions about factor structure with a sample size such as this. For these reasons, then, the factor structure of the managers' perceptions of employee fit items was also analyzed via CFA in Study 2.

Study Two

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Manager-Rated Constructs

CFA were performed with the Mplus statistical package (Version 5.21) (Muthén & Muthén, 2007), employing the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE). Employee-rated items were analyzed separately from manager-rated items. This approach has been used by researchers when different raters assess the constructs of interest (e.g., Morrison & Phelps, 1999). All items were specified to load onto their respective constructs.

Additionally, a parceling approach using manifest indicators was used for both sets of CFA since the number of items rated was quite large compared to the sample size (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). For each construct, three parcels were created. A principal components analysis was performed on each construct's items to determine the value of each item's loading on the overall factor. Items were successively assigned to one of the three parcels according to their loadings (e.g., the highest loading item was assigned to the first parcel, the second-highest loading item was assigned to the second parcel, etc.). This method allows researchers to evaluate large measurement models in CFA when sample sizes would preclude normal procedures (cf. Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002).

Fit of the measurement models was assessed using the chi-square value, CFI, TLI, and RMSEA. As in Study 1, Hu and Bentler's (1999) guidelines were used to assess model goodness of fit.

The CFA for the manager-rated variables included perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience, perceptions of employee fit, core task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior. The residual of one of the

two non-work salience indicators was set to zero in order to ensure proper identification of the measurement model (otherwise, three items are necessary). Items with single indicators (e.g., whether the employee was hired by the manager, employee rewards/bonuses) were not included in the CFA.

Model comparisons were assessed with chi-square difference tests. The five-factor hypothesized measurement model (Model M-1; managers' perceptions of employee fit, employees' non-work identity salience, core task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior) was compared against ten alternative models:

- (1) a six-factor model in which the P-O fit items and P-J fit items are specified to load onto separate factors (Model M-2);
- (2) a five-factor model in which the P-J fit and core task performance items are specified to load onto one factor (Model M-3);
- (3) a five-factor model in which the P-O fit and citizenship behavior items are specified to load onto one factor (Model M-4);
- (4) a four-factor model in which the P-O fit, P-J fit and core task performance items are specified to load onto one factor (Model M-5);
- (5) a four-factor model in which the P-J fit and core task performance items are specified to load onto one factor and the P-O fit and citizenship behavior items are specified to load onto another (Model M-6);
- (6) a five-factor model in which the core task performance and citizenship behavior are specified to load onto one factor (Model M-7);

- (7) a five-factor model in which the citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior items are specified to load onto one factor (Model M-8);
- (8) a five-factor model in which the core task performance and counterproductive work behavior items are specified to load onto one factor (Model M-9);
- (9) a four-factor model in which the core task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior items are specified to load onto one factor (Model M-10), and;
- (10) a one-factor model in which all items are specified to load onto a single factor (Model M-11).

Results of the CFA for the manager-rated constructs appear in Table 2. The results indicate that the hypothesized measurement model (Model M-1) was a good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 408.24[110]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.90; TLI = 0.88; RMSEA = 0.12). However, the model in which the P-O fit items and P-J fit items load onto separate factors (Model M-2) is a significantly better fit to the data than the hypothesized model ($\chi^2 = 296.48[105]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.94; TLI = 0.92; RMSEA = 0.10; $\Delta\chi^2 = 111.76[5]$, $p < .001$). This suggests that managers do make distinctions between employees' fit with the organization and employees' fit with the job. Thus, the other alternative models described above were compared against this model.

Table 2 shows that Model M-2 was a better fit to the data than Model M-3 ($\chi^2 = 445.80[110]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.89; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.13; $\Delta\chi^2 = 149.32[5]$, $p < .001$), Model M-4 ($\chi^2 = 534.52[110]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.86; TLI = 0.82; RMSEA = 0.14; $\Delta\chi^2 = 238.04[5]$, $p < .001$), Model M-5 ($\chi^2 = 568.89[114]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.85; TLI = 0.82; RMSEA = 0.15; $\Delta\chi^2 = 272.41[9]$, $p < .001$), Model M-6 ($\chi^2 = 636.24[114]$, $p < .001$).

.001; CFI = 0.82; TLI = 0.79; RMSEA = 0.16; $\Delta\chi^2 = 339.76[9]$, $p < .001$), Model M-7 ($\chi^2 = 606.41[110]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.83; TLI = 0.79; RMSEA = 0.15; $\Delta\chi^2 = 309.93[5]$, $p < .001$), Model M-8 ($\chi^2 = 444.53[110]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.89; TLI = 0.86; RMSEA = 0.13; $\Delta\chi^2 = 148.05[5]$, $p < .001$), Model M-9 ($\chi^2 = 530.99[110]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.86; TLI = 0.83; RMSEA = 0.14; $\Delta\chi^2 = 234.51[5]$, $p < .001$), Model M-10 ($\chi^2 = 727.70[114]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.79; TLI = 0.75; RMSEA = 0.17; $\Delta\chi^2 = 431.22[9]$, $p < .001$), and Model M-11 ($\chi^2 = 2676.20[120]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.14; TLI = 0.02; RMSEA = 0.34; $\Delta\chi^2 = 2379.72[15]$, $p < .001$). Therefore, it was concluded that managers' perceptions of employee fit were distinct from the other constructs measured and each of the work behaviors rated by managers were also distinct. Furthermore, because Model M-2 was the best fit to the data, it was concluded that managers' perceptions of employee fit should be treated here as two separate constructs, one representing P-O fit and the other representing P-J fit. Thus, it was necessary to separately evaluate the hypotheses of the dissertation in terms of their differential implications for managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit and managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Employee-Rated Constructs

Employee-rated variables included in the CFA were managers' empowering behaviors, fairness, support, and close monitoring. All items were specified to load onto their respective factors. This CFA was performed identically to the CFA described for manager-rated constructs.

Again, model comparisons were assessed with chi-square difference tests. The hypothesized four-factor model (Model E-1; support, fairness, monitoring, and empowerment) was compared against six alternative models:

- (1) a three-factor model in which the empowerment and support variables were specified to load onto one factor (Model E-2);
- (2) a three-factor model in which the empowerment and fairness items were specified to load onto one factor (Model E-3);
- (3) a three-factor model in which the empowerment and monitoring items were specified to load onto one factor (Model E-4);
- (4) a two-factor model in which the support and fairness items were specified to load onto one factor and the empowerment and monitoring items were specified to load onto another (Model E-5);
- (5) a two-factor model in which all the positive-valenced behaviors (support, fairness, and empowerment) were specified to load onto one factor (Model E-6), and;
- (6) a one-factor model in which all items were specified to load a single factor (Model E-7).

Results of the CFA for the employee-rated variables appear in Table 3. The results indicate that the hypothesized measurement model (Model E-1) was a good fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 190.32[48]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.97; TLI = 0.96; RMSEA = 0.09). The results also indicate that this model was a better fit than Model E-2 ($\chi^2 = 399.43[51]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.93; TLI = 0.92; RMSEA = 0.13; $\Delta\chi^2 = 209.11[3]$, $p < .001$), Model E-3 ($\chi^2 = 512.14[51]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.89; RMSEA = 0.15; $\Delta\chi^2 = 321.82[3]$, $p < .001$), Model E-4 ($\chi^2 = 398.92[51]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.93; TLI = 0.92; RMSEA = 0.13; $\Delta\chi^2 = 208.60[3]$, $p < .001$), Model E-5 ($\chi^2 = 553.21[53]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.88; RMSEA = 0.15; $\Delta\chi^2 = 362.89[5]$, $p < .001$), Model E-6 ($\chi^2 = 595.48[53]$, $p < .001$;

CFI = 0.90; TLI = 0.87; RMSEA = 0.16; $\Delta\chi^2 = 405.16[5]$, $p < .001$), and Model E-7 ($\chi^2 = 802.57[54]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.86; TLI = 0.83; RMSEA = 0.18; $\Delta\chi^2 = 612.25[6]$, $p < .001$). Thus, it was concluded that the hypothesized measurement model was the best fit to the data and that the four employee-rated constructs had good discriminant validity.

Overall, then, the theoretical model could be evaluated as presented in Figure 1 with one main exception. Each hypothesis will be evaluated two times; once for managers' perceptions of P-O fit and once for managers' perceptions of P-J fit.

Hypothesis Testing

Descriptive statistics and correlations among the study's variables appear in Table 4. Managers' perceptions of employee P-O fit and P-J fit had strong positive correlations with core task performance, citizenship behavior, managerial support, manager fairness, empowering management, and rewards/bonuses given to the employee. Further, managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit and P-J fit had strong negative correlations with counterproductive work behavior. As predicted, managers' perceptions of employee P-O fit and P-J fit had moderate positive correlations with whether the employee was hired or promoted by the manager; contrary to predictions, however, moderate positive correlations existed between managers' perceptions of employee's non-work identity salience and both manager perceptions of employee fit variables.

Path analysis was used to test the hypotheses. This technique was chosen because it is especially useful when evaluating models including mediated and moderated paths (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). The results produced by path analysis are interpreted identically to those produced by ordinary least squares (OLS) regression methods.

The results of the dissertation aim to answer three general questions. First, what are the antecedents of managers' perceptions of employee fit? Second, what are the consequences of managers' perceptions of employee fit? Third, do managers' perceptions of employee fit mediate the relationships between employees' work behaviors and how managers treat employees?

Antecedents. To evaluate the effects of the hypothesized antecedents, direct paths were specified between the antecedents and managers' perceptions of employee P-O fit and P-J fit. As described in the previous chapter, dummy variables representing the data collection sites were used as controls.

Table 5 shows the path analytic results for the hypotheses involving the antecedents of managers' perceptions of employee fit. The results indicate that the overall model explained significant variance in managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit and P-J fit ($R^2 = 0.68$ and 0.68 , respectively).

Hypothesis 1 suggests that employees who have been hired or promoted by the manager will be rated higher in fit than employees not hired or promoted by the manager. The relationship between employees hired or promoted by the manager and managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit was not significantly different than zero ($b = 0.00$, *ns*) and the relationship between employees hired or promoted by the manager and managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit was in the predicted direction but not significant ($b = 0.06$, *ns*). Thus, the results do not support this hypothesis.

Support was not found for Hypothesis 2. The relationship between demographic similarity and managers' perceptions of employee fit was in the opposite direction than

what was predicted. Demographic similarity had weak, negative effects on managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit ($b = -0.04$, $p < .10$) and P-J fit ($b = -0.02$, *ns*).

Hypothesis 3 was not supported. The relationship between the frequency of employees' previous job changes and managers' perceptions of employee fit was not significant. Employees' frequency of job changes had weak, positive effects on managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit ($b = 0.14$, *ns*) and managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit ($b = 0.09$, *ns*).

Managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience were positively related to managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit ($b = 0.10$, $p < .01$), and weakly but negatively related to managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit ($b = -0.05$, $p < .10$). Thus, there was mixed support for Hypothesis 4.

Support was found for Hypothesis 5, which proposed that employees' task performance at Time 1 would be positively related to managers' perceptions of employees' fit at Time 2. Indeed, task performance positively related to both managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit ($b = 0.31$, $p < .001$) and P-J fit ($b = 0.75$, $p < .001$).

Hypothesis 6 proposed that employees' citizenship behavior at Time 1 would be positively related to managers' perceptions of employees' fit at Time 2. Citizenship behavior was positively related to managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit ($b = 0.46$, $p < .001$) and P-J fit ($b = 0.14$, $p < .05$). Thus, support was found for this hypothesis.

Mixed support was found for Hypothesis 7. This hypothesis proposed that employees' counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) at Time 1 would be negatively related to managers' perceptions of employees' fit at Time 2. CWB was not related to

managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit ($b = -0.05$, *ns*) but was negatively related to managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit ($b = 0.13$, $p < .10$).

Overall, then, there was strong support for the impact of employees' behaviors on managers' perceptions of employee fit but no support for the hypotheses about employees' characteristics. Some of the employees' characteristics did have significant effects on managers' perceptions of employee fit; however, these effects were opposite in direction than what was predicted.

Interaction of length of manager-employee relationship. To evaluate the moderating effects of the length of the manager-employee relationship, all predictor variables were mean-centered to reduce multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Further, variance inflation factor (VIF) scores were computed for the predictor variables; none of these exceeded the 10.0 guideline suggested by Ryan (1997). Significant interactions were plotted at one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator, following standard procedures.

Table 6 shows the path analytic results for Hypothesis 8a, 8b, and 8c. Hypothesis 8a predicted that the length of the manager-employee relationship would moderate the relationships between two of the employee characteristics (whether the employee was hired/promoted by the manager and employees' non-work salience) and managers' perceptions of employee fit; the relationships would be stronger when the length of the relationship was high. None of the four interaction terms in this category exhibited significant effects on managers' fit perceptions. Thus, Hypothesis 8a was not supported.

Hypothesis 8b proposed that the relationship between two of the employee characteristics (demographic similarity and the frequency of job changes) and managers'

perceptions of employee fit would be stronger when the length of the manager-employee relationship was low (rather than high). Three of the four interaction terms in this category exhibited significant effects on managers' fit perceptions. Specifically, the frequency of job changes x relationship length interaction term was significant and positive on managers' perceptions of P-J fit ($b = 0.12, p < .05$). A simple slopes analysis indicated that the relationship between the frequency of employees' job changes and managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit was stronger when the length of the manager-employee relationship was high ($b = 0.97, p < .001$) rather than low ($b = -0.17, ns$). Although the demographic similarity x relationship length interaction terms were significant and positive on managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit ($b = 0.01, p < .05$) and P-J fit ($b = 0.02, p < .01$), the direct effect of demographic similarity was in the opposite direction from what was anticipated. Thus, Hypothesis 8b was generally not supported.

Hypothesis 8c proposed that the relationships between employee behaviors and managers' perceptions of employee fit would be stronger when the length of the manager-employee relationship was low. Again, one of the six interaction terms in this category was significantly related to managers' perceptions of fit. Specifically, the citizenship behavior x relationship length interaction term was significant and negative ($b = -0.04, p < .05$). Simple slopes analysis revealed that the pattern was as expected. The relationship between citizenship behavior and managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit was stronger when the length of the manager-employee relationship was low ($b = 0.64, p < .001$) rather than high ($b = 0.14, ns$).

Overall, there was little support for the moderating role of the length of the manager-employee relationship. Although scattered interaction terms did reach significance using ordinary tests and confidence intervals, after adjusting the confidence interval using the Bonferroni correction for multiple tests of significance (Hochberg, 1988), none of the interactions were significant. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Consequences. To evaluate the consequences of managers' perceptions of employee fit, direct paths were specified from perceptions of employee P-O fit and P-J fit to the five hypothesized consequences. Again, the site at which the data were collected was controlled for in these analyses.

Table 7 shows the path analytic results for the hypotheses involving the consequences of managers' perceptions of employee fit. Results indicate that significant variance was explained for each dependent variable; R^2 values were 0.19 for supportive behavior, 0.26 for fair behavior, 0.12 for close monitoring, 0.21 for empowering management behavior, and 0.44 for rewards/bonuses.

Hypothesis 9 predicted that managers' perceptions of employee fit would be positively related to managers' supportive behavior toward employees. This hypothesis received mixed support. Managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit were significantly and positively related to managers' supportive behavior ($b = 0.42, p < .01$) but perceptions of employees' P-J fit were not significantly related to supportive behavior ($b = 0.20, ns$).

Support was found for Hypothesis 10, which predicted that managers' perceptions of employee fit would be positively related to managers' fair behavior toward employees. The path coefficient between managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit and fair

behavior was significant and positive ($b = 0.57, p < .001$). Further, managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit were positively related to fair behavior ($b = 0.30, p < .05$).

Mixed support was found for Hypothesis 11. This hypothesis predicted that managers' perceptions of employee fit would be negatively related to managers' close monitoring of employees. The relationship between managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit and managers' close monitoring was significant and *positive* ($b = 0.32, p < .05$) while the relationship between perceptions of employees' P-J fit and close monitoring was significant and *negative* ($b = -0.40, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 12 predicted that managers' perceptions of employee fit would be positively related to managers' empowering behaviors toward employees. This hypothesis received support. Both of the path coefficients leading to managers' empowering behaviors were significant. P-O fit was positively related to this dependent variable ($b = 0.20, p < .10$), as was P-J fit ($b = 0.39, p < .001$).

Hypothesis 13 predicted a positive relationship between managers' perceptions of employee fit and the rewards and bonuses given to employees. This hypothesis was supported. Managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit were positively related to rewards and bonuses ($b = 0.33, p < .01$). Further, managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit were positively related to rewards and bonuses ($b = 0.59, p < .001$). Overall, there were strong relationships between managers' perceptions of employee fit and all outcomes in the model.

Mediation tests. Mediation effects were analyzed following procedures by Mackinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002). The significance of each indirect effect from employees' behaviors to managers' behavior toward employees via

managers' perceptions of employee fit was computed by multiplying two paths of the model. The first path was the direct path from the employee performance behavior (i.e., task performance, citizenship, or counterproductive work behavior) to managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit or P-J fit. The second path was the direct path from managers' perceptions of employees' P-O or P-J fit to the manager behavior toward the employee (i.e., supportive behavior, fair behavior, close monitoring, empowering management, or rewards/bonuses). In the calculation of the second path, the direct effects of employees' behaviors on the consequences were controlled for. Since tests for indirect effects include product terms, the chances of Type I error increase (Shrout & Bolger, 2002); thus, in these analyses, 1,000 bootstrapped estimates were used.

Hypothesis 14 proposed that managers' perceptions of employee fit would partially mediate the relationships from employees' work behaviors (i.e., task performance, citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior) to managers' behaviors toward employees (i.e., supportive behavior, fair behavior, close monitoring, empowering management behaviors, and rewards/bonuses). The specific indirect effects were computed for each mediator (perceptions of P-O fit and perceptions of P-J fit).

Five (5) of the 30 possible specific indirect paths were statistically significant. Notably, managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit mediated the relationships from employees' task performance to managers' fair behavior ($P = 0.29, p < .05$), empowering behaviors ($P = 0.28, p < .01$), and rewards/bonuses ($P = 0.30, p < .01$). Moreover, managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit mediated the relationships from task performance and citizenship behavior to managers' close monitoring of employees ($P = 0.15, p < .01$ and $P = 0.21, p < .01$, respectively).

Additional analyses were conducted to determine whether managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit and managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit combined to significantly mediate the effects of employees' work behaviors on the way managers treat employees. Here, the indirect effect through perceptions of P-O fit was added to the indirect effect through perceptions of P-J fit to determine the significance of each total mediated effect.

Seven (7) of the 15 total joint mediated effects between employees' behaviors and managers' behaviors were significant. Notably, managers' perceptions of employee fit mediated the effects of employees' task performance on managers' supportive behavior ($P = 0.24, p < .05$), fair behavior ($P = 0.31, p < .05$), empowering behavior ($P = 0.24, p < .05$), and rewards/bonuses ($P = 0.36, p < .001$). Further, there were significant indirect effects from citizenship behavior to managers' close monitoring ($P = 0.19, p < .01$) and rewards/bonuses ($P = 0.16, p < .01$). Additionally, managers' perceptions of employee fit significantly mediated the relationship between employees' counterproductive work behavior and rewards/bonuses given to the employee ($P = -0.08, p < .05$).

The seven significant mediated effects were analyzed further to determine whether partial or full mediation was indicated. Direct paths from the antecedents (i.e., employees' task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior) to consequences (i.e., managers' supportive behavior, fair behavior, close monitoring, empowering behavior, and rewards/bonuses) were entered into the model and controlled for. Partial mediation is supported if there are significant direct effects from the antecedent to consequence while controlling for the mediator (James et al., 2006). Full mediation is suggested if the direct effect of antecedent on consequence is not

significantly different from zero while controlling for the effect of the mediator. One of the seven significant indirect effects described above represented full mediation; the direct effect of employees' citizenship behavior on managers' close monitoring was reduced to zero ($b = 0.02$, *ns*) when managers' perceptions of employee P-O fit and P-J fit were entered into the equation. The other six mediated effects represented partial mediation since there were significant direct effects from their respective antecedents to consequences when the effects of the mediators were entered into the equation.

Thus, Hypothesis 14 was partially supported. Managers' perceptions of employee fit partially mediated most of the effects from task performance to the outcome variables. In comparison, only some of the effects from citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior to the outcome variables were significantly mediated by managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Since some of the managers reported on multiple employees, it was necessary to test for the influence of a group-level factor due to the common supervisor. Therefore, the hypothesis tests were re-run using the Huber/White sandwich estimator (Huber, 1967; White, 1980). This technique partials out and controls for the variance due to group membership. When estimating parameters (i.e., path estimates), it provides standard errors robust to violations of non-normality (e.g., non-independence of observations). It is ideal in cases when the unit of analysis is the individual (cf. Boone, van Olffen, & van Witteloostuijn, 2005; Kilduff, Crossland, Tsai, & Krackhardt, 2008). The path estimates of the analyses controlling for the group-level effect were not significantly different from those reported here.

Overall model fit. To evaluate the fit of the model presented in Figure 1, structural paths were added to a measurement model representing the latent variables. Parcels were created for latent variables with more than three indicators (i.e., core task performance, citizenship behavior, counterproductive work behavior, managers' perceptions of employee fit, supportive behavior, fair behavior, close monitoring, and empowering behaviors) using an identical approach to that described in the CFA sections (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998).

Also included in this analysis were variables having only one or two indicators (i.e., managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience, demographic similarity, frequency of job changes, rewards/bonuses). Since measurement issues exist when analyzing latent variables with only two indicators, the loading of the first item of the managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience construct was set to unity (1.0) (Kline, 2005). Moreover, the single-indicator constructs were assumed to be measured without error by setting the loading of the only indicator to 1.0 and the error variance to 0 (e.g., Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002).

Finally, the construct representing whether the employee was hired/promoted by the manager was not included in this analysis because it was coded dichotomously and therefore could not be evaluated using the estimator ordinarily used to assess model fit in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2007). Additionally, because of limitations in the evaluation of the fit of models which include interaction terms, the moderator (i.e., length of manager-employee relationship) was not included in this assessment.

Using Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria, fit of the hypothesized structural model was assessed using the chi-square value, CFI, TLI, and RMSEA. Nested alternative

structural models can be compared to the hypothesized model using chi-square difference tests. The hypothesized model represented in Figure 1 (without the variable indicating whether the employee was hired/promoted by the manager and without the moderator) was an adequate fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 1241.07[421]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.87; TLI = 0.85; RMSEA = 0.10). However, modification indices indicated that the following paths be added to increase the fit of the model:

- (1) a direct effect from managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience to managers' supportive behavior;
- (2) a direct effect from managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience to managers' fair behavior;
- (3) a direct effect from managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience to managers' close monitoring;
- (4) a direct effect from employees' core task performance to managers' supportive behavior;
- (5) a direct effect from employees' core task performance to managers' fair behavior;
- (6) a direct effect from employees' core task performance to managers' close monitoring;
- (7) a direct effect from employees' core task performance to managers' empowering behavior;
- (8) a direct effect from employees' counterproductive work behavior to managers' supportive behavior;

- (9) a direct effect from employees' counterproductive work behavior to managers' fair behavior;
- (10) a direct effect from employees' counterproductive work behavior to managers' close monitoring, and;
- (11) a direct effect from employees' counterproductive work behavior to managers' empowering behavior.

A model illustrating these paths without the hypothesized paths of the dissertation is shown in Figure 2. Indeed, the model containing these direct paths from antecedents to consequences was a better fit to the data than the hypothesized model ($\chi^2 = 1185.58[410]$, $p < .001$; CFI = 0.88; TLI = 0.85; RMSEA = 0.10; $\Delta\chi^2 = 55.49[11]$, $p < .001$), as should be expected when adding paths indicated by modification indices (Kline, 2005). This analysis, however, lends further support to the *partial* mediating effect of managers' perceptions of employee fit; while some of the effects from antecedents to consequences are indirect through the mediator, there are significant direct effects between predictors and outcome variables, too.

Since the analyses above indicate that there are significant *direct* effects from antecedents to consequences, it was necessary to determine whether managers' perceptions of employee fit explain variance in the outcome variables over and above the variance explained by the predictors. To do so, each outcome variable (managers' support, fairness, close monitoring, and empowerment, and rewards/bonuses given to employees) was included in a hierarchical regression analysis. In the first step, the control variables (Hospital location) were entered; in the second step, the predictor variables (all antecedents) were entered; in the third step, both managers' perceptions of employee fit

variables were entered. If there was a significant change in R^2 between Step 2 and Step 3 for a given outcome variable, then it could be concluded that the inclusion of managers' perceptions of employee fit contributes unique variance in the prediction of that outcome.

The results of this analysis are shown in Table 8. When adding managers' perceptions of employee fit to the equations, significant variance is explained, over and above the impact of the control variables and predictors, in managers' support ($\Delta R^2 = 0.02$), managers' fairness ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$), managers' close monitoring ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$), managers' empowering behaviors ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$), and rewards/bonuses given to employees ($\Delta R^2 = 0.05$). Thus, it can be concluded that, in addition to mediating the effect of some of the predictors on outcome variables, managers' perceptions of employee fit also directly account for additional variance in these outcomes.

Table 1
Study 1 CFA Results

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta \chi^2$ (Δ df), p-value
Model A: 6-factor (P-O fit & P-J fit on one factor)	514.74	309	0.88	0.86	0.11	----
Model B: 7-factor	510.44	303	0.88	0.86	0.11	4.30 (6), <i>ns</i>
Model C: 5-factor (Fit & Performance on one factor)	606.44	314	0.83	0.81	0.13	91.70 (5), < .001
Model D: 5-factor (Fit & LMX on one factor)	594.54	314	0.83	0.82	0.12	79.80 (5), < .001
Model E: 5-factor (Fit & Trust on one factor)	581.21	314	0.84	0.82	0.12	66.47 (5), < .001
Model F: 5-factor (Fit & Similarity on one factor)	635.45	314	0.81	0.79	0.13	120.71 (5), < .001
Model G: 5-factor (Fit & Liking on one factor)	591.72	314	0.84	0.82	0.12	76.98 (5), < .001

Note. N = 59.

Table 2
Study 2 CFA Results for Manager-Rated Variables

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta \chi^2$ (Δ df), p-value
Model M-2: 6-factor	296.48	105	0.94	0.92	0.10	----
Model M-1: 5-factor (Fit items on one factor)	408.24	110	0.90	0.88	0.12	111.76 (5), < .001
Model M-3: 5-factor (PJ Fit and Task Performance items on one factor)	445.80	110	0.89	0.86	0.13	149.32 (5), < .001
Model M-4: 5-factor (PO Fit and OCB on one factor)	534.52	110	0.86	0.82	0.14	238.04 (5), < .001
Model M-5: 4-factor (Fit and Task Performance items on one factor)	568.89	114	0.85	0.82	0.15	272.41 (9), < .001
Model M-6: 4-factor (PJ Fit and Task Performance on one; PO Fit and OCB on one)	636.24	114	0.82	0.79	0.16	339.76 (9), < .001
Model M-7: 5-factor (Task Performance and OCB on one factor)	606.41	110	0.83	0.79	0.15	309.93 (5), < .001
Model M-8: 5-factor (OCB and CWB on one factor)	444.53	110	0.89	0.86	0.13	148.05 (5), < .001
Model M-9: 5-factor (Task Performance and CWB on one factor)	530.99	110	0.86	0.83	0.14	234.51 (5), < .001
Model M-10: 4-factor (All performance variables on one factor)	727.70	114	0.79	0.75	0.17	431.22 (9), < .001
Model M-11: 1-factor	2676.20	120	0.14	0.02	0.34	2379.72 (15), < .001

Note. N = 175.

Table 3*Study 2 CFA Results for Employee-Rated Variables*

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	$\Delta \chi^2$ (Δ df), p-value
Model E-1: 4-factor	190.32	48	0.97	0.96	0.09	----
Model E-2: 3-factor (Empowerment & Support on one factor)	399.43	51	0.93	0.92	0.13	209.11 (3), < .001
Model E-3: 3-factor (Empowerment & Fairness on one factor)	512.14	51	0.91	0.89	0.15	321.82 (3), < .001
Model E-4: 3-factor (Empowerment & Monitoring on one factor)	398.92	51	0.93	0.92	0.13	208.60 (3), < .001
Model E-5: 2-factor (Support/Fairness on one & Empower/Monitor on one)	553.21	53	0.91	0.88	0.15	362.89 (5), < .001
Model E-6: 2-factor (Positive behaviors on one & Close monitoring on one)	595.48	53	0.90	0.87	0.16	405.16 (5), < .001
Model E-7: 1-factor	802.57	54	0.86	0.83	0.18	612.25 (6), < .001

Note. N = 175.

Table 4
Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Hired/promoted by manager (M)	1.59	0.49	--								
2. Demographic similarity	4.91	1.80	-0.12	--							
3. Frequency of job changes (M)	0.29	0.31	0.28	-0.54	--						
4. Employees' non-work salience (M)	4.12	0.92	0.13	0.14	-0.15	--					
5. Task performance (M)	4.56	0.52	0.24	0.09	-0.15	0.27	--				
6. Citizenship behavior (M)	4.25	0.72	0.30	0.03	-0.12	0.26	0.69	--			
7. Counterproductive work behavior (M)	1.76	0.58	-0.26	0.01	0.04	-0.27	-0.64	-0.74	--		
8. Length of manager-employee relationship (M)	4.64	4.45	-0.16	0.09	-0.32	-0.01	0.14	0.00	0.01	--	
9. PO fit (M)	4.17	0.64	0.27	-0.06	0.00	0.35	0.68	0.76	-0.65	0.01	--
10. PJ fit (M)	4.44	0.65	0.27	-0.02	-0.01	0.16	0.79	0.66	-0.62	0.07	0.79
11. Supportive behavior (E)	4.15	0.81	0.18	0.03	-0.04	0.06	0.30	0.52	-0.51	0.00	0.44
12. Fairness (E)	4.08	1.00	0.18	0.03	-0.07	0.06	0.36	0.58	-0.57	0.08	0.50
13. Close monitoring (E)	3.04	0.69	0.02	-0.12	0.19	0.13	-0.18	-0.17	0.30	-0.17	-0.06
14. Empowerment (E)	4.11	0.75	0.24	-0.03	-0.09	0.02	0.36	0.52	-0.56	0.06	0.43
15. Rewards/bonuses (M)	3.91	0.94	0.15	0.01	-0.13	0.23	0.60	0.55	-0.40	0.09	0.60
16. Site 1	0.47	0.50	0.02	0.09	-0.08	0.16	0.11	0.17	-0.08	-0.01	0.19
17. Site 2	0.23	0.42	0.05	-0.15	0.07	-0.13	-0.25	-0.17	0.18	-0.08	-0.27

Note. N = 175. Correlations greater than |.12| are significant at < .05; correlations greater than |.16| are significant at < .01. (M) = manager-rated variable. (E) = employee-rated variable.

Table 4 (continued)*Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Table*

Variables	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Hired/promoted by manager (M)							
2. Demographic similarity							
3. Frequency of job changes (M)							
4. Employees' non-work salience (M)							
5. Task performance (M)							
6. Citizenship behavior (M)							
7. Counterproductive work behavior (M)							
8. Length of manager-employee relationship (M)							
9. PO fit (M)							
10. PJ fit (M)	--						
11. Supportive behavior (E)	0.40	--					
12. Fairness (E)	0.46	0.91	--				
13. Close monitoring (E)	-0.19	-0.41	-0.41	--			
14. Empowerment (E)	0.45	0.91	0.86	-0.40	--		
15. Rewards/bonuses (M)	0.63	0.17	0.25	-0.12	0.25	--	
16. Site 1	0.17	-0.03	-0.08	-0.15	-0.03	0.24	--
17. Site 2	-0.27	0.01	0.04	0.11	-0.04	-0.36	-0.51

Table 5*Path Analytic Results for Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit*

Variables	PO Fit			PJ Fit		
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B
Site 1	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.05	0.06	0.04
Site 2	-0.16	0.07	-0.10 [*]	-0.12	0.07	-0.08 [†]
Manager Hire	0.00	0.06	0.00	0.06	0.06	0.04
Demographic Similarity	-0.04	0.02	-0.11 [*]	-0.02	0.02	-0.07
Frequency of Job Changes	0.14	0.12	0.07	0.09	0.12	0.04
Employees' Non-work Salience	0.10	0.03	0.15 ^{***}	-0.05	0.03	-0.08 [†]
Task Performance	0.31	0.07	0.25 ^{***}	0.75	0.07	0.61 ^{***}
Citizenship Behavior	0.46	0.06	0.51 ^{***}	0.14	0.06	0.16 [*]
CWB	-0.05	0.07	-0.05	-0.13	0.07	-0.12 [†]
	<i>R</i> ²		0.68 ^{***}			0.68 ^{***}

Note. N = 175. [†] < .10, ^{*} < .05, ^{**} < .01, ^{***} < .001. Site 1 and Site 2 are dummy variables indicating the organizations at which data were collected. CWB = Counterproductive work behavior.

Table 6
Path Analytic Results for Interaction Hypotheses

Variables	PO Fit					
	Step 1			Step 2		
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B
Site 1	0.01	0.06	0.01	0.01	0.06	0.00
Site 2	-0.16	0.07	-0.10*	-0.16	0.07	-0.10*
Manager hire/promote	-0.00	0.06	0.00	-0.01	0.06	-0.00
Demographic similarity	-0.04	0.02	-0.11*	-0.03	0.02	-0.09†
Frequency of job changes	0.14	0.12	0.07	0.13	0.20	0.06
Employees' non-work salience	0.10	0.03	0.15***	0.12	0.03	0.17***
Task performance	0.30	0.07	0.25***	0.29	0.07	0.24***
Citizenship behavior	0.46	0.06	0.51***	0.46	0.06	0.51***
CWB	-0.05	0.07	-0.05	-0.07	0.07	-0.06
Rel'n length	0.00	0.01	0.01	-0.11	0.04	-0.74**
<i>Interaction Terms</i>						
Manager hire x rel'n length				0.02	0.01	0.22
Demographic Sim x rel'n length				0.01	0.01	0.56*
Job Changing x rel'n length				0.03	0.05	0.05
Non-work salience x rel'n length				-0.00	0.01	-0.02
Task performance x rel'n length				0.03	0.03	0.09
Citizenship x rel'n length				-0.04	0.02	-0.16*
CWB x rel'n length				-0.01	0.02	-0.02
	ΔR^2					0.03**
	R^2		0.68***			0.71***

Note. N = 175. † < .10, * < .05, ** < .01, *** < .001. Site 1 and Site 2 are dummy variables indicating the organizations at which data were collected. Rel'n length = Length of manager-employee relationship; CWB = Counterproductive work behavior.

Table 6 (continued)*Path Analytic Results for Interaction Hypotheses*

Variables	PJ Fit					
	Step 1			Step 2		
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B
Site 1	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.04
Site 2	-0.12	0.07	-0.08 [*]	-0.13	0.07	-0.09 [†]
Manager hire/promote	0.06	0.06	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.02
Demographic similarity	-0.03	0.02	-0.07	-0.01	0.02	-0.02
Frequency of job changes	0.08	0.13	0.04	0.40	0.22	0.19 [†]
Employees' non-work salience	-0.05	0.03	-0.08 [†]	-0.04	0.03	-0.05
Task performance	0.75	0.07	0.60 ^{***}	0.73	0.07	0.58 ^{***}
Citizenship behavior	0.14	0.06	0.16 [*]	0.15	0.06	0.16 [*]
CWB	-0.13	0.07	-0.12 [†]	-0.15	0.07	-0.13 [*]
Rel'n length	0.00	0.01	0.00	-0.11	0.04	-0.79 ^{**}
<i>Interaction Terms</i>						
Manager hire x rel'n length				0.02	0.01	0.21
Demographic Sim x rel'n length				0.02	0.01	0.75 ^{**}
Job Changing x rel'n length				0.12	0.06	0.24 [*]
Non-work salience x rel'n length				0.00	0.01	-0.01
Task performance x rel'n length				0.00	0.03	0.01
Citizenship x rel'n length				-0.02	0.02	-0.09
CWB x rel'n length				-0.02	0.02	-0.06
	ΔR^2					0.02 ^{**}
	R^2		0.68 ^{***}			0.70 ^{***}

Table 7*Path Analytic Results for Dependent Variables*

Variables	Supportive Behavior			Fairness			Close Monitoring		
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B
Site 1	-0.07	0.13	-0.04	-0.20	0.15	-0.10	-0.23	0.12	-0.16 [†]
Site 2	0.23	0.14	0.12	0.32	0.16	0.14 [*]	-0.01	0.13	-0.01
PO Fit	0.42	0.13	0.34 ^{**}	0.57	0.16	0.38 ^{***}	0.32	0.13	0.29 ^{**}
PJ Fit	0.20	0.13	0.16	0.30	0.15	0.20 [*]	-0.40	0.13	-0.37 ^{**}
	<i>R</i> ²		.19 ^{***}			.26 ^{***}			.12 [*]

Note. N = 175. [†] < .10, * < .05, ** < .01, *** < .001. Site 1 and Site 2 are dummy variables indicating the organizations at which data were collected.

Table 7 (continued)*Path Analytic Results for Dependent Variables*

Variables	Empowerment			Rewards/Bonuses		
	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B	<i>b</i>	<i>se</i>	B
Site 1	-0.10	0.12	-0.07	0.10	0.11	0.06
Site 2	0.13	0.13	0.07	-0.36	0.13	-0.16**
PO Fit	0.20	0.12	0.18 [†]	0.33	0.12	0.22**
PJ Fit	0.39	0.12	0.35***	0.59	0.12	0.41***
<i>R</i> ²			.21***			.44***

Table 8*Results for Analysis of Change in Variance Explained for Outcome Variables*

Variables	Supportive Behavior		Fairness		Close Monitoring		Empowerment		Rewards/Bonuses	
	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2
Control Variables	.00		.00		.03		.00		.23	
Predictors Variables	.35	.35***	.44	.44***	.22	.19***	.40	.40***	.46	.23***
Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit	.37	.02**	.47	.03**	.25	.03**	.42	.03**	.50	.05**

Note. N = 175. [†] < .10, * < .05, ** < .01, *** < .001. Table values are R^2 values.

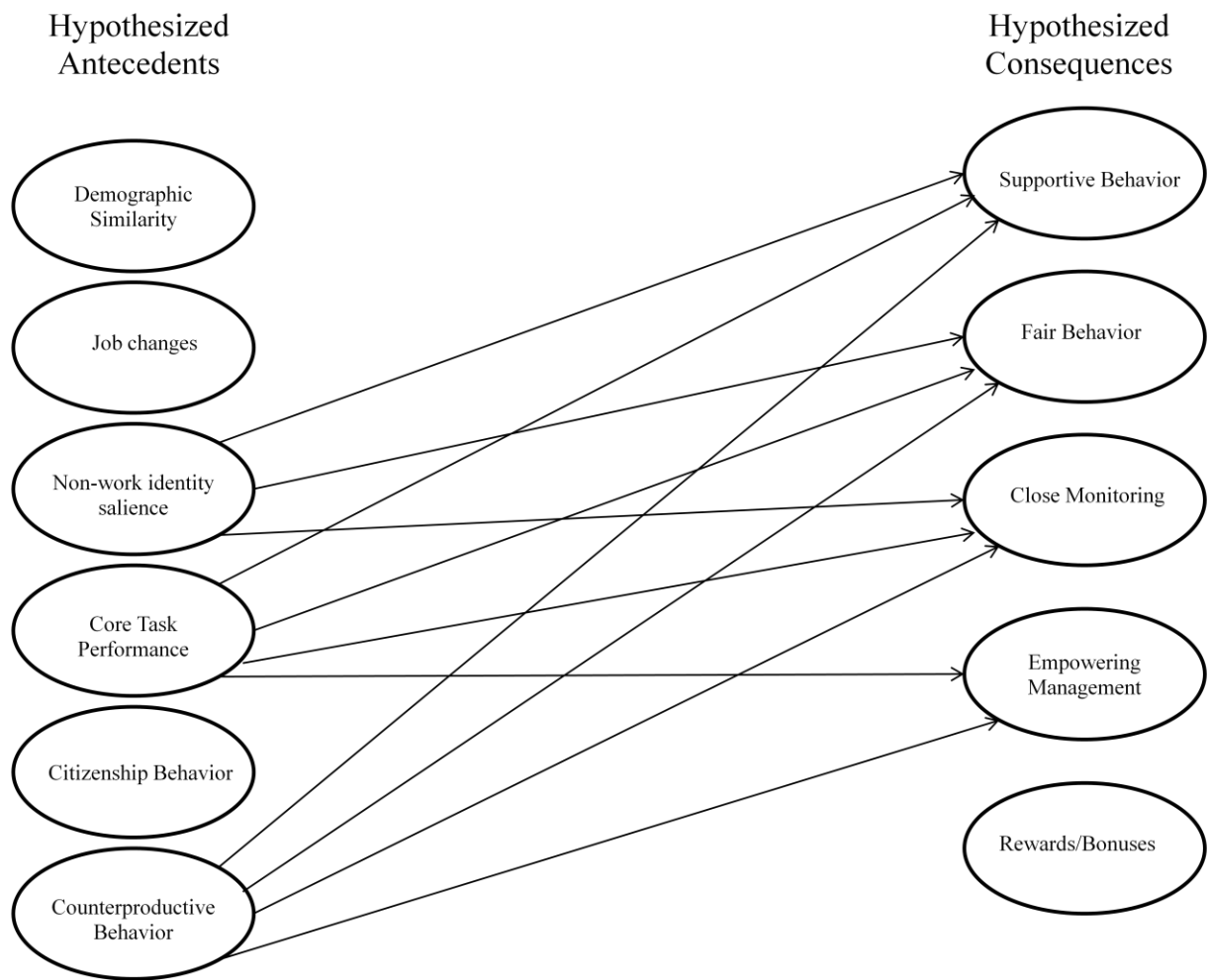


Figure 2
Significant Direct Effects of the Model

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The development of the P-E fit literature has relied almost exclusively on individuals' self-reports of fit. This dissertation aims to fill an existing gap in the literature by illustrating how managers' perceptions of employee fit help explain the way managers treat employees.

The dissertation hypothesized that managers use employees' work behaviors and personal characteristics to assess whether employees fit their jobs. In addition, the dissertation proposed that the strength of the relationships between employees' work behaviors/characteristics and supervisors' assessments of fit would vary according to how long the manager and employee have worked together. Further, it was hypothesized that managers' perceptions of employee fit influenced how managers treated their employees, with employees being perceived as better fits receiving better treatment. In two studies of managers and employees in three organizations, the hypotheses of the dissertation were tested. Below, I discuss the key findings of the dissertation, the contributions of the dissertation to the existing academic literature and to management practice, and possible areas for future research in this area.

Key Results

Antecedents. Most research in the P-E fit literature has focused on the impact of employees' self-perceptions of fit on employees' work behaviors (i.e., core task performance, citizenship behavior) (Edwards, 2008; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). In

this dissertation, employees' work behaviors were framed as antecedents of managers' perceptions of employee fit. It was reasoned that managers make inferences about employees' fit based on important behaviors employees exhibit at work (e.g., Andersen & Ross, 1984).

The dissertation reveals several important findings about the antecedents of managers' perceptions of employee fit. Collectively, the antecedents explained a substantial amount (68%) of the variance in managers' perceptions of employee fit. The results revealed that managers' perceptions of employee fit are strongly influenced by employees' core task performance and citizenship behavior and are moderately influenced by managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience and demographic similarity between the manager and employee.

Employees' work behaviors (core task performance and citizenship behavior) were the strongest predictors of managers' perceptions of employee fit. Research in social perception theory recognizes that observers' perceptions of "actors" are influenced by both the actor's behaviors and social characteristics (Feldman, 1981; Park et al., 1994). The results here suggest that managers rely more heavily on employees' observable behaviors than on employees' characteristics when assessing employee fit. The strong relationships of both employees' core task performance and citizenship behavior on managers' perceptions of employee fit indicate that it is quite difficult for an employee to be perceived by his/her manager as a good fit if he/she is not behaving in productive, prosocial ways at work.

More specifically, the pattern of results here demonstrate that citizenship behavior was the strongest predictor of managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit while core

task performance was the strongest predictor of managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit. These findings suggest that managers infer that employees have similar values to those of the organization when employees are performing actions that benefit colleagues and the organization as a whole. In contrast, managers make inferences about the suitability of employees' abilities for their jobs based on how well employees perform their assigned duties. This pattern of findings is consistent with previous research demonstrating that task performance is associated with abilities while citizenship behavior is associated with discretionary behavior driven by values (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Moreover, this pattern of results suggests that managers do indeed make distinctions between employees' fit with the organization and employees' fit with the job.

In contrast to the strong effects of core task performance and citizenship behavior, managers' perceptions of employees' counterproductive work behavior did not have strong effects on their assessments of fit. There are at least three reasons why this result might have occurred. First, the intercorrelations among employees' core task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior are very strong (Dalal, 2005; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Thus, the variance in managers' perceptions of employee fit explained by counterproductive work behavior might already be captured by variations in employees' core task and citizenship performance. Second, employees display counterproductive work behavior far less frequently than they display citizenship or core task behaviors at work (e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002). Third, many of the behaviors captured by the present measure of counterproductive work behavior are very difficult for

managers to observe (Dalal, 2005; Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, & Laczko, 2006). Employees often attempt to hide these deviant acts from their managers.

Employees' personal characteristics also affected managers' perceptions of employee fit, but they accounted for less variance in explaining managers' perceptions than employees' behaviors. In the eyes of supervisors, doing the right things is more important than having the right characteristics. This finding also confirms social perception research, which suggests that observers weigh individuals' behaviors more heavily than personal attributes in making assessments (Fiske & Taylor, 1991); consequently, behaviors have stronger effects on observers' perceptions of an individual than do characteristics.

The results also indicate that managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience and the demographic similarity between the manager and employee have moderate effects on managers' perceptions of employee fit. Two of the characteristics studied here, whether the employee was hired/promoted by the manager and the frequency of employees' past job changes, did not have significant effects on managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Contrary to the prediction here, demographic similarity had a weak *negative* effect on managers' perceptions of employee fit. One explanation derives from Freud (1922), who referred to the phenomenon of focusing on relatively insignificant differences between otherwise-similar others as "the narcissism of small differences." In rating demographically similar employees as lower in fit, managers are attempting to highlight the differences existing between themselves and these employees. An alternative explanation is that demographic similarity might have implications for

managers' perceptions of employees' *complementary* fit. Dissimilar employees are perhaps filling some important gaps in their work units and therefore are rated higher on fit than employees who provide similar skills and values to those already present in the unit.

The relationship between managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience and managers' perceptions of P-J fit was negative. Thus, there was some evidence that employees who placed greater emphasis on their non-work lives were not perceived to fit well with job demands. The marginally significant, negative correlation between managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience and managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit confirms that managers do take employees' off-the-job lives into consideration when assessing employees' fit.

In contrast, managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience had differential relationships with managers' perceptions of employees' P-O and P-J fit. The positive relationship between managers' perceptions of employees' non-work identity salience and managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit can be explained by considering the idiosyncratic nature of certain vocations and organizations. In some occupations and firms, achieving a balance between work and non-work is an important value. In the helping professions, like nursing, a balance between work and non-work is judged positively (Lobel, 1992). In the present sample, which largely consisted of nurses and other hospital personnel, employees who had strong non-work identity salience were not judged by their managers as being poor fits. In contrast, in an industry such as investment banking, balancing work and non-work is judged negatively; thus, in that type of sample, the relationship would likely be opposite in sign.

This pattern of findings lends weight to the argument that managers' perceptions of employee fit are somewhat normative and context-dependent in nature. For example, Hoobler et al.'s (2009) study found negative relationships between managers' perceptions of employees' work-family conflict and managers' perceptions of employees' fit. That study, though, utilized a sample from one male-dominated organization within a male-dominated industry. The present sample was very different in terms of the concentration of female employees and the type of work performed in the organizations where data were collected. Perhaps not surprisingly, then, the pattern of results was very different as well.

Moderator. The length of the manager-employee relationship did not moderate the relationships between antecedents and managers' perceptions of employee fit. The antecedents here exhibit similar effects on managers' fit perceptions regardless of how long the manager and employee have worked together. This suggests that the time that a manager and employee have worked together does not seem to change the manager's assessment of that employee's fit. Managers do not appear to judge employee fit using different criteria at one point in time versus another; rather, employees' work behaviors are the strongest predictors of managers' fit perceptions at all stages of managers' relationships with employees. The caveat here, though, is that the data in this study are cross-sectional in nature. Longitudinal data would be needed to make strong inferences regarding relationships between supervisors and subordinates over time.

Consequences. Managers' perceptions of employee fit were very strongly related to employees' reports of managers' supportive behavior, fair behavior, empowerment directed toward them, and to rewards/bonuses received from the manager. Employees

who are perceived by their managers to fit with the organization and the job are given better interpersonal treatment, more rewards, and are empowered to do their jobs as they see fit. In turn, these managerial actions help to confirm managers' positive perceptions (Rosenthal, 1973) by enabling employees to maintain high fit. In contrast, those who are perceived to have poor fit are generally neglected in terms of receiving these additional resources from managers.

The non-significant relationship between managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit and managers' supportive behavior was notable. Moreover, and contrary to the prediction, employees perceived by their managers to have similar values to those of the organization (i.e., high P-O fit) were also monitored more closely. Further research using more heterogeneous samples and longitudinal designs are needed to fully understand these unexpected results.

P-O fit versus P-J fit. While the correlation between ratings of P-O fit and P-J fit was very strong ($r = 0.79$), these two constructs exhibited differential relationships with some of the antecedents and consequences studied here. As reviewed above, employees' citizenship behavior was the strongest predictor of managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit while employees' core task performance was the strongest predictor of managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit.

There were also differential effects of P-O and P-J fit on outcome variables. For example, the effects of managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit and P-J fit on managers' fair treatment of employees were 0.57 and 0.30, respectively. This pattern is reversed for the prediction of rewards/bonuses received by employees; the effect of managers' perceptions of employees' P-O fit on this outcome is 0.33 while the effect of

managers' perceptions of employees' P-J fit is 0.59. This pattern of findings, combined with the CFA results for the manager-rated variables in Study 2 (see Table 2), suggests that managers do consider employee fit at different levels of the environment. These findings also confirm previous research demonstrating that it is useful to measure fit according to the level of the environment, even when external observers are rating the construct (e.g., Kristof-Brown, 2000).

Mediating effects. Managers' perceptions of employee fit significantly and partially mediated some of the relationships between employees' behaviors and managers' treatment of employees. Specifically, the relationships between employees' core task performance and managers' supportive behavior, fair behavior, empowering behavior, and rewards/bonuses given to the employee were partially mediated by managers' perceptions of employee fit. This further supports the social exchange argument presented earlier, namely, that managers use employees' core task behaviors to judge whether employees are implicitly fulfilling their half of the exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When expectations are fulfilled and fit is established, managers are more likely to reciprocate in the form of positive behaviors toward the employee.

Furthermore, managers' perceptions of employee fit mediated the paths from employees' citizenship behavior to managers' close monitoring and rewards/bonuses given to the employee. Employees going over and above the call of duty are judged to be better fits at work and are, therefore, rewarded for achieving this fit. Rewarding citizenship behavior also increases the likelihood of its re-occurrence in the future (Rosenthal, 1973).

Modification indices in the overall test of the model indicated that model fit would increase if direct paths were specified between antecedents and consequences. This lends further support for the hypothesis that managers' perceptions of employee fit only *partially* mediate the relationships between employees' work behaviors and managers' treatment of employees. Of course, there are other mechanisms which might explain the relationships between employees' work behaviors and managers' reciprocated treatment of employees (e.g., LMX). Therefore, the finding that managers' perceptions of employee fit only partially mediate these relationships is consistent with previous research.

Last here, managers' perceptions of employee fit had significant mediating effects on the relationship between employees' counterproductive work behavior and rewards/bonuses given to employees. It is interesting that managers' perceptions of employee fit mediated the effects from each of the employee work behavior constructs (core task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior) to managers' allotment of rewards/bonuses to employees. These findings suggest that fit plays an important role in managers' allocations of discretionary rewards given to employees. It appears managers allocate additional rewards to employees with the expectation that employees will remain good fits and continue to be contributing members of the firm.

Contributions of the Dissertation

The results of the dissertation have implications for further theoretical and methodological development of the P-E fit literature as well as for practitioners. Managers' perceptions of employee fit contribute to our understanding of the work

experiences of employees and are important to consider when studying the phenomenon of fit in the future.

Theoretical Contributions

The dissertation represents an important first step at understanding how managers' perceptions of employee fit are shaped. Previous reviews of the P-E fit literature (Edwards, 2008; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010) have underscored the importance of developing knowledge about how fit perceptions are formed. Consistent with Andersen's (1984) research on differences between self-perceptions and others' perceptions of an individual, this study's focus on managers' perceptions of employee fit stands in contrast to the extant literature which focuses exclusively on self-perceptions of fit.

The P-E fit literature has noted that self-perceptions are highly representative of employees' *affective feelings* toward their jobs and organizations (Edwards et al., 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In contrast, this dissertation finds that employees' *behaviors* have strong influences on managers' perceptions of employee fit. Thus, while it may be important for an employee to *feel* like he/she is a good fit, managers are more concerned with performance when assessing whether those employees are good fits. The more that employees perform well in terms of assigned job tasks and citizenship behavior, the more likely managers will consider them to fit well.

Further, the present investigation suggested that employee behavior is an antecedent—as well as a consequence—of fit. The current approach differs from traditional fit theories, which state that the congruence of person and environment characteristics leads to positive behavioral consequences (cf. Edwards, 2008). In contrast,

this dissertation suggests that good performance in core task and citizenship duties may lead employees to achieve fit, particularly from the manager's viewpoint. These perceptions are related to managers' subsequent treatment of employees and, in turn, could lead employees to draw inferences about their own fit with the work environment. Thus, the dissertation challenges traditional thinking on P-E fit and could lead to new insights in this research area.

The dissertation also provides broader insight into how P-E fit impacts employees' work experiences. Previous research has primarily focused on the impact of P-E fit on employees' attitudes and behaviors (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al, 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). In contrast, the present examination demonstrates that others' behaviors directed toward an employee are impacted by others' perceptions of that employee's P-E fit. Thus, the dissertation expands the range of outcomes considered through the lens of P-E fit and demonstrates that *others'* perceptions of an employee's fit can impact the ways that employees experience work.

In addition, the dissertation proposes a mediating mechanism through which employees' work behaviors relate to managers' treatment of employees. Here, it was found that managers' perceptions of employee fit significantly mediated the effects of employees' core task performance on most of the outcome variables. Social exchange theory is based on the idea that fulfilled expectations promote reciprocity between parties (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Indeed, of the three work behavior constructs, core task performance is most representative of managers' expectations of employees. Thus, when employees perform well, managers judge that those employees are good fits and, in turn, offer greater support, empowerment, and rewards to those employees.

Finally, this dissertation contributes to research on the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework (Schneider, 1987). The ASA framework predicts that employees will leave their organizations when they perceive that they do not fit with them any longer. The findings here, though, suggest that managers may also play an active role in the turnover of employees who do not fit. Employees judged not to fit by their managers are less likely to receive important resources, thereby accelerating the turnover process. Indeed, receiving less than adequate resources from supervisors causes employees to become frustrated and leave their organizations (e.g., Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Methodological Contributions

One of the main methodological contributions of this dissertation is that it focuses on others' perceptions of fit rather than the traditional self-report perspective on fit. As noted earlier, researchers have noted many methodological limitations to the use of self-perception measures. It is noteworthy that the relationships found here between employees' work behaviors and managers' perceptions of employee fit were quite strong and stronger than those typically found in the fit literature. Considering employee fit from the manager's perspective, then, may be a good first step toward explaining the modest relationship between P-E fit and behavior in prior research (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2010). Of course, caution should be taken in drawing conclusions too soon; both the antecedents and managers' perceptions of employee fit were rated by the managers themselves. However, the relationships between behaviors and fit found here are much stronger than those found in previous studies which examined associations between self-report measures of fit and outcome variables (cf. Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Thus, this

investigation suggests that one way to explain the relationship between behavior and fit is to consider other-reported perceptions of fit.

The study design also had a number of strengths. First, the data were collected at three time periods; predictors were collected at Time 1, mediators at Time 2, and outcome variables at Time 3. Although this design does not allow for causal inferences to be made, separating the measurement of variables in time helps to reduce the impact of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Another strength of the present research design was that the employees to which managers referred while completing surveys were chosen at random. This strategy helped ensure that managers did not report only on subordinates with high fit, and therefore there was greater variance on the fit variables.

Furthermore, the data were collected from two different sources. In addition to reducing the likelihood that common method variance biased the results (Podsakoff et al., 2003), this design allows for conclusions to be made about the strength of the relationships between variables collected from different sources. The paths from managers' perceptions of fit (manager-rated) to managers' treatment of employees (employee-rated) were quite strong. Considering the sample size was not especially large (and, therefore, statistical power was not especially high), these relationships demonstrate that managers' perceptions of employee fit have a strong impact on the ways that employees are treated by managers.

The design of the dissertation also allowed the level of analysis of the theory (i.e., the individual level of analysis) to match the level of analysis of the method and results. The results of a multi-level analysis indicated that group-level variance was not a

significant factor in the data collected. The design thus allows us to rule out multi-level effects as an alternative explanation for the results (Klein & Kozlowski, 2000).

Methodological Limitations

The methodological strengths of the dissertation should not be interpreted without considering some of its methodological limitations as well. Although data on the antecedents and managers' perceptions of employee fit were collected at different times, causality between the variables cannot be inferred. Managers' perceptions of employee fit may be formed early in the manager-employee relationship and not susceptible to change. Thus, it is possible that fit perceptions cause the antecedents as modeled in the dissertation (specifically, managers' ratings of work behaviors). Moreover, there were only two weeks between waves of the survey and previous levels of the managers' perceptions of employee fit construct were not controlled for in the analyses. Future research may attempt to address these limitations in a quasi-experimental setting.

Second, the relationships between employees' work behaviors and managers' perceptions of employee fit could be inflated because of general perceptions managers have of their employees (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). Alternative ways of capturing employees' performance behaviors (e.g., coworker reports or archival measures) could improve the statistical conclusion validity of the dissertation's findings. Furthermore, collecting the antecedent variables from a different source would allow for further analysis about the discriminant validity of employees' behaviors and managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Third, the strength of the relationships found in this dissertation could be partially due to the type of measure employed. The dissertation assessed fit using a perceptual

measure, which suffers from its own limitations. Researchers have argued that when responding to perceptual measures of fit, individuals do not separately assess the person and environment dimensions but, instead, provide an overall judgment of the person (Edwards et al., 2006). Thus, it is argued that perceptual measures of fit do not properly assess the congruence between person and environment. However, objective reality is filtered through individuals' perceptions (Cable & Judge, 1997); these researchers provide an example demonstrating that others' perceptions of an individual's fit mediate the relationships between others' assessments of an individual's fit (measured objectively) and important work outcomes for those individuals.

Another limitation here is that the samples used in the dissertation were from only one industry. Although respondents represented a wide variety of occupations and job functions within three different organizations, the entire sample came from one industry. Industries have unique characteristics; as mentioned with respect to Hoobler et al.'s (2009) study, there are important contextual factors that can influence the extent to which a particular individual fits within a given work environment. The 'environment' side of the P-E fit equation in this dissertation, therefore, had relatively little variance. Future research should seek to replicate these relationships using a wider cross-section of organizations, industries, and job categories from which to draw study participants.

Last, this dissertation did not provide a comparative test of the effects of managers' perceptions of employee fit to the effects of employees' self-perceptions of fit. Therefore, conclusions cannot be drawn about whether managers' perceptions explain variance in outcome variables over and above that explained by employees' self-perceptions. While theory suggests that self-perceptions and others' perceptions of an

individual would have differential relationships with antecedent and outcome variables (Vazire, 2010), this is largely an empirical question that should be tested in future P-E fit research.

Contributions to Practice

The findings of this dissertation have practical implications for managers, too. Most managers would not be surprised to learn that they rate the best performing subordinates, on average, as higher on fit. However, the present investigation also highlights that these perceptions of fit lead managers to treat subordinates differently. Paradoxically, managers give fewer resources to employees perceived to be misfits and greater resources to those perceived to be good fits. This pattern of behavior creates a managerial self-fulfilling prophecy; the fit of employees perceived to have good fit becomes better while the fit of employees perceived to have poor fit becomes worse.

From the manager's perspective, the achievement of employee fit seems to be more about how employees perform rather than who they are. If employees are performing their task assignments well and going above and beyond the call of duty, employees' characteristics are not very important when managers are determining who fits and who does not. Rather than selecting employees to groom toward promotion and advancement based on certain characteristics, the results here suggest that managers should create positive, reciprocal exchange relationships with employees who perform well at work.

In addition, this study demonstrates the strong effects that managers' perceptions have on the nature of employees' work experiences (Bass, 1990; Tepper, 2000). However, the manager is not necessarily accurate in his/her assessment of an employee's

fit. Firms run the risk of losing employees who may be a better fit with a different manager or in a different department simply because their current managers do not perceive them to be good fits. It is certainly not desirable to retain poorly-performing employees (Staw, 1980); however, there may be instances when one manager's perception does not reflect the perceptions of other managers in the firm. Since the consequences of employees not receiving these resources can be costly to firms in terms of employee productivity and turnover (Colquitt et al., 2001; Lawler, 1992; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), organizations should not rely exclusively on one supervisor's perceptions in making promotion, pay raise, or termination decisions.

Directions for Future Research

Theoretical Considerations

There are several important avenues for future theoretical research on managers' perceptions of employee fit. First, researchers should also consider the differences between how employees and managers weigh skills, needs, and values in assessing employee fit. In this dissertation, managers' perceptions of employees' needs-supplies fit were not measured. Consistent with previous work on P-E fit in the recruitment and selection literature (e.g., Kristof-Brown, 2000), it appears that, at the time of hire, managers do not consider candidates' needs. However, it is possible that as the manager-employee relationship progresses, managers have the opportunity to learn more about employees' personal needs. Managers are in better positions than employees are to change the parameters of employees' jobs in order to accommodate instances of need misfit (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Thus, the investigation of managers' perceptions of employees' need-supplies fit is a possible area for future research.

Researchers might also consider whether managers and employees have differing assessments of employee fit and why those differences might exist. As discussed earlier, managers may place more emphasis on employees' skills in assessing fit, while employees may value fitting in well with the group more heavily. Alternatively, managers may have a longer-term orientation compared to employees when it comes to assessing employee fit. For example, managers' objectives for the workgroup or organization may require building toward the achievement of a particular mix of skills, personalities, or values, and any individual's level of fit might be a secondary consideration. In contrast, employees may be more inclined to focus on what fit actually means to them at the present time without considering fit in the future.

Research in the ASA paradigm (Schneider, 1987) might benefit from further investigation of the dynamics suggested by this dissertation. ASA theory has relied heavily on employees' decisions about leaving organizations when they perceive that they are not good fits; the manager's role in the "attrition" portion of the equation has not received as much attention. The findings here suggest that managers might send signals to employees about their fit and that this can initiate the attrition process (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). It is also possible that managers may try a different set of tactics to deal with employee misfit when it is first noticed compared to when poor fit has been exhibited for a longer period of time. It is possible that managers initially take constructive approaches to managing misfits (e.g., provide more coaching or consider alternative assignments) but deal with chronic misfits in more aggressive ways (e.g., engage in abusive behavior toward employees or initiate dismissal proceedings).

Related to the preceding point, future research might also investigate how managers' perceptions of employee fit change over time. Although the dissertation did not find significant interaction effects between antecedents and the length of the manager-employee relationship, there are other avenues to explore regarding how time impacts managers' perceptions of employee fit. If new hires are perceived by managers to have good fit (Cable & Judge, 1997) but, over time, these perceptions change, it is important to consider the factors that cause those changes in perceptions. Some of the change, for example, may be attributed to employees' impression management tactics used during the interview and hiring process (Kristof-Brown, Barrick, & Franke, 2002). Slippages in fit could also be due to personal changes experienced in the aging process (Feldman & Vogel, 2009). Employees' skills might become obsolete over time and their personal needs can change as they age; consequently, their managers' perceptions of their fit may change, too. Some of the change, though, could be due to organizational factors. The organization's socialization program may have failed to achieve its goal of indoctrinating employees into the values and expectations of the organization (Cable & Parsons, 2001). Alternatively, changes to the organization's mission, goals, or top management team may make some employees poor fits with the new organizational environment (Caldwell et al., 2004). Furthermore, some of the change in fit perceptions could be due to the supervisor. Supervisors may not adequately train, mentor, or coach their employees; this could lead to a mismatch in abilities to demands or to value incongruence.

Shipp and her colleagues (Boswell et al., 2009; Shipp & Jansen, 2011) stress that the relationship between fit and outcome variables can be understood more fully by

considering individuals' *prior* levels of P-E fit. For instance, an employee who was perceived by the manager to be a great fit one year ago and who is now perceived to be a moderate fit (i.e., a change from 5 to 3 on a 5-point Likert scale) may be treated less hospitably than an employee who was perceived to be a poor fit one year ago and who has the same level of current fit as the first employee (i.e., a change from 1 to 3 on a 5-point Likert scale). In other words, an employee whose fit has increased may be perceived more favorably than an employee whose fit has decreased, even if their current levels of fit are identical. The way that these changes in managers' perceptions of employee fit correspond with changes in attitudes and behaviors toward employees, then, might also be an interesting avenue for further study.

Future research might also examine managers' assessments of employee fit at different levels of the environment. As Vogel and Feldman (2009) point out, self-perceptions of fit with the vocation (P-V fit) and with the group (P-G fit) are important in the prediction of employees' attitudes and behaviors; similar dynamics could exist in terms of managers' perceptions of fit as well. For example, managers' assessments of the suitability of the employee for his/her chosen vocation may directly impact managers' assessments of employees' fit with the organization and job or may have direct effects on managers' attitudes toward employees. Thus, senior accounting managers may not perceive extraverted, fun-loving job applicants as good fits—regardless of their skill levels—simply because they do not 'fit' with the manager's conceptualization of other members of the accounting profession.

In the same way, managers' assessments of employees' fit with the other members of the workgroup could influence their overall assessments of employee fit

(Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). Team dynamics are influenced by the fit among team members' personalities and moods (Barsade et al., 2000); some managers may think about employee fit in terms of how well an individual will get along with the other members of the workgroup or how the entire workgroup gets along as a whole. For some first-line supervisors with a great deal of day-to-day contact with immediate subordinates, perceptions of P-G fit might be more important than P-O fit in hiring or promotion decisions. Moreover, given the homophily bias, we might expect managers to extend more empowering and supportive behavior to subordinates they perceive to have high P-G fit.

Managers' perceptions of employee fit might be fruitfully integrated into research on job embeddedness, too (Burton, Holtom, Sablinski, Mitchell, & Lee, 2010; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). A manager may be willing to look past a relatively minor misfit at work if he/she believes that the employee is likely to be a loyal, stable member of the company. Over time, the manager might expect that the employee's fit with the job will improve as the employee is highly motivated to perform at a level that secures job stability (Schneider, 1987). Another area of potential interest would be the interrelationships of fit with links and sacrifice, the other two components of embeddedness. Mitchell et al.'s (2001) work suggests that fit, links, and sacrifice all operate in the same direction to embed employees in their jobs. However, employees could have low levels of P-J fit yet still have numerous links in the company or community. Indeed, an employee who is over-rewarded (that is, one with poor fit but well paid) would be especially highly embedded because he/she could not get a better deal elsewhere (Ng & Feldman, 2008).

Last here, the psychological contract literature might also benefit from incorporating a greater focus on managers' assessments of employee fit. Most research on psychological contracts focuses exclusively on the perspective of the individual; however, much less is known about how managers or the organization views the congruence of organizational inducements to individual contributions (Shore et al., 2004). Investigating managers' perspectives of employees' fulfillment of psychological contracts might help us better understand managers' resource allocation decisions to employees. That is, managers' perceptions' of employees' unfulfilled commitments may be associated with negative treatment of the employee (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Further, managers' perceptions about employees' fit and decisions to honor psychological contracts are influenced by how other firms view their employees (Ng & Feldman, 2008). For example, when employees have external offers, managers' perceptions of an employee's fit might be elevated. In contrast, when managers perceive employees cannot get outside offers, they might lower their assessments of employee fit and be more cavalier about breaching psychological contracts.

Methodological Considerations

There are several ways in which the methodology for studying managers' perceptions of employee fit could be improved. First, researchers should investigate the extent to which the congruence of managers' separate assessments of the employee and the work environment relate both to managers' *perceptions* of employee fit and to managers' *treatment* of employees. Some researchers have suggested that employees' self-assessments of objective fit and perceptual fit represent different concepts and have very different nomological networks (Edwards, 2008; Edwards et al., 2006; Kristof-

Brown & Guay, 2010). Other researchers have noted that perceptual fit mediates the relationships between objective fit and work outcomes (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1997). Assessing managers' evaluations of employee fit using indirect, objective measures is an important next step in the investigation of employee fit from the manager's perspective.

The results of this dissertation also suggest that managers make assessments of the match or congruence of employees' characteristics to organizational characteristics. Without assessing these dimensions separately, though, it is difficult to make conclusions about whether managers' perceptions of employee fit are caused by a general perception of the employee held by the manager (Edwards et al., 2006). More work separating dimensions of fit from overall perceptions of fit is needed.

In order to do so, researchers should use more sophisticated methodological tools to measure and evaluate congruence (e.g., polynomial regression, response surface graphing). Polynomial regression techniques allow researchers to assess whether the variance explained in outcome variables is due more to the person dimension, to the environment dimension, or to the congruence between the two dimensions (Edwards, 2001). Response surface graphing allows researchers to illustrate the precise nature of relationships among person, environment, and outcome variables in three dimensions. In addition to determining how managers' perceptions of employee fit correspond with objective measures of fit, these methodological tools can also be used to evaluate the three-dimensional relationship between managers' perceptions of employee fit, employees' self-perceptions of fit, and employee work outcomes, we would expect that more positive manager-employee relationships would occur when employees' self-perceptions of fit are congruent with managers' perceptions of employee fit.

Future research should also employ longitudinal research designs to investigate the role of change in managers' perceptions of employee fit. As discussed earlier, changes in managers' assessments of fit might explain much of the variance in managers' attitudes and behaviors toward employees. Investigations of change of perceptions of fit would be strong if researchers tracked employees from the time of their hire (or from the time of their initial interactions with their immediate supervisors). Indeed, research suggests that there are strong primacy effects in these relationships, with early exchanges setting the tone for much that follows (Liden et al., 1993).

Qualitative methods (e.g., structured interviews) might be especially useful in researching how managers' perceptions of employee fit change. They allow researchers to understand why managers' perceptions have changed and how managers make sense of those changes (Shipp & Jansen, 2011). These methods might also be employed to understand whether managers consciously think about employee fit; moreover, as Kristof-Brown (2000) demonstrated, there are a wide variety of dimensions upon which managers assess others' fit.

Last here, there may be alternative ways of operationalizing manager-employee similarity (cf. Riordan, 2000) that might prove useful in conjunction with the measure of demographic similarity used in this dissertation. For example, similarity could be conceptualized as "deep-level" similarity (e.g., similarity on values, personality, etc.) rather than "surface-level" similarity which demographic similarity taps. Furthermore, similarity could be tapped using perceptual measures. However, perceptual measures of similarity may also be conflated with managers' affective reactions to employees (Edwards et al., 2006).

Conclusion

Our understanding of P-E fit between employees and their work environments has been limited by considering only employees' self-perceptions of fit. Managers' perceptions of employee fit provide a useful and complementary perspective to the standing body of research on P-E fit and help us understand the antecedents and consequences of employee fit more fully. In addition, this dissertation highlights the importance of employee performance as an antecedent as well as a consequence of fit and focuses attention on supervisor treatment of employees as an important outcome of fit along with employee attitudes.

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APPENDIX A

STUDY ONE SURVEY ITEMS

Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit

Prompt: Please read the following statements and indicate the extent to which this employee “fits” at work.

Scale points: 1 = Not at all; 2 = To Almost No Degree; 3 = To Some Degree; 4 = To a Large Degree; 5 = Completely

1. To what extent does this employee fit with your organization?
2. To what extent is this employee similar to other employees in your organization?
3. To what extent do other employees think this employee fits well in your organization?
4. How confident are you that this employee is compatible with your organization?
5. To what extent does this employee fit the demands of his/her job?
6. To what extent do other employees think this employee is qualified to do his/her job?
7. How confident are you that this employee is qualified for his/her job?

Task Performance

Prompt: Please rate the extent to which this employee typically displays each behavior.

Scale points: 1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Quite Often; 5 = Very Often

1. Adequately completes assigned duties.
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description.
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.
4. Meets formal requirements of the job.
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.

Relationship Quality

Prompt: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements while referring to this employee.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. I usually let this employee know where he or she stands with me.
2. I think that I understand this employee's problems and needs.
3. I think that I recognize this employee's potential.

4. Regardless of how much formal authority I have, I would be personally inclined to use my power to help this employee solve problems in his or her work.
5. I would be willing to “bail out” this employee even at my own expense, if he or she really needed it.
6. I have enough confidence in this employee that I would defend and justify his or her decisions if he or she were not present do to so.
7. How would you describe your working relationship with this employee? (1 = Extremely Ineffective; 2 = Worse than Average; 3 = Average; 4 = Better than Average; 5 = Extremely Effective)

Trust in the Employee

Prompt: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements while referring to this employee.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. If I had my way, I would *not* let this employee have any influence over issues that are important to me (reverse-scored).
2. I would be willing to let this employee have complete control over my future in this company.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on this employee (reverse-scored).
4. I would be comfortable giving this employee a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could monitor his or her actions.

Perceived Similarity

Prompt: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about this employee.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. This employee and I are similar in terms of our outlook, perspective, and values.
2. I think that this employee and I are alike in a number of areas.
3. I think that this employee and I see things in much the same way.

Interpersonal Liking

Prompt: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements about this employee.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. I like this employee very much as a person.
2. I think this employee would make a great friend.

APPENDIX B

STUDY TWO SURVEY ITEMS

Employee Hired or Promoted by the Manager (manager-rated)

Scale points: 1 = No; 2 = Yes

1. Did you have input into the decision to hire/promote this employee to his/her present position?

Frequency of Job Changes (manager-rated)

1. Since this employee finished his/her formal education, how many jobs would you say that he/she has had?
2. How many years would you estimate this employee has worked since leaving formal schooling?

Perceptions of Employees' Non-Work Identity Salience (manager-rated)

Prompt: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements, while referring to this employee.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. The major satisfactions in this employee's life seem to come from his/her family.
2. The most important things that happen to this employee involve his/her family.

Core Task Performance (manager-rated)

Prompt: The following items are behaviors that employees sometimes perform. Please indicate the extent to which this employee has performed these behaviors over the past 3 months.

Scale points: 1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Quite Often; 5 = Very Often

1. Adequately completed assigned duties.
2. Fulfilled responsibilities specified in the job description.
3. Performed tasks that are expected of him/her.
4. Met formal requirements of the job.
5. Engaged in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.
6. Neglected aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform (reverse-scored).
7. Failed to perform essential duties (reverse-scored).

Citizenship Behavior (manager-rated)

Prompt: The following items are behaviors that employees sometimes perform. Please indicate the extent to which this employee has performed these behaviors over the past 3 months.

Scale points: 1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Quite Often; 5 = Very Often

1. Went out of his or her way to be a good employee.
2. Was respectful of other people's needs.
3. Displayed loyalty to our organization.
4. Praised or encouraged someone.
5. Volunteered to do something that was not required.
6. Showed genuine concern for others.
7. Tried to uphold the values of our organization.
8. Tried to be considerate of others.

Counterproductive Work Behavior (manager-rated)

Prompt: The following items are behaviors that employees sometimes perform. Please indicate the extent to which this employee has performed these behaviors over the past 3 months.

Scale points: 1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Quite Often; 5 = Very Often

1. Spent time on tasks unrelated to work.
2. Gossiped about others at work.
3. Did not work to the best of his or her ability.
4. Said or did something that was unpleasant.
5. Did not fully comply with my instructions.
6. Behaved in an unfriendly manner.
7. Spoke poorly about the organization to others.
8. Talked badly about people behind their backs.

Managers' Perceptions of Employee Fit (manager-rated)

Prompt: Please read the following statements and indicate the extent to which this employee "fits" at work.

Scale points: 1 = Not at all; 2 = To Almost No Degree; 3 = To Some Degree; 4 = To a Large Degree; 5 = Completely

1. To what extent does this employee fit with your organization?
2. To what extent is this employee similar to other employees in your organization?
3. To what extent do other employees think this employee fits well in your organization?
4. How confident are you that this employee is compatible with your organization?
5. To what extent does this employee fit the demands of his/her job?
6. To what extent do other employees think this employee is qualified to do his/her job?
7. How confident are you that this employee is qualified for his/her job?

Managers' Supportive Behavior (employee-rated)

Prompt: This section describes ways in which managers sometimes act toward employees. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement about how your manager acts, specifically toward you.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. My manager takes my goals and values into consideration when making decisions that affect me.
2. My manager helps when I have a problem.
3. My manager really cares about my well-being.
4. My manager would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
5. My manager is willing to help me when I need a special favor.
6. If given the opportunity, my manager would take advantage of me personally (reverse-scored).
7. My manager shows very little concern for me (reverse-scored).
8. My manager cares about my opinions.

Managers' Fair Treatment of Employees (employee-rated)

Prompt: This section describes ways in which managers sometimes act toward employees. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement about how your manager acts, specifically toward you.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. My manager usually gives me a fair deal.
2. My manager is a fair person.
3. Fairness is the word that best describes my manager.

Managers' Close Monitoring (employee-rated)

Prompt: This section describes ways in which managers sometimes act toward employees. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement about how your manager acts, specifically toward you.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. It sometimes feels like my manager is always looking over my shoulder.
2. I am careful not to do things that my manager might disapprove of.
3. My manager keeps pretty close tabs on me.
4. It is clear to me that to get ahead in this company, I need to do exactly what I am told.
5. My manager likes to see things done in a certain way.
6. My work is constantly being evaluated.

Managers' Empowering Behaviors (employee-rated)

Prompt: This section describes ways in which managers sometimes act toward employees. Please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement about how your manager acts, specifically toward you.

Scale points: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree

1. My manager helps me understand how my objectives and goals relate to those of the company.
2. My manager helps me understand the importance of my work to the overall effectiveness of the company.
3. My manager helps me understand how my job fits into the bigger picture.
4. My manager makes many decisions together with me.
5. My manager often consults me on strategic decisions.
6. My manager solicits my opinion on decisions that may affect me.
7. My manager believes that I can handle demanding tasks.
8. My manager believes in my ability to improve even when I make mistakes.
9. My manager expresses confidence in my ability to perform at a high level.
10. My manager allows me to do my job my way.
11. My manager makes it more efficient for me to do my job by keeping the rules and regulations simple.
12. My manager allows me to make important decisions quickly to satisfy customer needs.

Rewards and Bonuses (manager-rated)

Scale points: 1 = Among the lowest in his/her group; 2 = Below Average; 3 = Average; 4 = Above Average; 5 = Among the top in his/her group

1. The pay raises and bonuses you recommended for this employee over the past year were: