EFFECTS OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT ON EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES AND

BEHAVIORS: EVIDENCE FROM THE PUBLIC AND NON-PROFIT SECTORS

by

TAESIK YUN

(Under the Direction of Barry Bozeman)

ABSTRACT

Scholars have long been searching for ways to improve individual and organizational

outcomes and theories of person-environment fit have suggested its importance in relation to

employee attitudes and behaviors. However, previous research on fit has not been very

successful in providing integrating knowledge and empirical evidence to support it. This

dissertation seeks to explore the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors in the

public and non-profit sectors. In order to achieve this objective, this study first provides a

comprehensive review on conceptualizations, operationalizations, and measurement of P-E fit.

Then, chapter three introduces two sets of subjective P-E fit measures (i.e., OFM and AFM)

developed in this study based on the conceptualization of needs-supplies fit. Next, this study

examines the effects of P-E fit, as a multi-dimensional construct, on employee attitudes and

behaviors.

The results from O-logit regression models show that P-E fit is an important determinant

of satisfaction, commitment, and work motivation. Specifically, they suggest that P-O fit,

compared to P-J fit, has a greater impact on organizational commitment and job satisfaction

while the findings from OFM and AFM show a mixed result for work motivation. For the effects

of P-E fit on behavioral outcomes, the results from this dissertation partially support that P-E fit is a significant predictor of prosocial behavior and employee absenteeism. For example, the evidence from OFM support that P-E fit is a positive determinant of employees' civic participation but it does not explain the variations in volunteering hours of employees.

Overall, the findings from this dissertation suggest that P-E fit is a significant determinant of employee attitudes while requiring further evidence regarding behavioral outcomes. Findings also suggest that P-O fit, compared to P-J fit, has a greater impact on employee attitudes and behaviors in the public and non-profit sectors. The sectoral differences for the effects of P-E fit have been also found in some areas. Chapter six discusses the implications of these findings as well as suggestions for future research on the topic.

INDEX WORDS: Person-environment fit, Person-job fit, Person-organization fit, Job choice motivation, Job satisfaction, Work motivation, Organizational commitment, Prosocial behavior, Absenteeism

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Jiyoung Jung, to my daughter, Tae-Young, to

my son, Jang-Ho, to my parents-in-law, Tae-Hwan Jung and Jung-Soon Lim, to my mother,

Kwang-Rei Choi, and to my deceased father, Kyoung Yun for their endless support and love.

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Human Psychology and Person-Environment Fit

Scholars and practitioners have long been searching for ways to improve individual and organizational outcomes regardless of the sector (Bozeman, 1987). From Taylor's scientific management to New Public Management (NPM), managing human resources has been always one of the most important tasks for public managers to improve the performance of their workforce in most organizations (Nigro, Nigro, & Kellough, 2006). The early Taylorism emphasized the division of work and the standardization of procedure steps in improving productivity. However, this approach had been criticized for oversimplifying the role of human factors at work and for requiring a high level of managerial control over workers to be successful. On the other hand, the human relations movement, commenced with the Hawthorne studies in 1930s, aroused people's attention to the effects of human psychology on individual and organizational outcomes, viewing workers in terms of their psychology and fit with organizations, rather than as interchangeable parts (Rainey, 2003).

This change in the managerial perspective led researchers to focus more on psychological factors of employees and their relationships with employee attitudes and behaviors. Although numerous studies have contributed to the establishment of important theoretical foundations and provided meaningful findings in this area for more than a half century in the past (e.g., Vroom, 1964; Locke, 1976), scholars suggest that many areas of human motivation have not been

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revealed. For example, Perry and Hondeghem (2008) recently pointed out that the forces or conditions that bring about motivation at work are not only bound by the work itself but also influenced by the needs and motives of individuals along with their environmental factors. However, relatively few studies have investigated this possibility rigorously. In other words, despite the importance of human psychology and its relationship with employees' working environment in managing public workforce, little research has paid attention to finding the influence of this interactive relationship between the characteristics of employees and their environmental factors at work.

Theories of person-environment (P-E) interaction have been one of the most appraisable such efforts of psychological theorizing and have been prevalent in the management literature for more than a century (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Schneider, 2001). The concept of P-E fit emerged from the interactionist backdrop, emphasizing the importance of fit between a person and a work environment. It is almost axiomatic that people are differently compatible with their environmental factors at work, such as jobs, groups, peers, organizations, and vocations (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson, 2005). For example, some individuals are compatible with their organization while others have difficulties with being compatible with the organization. In other cases, a person who has hard time working in an organization may be easily compatible with tasks and people in other organizations. For these reasons, the concept of P-E fit has been "so pervasive as to be one of, if not the dominant conceptual forces in the field" (Schneider, 2001, p. 142).

P-E fit studies have contributed to and been influenced by several areas in the literature, such as vocational choice and preparation (e.g., Bretz, Rynes, & Gerhart, 1993; Holland, 1985; Schneider, 1987), employee selection (e.g., Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994; Chuang & Sackett,

2005; Kristof-Brown, 2000), satisfaction (e.g., Bizot & Goldman, 1993), motivation (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980), work adjustment (e.g., Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), and turnover (e.g., Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

1.2 Research on Person-Environment Fit

Previous research on P-E fit can be categorized into three areas. The first stream of research centers on the conceptualization, operationalization, and measurement of P-E fit. Studies on fit have often focused on a single dimensional construct, either person-job (P-J) fit, person-vocation (P-V) fit, or person-organization (P-O) fit (e.g., Chatman, 1989; Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). These studies have found that each dimension of P-E fit has its own distinctive characteristics (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Sekiguchi, 2004). Other scholars also suggest that P-E fit may be a multi-dimensional construct (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Hinkle & Choi, 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998). To better understand the dimensions of P-E fit, it is necessary to have a more comprehensive review on various conceptualizations, operationalizations, and measures of fit (e.g., complementary and supplementary fit; direct and indirect fit). However, only few studies have met such expectation in the field (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

The second stream of P-E fit research includes a series of studies that have investigated the role of P-E fit in relation to employee selection. While some research has examined factors related to the screening stage (e.g., organizational attraction), most studies on employee selection have focused on the relationship between P-E fit and applicants' or recruiters' behaviors in the

selection stage. Scholars have found that P-E fit is an important predictor of hiring

recommendations, job offer decisions, and job choice decisions (e.g., Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan,

1991; Chatman, 1989; Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof-Brown, 2000; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990;

Schmidt & Hunter, 1998; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). Interviews and resumes have been

suggested as the two most frequently used methods for measuring fit as well as examining its

effect on behavioral outcomes in employee selection (Kristof-Brown, 2000; Sekiguchi, 2004).

The last stream of P-E fit research has mainly focused on examining the effects of P-E fit

on individual and organizational outcomes. Studies examining individual outcomes often focus

on employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work motivation,

or behaviors, such as task performance, contextual performance, absenteeism, intention to quit,

and turnover (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bretz & Judge, 1994; Chatman, 1991; Downey,

Hellriegel, & Slocum, 1975; Edwards, 1991; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Ivancevich &

Matteson, 1984; Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Rousseau & Parks,

1992; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Silverthorne, 2004; Tziner, 1987; Vancouver et al., 1994). On the

other hand, research on organizational outcomes has been mostly devoted to examining the role

of P-E fit in relation to organizational culture and performance (e.g., Cable and DeRue, 2002;

Chatman, 1989).

These three main streams of research on fit provide a firm ground for understanding the

basic concept of P-E fit and a potential link between P-E fit and employee attitudes and

behaviors. However, previous research has not been very successful in providing an integrating

perspective on P-E fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). For example, studies have focused only on a

single dimension of P-E fit, often either P-J or P-O fit. The lack of comprehensive review on its

conceptualization, measurement, and construct limits our knowledge on fit. In addition, although

scholars have suggested P-E fit may be a multi-dimensional concept, previous literature lacks

empirical evidence supporting the multi-dimensional construct. Furthermore, the interactive

effects of potential moderators for the relationship between P-E fit and employee attitudes and

behaviors are relatively unknown (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005). In other

words, despite the promising potential for practical applications, a great portion of research

remains unrevealed.

1.3 Purpose and Significance of This Dissertation

P-E fit has a potential to become one of the most important concepts in management

literature for its great influence on employee attitudes and behaviors throughout organizational

life cycle (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). Accordingly, researchers have attempted to discover

the effects of P-E fit in various work settings. Unfortunately, these efforts have not been very

successful in providing an integrating, consistent perspective on its concept and measures. For

example, previous research on fit suggests that P-E fit may be a multi-dimensional construct,

each dimension (or type) of P-E fit having its own distinctive characteristics (Kristof-Brown et

al., 2005). However, only few studies have attempted to examine this possibility empirically (e.g.,

Cable & Edwards, 2004; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). In addition, previous research suggests

that P-E fit is an important predictor of employee attitudes and behaviors (Kristof, 1996;

O'Reilly et al., 1991). However, little empirical evidence exists to support these arguments.

More importantly, despite its great potential and utility, little research on P-E fit has been

conducted in the field of public administration and management (e.g., Christensen & Wright,

2011; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008). Scholars suggest that employees in different sectors may

have different motivational orientation toward work (Perry & Wise, 1990; Rainey, 2003). Since

individuals seek their jobs based on their motivational orientation and values, and organizations attract their employees by providing different sets of incentives and rewards, it is possible for people with different motivations to fit differently by sector settings.

In this vein, this study aims to fill-in the research gap in the literature, by first providing a comprehensive review on various conceptualizations, operationalizations, and measurements of fit. Second, this study develops its own measures of fit between a person and a work environment that can be used to assess various dimensions of P-E fit, based on the review provided in this study. Then, this study investigates whether P-E fit can be viewed as a multi-dimensional concept, supported by empirical evidence. This study also examines the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors, followed by analyses of sectoral differences.

This study can make several contributions to the field of public administration and management. First, the introduction of the concept of P-E fit into the study of administration can help organizations select individuals with better fit to their organizations from the hiring stages. This will allow organizations to have more compatible and stable workforce, reducing costs of rehiring procedures as well as costs for organizational education for newcomers. Second, the use of P-E fit in managing the public workforce can help organizations manage their employees more effectively while they are employed. Improving fit with employees can help organizations retain their current workforce, minimizing organizational costs regarding employee absenteeism and turnover. Third, the fit measures developed in this study can be more broadly applied to measuring other dimensions of P-E fit and contributed to providing further empirical evidence further on the utility of the multi-dimensional P-E fit construct as it is designed to assess various fit dimensions with different constructs. I believe these practical and methodological strengths of this study will help the study of public administration and management move forward.

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1.4 Outline of the Dissertation

This study is organized into six chapters. The first chapter is the introduction, which provides a brief background on the concept of and previous research on P-E fit, the purpose and significance of the study, as well as an outline of the dissertation. Chapter two provides a comprehensive literature review on various conceptualizations, operationalizations, and measurement of P-E fit. The chapter also discusses findings from previous research on the role of P-E fit in employment selection stages and the effects of P-E fit on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Finally, the chapter introduces potential moderators that might affect the relationship between P-E fit and employee attitudes and behaviors, followed by a brief discussion of sectoral difference. In order to answer research questions addressed earlier in this study, several hypotheses are provided throughout the chapter accordingly.

Chapter three presents the methodology of this study, which includes a description of data, operationalization and measurement of the variables, specifications of the models, and methods of analyses. Chapter four and five provide the results of empirical analyses and discuss the findings. While chapter four reports the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work motivation), chapter five discusses the effects of P-E fit on behavioral outcomes of employees (i.e., prosocial behaviors, absenteeism). Finally, chapter six summarizes findings from this study and discusses their theoretical and practical implications, followed by suggestions for future research on the topic.

CHAPTER 2

PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

The reason why scholars have been paying more attention to the concept of P-E fit

recently would be because it influences employees' attitudes and behaviors in every phase of

their organizational life cycle (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). For example, studies have found

that P-E fit affects an individual's: 1) decision to join an organization (Arthur, Bell, Villado, &

Doverspike, 2006; Cable & Judge, 1996; Carless, 2005; Chuang & Sackett, 2005); 2) attitudinal

and behavioral outcomes while employed (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bretz & Judge, 1994;

Downey et al., 1975; Edwards, 1991; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Ivancevich &Matteson, 1984;

Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof, 1996; Rousseau & Parks, 1992; Ryan & Schmit, 1996;

Silverthorne, 2004; Tziner, 1987); and 3) decision to leave their organizations (Chatman, 1991;

O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vancouver et al., 1994).

From organizations' perspective, understanding P-E fit is also important because the

match between an organization and its employees may affect: 1) hiring recommendations or

employment decisions (Kristof-Brown, 2000; Sekiguchi, 2004); 2) organizational productivity or

performance (Cable and DeRue, 2002); 3) organizational culture (Chatman, 1989; Silverthorne,

2004); and 4) organizational survival in rapidly changing environment (Brides, 1994; Kristof-

Brown et al., 2005).

While its importance seems to be evident for both individuals and organizations, the

concept of P-E fit has not been clearly understood. P-E fit has been often broadly defined as the

"compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005: 281). This broad definition, however, has led to various conceptualizations, operationalizations, and measures of P-E fit, making it harder to integrate knowledge on the subject. For example, although several attempts have been made to provide a comprehensive review on the topic (e.g., Chuang & Sackett, 2005; Holland, 1997; Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Morley, 2007; Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995; Sekiguchi, 2004), most of such efforts resulted in covering only one or some of the following areas: 1) the conceptualizations and operationalizations of P-E fit; 2) the validity of P-E fit measures; 3) the role of P-E fit in employee selection; and 4) the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors. The lack of integration in P-E fit research have not only limited our understanding on its concept but also restricted its wide application in practice.

In this vein, this chapter attempts to provide a comprehensive review on P-E fit, by integrating knowledge from previous literature on the topic. The review begins with summarizing various conceptualizations, operationalizations, and measures of P-E fit. Then, the chapter continues to discuss the roles of P-E fit in employee selection stages, followed by a summary of findings from previous research on the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors. Finally, the chapter introduces potential moderators that might affect the relationship between P-E fit and employee attitudes and behaviors, with a brief discussion of sectoral differences. A number of hypotheses for testing are proposed throughout the chapter in order to answer research questions addressed in the previous chapter.

2.1 Conceptualizations of P-E Fit

Scholars have pointed out that fit is often defined elusively in the literature, arguing that an imprecise or inconsistent definition could result in misoperationalizations, inadequate measures, and conflicting results (Rynes and Gerhart, 1990; Schwab, 1980). Thus, providing a clear definition is critical for securing internal and external validity when conducting empirical research. As discussed earlier in the chapter, P-E fit could be defined as "the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005: 281). For understand the concept of P-E fit in this definition, answering the following two questions would be necessary: 1) "what are the characteristics that an individual could share with the work environments?"; and 2) "what are the types of work environments that an individual might interact with?" While the first question is related to the contents (or constructs) of P-E fit, the second question focuses on the levels (or sub-dimensions) of P-E fit.

Theoretical Frameworks

Several theoretical frameworks have contributed to the development of this conceptualization on P-E fit. The theory of work adjustment (TWA), for example, suggests that P-E fit reflects the degree to which: 1) employees' biological and psychological needs are satisfied through reinforcers provided by organizations; and 2) organizational requirements are fulfilled by employee abilities (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969). According to the TWA, employees or organizations will engage in work adjustment behaviors when their needs are not satisfied (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Another theoretical contribution to P-E fit literature came from the Schneider's attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) model (Schneider, 1987). The ASA model

proposes that individuals are attracted to, and select, organizations that share similar

characteristics (e.g., traits, values, goals, and preferences). According to the ASA framework,

only employees who fit remain in their organizations over time, making the composition of

organizational members more homogenous on shared characteristics, such as traits (Schneider,

Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998), values (Giberson, Resick, & Dickson, 2005), and preferences

(Schneider, 1987). The ASA model has contributed to conceptualizing supplementary P-E fit

while the TWA became the foundation of conceptualizing complementary fit.

Supplementary Fit vs. Complementary Fit

As discussed above, the most common definition of P-E fit suggests that person-

environment congruence is the key for measuring the degree of fit or match between the two sets

of variables. However, what exactly constitutes the fit or match has not been clearly understood

(Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In an effort to resolve the ambiguity in the concept, Muchinsky and

Monahan (1987) proposed two distinct conceptualizations of P-E fit: *supplementary fit and*

complementary fit. Supplementary fit occurs when a person supplements or possesses

characteristics which are similar to those of the environment while complementary fit occurs

when a person's characteristics "make whole" the environment or complement what is missing

in the environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 271).

Then, what are important characteristics that consist of supplementary and

complementary fit? Figure 2.1 shows various contents that could be used to operationalize

supplementary and complementary fit between a person and a work environment (see Figure 2.1

for detail). For example, personality traits, values, goals, norms, or attitudes could be used to

operationalize supplementary fit between a person and a work environment. Among these

characteristics, the most frequently used operationalization of supplementary fit is the congruence between a person's values and those of an organization (e.g., Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Chatman, 1991; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Kristof-Brown, 2000). Value congruence has been also used for measuring person-culture fit due to its fundamental and enduring effect on organizational culture and employee behaviors (Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schein, 1992). Another commonly used content of supplementary fit is the goal congruency between a person and a work environment (e.g., Schneider, 1987; Vancouver et al., 1994; Witt & Nye, 1992). Although early studies on interpersonal attraction theories viewed that supplementary fit is essentially a model of person-person (P-P) fit (Byrne, 1971; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Schneider, 1987), other scholars have expanded the utility of supplementary fit into the domains of person-group (P-G), or person-organization (P-O) fit (e.g., Adkins et al., 1994; Cable & Judge, 1996; Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Witt & Nye, 1992).

For complementary fit, researchers suggest two different types of fit: *demands-abilities fit* and *needs-supplies fit*. A person can provide time, effort, and experience as well as task-related knowledge, skills, abilities (KSAs) that a job or an organization requires while a work environment can supply financial, physical, and psychological resources to an individual who needs them (see Figure 2.1 for detail). Demands-abilities fit basically occurs when an individual has the abilities required to meet environmental demands (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987) while needs-supplies fit occurs when an environment satisfies an individual's needs, desires, or preferences (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996).

Several theories of need fulfillment (e.g., Locke, 1976; Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985) suggest that needs-supplies fit is "the primary mechanism" of influencing employee

attitudes because "people will experience more positive job attitudes when their needs are satisfied" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 288). Thus, although it is possible that supplementary and demands-abilities fit may have influence on employee attitudes (Van Vianen, 2000), needs-supplies fit would have more direct and stronger effects on employee attitudes and behaviors because it focuses on how individual needs are met by their work environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). For this reason, this study develops fit measures based on the concept of a needs-supplies fit and hypothesizes that P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a significant predictor of employee attitudes and behaviors (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work motivation, prosocial behaviors, and absenteeism). That is, higher level of individual fit with work environment will positively affect job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work motivation, prosocial behavior, and employee absenteeism (see Table 2.1 for details).

H1: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a significant positive predictor of employee attitudes and behaviors.

2.2 Sub-Dimensions of P-E Fit

When an individual performs a job or task in a work setting, it requires interactions with different types of environmental entities. For example, when a person has a job or task to perform, the person performs his or her job, often interacting with other individuals within a group or an organization. The person and the environments may share similar characteristics (i.e., supplementary fit) or exchange what they need each other (i.e., complementary fit). The environment a person interacts with could be a vocation, job, group, organization, or other

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individuals (e.g., supervisors, peers, and subordinates). These different types of work environments could construct each dimension of P-E fit.

Person-Vocation (P-V) Fit

The broadest level of the work environment a person may fit with is the vocational level (Kristof, 1996). P-V fit is based on a belief that people choose an occupation that has characteristics similar to their self-concepts (Holland, 1977; Super, 1953). Thus, P-V fit is determined by measuring the similarity between a person's personalities and those of a vocational environment. Holland's (1985) code theory, for example, suggests that people can be divided into six different categories using the RIASEC typology (i.e., realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional personality types) and argues that people will be much more satisfied if they make career choices based on their personality, interests, and values (Holland, 1985). Although these theories may be useful in predicting career choices and explaining vocational satisfaction, they do not contribute to making predictions of fit with particular jobs or organizations (Kristof, 1996).

Person-Job (P-J) Fit

P-J fit has been one of the most well-studied dimensions of P-E fit, along with P-O fit (Kristof, 1996). P-J fit can be narrowly defined as the fit between a person's characteristics and those of a job performed at work (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Sekiguchi, 2004). According to Edwards (1991), P-J fit can be conceptualized as the compatibility between a person's abilities and the demands of a job (i.e., *demands-abilities fit*) or the match between the desires or needs of a person and the attributes of a job (i.e., *needs-supplies fit*) (Edwards, 1991). In fact, this

typology of P-J fit is very common in the literature and researchers widely accept this perspective that the relationship between a person and a job is essentially complementary, rather than supplementary (e.g., Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Sekiguchi, 2004). The reason why supplementary fit perspective may not apply to P-J fit would be because a particular job, compared to a vocation, a person, or the people in an organization, does not have specific or personal goals, values, or characteristics which an individual want to share with (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Undoubtedly, applicants or individuals are concerned with finding a job that meets their needs or desires. However, from the organizations' perspective, recruiters are most concerned with hiring employees who have the requisite KSAs in filling a particular position (Anderson & Ostroff, 1997; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). Thus, it is not strange to expect that high level of P-J fit from the needs-supplies fit perspective would lead to higher level of job satisfaction. Similarly, we can expect that higher level of P-J fit from the demands-abilities fit perspective would be most likely contribute to higher level of task performance (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Person-Group (P-G) Fit

Of all types of fit, P-G fit research is the most nascent but promising domain as work teams become more widely used in contemporary organizations (Guzzo & Salas, 1995; Whitford, Lee, Yun, & Jung, 2010). P-G fit can be simply defined as the interpersonal compatibility between individuals and their work groups (Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof, 1996, Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). The literature on P-G fit is often related to studies on team or group composition and coworker similarity on demographic variables (e.g., Klimoski & Jones, 1995; Riordan, 2000).

Several studies of group composition argue that homogeneity of group composition is a driving force for effective team composition, supporting the argument from ASA framework (Klimoski and Jones, 1995). They also suggest that goals (e.g., Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001; Shaw, 1981; Weldon & Weingart, 1993; Witt, 1998), values (e.g., Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996; Becker, 1992; Klimoski & Jones, 1995), and personality traits (e.g., Barsade, Ward, Turner, & Sonnenfeld, 2000; Driskell, Hogan, & Salas, 1987; Hackman & Morris, 1975; Hobman, Bordia, & Gallois, 2003; Slocombe & Bluedorn, 1999; Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001) influence attitudinal and behavioral outcomes for groups and their members. On the other hand, other studies based on a demands-abilities perspective on fit argue that work groups composed of members with heterogeneous knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) are more effective than those with homogeneous KSAs (e.g., Haythorn, 1968; Shaw, 1981).

However, it is important to recognize that composition is a group level variable whereas P-G fit is most frequently considered for individuals (Kristof, 1996). Only little research has emphasized the importance of psychological compatibility between a person and his or her work group (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In addition, few studies have examined antecedents of P-G fit or influence of the fit on individual outcomes (Kristof, 1996). In other words, despite its importance and promising potential due to high demand for teams in recent organizations, researchers have not been very successful in providing empirical evidence on P-G fit.

Person-Organization (P-O) Fit

Previous research on fit defines P-O fit as the compatibility between people and organizations (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005; Sekiguchi, 2004). Unlike P-J fit, which is considered more closely related to complementary fit concept, the operationalization of P-O fit is thought to

include both supplementary and complementary fit perspectives. Kristof (1996) identified four

potential operationalizations of P-O fit. The first operationalization of the fit focuses on

measuring similarity of fundamental values between people and organizations (e.g., Boxx et al.,

1991; Chatman, 1989; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Posner, 1992). Since values are "fundamental and

relatively enduring" (Chatman, 1991, p. 459), value congruence is the most frequently used and

significant form of P-O fit (Kristof, 1996).

The second operationalization of P-O fit centers on using goal congruence with

individuals and organizational leaders (e.g., Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). Although the

Schneider's (1987) ASA framework supports this operationalization of P-O fit and explains the

increase of within-organization homogeneity over time (Kristof, 1996), whether high level of

homogeneous composition within organizations would be more effective is still questionable.

The third common operationalization of P-O fit is the match between the characteristics

between individual personality and organizational climate or personality (e.g., Bowen et al.,

1991; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1984; Tom, 1971). This operationalization can be viewed as

reflecting supplementary fit as the first two operationalizations of P-O fit above. However,

Kristof (1996) interprets the third operationalization as a mixture of supplementary and needs-

supplies fit because the "measurement of organizational climate is frequently operationalized in

terms of organizational supplies (such as reward systems or communication patterns) and

individual personality is often construed in terms of needs" (Kristof, 1996, p. 6).

The last operationalization of P-O fit is the match between individual preferences or

needs and organizational systems and structures (e.g., Bretz, Ash, & Dreher, 1989; Cable &

Judge, 1994; Turban & Keon, 1993). Reflecting the strict needs-supplies fit perspective, this

operationalization can be thought to be rooted in various theories of work motivation (e.g.,

Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Locke, 1976; Murray, 1938; Vroom, 1964).

In short, these various conceptualizations and operationalizations of P-E fit provide a

useful theoretical framework that helps us to understand its contents and sub-dimensions. For

example, findings from previous research suggest that while P-J fit may play an important role in

understanding task performance and job satisfaction, P-O fit may have broader impacts on

employee attitudes and behaviors, including job satisfaction, work motivation, organizational

commitment, absenteeism, and turnover (Cable and DeRue, 2002; Carless, 2005; Chatman, 1989;

Kristof-Brown, 2000; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Silverthorne, 2004; Vancouver et al., 1994). Recent

studies on P-E fit also support that P-E fit might be a multi-dimensional construct (Cable &

DeRue, 2002; Hinkle & Choi, 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Law et al., 1998).

Based on the theories and arguments above, this study hypothesizes that P-E fit is a

multi-dimensional construct, each of its sub-dimension (i.e., P-J fit and P-O fit in this study)

having independent effects on employee attitudes and behaviors (see Table 2.1 for details).

H2: Each of the sub-dimensions of P-E fit has independent effects on employee attitudes
and behaviors.

2.3 Measurement of P-E Fit

Once we understand a construct that has been used to define P-E fit, it is critical that its

measurement should be aligned with its definition. In order to integrate the variety of

measurement strategies that have been used to assess P-E fit, "commensurability" between a

person and the environment must be discussed. It is often recommended to use commensurate

measurement—describing both person and environment with the same content dimensions—for assessing P-E fit because "it ensures mutual relevance of the characteristics under investigation" (Kristof, 1996, p. 9). However, it is difficult to achieve perfectly commensurate measures, especially when a construct has similar characteristics at different levels (e.g., individual vs. organization). In addition, when a construct contains latent characteristics or inherent multidimensionality, it would be more difficult to satisfy commensurability. For example, there are many ways to reward employees' achievement, such as offering merit bonuses, annual pay increases, paid vacations, promotion opportunities, and formal recognition ceremonies. In such cases, it is not necessary to strictly stick to commensurate measurement (Kristof, 1996).

Although some scholars suggest that commensurate dimensions are not necessary because a priori hypothesis can be employed to predict the fit of any individual characteristic in an environment (Patsfall & Feimer, 1985), it is probably desirable to have commensurate measurement, especially for supplementary fit, which requires the measurement of similarity between person and work environment. For complementary fit, Kristof (1996) suggests that "the level of commensurability should depend on the breadth of the construct under investigation" (Kristof, 1996, p. 10). In short, although the interpretation of commensurate measurement or the standard of commensurability can be debatable, researchers should strive to precisely define the constructs and dimensions they are investigating and specify the conceptual link between person and environment.

Direct Fit vs. Indirect Fit

Depending on whether fit is measured directly or indirectly, scholars distinguish direct fit from indirect fit (Kristof, 1996). *Direct fit* often refers to "perceived fit" because it is defined by

a direct assessment of compatibility (French, Rogers, & Cobb, 1974; Kristof, 1996; Sekiguchi, 2004). On the other hand, indirect fit is often called "actual fit", a term that is used to describe "measures in which researchers indirectly assess fit through explicit comparisons of separately rated P and E variables" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 291). Some scholars further divided such explicit comparisons into *subjective fit* and *objective fit* (e.g., French et al., 1974; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Subjective fit is defined as "the match between the person and environment as they are perceived and reported by the person" while objective fit is defined as the match between the person and the environment as "it exists independently of the person's perception of it" and reported by different sources (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 291). Although the terms, perceived and subjective fit, have been used interchangeably by some scholars (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002; Carless, 2005; Judge & Cable, 1997; Sekiguchi, 2004), this study adopts the perspective that the distinction between the two types of fit is necessary because the underlying cognitive processes are different.

In terms of measurement validity, perceived, subjective, and objective fit should have a close relationship when an individual accurately assesses him- or herself and the environment (French et al., 1974). In practice, however, these three types of fit are often only weakly related (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown & Stevens, 2001) due to individuals' propensity to positively rate self-concept and its environmental cues (French et al., 1974; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Thus, it is very likely that "perceived, subjective, and objective fit differ not only in how they are measured but also in what they represent conceptually" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 291).

Previous research on fit suggests that since individuals' evaluations of fit are based on "an implicit estimate of the congruence" of their own personal characteristics and the attributes

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of work environments (Carless, 2005, p. 413), and respondents apply their own weighting

scheme to various aspects of the environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), direct fit (i.e.,

perceived fit), compared to indirect fit (i.e., subjective and objective fit), is the most significant

proximal determinant of attitudes and behaviors (Cable & DuRue, 2002; Cable & Judge, 1997;

Caplan, 1987; Schneider et al., 1995). Indirect measures of subjective fit could be an effective

determinant of attitudes and behaviors as much as perceived fit if the separate ratings of P and E

dimensions are weighted equally because subjective fit is also assessed by a single source,

reducing inconsistency in measurement biases (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Although several

techniques of measuring subjective fit have been suggested (e.g., Edwards, 1991), none of them

are useful for measuring a multi-dimensional construct of P-E fit.

2.4 Role of P-E Fit in Employee Selection

Previous studies on the role of P-E fit can be mainly divided into two categories. The first

set of studies centers on investigating the role of P-E fit in relation to employee selection (before

individuals are employed) and the other set focuses on examining the effects of fit on attitudinal

and behavioral outcomes while employed. In terms of employee selection, two different

approaches have been taken in the literature: a prescriptive approach and a descriptive approach.

The prescriptive approach is focusing on what managers should do to select or hire the right job

candidate whereas the descriptive approach is aiming at investigating what managers actually do

in employee selection practices (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Prescriptive Approach

　　Traditionally, achieving P-J fit has been a focal point in employee selection processes from the hiring entity's perspective since high levels of P-J fit would ensure the quality of outcomes performed by employees (e.g., Cascio, 1991; Guion, 1987; Snow & Snell, 1993). However, as the world becomes more complex and dynamic and organizations need more flexible staffing, both practitioners (e.g., Montgomery, 1996) and scholars (e.g., Behling, 1998; Kristof, 1996) have suggested that P-O fit should be considered more importantly in employee selection (Bretz et al., 1993; Kristof-Brown, 2000; Sekiguchi, 2004). People who support this perspective argue that "selection practices should be based on factors associated with organizational effectiveness" (Sekiguchi, 2004, p. 186). For them organizational effectiveness includes not only just task performance but also contextual performance, such as organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Organ, 1988), prosocial behavior (e.g., Brief & Motowildo, 1986), and extra-role behavior (e.g., Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995). They also argue that the characteristics that are often related to P-O fit are important determinants of contextual performance and these characteristics include values, goals, and personality traits (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

　　Previous research also provides other reasons why P-O fit should be included in employee selection processes. One of such reasons is that employees may hold multiple jobs or positions during their employment within an organization and selecting job applicants based on general cognitive ability, rather specific job-related KSAs, would be more beneficial in such cases (Behling, 1998; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). In addition, selecting applicants who share the values and visions of the organization would be more appropriate for contemporary organizations where teamwork and flexibility are important to adapt for rapidly changing nature

of work (Bowen et al., 1991; Brides, 1994; Sekiguchi, 2004). In this sense, researchers should also strive to investigate the role of P-G fit in employee selection as well as its effects on employee attitudes and behaviors.

Descriptive Approach

Despite the predominant interest in P-J fit in traditional employee selection research, scholars point out that P-O fit has been already included in employee selection practices through recruiters' holistic judgments about applicants' fit to their organizations in actual selection processes (Chatman, 1989; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Judge & Ferris, 1992; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). Researchers who advocate this perspective often refer to interviews as the evidence that P-O fit plays a critical role in employee selection processes (Kristof-Brown, 2000; Sekiguchi, 2004). Although some scholars have questioned its reliability and validity (e.g., Harris, 1989), others argue that the employment interview may be the most effective way of selecting applicants who fit well with the organization (Chatman, 1989; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Judge & Ferris, 1992).

Studies have found that interviewers can assess both applicants' P-J fit and P-O fit during employment interviews and they apply different criteria for assessing P-E fit in selection processes (Sekiguchi, 2004). For example, Kristof-Brown (2000) found that recruiters use applicants' KSAs more frequently to assess their P-J fit while considering applicants' values and personality traits more importantly in assessing applicants' P-O fit with their organizations. Previous research has found that recruiters' perceptions of P-O fit were distinct from perceptions of general employability (Adkins et al., 1994). In addition, scholars have found that recruiters' evaluations of applicants' P-O fit were based on their organizations' attributes, not just their

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personal preferences (Rynes & Gerhart, 1990) and the accuracy of recruiters' evaluations of applicants' P-O fit were very reliable (Cable & Judge, 1997).

Another method that recruiters can employ to assess applicants' P-E fit in employee selection processes is the usage of biographical information in resume screening. Recruiters have frequently used resumes to assess applicants' P-J fit as they often include the information on applicants' KSAs (Brown and Campion, 1994). If resumes include the information on personal goals, values, personality traits or interests, recruiters may also assess applicants' P-O fit through resume screening processes (Sekiguchi, 2004). However, there is a lack of empirical evidence supporting the use of resumes for assessing applicants' P-O fit. According to Bozeman and his colleagues (2001), resumes or curriculum vitae (CV) can be a useful tool for evaluating 'scientific and technological human capital' because they contain a longitudinal history and rich information about applicants' career and personal interests (Bozeman, Dietz, & Gaughan, 2001). Yet, a series of obstacles, such as lack of content homogeneity, electrically untreatable information, and incompatible formats, has hindered a systemic analysis of CV in social science (Canibano & Bozeman, 2009).

In relation to the effects of P-E fit in employee selection, researchers have found that both applicant P-O fit and P-J fit are related to subsequent interviews (e.g., Adkins et al., 1994) and recruiters' hiring recommendations (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1997). Some theories regarding human decision-making suggest that employee selection processes can be divided into two major stages: the screening stage and the choice stage. For example, Prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) suggests that people attempt to avoid losses in earlier stages of decision making while trying to assure a win in later stages. Image theory, on the other hand, suggests that people evaluate whether applicants meet minimal job qualifications in earlier stages of decision-making

while determining the candidate who best meets the organization's demands after the screening stage (Beach & Mitchell, 1987).

Based on these theories, researchers suggest that P-J fit plays an important role at earlier stages (i.e., the screening stage) while P-O fit plays a significant role in later stages (i.e., the choice stage) of employee selection (Bretz et al., 1993; Kristof-Brown, 2000; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). That is, although recruiters consider applicants' P-J fit (or KSAs) more importantly in the screening stage, they prefer to select applicants with high level of P-O fit (or who share similar values, goals, and personality traits with their organizations) in the choice stage. Kristof-Brown (2000) found that P-J fit is more closely related to hiring recommendations than P-O fit. More recently, Chuang & Sackett (2005) also found that the importance of P-J fit becomes lower from the initial interview to the later interview stages while that of P-O fit shows an exactly opposite pattern. These empirical findings together support the argument above that P-J fit and P-O fit have different influences in each of the employee selection stages.

2.5 Effects of P-E Fit on Employee Attitudes and Behaviors

Previous research has examined the effects of P-E fit on various employee attitudes and behaviors, including task performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover (e.g., Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bretz & Judge, 1994; Chatman, 1991; Downey, Hellriegel, & Slocum, 1975; Edwards, 1991; Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1984; Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof, 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Rousseau & Parks, 1992; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Silverthorne, 2004; Tziner, 1987; Vancouver et al., 1994). Among these variables, this study focuses on three attitudinal (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational

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commitment, work motivation) and two behavioral (i.e., prosocial behaviors, absenteeism) outcome variables.

Job Satisfaction

Satisfaction is one of the most frequently reported employee attitudes. Job satisfaction can be generally defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences," where a job is "not an entity but a complex interrelationship of tasks, roles, responsibilities, interactions, incentives, and rewards" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300-01). Although job satisfaction is an emotional response to one's job, it has been considered to have a significant influence on other outcome variables, such as organizational commitment, performance, turnover, and absenteeism (Rainey, 2003).

In relation to P-E fit, studies have suggested that both P-J fit and P-O fit are strong determinants of employee job satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Chatman, 1991; Edwards, 1991). Although researchers agree that P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on job satisfaction (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991; Saks and Ashforth, 1997), empirical evidence also suggests that P-J fit may have a stronger effect on satisfaction than P-O fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). When considering that individuals are concerned with finding a job that meets their needs or desires and that P-J fit are often measured based on needs-supplies fit perspective, it is reasonable to expect that high level of P-J fit would increase the level of employee job satisfaction (Sekiguchi, 2004). Based on these arguments, this study hypothesizes that P-J fit has a greater positive impact on job satisfaction than P-O fit.

H3-1: P-J fit has a greater effect on job satisfaction than P-O fit.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is an employee attitude that has attracted the most attention among organizational scientists (Pinder, 2008). Organizational commitment is often defined as "an agreement on the part of the employees with the goals and objectives of an organization and a willingness to work toward those goals" (Steers & Rhodes, 1978, pp. 399-400). Since it represents employees' willingness to commit efforts to their organizations based on belief in their organizational goals, organizational commitment tends to show a strong relationship with other attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, including work motivation, contextual performance, and absenteeism, independent with the level of job satisfaction (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Steers & Rhodes, 1978).

Previous studies on fit suggest that both P-J fit and P-O fit are strong determinants of organizational commitment (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Chatman, 1991; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Sekiguchi, 2004). However, findings from previous research also suggest that P-O fit may have a greater effect on organizational commitment than P-J fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Based on the previous findings above, this study hypothesizes that P-O fit has a greater positive effect on organizational commitment than P-J fit.

H3-2: P-O fit has a greater effect on organizational commitment than P-J fit.

Work Motivation

When motivation is broadly defined, it often refers to the forces or conditions that activate, energize, direct, and sustain goal-oriented behavior (Perry & Porter, 1982). On the other hand, when the term is narrowly defined, it refers to the internal and external forces that initiate

work-related behavior (Pinder, 1998). While scholars sometimes use the term, 'motivation', interchangeably with 'work motivation', this study employs the narrow definition of motivation to refer the term, 'work motivation'. Theories of work motivation can be divided into two domains: content theories and process theories. While content theories focus on analyzing the particular needs, goals, values, motives, and rewards that affect motivation, process theories are mostly concerned with the psychological and behavioral processes behind motivation (Rainey, 2003).

These theories of motivation together suggest that individuals' work motivation is determined by both its contents (i.e., what motivates the individual) and processes (i.e., how the individual is motivated). Scholars also argue that work motivation is not only bound by work itself but also influenced by individuals' goals, values, needs, as well as interactions with the environment surrounding them (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Thus, when we consider that P-E fit (based on a needs-supplies fit) is assessed by how individuals' needs are met by their environmental factors at work, it is reasonable to hypothesize that P-E fit would have a positive effect on work motivation. Previous research also suggests that P-J fit measured by a strict needs-supplies fit perspective may show a strong relationship with work motivation (e.g., Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Edwards, 1991; Locke, 1976; Murray, 1938; Vroom, 1964). Based on theories of work motivation and findings from previous research, this study hypothesizes that P-J fit has a stronger positive effect on work motivation than P-O fit.

H3-3: P-J fit has a greater effect on work motivation than P-O fit.

Prosocial Behavior

In recent years, scholars have argued that overall job performance should be measured not only just by task performance but also including contextual performance (e.g., Borman & Motowildo, 1997; Sekiguchi, 2004). Contextual performance can be defined as activities that contribute to the social and psychological aspects of the organization (Motowildo & Van Scotter, 1994). Examples of such activities include volunteering for additional work, assisting and cooperating with coworkers, observing organizational rules and procedures, and various other prosocial activities (Brief & Motowildo, 1986). Organizational behavior scientists often use the term, contextual performance, interchangeably with other similar terms, such as 'organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Organ, 1988)', 'prosocial behavior (e.g., Brief & Motowildo, 1986)', and 'extra-role behavior (e.g., Van Dyne, Cummings, & Parks, 1995)', when referring to those prosocial activities (Sekiguchi, 2004).

Among these various forms of contextual performance, this study uses the term 'prosocial behavior', as an outcome variable for examining the effects of P-E fit since it best represents the construct of measures developed in this study. Prosocial behavior can be broadly defined as voluntary actions that benefit other people, the organization, and society as a whole (Knickerbocker 2003; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Bartels, 2007). Although these prosocial activities are not often considered as official job performance, scholars believe that prosocial behaviors facilitate group work and positively affect the organizational climate or psychology in the long run (Borman & Motowildo, 1997; Brief & Motowildo, 1986; Motowildo & Van Scotter, 1994; Sekiguchi, 2004; Twenge et al., 2007).

Previous studies on P-E fit suggest that the characteristics that are often related to P-O fit, such as values, goals, and personality traits, are important determinants of prosocial behavior

(Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Posner, 1992). Findings from previous literature also support that P-O fit is a better predictor of prosocial behavior than P-J fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). Based on the arguments above, this study hypothesizes that P-O fit is a stronger determinant of employees' prosocial behavior than P-J fit.

H3-4: P-O fit is a stronger determinant of employees' prosocial behavior than P-J fit.

Absenteeism

Absenteeism is one of the employee behaviors that managers are always concerned about because it is often closely related to work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and other behavioral outcomes (e.g., intention to quit and turnover) (Rainey, 2003). With the call for financial scrutiny due to the bad economy in recent years, managing the existing workforce has become an indispensible management strategy for managers to sustain the quality of organizational outcomes they have to provide with limited resources. Some studies have found that absenteeism in the public sector is higher than that in the private sector (Dibben, James, & Cunningham, 2001; Kouzmin, Loffler, Klages, & Korac-Kakabadse, 1999). Thus, it is important for public managers to reduce employee absenteeism, not only because it improves cost effectiveness of their organizations but also enhances their organizational accountability to taxpayers.

Findings from previous research on absenteeism are mixed. For example, some studies suggest that congruence of values, goals, and personality traits between individuals and their organizations would reduce employee absenteeism (e.g. Gellatly, 1995; Hackman and Lawler,

1971; Lundquist, 1958; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Newman, 1974; Porter and Steers, 1973; Schmitt, Oswald, Friede, Imus, & Merritt, 2008; Steers and Rhodes, 1978; Vroom, 1964). On the contrary, Edwards (1991) provides conflicting evidence that P-J fit is a more significant determinant of absenteeism than P-O fit. Others also argue that the relationship between P-E fit and employee absenteeism is not evident (e.g. Cheloha and Farr, 1980; Nicholson, Brown, and Chadwick-Jones, 1976; Ilgen and Hollenback, 1977; Sagie, 1998). Although previous research shows mixed results on the relationship between P-E fit and absenteeism, this study hypothesizes that P-O fit has a greater effect on reducing employee absenteeism than P-J fit.

H3-5: P-O fit has a greater effect on reducing employee absenteeism than P-J fit.

2.6 Potential Moderators

Scholars have suggested that a misinterpretation of the relationship between P-E fit and employee attitudes and behaviors may occur if we overlook the effects of potential moderators (e.g., Dawley et al., 2010; Goodman & Syvantek, 1999; Judge & Bretz, 1992).Throughout the chapter, this study has introduced several theoretical frameworks, such as TWA, ASA, and Prospect and Image theory, that have contributed to the development of the concept of P-E fit. The chapter has also discussed findings from previous research that P-E fit influences employee attitudes and behaviors in various forms. However, it may show only a partial description of a whole picture of the multi-dimensional aspect of P-E fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Hinkle & Choi, 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Law et al., 1998) since most of these studies have often examined the effects of fit on outcome variables, using a single dimensional construct of P-E fit

(e.g., Chatman, 1989; Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Moynihan & Pandey, 2008; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991; Westerman & Cyr, 2004).

As discussed earlier in the chapter, this study accepts a perspective that P-E fit is a multi-dimensional construct. In fact, the fit between a person and the work environment cannot (or should not) be limited to a single dimension because an individual interacts with several environmental factors at work when the individual performs a job or task (e.g., coworkers, work groups, and organizations). Thus, it is reasonable to include fit type when examining the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors. Although previous studies have separately found the unique effect of P-J or P-O fit on outcome variables (Carless, 2005; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Morley, 2007; Sekiguchi, 2004), little research has examined this possibility empirically (e.g., Kristof-Brown, 2000).

Previous research has also suggested that socialization tactics may have a moderate effect on the relationship between P-E fit and employee attitudes and behaviors (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Dawley et al., 2010; Goodman & Syvantek, 1999; Judge & Bretz, 1992). However, most of these studies have focused on how institutionalized socialization tactics can enhance P-O fit within organizations, instead of examining their moderating effects on the relationship between P-E fit and outcome variables (e.g., Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim et al., 2005). Some exceptions to these are recent studies revealing that socialization tactics, such as social network and mentorship, can be potential moderators for the relationship between P-E fit and attitudinal and behavioral variables (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008; Dawley et al., 2010). The important role of mentoring in the public sector has been also proposed by some public management scholars (e.g., Bozeman & Feeney, 2009).

Another potential moderator for the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors is the orientation of job choice motivation (i.e., whether a person's job choice motivation is mainly intrinsic or extrinsic). It has long been suggested that human motivation can be divided into two different types: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). While intrinsic motivation can be defined as "the innate, natural propensity to engage one's interests and exercise one's capacities, and in so doing, to seek and conquer optimal challenges" (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 43), extrinsic motivation can refers to "a cognitive state reflecting the extent to which the worker attributes the force of his or her task behaviors to having and/or expecting to receive or experience some extrinsic outcomes" (Brief & Aldag, 1977, p. 497). Examples of intrinsic motivation include job responsibility, recognition, and public service motivation while extrinsic motivation often includes factors that are external to jobs or tasks, such as salary, job security, job advancement, and relationships with coworkers (Saleh & Hyde, 1969).

Although some scholars are skeptical about using the dichotomist view in motivational research due to mixed evidence on the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (e.g., Wiersma, 1992), many others still support the use of this dichotomous view, suggesting different effects between the two types on job-related attitudinal outcomes (e.g. Amabile, 1993; O'Driscoll & Randall, 1999; Rainey & Bozeman, 2000; Savery, 1987; Smith & Miner, 1983). For example, Amabile (1993) found that an employee's job satisfaction depends on the extent to which intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are consistent with his or her motivational orientation toward work.

Previous studies suggest that work values were found to exhibit significant effects on job choice decisions, and that individuals were more likely to choose jobs whose value content was

similar to their own value orientation (Judge & Bretz, 1992). In addition, individuals establish

relatively consistent values through their life (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Although some scholars

suggest that work values can be manipulated via socialization processes (e.g. Watson & Barone,

1976; Watson & Simpson, 1978) or help newcomers to adopt organizational values (e.g., Cable

& Parsons, 2001), others also point out that organizational socialization is unlikely to alter the

basic and fundamental value structure one brings to the organization (Lusk & Oliver, 1974). In

addition, the self-determinant theory (SDT) posits that individuals have three basic psychological

needs (i.e., needs for autonomy, competency, and relatedness) and that it is necessary for

employees to fulfill those needs for their psychological growth, optimal functioning, and well-

being (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus, SDT and findings from the previous literature together

suggest that intrinsic job choice motivation may play an important role for the relationship

between P-E fit and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

In addition, studies have suggested that employees in different sectors may have different

motivational orientation toward work (Bozeman, 1987; Perry & Wise, 1990; Rainey, 2003). For

example, scholars in the field of public administration and management have recently been

paying considerable attention to the role of public service motivation (PSM) and identified

important differences between sectors and their management (e.g. Bozeman, 1987; Brewer &

Selden, 1998; Brewer et al., 2000; Rainey, 1982; Perry, 1997; Perry & Wise, 1990). Since

individuals seek their jobs based on their motivational orientation and values, and organizations

attract their employees by providing different sets of incentives and rewards, it is possible for

people with different motivations to show different attitudes and behaviors by sector settings.

However, there is also research in the field of public administration and management suggesting

that PSM itself may not be an important direct predictor of job performance of public employees;

rather, it suggests that the effect of PSM is mediated by P-O fit (Bright, 2007). This study

hypothesizes that the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors differ by sector

settings.

     H4: The effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors differ by sector settings.

Table 2.1 Hypotheses

H1-1: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of job satisfaction.

H1-2: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of organizational commitment.

H1-3: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of work motivation.

H1-4: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of prosocial behaviors.

H1-5: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a negative predictor of employee absenteeism.

H2-1: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on job satisfaction.

H2-2: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on organizational commitment.

H2-3: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on work motivation.

H2-4: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on prosocial behaviors.

H2-5: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on employee absenteeism.

H3-1: P-J fit has a greater effect on job satisfaction than P-O fit.

H3-2: P-O fit has a greater effect on organizational commitment than P-J fit.

H3-3: P-J fit has a greater effect on work motivation than P-O fit.

H3-4: P-O fit is a stronger determinant of employees' prosocial behavior than P-J fit.

H3-5: P-O fit has a greater effect on reducing employee absenteeism than P-J fit.

H4-1: The effects of P-E fit on job satisfaction for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.

H4-2: The effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.

H4-3: The effects of P-E fit on work motivation for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.

H4-4: The effects of P-E fit on employees' prosocial behaviors in the public sector differ from those in the non-profit sector.

H4-5: The effects of P-E fit on absenteeism for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.

Figure 2.1 Conceptualizations of Person-Environment Fit
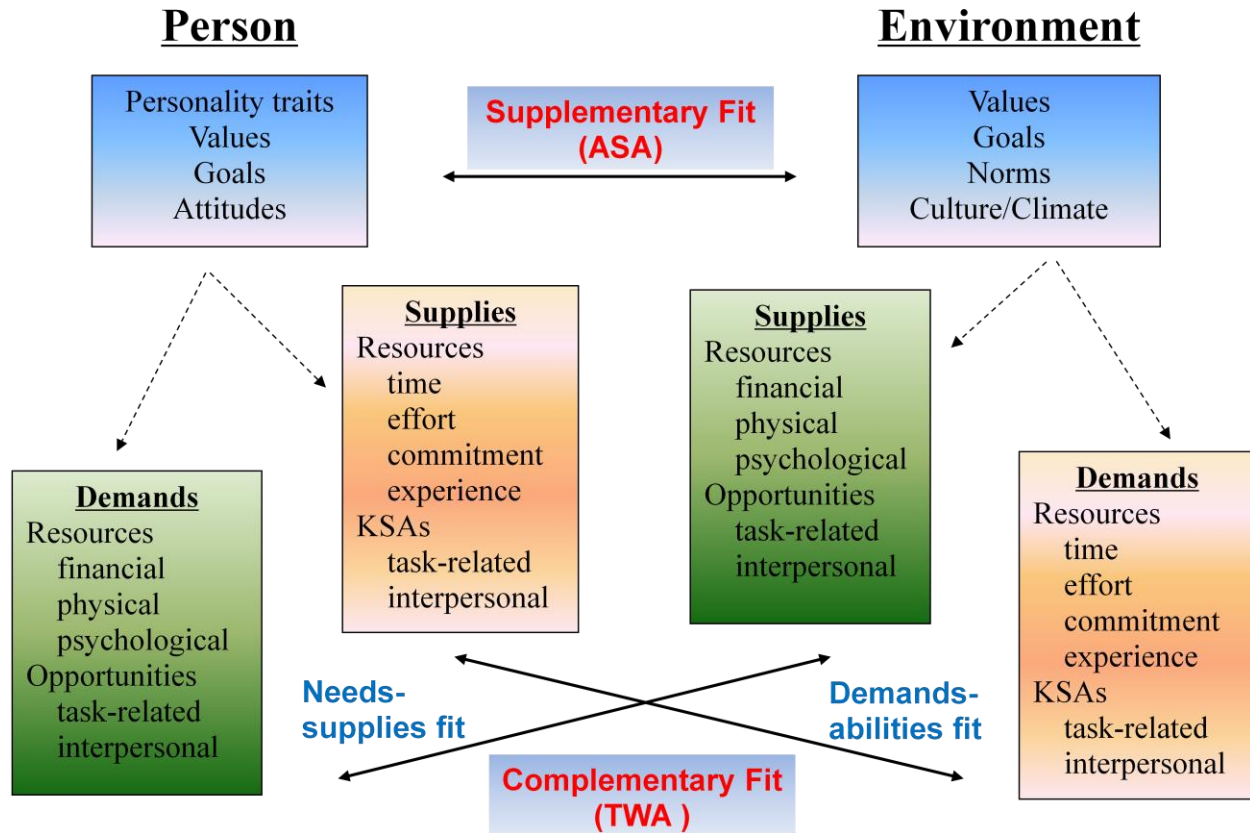
Source: Adapted from "Person-Organization Fit: An Integrative Review of Its Conceptualizations, Measurement, and Implications", by Amy L. Kristof, 1996, *Personnel Psychology, 49 (1)*, p. 4.

CHAPTER 3

DATA, VARIABLES, AND METHODS

Chapter three presents the data, variables, and analytical methods for empirically testing the hypotheses proposed in the previous chapter. First, this chapter briefly describes the data used in this study. Then, the chapter introduces all the variables included in the analyses and explains the operationalization and measurements of these variables. Lastly, the chapter discusses analytical models and methodologies applied in this study.

3.1 Data

The data source for my dissertation comes from the National Administration Studies Project III Survey (NASP III). The survey, which was developed to increase empirical knowledge of public and non-profit management and administration, includes seven different sections: 1) motivation for taking the current job; 2) work environment; 3) organizational rules and procedures; 4) civic and political activity; 5) mentoring; 6) job history; and 7) demographic characteristics. In the initial stage, the study randomly selected a total of 2,000 employees from the public sector and 1,328 employees from the non-profit sector in the states of Georgia and Illinois. After distributing the survey questionnaires to 1,850 public employees and 1,307 employees in non-profit organizations, the NASP III collected a total of 1,220 responses (790 from the public sector and 430 from the non-profit sector) during the periods of three waves from

July 20, 2005 to June 1, 2006. The overall response rate was 38.6% (43% in the public sector and 33% from the non-profit sector).

As shown in Table 3.7, the respondents had an average age of 49.44 years (SD=8.913) at the time the survey was conducted. The average job tenure (years in current job) for the respondents was 8.63 years (SD=6.489). About 78.9% of the respondents were married and have roughly one child per each respondent on average. Among the respondents, 54.6% were male while 45.4% were female. For the distribution of ethnicity among the participants in the data, about 85.9% of them were Caucasian while 14.1% were non-Caucasian. In addition, 44.2% of the data come from the state of Georgia while the rest of the samples come from Illinois (see Table 3.7 for details).

3.2 Variables

This section of the chapter describes all the variables used in this study and explains survey items and measures for those variables. In order to examine the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors, this study employs five different outcome variables and three types of fit measures as independent variables. Several control variables are also included in the analyses.

Dependent Variables

For dependent variables, this study uses three attitudinal variables (i.e. job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work motivation) and two behavioral outcome variables (i.e. prosocial behavior, absenteeism). All the attitudinal variables are measured by using a 4-point Likert scale, from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4). *Job satisfaction* is measured by

using a single item from the survey, "All in all, I am satisfied with my job" and *organizational*

commitment is measured from a survey item, "I feel a sense of pride working for this

organization."[1] *Work motivation* is measured by using two items from the survey: "Time seems

to drag while I am on the job (reversed)"; and "It has been hard for me to get very involved in

my current job (reversed)." The variable was first created in a summative scale then recoded to 4

point scales. The mean of work motivation variable is 3.669 (SD=0.625) and the Cronbach's

alpha for reliability test was .71 (see Table 3.7 for descriptive statistics for dependent variables).

For behavioral outcome variables, this study uses two different outcome measures for

each of the variables. Two measures for *prosocial behavior* are 'the number of civic activities

participating' and 'volunteer time (hours) in the last four weeks'. For *absenteeism* measures,

both voluntary (i.e., days missed without sickness or vacation) and involuntary leave (i.e.,

subtracting voluntary leave from total leave) are used to examine whether the effects of P-E fit

differ by absenteeism types. Since employees have not much control over involuntary leave (e.g.,

sick leave), voluntary leave is often considered more important than involuntary leave (see Table

3.1 for measures for dependent variables).

Independent Variables

In order to examine the effects of P-E fit on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, this

study develops two sets of P-E fit measures. Each set includes overall P-E fit measure and two

sub-dimensions of P-E fit measures (i.e., P-J fit and P-O fit). As shown in Table 3.2, P-J fit

measure in this study consists of three measurement variables (i.e. advancement, job authority,

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[1] This survey item is often used to assess 'affective' organizational commitment, which measures
the extent to which a respondent is emotionally attached to or identified with the organization.

pay) while P-O fit includes two measurement variables (i.e., organizational reputation, less red tape). Conceptually, each of these five fit variables was developed based on a needs-supplies fit perspective (Kristof, 1996). Thus, these fit measures aim to assess how individuals' needs are met by their work environment.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, all P-E fit measures used in this study are developed as subjective fit measures. That is, each fit is assessed indirectly using two separate ratings of person side (P) and environment side (E) items for each fit, reported by the same individual. Each side of all these fit measures was measured by using a single item, except E_4 (organizational reputation), which was measured by using three survey items (alpha = .76). All the P and E side variables were measured by using 4-point Likert scale, except the environment-side red tape measure (11-point scale). For easy comparison and interpretation of results, all the different scales were rescaled by using 4-point Likert scale and recoded from 0 to 3 (see Table 3.2 for detail).

Based on the suggestion from the previous literature, this study uses the ratio of actual fit to maximum possible fit to assess fit between person and work environment (see Table 3.3 for formula for P-E fit measures). For example, if we want to measure an individual's job authority fit (P_2E_2) and if the values of P_2 and E_2 for the individual are 3 and 2 respectively, then job authority fit (P_2E_2) for the individual is .67 (6 over 9). As shown in Table 3.6, each fit is ranged from zero (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit). Using the ratio of actual fit over maximum fit allows us to overcome a potential weighting issue that can occur when we use variables with different measurement scales to develop subjective fit measures (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). This measurement technique can be also useful for developing other types of fit measures (e.g., demands-abilities fit, supplementary fit).

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This study also develops and uses alternative fit measures for comparison. This second set of alternative fit measures uses the same fit variables and survey items as used in the original fit measures. While the original set of fit measures were developed from using the formula presented in Table 3.3, the alternative fit measures were introduced in the analyses by using the formula presented in Table 3.4. Unlike fit assessed by the original measures, each fit assessed by the alternative fit measures is ranged from zero (no fit) to 3 (perfect fit). If we use this alternative fit measurement technique for the same individual in the example above, job authority fit (P_2E_2) for the individual will be 2, instead of .67 (see Table 3.4 for the formula for alternative fit measures). As shown in the Table 3.8, the correlations between these two sets of fit measures are very high. For example, the correlation coefficient between original P-J fit measure and alternative P-J fit measure is .805 whereas the correlation coefficient between original P-O fit measure and alternative P-O fit measure is .621. In addition, the correlation coefficient for overall P-E fit between OFM and AFM is .808 (see Table 3.8 for details). For the analyses of sectoral differences, three interactions terms have been also created (i.e., PE fit*sector, PJ fit*sector, and PO fit*sector). Descriptive statistics for all the fit measure variables are shown in Table 3.6.

Control Variables

This study also uses several control variables for analyses. For demographic control variables, gender, age, education, ethnicity, job tenure, marital status, and the number of children are included in the models. As the data include samples from both the public and non-profit sectors in two states, sector and state dummy variables were also included in the analyses (see Table 3.5 for details). Most of these control variables are dummy variables, except age, job

tenure, and the number of children (see Table 3.7 for descriptive statistics for control variables). All the correlation coefficients for the variables used in the analyses are shown in Table 3.8 and 3.9.

3.3 Models Specifications

In order to test the hypotheses addressed in the previous chapter, five models were used for the analysis of each dependent variables. Model 1 is the base model with no fit variables included in the model. The base model only includes a vector of demographic control variables (X_c) and the error term (ε) in the model. In addition to the variables from the base model, the second model has a wholistic P-E fit variable (X_e) in the equation to test whether the single measure of overall P-E fit is a significant determinant of employee attitudes and behaviors (H1). Instead of the wholistic P-E fit variable in Model 2, P-J fit (X_j) and P-O fit (X_o) variable was included in Model 3 and Model 4 respectively to test whether both P-J fit and P-O fit are significant determinants of employee attitudes and behaviors (H2). Model 5 is the full model, which include both P-J fit and P-O fit variables in the model to test whether each of sub-dimensions of P-E fit has independent effect on employee attitudes and behaviors (H3). In order to test whether the effects of P-E fit differ by sector settings (H4), interaction terms for P-E fit and sector were included in the analyses from Model 2 through Model 5.

Model 1 (H1): $Y_o = \alpha + \beta_1 X_c + \varepsilon$

Model 2 (H1, H4): $Y_o = \alpha + \beta_1 X_e + \beta_2 X_{es} + \beta_3 X_c + \varepsilon$

Model 3 (H2, H4): $Y_o = \alpha + \beta_1 X_j + \beta_2 X_{js} + \beta_3 X_c + \varepsilon$

Model 4 (H2, H4): $Y_o = \alpha + \beta_1 X_o + \beta_2 X_{os} + \beta_3 X_c + \varepsilon$

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Model 5 (H3, H4): $Y_o = \alpha + \beta_1 X_j + \beta_2 X_{js} + \beta_3 X_o + \beta_4 X_{os} + \beta_5 X_c + \varepsilon$

where,

Y_o = *Satisfaction, commitment, work motivation, prosocial behavior, and absenteeism.*

α = *A constant*

X_e = *P-E fit*

X_j = *P-J fit*

X_o = *P-O fit*

X_{es} = *An interaction term for P-E fit and sector*

X_{js} = *An interaction term for P-J fit and sector*

X_{os} = *An interaction term for P-O fit and sector*

X_c = *A vector of control variables*

ε = *The error term*

3.4 Methodology

This study examines the effects of P-E fit on five different attitudinal and behavioral outcome variables. Thus, several regression techniques are used to test the hypotheses proposed in this study, depending on their properties of the dependent variables. As three attitudinal outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work motivation) are measured with ordinal scales, ordered logit estimation technique (O-logit) is used for estimation. For the prosocial behavior variable, this study uses two different measures: number of civic activities participating and hours of volunteering for the last 12 weeks. As the first measure of prosocial behavior (i.e., # of civic activities participating) is count variable, this study examines the effects of P-E fit on this outcome using Poisson regression technique. For the second measure

of prosocial behavior (i.e., hours of volunteering), this study uses the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression technique for estimation. For examining the effects of P-E fit on employee absenteeism, this study also uses two outcome variables: voluntary and involuntary leaves. While using OLS estimation techniques for involuntary leave, the Zero Inflated Poisson regressions (ZIP) are used for the estimation of voluntary leave as it includes a lot of zero counts in the response.

Table 3.1 Dependent Variables

Variables	Survey Items / Measures
Job Satisfaction	All in all, I am satisfied with my job.
Org. Commitment	I feel a sense of pride working for this organization.
Work Motivation (alpha = .71)	Time seems to drag while I am on the job (reversed). It has been hard for me to get very involved in my current job (reversed).
Prosocial Behavior	
(# of civic activities)	In this section we ask you about your personal civic activities. Please indicate which of the following organizations you are currently a member, if any. [Please check all that apply] **= # of civic activities participating**
(Volunteer hours)	In the last four week, how many hours, if any, did you engage in volunteer activities? **= Hours of volunteer work in the last four weeks.**
Absenteeism	Thinking about the last 12 months, please estimate how many days of work you missed.
(Voluntary leave)	**= Days missed because you were not sick or on vacation but you could not face working**
(Involuntary leave)	**= Total leave – Voluntary leave**

Table 3.2 Independent Variables (Person-Environment Fit)

Variables	Denotation*	Survey Items
P-J fit		
Advancement	P_1	Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy.
	E_1	Because of the rules here, promotions are based mainly on performance.
Job Authority	P_2	Desire for increased responsibility.
	E_2	I do not have enough authority to determine how to get my job done (reversed).
Pay	P_3	Salary.
	E_3	I feel I am underpaid (reversed).
P-O fit		
Org. Reputation	P_4	Overall quality and reputation of this organization.
	E_4 (alpha = .76)	I would rate the overall quality of work being done in my organization as very good. This organization has high ethical standards. Our clients seem quite satisfied with the performance of this organization.
Less Red Tape	P_5	Desire for less bureaucratic red tape.
	E_5	How would you assess the level of red tape in your organization? (reversed)

* The letter "P" denotes "Person-side" items while "E" denotes "Environment-side" items.

Table 3.3 P-E Fit Measures (Original Fit Measures)

$$\textbf{P-E fit} \; = \; \frac{\text{Actual fit}}{\text{Maximum fit}} \; = \; \frac{(P_1 \times E_1) + (P_2 \times E_2) + (P_3 \times E_3) + (P_4 \times E_4) + (P_5 \times E_5)}{MSE^* \times (P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4 + P_5)}$$

$$\textbf{P-J fit} \; = \; \frac{\text{Actual fit}}{\text{Maximum fit}} \; = \; \frac{(P_1 \times E_1) + (P_2 \times E_2) + (P_3 \times E_3)}{MSE^* \times (P_1 + P_2 + P_3)}$$

$$\textbf{P-O fit} \; = \; \frac{\text{Actual fit}}{\text{Maximum fit}} \; = \; \frac{(P_4 \times E_4) + (P_5 \times E_5)}{MSE^* \times (P_4 + P_5)}$$

* MSE = Maximum Scale of Environment

Table 3.4 Alternative Fit Measures

P-E Fit = Mean of $(P_1E_1 + P_2E_2 + P_3E_3 + P_4E_4 + P_5E_5)$

P-J Fit = Mean of $(P_1E_1 + P_2E_2 + P_3E_3)$

P-O Fit = Mean of $(P_4E_4 + P_5E_5)$
   where,

        $P_aE_a = 3$ if $P_a = 3$ and $E_a = 3$

        $P_aE_a = 2$ if $P_a = 3$ and $E_a = 2$

        $P_aE_a = 1$ if $P_a = 3$ and $E_a = 1$

        $P_aE_a = 0$ if $P_a = 3$ and $E_a = 0$

        $P_aE_a = 2$ if $P_a = 2$ and $E_a = 3$

        $P_aE_a = 1$ if $P_a = 2$ and $E_a = 2$

        $P_aE_a = 0$ if $P_a = 2$ and $E_a =< 1$

        $P_aE_a = 1$ if $P_a = 1$ and $E_a = 3$

        $P_aE_a = 0$ if $P_a = 1$ and $E_a =< 2$

        $P_aE_a = 0$ if $P_a = 0$

Table 3.5 Control Variables

Variables	Survey Items / Measures
Gender	1 if male
Age	Age in years
Education	1 if attended high school, but did not graduate. 2 if high school graduate. 3 if attended college, but did not graduate from a 4-year college. 4 if graduated from a 4-year college. 5 if attended graduate or professional school, but did not graduate. 6 if graduated from a graduate or professional school.

Education Dummy
   (hsdeg)
   (coldeg)
   (graddeg)
	
	1 if education = 2 or 3
	1 if education = 4 or 5
	1 if education = 6

Ethnicity	1 if non-white.
Tenure	Years in the current job.
Marital Status	1 if married.
# of Children	# of dependent children
Sector	1 if in the public sector.
State	1 if Georgia.

Table 3.6 Descriptive Statistics (Independent Variables: P-E Measures)

Variable	Obs	Mean	SD	Min	Max
p1	1200	1.884	1.015	0	3
p2	1202	2.186	0.862	0	3
p3	1201	2.281	0.726	0	3
p4	1204	2.170	0.877	0	3
p5	1193	1.343	1.060	0	3
e1	1193	1.384	1.013	0	3
e2	1209	2.117	0.976	0	3
e3	1207	1.172	1.013	0	3
e4	1210	2.210	0.658	0	3
e5	1193	1.190	0.805	0	3
p1e1	992	0.455	0.331	0	1
p2e2	1113	0.702	0.325	0	1
p3e3	1154	0.393	0.335	0	1
p4e4	1115	0.749	0.207	0	1
p5e5	845	0.406	0.265	0	1
p1e1(2)*	1184	0.714	0.913	0	3
p2e2(2)*	1192	1.410	1.110	0	3
p3e3(2)*	1189	0.726	0.912	0	3
p4e4(2)*	754	1.623	1.324	0	3
p5e5(2)*	998	0.216	0.636	0	3
PJ Fit	1151	0.519	0.253	0	1
PO Fit	1110	0.636	0.224	0	1
PE Fit	1137	0.556	0.222	0	1
PJ Fit(2)*	1204	0.950	0.686	0	3
PO Fit(2)*	1137	0.807	1.022	0	3
PE Fit(2)*	1208	0.920	0.667	0	3
PJ Fit*Sector	1151	0.287	0.275	0	1
PO Fit*Sector	1110	0.362	0.319	0	1
PE Fit*Sector	1137	0.556	0.222	0	1
PJ Fit*Sector(2)*	1204	0.496	0.606	0	3
PO Fit*Sector(2)*	1137	0.324	0.676	0	3
PE Fit*Sector(2)*	1208	0.451	0.557	0	2.75

* (2) refers variables created from alternative fit measures (AFM)

Table 3.7 Descriptive Statistics (Dependent and Control Variables)

Variable	Obs	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Satisfaction	1207	3.345	0.761	1	4
Commitment	1209	3.345	0.763	1	4
Motivation	1205	3.669	0.625	1	4
# of Civic Activities	1219	2.666	1.457	0	8
Volunteer Hours	1192	7.240	12.664	0	165
Absenteeism (Total)	1219	19.538	14.162	0	173
Absenteeism (Involuntary)	1178	19.200	13.118	0	173
Absenteeism (Voluntary)	1179	0.417	3.671	0	120
Age	1204	49.443	8.913	23	81
Job Tenure (years)	1157	8.628	6.489	1	40
# of Children	1195	0.962	1.193	0	14
Education*	1204	4.864	1.181	1	6
Ethnicity (Non-White=1)	1171	0.141	0.348	0	1
Gender (Male=1)	1208	0.546	0.498	0	1
Marital Status (Married=1)	1207	0.789	0.408	0	1
Sector (Public=1)	1220	0.648	0.478	0	1
State (GA=1)	1220	0.442	0.497	0	1

* 1=attended high school, but did not graduate 2=high school graduate 3=attended college, but did not graduate from a 4-year college 4=graduated from a 4-year college 5=attended graduate or professional school, but did not graduate 6=graduated from a graduate or professional school.

Table 3.8 Correlation Matrix between Fit Measures

	PE Fit	PJ Fit	PO Fit	PE Fit (2)	PJ Fit (2)	PO Fit (2)
PE Fit	1.000					
PJ Fit	0.941	1.000				
PO Fit	0.765	0.534	1.000			
PE Fit (2)	**0.808**	0.771	0.611	1.000		
PJ Fit (2)	0.756	**0.805**	0.436	0.905	1.000	
PO Fit (2)	0.585	0.445	**0.621**	0.775	0.447	1.000

Table 3.9 Correlation Matrix (with Original Fit Measures)

	PE Fit	PJ Fit	PO Fit	Age	Job Tenure	# of Children	Education	Ethnicity	Gender	Marital Status	Sector	State
PE Fit	1.000											
PJ Fit	0.941	1.000										
PO Fit	0.759	0.526	1.000									
Age	0.129	0.108	0.136	1.000								
Job Tenure	0.047	0.027	0.069	0.356	1.000							
# of Children	-0.016	-0.016	-0.006	-0.238	-0.075	1.000						
Education	0.084	0.067	0.102	0.089	0.062	-0.030	1.000					
Ethnicity	-0.110	-0.114	-0.066	-0.067	-0.092	0.071	0.030	1.000				
Gender	-0.021	-0.027	-0.009	0.158	0.146	0.177	0.092	-0.083	1.000			
Marital Status	0.069	0.045	0.096	0.063	0.062	0.249	0.025	-0.107	0.271	1.000		
Sector	-0.354	-0.306	-0.310	-0.072	-0.041	0.050	-0.117	0.159	0.059	0.009	1.000	
State	0.067	0.056	0.064	-0.082	-0.102	-0.023	-0.092	0.091	0.051	-0.014	0.259	1.000

Table 3.10 Correlation Matrix (with Alternative Fit Measures)

	PE Fit (2)	PJ Fit (2)	PO Fit (2)	Age	Job Tenure	# of Children	Education	Ethnicity	Gender	Marital Status	Sector	State
PE Fit (2)	1.000											
PJ Fit (2)	0.892	1.000										
PO Fit (2)	0.779	0.437	1.000									
Age	0.057	0.007	0.117	1.000								
Job Tenure	0.018	0.003	0.043	0.354	1.000							
# of Children	0.039	0.030	0.021	-0.231	-0.085	1.000						
Education	0.017	0.040	-0.012	0.089	0.046	-0.032	1.000					
Ethnicity	-0.034	-0.016	-0.050	-0.067	-0.088	0.052	0.039	1.000				
Gender	-0.062	-0.089	-0.013	0.166	0.156	0.180	0.081	-0.073	1.000			
Marital Status	0.042	0.019	0.051	0.083	0.064	0.238	0.028	-0.109	0.270	1.000		
Sector	-0.302	-0.252	-0.252	-0.054	-0.055	0.046	-0.101	0.154	0.062	0.007	1.000	
State	0.054	0.031	0.059	-0.085	-0.115	-0.038	-0.063	0.114	0.057	-0.013	0.263	1.000

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS: PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT AND WORK ATTITUDES

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors. Chapter four presents results from empirical analyses on the relationship between P-E fit and work attitudes of employees (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work motivation) whereas chapter five discusses findings in relation to behavioral outcomes (i.e., prosocial behaviors and absenteeism). As discussed in the previous chapter, all the attitudinal dependent variables in this study are ordinal scale variables. When a dependent variable is ordinal, it is better to use ordered logit regression models, which avoid the assumption of equal distance between its categories. All the estimates reported in this chapter are from O-logit regression estimation. As mentioned in the previous chapter, this study uses alternative fit measures (AFM) to examine the effects of P-E fit on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes in addition to the original fit measures (OFM) developed in this study. The results from using AFM are also reported, following the discussion of findings from OFM at the end of each section throughout the chapter for comparison.

4.1 Effects of P-E Fit on Job Satisfaction

In order to examine the effects of P-E fit on employee job satisfaction, this study uses five different O-logit regression models for analyses. As shown in Table 4.1, the base model with demographic control variables shows little explanatory power (Pseudo R^2 = 0.0568) for

employee job satisfaction (see Table 4.1 for details). When a wholistic P-E fit is included in the model, the explanatory power of the model dramatically increased (Pseudo $R^2 = 0.1829$) and P-E fit is a statistically significant positive predictor of job satisfaction at .01 level (H1-1). When P-J fit and P-O fit is separately included in the model, both of the fit types are positive determinants of employee job satisfaction. Model 5, in which both P-J fit and P-O fit are included together in the analysis, has the greatest explanatory power (Pseudo $R^2 = 0.2151$) for job satisfaction. The results from the full model also show the two sub-dimensions of P-E fit have independent effects on job satisfaction (H2-1).

As it is not appropriate to use raw coefficients for the comparison of impacts between variables from the estimates of logit regressions (Long, 1997), this study uses fully standardized coefficients for the interpretations of impacts between variables. Table 4.3 provides all the coefficients for variables used in the full model. As shown in the table, the marginal change of P-O fit on satisfaction at the mean (.526) is greater than that of P-J fit (.398) for fully standardized coefficients. We can interpret the result that for a standard deviation increase in an individual's P-O fit, the individual's job satisfaction is expected to increase by .526 standard deviations, while his or her job satisfaction is expected to increase by .398 standard deviations with a standard deviation increase in P-J fit, holding all other variables constant (see Table 4.3 for coefficients for marginal changes). This result is opposite from the expectation based on the previous literature that P-J fit would have a greater impact on job satisfaction than P-O fit (H3-1). Marginal effects for satisfaction at "strongly agree" category also confirm that P-O fit has a greater impact on employee job satisfaction than P-J fit does (1.434 vs. 0.962, see Table 4.5 for details).

In order to get more information about the relationship between P-E fit and employee job satisfaction, the chapter also illustrates the predicted probabilities of job satisfaction by its categories (i.e., strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree). As shown in Figure 4.1, predicted probabilities of answering "strongly agree" to survey item "All in all, I am satisfied with my job" increase as P-E fit increases. On the contrary, predicted probabilities of answering "strongly disagree" and "disagree" to satisfaction question decrease as the level of P-E fit increases (see Figure 4.1 for details).

Interestingly, the predicted probability curve for the category of "agree" shows a non-linear shape. The predicted probability first increases as P-E fit increases up to some point, then it begins to decrease as the level of P-E fit increases. Thus, as P-E fit increases, not only the predicted probabilities of negative responses on job satisfaction decrease but also the predicted probability of positive response ("agree") also decreases after a certain level of P-E fit. It is not because the satisfaction level decreases as P-E fit increases after a certain point. Rather, it can be interpreted that when the level of P-E fit reaches certain point, most of respondents begin to switch their answers from "agree" to "strongly agree" to respond their satisfaction levels. It coincides with the fact that the predicted probability of "strongly agree" increases as P-E fit increase but it changes more dramatically after the point where the predicted probability of "agree" begins to decrease (see Figure 4.1 for details). When we consider that many responses on job satisfaction questionnaire are often within "strongly agree" category and most analyses on satisfaction do not focus on the differences between jobs satisfaction categories, these results together provide interesting findings on the relationship between P-E fit and job satisfaction by its categories.

For the sub-dimensions of P-E fit, the predicted probabilities of satisfaction by P-O fit follow a very similar trend as shown in the figure for the wholistic P-E fit (see Figure 4.3). For example, the predicted probability curve by P-O fit for "agree" category shows a non-linear trend that is similar to the one by P-E fit. On the other hand, the curves for predicted probabilities by P-J fit are almost linear in all categories (see Figure 4.2). Thus, we can conclude that the relationship between P-J fit and employee job satisfaction is more linear than that of P-O fit with satisfaction.

In terms of the difference between sectors, results from O-logit regressions vary. For example, the coefficient for sector dummy variable (public = 1) from the base model (Model 1) shows a negative relationship with job satisfaction, indicating that employees in the public sector are more likely to have lower levels of job satisfaction. When interaction terms for P-E fit and sector are included in the analyses, the coefficients for sector dummy variable change from negative to positive, indicating that public employees have more chance of having higher level of job satisfaction compared to ones in the non-profit sector when fit between person and environment is low (zero). However, all the coefficients of interaction terms for fit and sector show negative signs, indicating that the positive effects of P-E fit on job satisfaction would be lower for employees in the public sector than for those in the non-profit sector. However, this interpretation is not statistically supported for all sub-dimensions of P-E fit (see Table 4.1 for details). Based on these results, this study concludes that the effects of P-E fit differ by sector settings but may vary by its sub-dimensions or fit type (H4-1).

Results from using the alternative fit measures for are shown in Table 4.2. The results from AFMs confirm that the wholistic measure of P-E fit is a statistically significant positive determinant of job satisfaction (H1-1) and both of its sub-dimensions have independent effects

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on job satisfaction (H2-1) (see Table 4.2 for details). As in the findings from OFMs, the results

from marginal changes with AFMs also show that P-O fit has a greater positive effect on job

satisfaction than P-J fit does (see Table 4.4). This finding is the opposite from the expectation in

the previous literature. However, the marginal effects with AFMs at "strongly agree" category

show that P-J fit has a greater impact on satisfaction than P-O fit in that category (see Table 4.6).

Overall, the explanatory powers of the models with AFMs are less than those with OFMs (see

Table 4.2 for details).

In comparison with the predicted probabilities with OFMs, the predicted probabilities

with AFMs show more linear relationship between P-E fit and job satisfaction. However, the

overall trend between P-E fit and job satisfaction was not affected by the change of fit measures

(see also Figure 4.4, 4.5, and 4.6 for details). In terms of the difference between sectors, the

results for both Model 2 and Model 5 from O-logit regressions with AFM show that the effects

of P-E fit on job satisfaction is not different by sector settings (H4-1, see Table 4.2 for details).

4.2 Effects of P-E Fit on Organizational Commitment

In order to examine the effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment, five different O-

logit regression models are also used as in analyses of job satisfaction. As shown in Table 4.7,

the base model with no fit variables shows little explanatory power (Pseudo R^2 = 0.0798) for

organizational commitment. When a wholistic P-E fit variable is included in the model, the

explanatory power of the model dramatically increased (Pseudo R^2 = 0.1886) as in the model for

job satisfaction (see Table 4.7 for details). The result from O-logit regression shows that P-E fit

is a statistically significant positive predictor of organizational commitment (H1-2). As in the

case for job satisfaction, whether P-J fit and P-O fit are included in the model separately (Model

3 and 4) or together (Model 5), both of the fit types are positive predictors of organizational

commitment and their coefficients are statistically significant at .01 level. Among these models

for organizational commitment, the full model (Model 5) with both P-J fit and P-O fit has the

greatest explanatory power (Pseudo $R^2 = 0.2454$). These results together support that both P-J fit

and P-O fit have independent effects on organizational commitment (H2-2). Overall, the

explanatory powers of the models for organizational commitment are greater than those for job

satisfaction (see Table 4.7 for details).

For the interpretation of marginal changes between variables, Table 4.9 provides all the

coefficients and marginal changes for all the variables used in the full model. For the fully

standardized coefficients, the marginal change of P-O fit on organizational commitment (.547) is

greater than that of P-J fit (.205). This implies that for a standard deviation increase in P-O fit,

organizational commitment is expected to increase by .547 standard deviations, whereas the

same standard deviation increase in P-J fit leads to .205 standard deviations increase in the level

of organizational commitment, holding all other variables constant (see Table 4.9 for details).

Although these results hold the same in that the marginal change of P-O fit for is greater than

that of P-J fit as for both job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the difference of

marginal change between P-O fit and P-J fit for organizational commitment is far greater than

that for job satisfaction (more than twice). For marginal effect at "strongly agree" category, the

impact of P-O fit on organizational commitment is also far greater than that of P-J fit (see Table

4.11). These results together support that P-O fit has a greater impact on organizational

commitment than P-J fit (H3-2).

The overall trend for the distribution of predicted probabilities of organizational

commitment is very similar to the one for job satisfaction over all categories. As P-E fit increases

the predicted probabilities for "strongly disagree" and "disagree" categories decrease. On the other hand, the predicted probability for "strongly agree" increases as the level of P-E fit increases. Again, as shown in Figure 4.7, the predicted probability for "agree" shows a non-linear relationship with organizational commitment. The predicted probability for the category of "agree" first increases as P-E fit increases up to some point (about .3), then it begins to decrease as the level of P-E fit increases. From this point the predicted probability for "strongly agree" dramatically increases as the level of P-E fit increases. This trend is very similar to the distribution of predicted probabilities for P-O fit (see Table 4.11). Again this non-linear curve for the category of "agree" for both P-E fit and P-O fit is most likely because respondents begin to switch their answers from "agree" to "strongly agree". Finally, the predicted probabilities of organizational commitment in all categories show linear relationships with P-J fit. As P-J fit increases, the predicted probability for "strongly agree" increases while the predicted probabilities for other categories are decreasing (see Table 4.9).

In terms of the difference between sectors, the coefficient for sector from the base model shows a negative relationship between sector and organizational commitment. As in the analyses for job satisfaction, this implies that employees in the public sector are more likely to have a lower level of organizational commitment, compared to those in non-profit sector. However, the coefficients for interaction terms from Model 2 through Model 5 show mixed signs and they are not statistically significant. These results indicate that the effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment for public employees are not statistically different from those for employees in non-profit sector (see Table 4.7 for details). Based on these results from O-logit regressions, this study concludes the hypothesis that the effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment differ by sector settings has not been supported empirically (H4-2).

Results from using the alternative fit measures for examining the effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment are shown in Table 4.8. Overall, the results from AFMs provide very similar findings from those with OFM; except that the explanatory power for each of relevant models with AFM is smaller than that with OFM (see Tables 4.8 for details). For example, the explanatory power of the full model with OFMs is 0.2454 whereas that of the model with AFMs is 0.2031. The results from O-logit regressions for models with AFMs confirm that all types of P-E fit are positive determinants of organizational commitment and their coefficients are statistically significant at .01 level (H1-2, H2-2).

For the impacts of P-J fit and P-O fit, we can compare the fully standardized coefficients. As shown in Table 4.10, the fully standardized coefficient for P-O fit is about two times greater than that for P-J fit (0.346 vs. 0.164). The marginal effect of P-O fit at "strongly agree" is also greater than that of P-J fit (0.209 vs. 0.147). The difference of impact between P-O fit and P-J fit is very small, compared to one from the model with OFM (see Table 4.12). These results together support the hypothesis that the effects of P-O fit on organizational commitment is greater than that of P-J fit (H3-2).

For predicted probabilities comparison, Figure 4.8, 4.10, and 4.12 show the distribution of predicted probabilities of organizational commitment by its categories. Compared to those with OFMs, the predicted probabilities with AFMs show more linear relationship between P-O fit and organizational commitment (see Figure 4.12). In addition, the gaps between the predicted probabilities for "strongly agree" and those for other categories are getting larger as fit between a person and work environment increases, compared to ones with OFMs.

In terms of sectoral differences, the models with AFMs show different results from those with OFMs. All the coefficients for interaction terms from Model 2 through Model 5 have a

positive sign and they are statistically significant, except the one for P-J fit and sector from Model 5 (see Table 4.8 for details). These results indicate that the effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment are greater for employees in the public sector, compared those in non-profit sector. For example, Table 4.10 shows that the fully standardized coefficient of interaction term for P-O fit and sector is 0.117, implying that for a standard deviation increase in P-O fit, employees in the public sector are expected to increase the level of their organizational commitment by .117 standard deviations greater than those in non-profit sector, holding all other variables constant. For marginal effects at "strongly agree", the coefficient of interaction term for P-O fit and sector also shows that the probability of strongly agreeing is 10.5% higher for employees in the public sector, compared to those in non-profit sector, holding all other variables at their means (see Table 4.12). Based on these results, this study concludes that models with AFM support that the effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment differ by sector settings (H4-3).

4.3 Effects of P-E Fit on Work Motivation

In analyses for the effects of P-E fit on work motivation of employees, the same models were used as in the analyses for job satisfaction and organizational commitment. As shown in Table 4.13, the explanatory powers of the models are far lower compared to those of the models for job satisfaction and organizational commitment. For example, the explanatory power of the full model for work motivation is 0.1006 while those for job satisfaction and organizational commitment are 0.2151 and 0.2454 respectively (see Table 4.13 for details). However, all the P-E fit variables are positive predictors of work motivation and they are statistically significant

at .01 level (H1-3). The results from Model 2 through Model 5 also support that the two sub-dimensions of P-E fit have independent effects on work motivation (H2-3).

For the impacts of sub-dimensions of P-E fit, Table 4.15 shows that marginal change of P-O fit for work motivation from the fully standardized coefficient is greater than that of P-J fit (0.358 vs. 0.314). The results indicate that for a standard deviation increase in P-O fit, work motivation is expected to increase by .358 standard deviations while work motivation is expected to increase by .314 standard deviations with a standard deviation increase in P-J fit, holding all other variables constant (see Table 4.15). This result is different from the expectation from the previous literature that P-J fit would have a greater impact on work motivation than P-O fit (H3-3). In addition, the marginal effects for work motivation at "strongly agree" category also confirm that P-O fit has a greater impact than P-J fit on work motivation (0.588 vs. 0.457, see Table 4.17 for details).

For the distribution of the predicted probabilities of work motivation by its categories, the predicted probabilities of work motivation in every category show a linear relationship with every fit type unlike in the distribution of predicted probabilities for job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition, although the overall trend is similar in that the predicted probability for "strongly agree" increases as P-E fit increases, the slopes of each probability line for work motivation categories are lower than those for job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It implies that overall P-E fit has less impact on the change of predicted probabilities for work motivation. In other words, P-E fit has little impact on work motivation compared to its impacts on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Accordingly, lower slopes of predicted probabilities for P-J fit compared to those for P-O fit implies that P-J fit has less impact on work motivation than P-O fit (see Figure 4.13, 4.15 and 4.17 for comparison).

In terms of the difference between sectors, the results from O-logit regressions suggest that the effects of P-E fit on work motivation are different between sectors. As in the case for job satisfaction, the effects of P-E fit on employee motivation are smaller for public employees. When the effects are compared among its sub-dimensions, only the effects of P-J fit were different between sectors (see Table 4.13 for details). Based on these results from O-logit regressions, this study concludes that the effects of P-E fit on work motivation differ by sector settings (H4-3).

Results from using the alternative fit measures are shown in Table 4.14 and findings with AFM confirm that the P-E fit is a positive predictor of work motivation (H1-3). When each of its sub-dimensions was included in Model 3 and 4, they were both positive determinants of employee work motivation (H2-3). However, when they were both included in the analysis together, only P-J fit was a statistically significant predictor of employee work motivation (see Table 4.14 for details). Unlike the findings from OFM, the results from marginal changes and marginal effects at "strongly agree" show that P-J fit has a greater impact on work motivation than P-O fit (see Table 4.16 and 4.18). These results together support the hypothesis of this study that P-J fit has a greater impact on work motivation than P-O fit (H3-3).

Figures for the predicted probabilities with AFM show flatter lines compared to those with OFM. These graphs generally show that P-E fit with OFM has more power to explain the relationship between P-E fit and work motivation. For example, as shown in Figure 4.18, the slopes of the predicted probabilities of work motivation by P-O fit are very close to zero, implying that P-O fit has very little impact on employee work motivation (see Figure 4.18). For the effects of sectoral differences, the results from O-logit regressions and marginal effects at

"strongly agree" show that the effects of P-E fit on work motivation has no difference between sectors (H4-3).

In short, the results from O-logit regressions with both OFM and AFM suggest that P-E fit is an important determinant of employee attitudes (H1) and its sub-dimensions have independent effects on job satisfaction, commitment, and employee work motivation (H2). However, findings for the specific effects of each sub-dimension are different between the findings from the two different fit measures. For example, while findings from both OFM and AFM support that P-O fit is a more important predictor for job satisfaction and organizational commitment, they yield mixed findings for work motivation (H3). In relation to the difference in the effects of P-E fit between sectors (H4), findings from using these two sets of fit measures differ, making it hard for providing a consistent interpretation for the results (see Table 4.19 for a summary of results for all the hypotheses tests in this chapter).

Table 4.1 O-Logit Estimation for Satisfaction (OFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1083	1026	1038	998	976
Pseudo R2	0.0568	0.1829	0.1391	0.1728	0.2151
Wald Chi2	113.28***	266.89***	221.72***	255.55***	310.92***
P-E Fit		7.898***			
		(0.815)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-2.282**			
		(0.919)			
P-J Fit			4.589***		3.855***
			(0.608)		(0.625)
P-J Fit*Sector			-0.741		-0.790
			(0.727)		(0.783)
P-O Fit				6.606***	5.745***
				(0.759)	(0.782)
P-O Fit*Sector				-1.540*	-1.756*
				(0.865)	(0.914)
Age	0.045***	0.041***	0.046***	0.036***	0.036***
	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.009)
Job Tenure	-0.006	-0.015	-0.010	-0.019*	-0.020*
	(0.010)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.011)
# of Children	0.075	0.051	0.077	0.064	0.045
	(0.066)	(0.063)	(0.062)	(0.063)	(0.067)
Coldeg	0.031	0.039	0.132	-0.111	-0.012
	(0.187)	(0.201)	(0.195)	(0.206)	(0.211)
Graddeg	-0.043	-0.097	-0.002	-0.197	-0.173
	(0.183)	(0.200)	(0.192)	(0.204)	(0.209)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.058	0.090	0.137	0.040	0.126
	(0.179)	(0.181)	(0.178)	(0.194)	(0.196)
Gender (Male)	-0.179	-0.115	-0.126	-0.064	-0.017
	(0.132)	(0.142)	(0.139)	(0.147)	(0.150)
Marital Status (Married)	0.342**	0.238	0.305*	0.117	0.142
	(0.160)	(0.167)	(0.168)	(0.173)	(0.176)
Sector (Public)	-1.257***	1.519***	0.088	0.845	1.966***
	(0.145)	(0.576)	(0.439)	(0.600)	(0.645)
State (GA)	0.672***	0.076	0.300**	0.218	-0.006
	(0.133)	(0.148)	(0.142)	(0.152)	(0.156)
Cut1 (Constant)	-1.715***	2.442***	0.819	1.595**	3.175***
	(0.440)	(0.667)	(0.579)	(0.640)	(0.698)
Cut2 (Constant)	-0.314	4.034***	2.330***	3.149***	4.802***
	(0.430)	(0.666)	(0.575)	(0.634)	(0.699)
Cut3 (Constant)	1.954***	6.809***	4.912***	5.956***	7.794***
	(0.444)	(0.696)	(0.599)	(0.655)	(0.732)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 4.2 O-Logit Estimation for Satisfaction (AFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1083	1075	1075	1014	1014
Pseudo R2	0.0568	0.1492	0.1165	0.1175	0.1516
Wald Chi2	113.28***	283.59***	228.08***	187.74***	252.69***
P-E Fit		1.474***			
		(0.209)			
P-E Fit*Sector		0.383			
		(0.261)			
P-J Fit			1.040***		0.813***
			(0.189)		(0.198)
P-J Fit*Sector			0.266		0.297
			(0.234)		(0.250)
P-O Fit				0.673***	0.562***
				(0.119)	(0.123)
P-O Fit*Sector				0.361**	0.264
				(0.174)	(0.178)
Age	0.045***	0.047***	0.050***	0.040***	0.043***
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.009)
Job Tenure	-0.006	-0.005	-0.005	-0.004	-0.002
	(0.010)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.011)
# of Children	0.075	0.042	0.070	0.073	0.045
	(0.066)	(0.058)	(0.060)	(0.060)	(0.061)
Coldeg	0.031	0.175	0.122	0.001	0.035
	(0.187)	(0.203)	(0.197)	(0.204)	(0.211)
Graddeg	-0.043	0.149	0.037	0.040	0.029
	(0.183)	(0.201)	(0.192)	(0.201)	(0.209)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.058	-0.073	-0.040	0.147	0.077
	(0.179)	(0.188)	(0.181)	(0.197)	(0.196)
Gender (Male)	-0.179	-0.059	-0.081	-0.223	-0.112
	(0.132)	(0.137)	(0.135)	(0.141)	(0.143)
Marital Status (Married)	0.342**	0.214	0.266	0.273	0.248
	(0.160)	(0.168)	(0.166)	(0.167)	(0.172)
Sector (Public)	-1.257***	-0.566*	-0.881***	-0.834***	-0.645**
	(0.145)	(0.309)	(0.290)	(0.203)	(0.313)
State (GA)	0.672***	0.278**	0.461***	0.403***	0.281*
	(0.133)	(0.139)	(0.137)	(0.142)	(0.145)
Cut1 (Constant)	-1.715***	-0.162	-0.390	-1.388***	-0.543
	(0.440)	(0.515)	(0.508)	(0.452)	(0.521)
Cut2 (Constant)	-0.314	1.288**	1.043**	0.017	0.900*
	(0.430)	(0.508)	(0.499)	(0.448)	(0.513)
Cut3 (Constant)	1.954***	3.896***	3.536***	2.440***	3.460***
	(0.444)	(0.523)	(0.512)	(0.462)	(0.528)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 4.3 Marginal Changes for Satisfaction (OFM)

Satisfaction	b	z	P>z	bStdX	bStdY	bStdXY	SDofX
P-J Fit	3.855	6.166	0.000	0.966	1.588	0.398	0.251
P-O Fit	5.745	7.342	0.000	1.276	2.367	0.526	0.222
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.790	-1.010	0.313	-0.219	-0.326	-0.090	0.277
P-O Fit*Sector	-1.756	-1.921	0.055	-0.561	-0.723	-0.231	0.320
Age	0.036	3.743	0.000	0.308	0.015	0.127	8.657
Job Tenure	-0.020	-1.793	0.073	-0.131	-0.008	-0.054	6.477
# of Children	0.045	0.682	0.495	0.051	0.019	0.021	1.123
Educ (college)	-0.012	-0.055	0.956	-0.006	-0.005	-0.002	0.493
Educ (graduate)	-0.173	-0.825	0.409	-0.086	-0.071	-0.035	0.497
Ethnicity	0.126	0.643	0.520	0.044	0.052	0.018	0.347
Gender	-0.017	-0.112	0.911	-0.008	-0.007	-0.004	0.499
Marital Status	0.142	0.808	0.419	0.059	0.059	0.024	0.413
Sector	1.966	3.050	0.002	0.933	0.810	0.384	0.474
State	-0.006	-0.038	0.970	-0.003	-0.002	-0.001	0.498

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
bStdX = x-standardized coefficient
bStdY = y-standardized coefficient
bStdXY = fully standardized coefficient
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 4.4 Marginal Changes for Satisfaction (AFM)

Satisfaction	b	z	P>z	bStdX	bStdY	bStdXY	SDofX
PJ Fit	0.813	4.094	0.000	0.553	0.364	0.248	0.680
PO Fit	0.562	4.586	0.000	0.568	0.252	0.255	1.011
P-J Fit*Sector	0.297	1.187	0.235	0.178	0.133	0.080	0.598
P-O Fit*Sector	0.264	1.479	0.139	0.180	0.118	0.081	0.680
Age	0.043	4.963	0.000	0.374	0.019	0.168	8.740
Job Tenure	-0.002	-0.173	0.863	-0.013	-0.001	-0.006	6.485
# of Children	0.045	0.732	0.464	0.050	0.020	0.023	1.124
Educ (college)	0.035	0.166	0.868	0.017	0.016	0.008	0.492
Educ (graduate)	0.029	0.140	0.888	0.015	0.013	0.007	0.498
Ethnicity	0.077	0.394	0.694	0.026	0.035	0.012	0.341
Gender	-0.112	-0.783	0.433	-0.056	-0.050	-0.025	0.498
Marital Status	0.248	1.446	0.148	0.102	0.111	0.046	0.411
Sector	-0.645	-2.062	0.039	-0.303	-0.289	-0.136	0.470
State	0.281	1.941	0.052	0.139	0.126	0.063	0.497

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
bStdX = x-standardized coefficient
bStdY = y-standardized coefficient
bStdXY = fully standardized coefficient
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 4.5 Marginal Effects for Satisfaction at "Strongly Agree" (OFM)

Pr = .4799	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
PJ Fit	0.962	0.156	6.160	0.000	0.656	1.269	0.523
PO Fit	1.434	0.196	7.330	0.000	1.050	1.817	0.633
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.197	0.195	-1.010	0.313	-0.580	0.186	0.291
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.438	0.228	-1.920	0.055	-0.886	0.009	0.374
Age	0.009	0.002	3.740	0.000	0.004	0.014	49.169
Job Tenure	-0.005	0.003	-1.790	0.073	-0.011	0.000	8.564
# of Children	0.011	0.017	0.680	0.495	-0.021	0.044	0.961
Educ (college)*	-0.003	0.053	-0.060	0.956	-0.106	0.100	0.417
Educ (graduate)*	-0.043	0.052	-0.830	0.408	-0.145	0.059	0.444
Ethnicity*	0.031	0.049	0.640	0.521	-0.064	0.127	0.139
Gender*	-0.004	0.037	-0.110	0.911	-0.078	0.069	0.540
Marital Status*	0.035	0.044	0.810	0.418	-0.050	0.121	0.782
Sector*	0.442	0.120	3.690	0.000	0.207	0.676	0.659
State*	-0.001	0.039	-0.040	0.970	-0.078	0.075	0.450

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 4.6 Marginal Effects for Satisfaction at "Strongly Agree" (AFM)

Pr = .4931	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
PJ Fit	0.203	0.050	4.090	0.000	0.106	0.300	0.940
PO Fit	0.141	0.031	4.580	0.000	0.080	0.201	0.783
P-J Fit*Sector	0.074	0.062	1.190	0.235	-0.048	0.197	0.502
P-O Fit*Sector	0.066	0.045	1.480	0.139	-0.021	0.153	0.331
Age	0.011	0.002	4.960	0.000	0.006	0.015	49.199
Job Tenure	0.000	0.003	-0.170	0.863	-0.006	0.005	8.576
# of Children	0.011	0.015	0.730	0.464	-0.019	0.041	0.959
Educ (college)*	0.009	0.053	0.170	0.868	-0.095	0.112	0.408
Educ (graduate)*	0.007	0.052	0.140	0.888	-0.095	0.110	0.458
Ethnicity*	0.019	0.049	0.390	0.694	-0.077	0.115	0.134
Gender*	-0.028	0.036	-0.780	0.433	-0.098	0.042	0.543
Marital Status*	0.062	0.042	1.450	0.146	-0.021	0.145	0.785
Sector*	-0.159	0.076	-2.110	0.035	-0.308	-0.011	0.671
State*	0.070	0.036	1.950	0.051	0.000	0.141	0.441

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 4.7 O-Logit Estimation for Commitment (OFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1085	1028	1040	1000	978
Pseudo R2	0.0798	0.1886	0.1339	0.2282	0.2454
Wald Test (Chi2)	150.11***	271.66***	224.48***	328.38***	329.91***
P-E Fit		5.883***			
		(0.728)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-0.207			
		(0.878)			
P-J Fit			3.023***		2.053***
			(0.520)		(0.615)
P-J Fit*Sector			0.231		-0.035
			(0.654)		(0.764)
P-O Fit				6.646***	6.186***
				(0.755)	(0.821)
P-O Fit*Sector				-0.238	-0.495
				(0.875)	(0.945)
Age	0.042***	0.035***	0.039***	0.030***	0.027***
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.009)
Job Tenure	-0.016	-0.023**	-0.018	-0.030**	-0.027**
	(0.010)	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.012)	(0.012)
# of Children	0.056	0.035	0.062	0.062	0.047
	(0.066)	(0.064)	(0.063)	(0.065)	(0.067)
Coldeg	-0.185	-0.272	-0.172	-0.367	-0.382
	(0.211)	(0.226)	(0.217)	(0.237)	(0.240)
Graddeg	-0.292	-0.406*	-0.315	-0.570**	-0.589**
	(0.209)	(0.227)	(0.217)	(0.237)	(0.241)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.072	0.115	0.144	-0.038	0.019
	(0.173)	(0.183)	(0.175)	(0.208)	(0.210)
Gender (Male)	-0.273**	-0.217	-0.245*	-0.200	-0.178
	(0.134)	(0.147)	(0.142)	(0.152)	(0.157)
Marital Status (Married)	0.363**	0.340**	0.376**	0.131	0.184
	(0.162)	(0.173)	(0.170)	(0.176)	(0.182)
Sector (Public)	-1.659***	-0.340	-1.114***	-0.396	0.093
	(0.151)	(0.527)	(0.380)	(0.598)	(0.672)
State (GA)	0.887***	0.348**	0.580***	0.386**	0.259
	(0.141)	(0.157)	(0.152)	(0.162)	(0.170)
Cut1 (Constant)	-2.472***	0.201	-1.031*	0.098	0.817
	(0.466)	(0.644)	(0.559)	(0.729)	(0.788)
Cut2 (Constant)	-0.987**	1.846***	0.503	1.928***	2.669***
	(0.436)	(0.610)	(0.530)	(0.683)	(0.742)
Cut3 (Constant)	1.269***	4.574***	2.973***	4.955***	5.756***
	(0.442)	(0.620)	(0.536)	(0.694)	(0.754)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 4.8 O-Logit Estimation for Commitment (AFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1085	1077	1077	1016	1016
Pseudo R2	0.0798	0.1836	0.1318	0.1786	0.2031
Wald (Chi2)	150.11***	316.23***	244.12***	261.50***	285.79***
P-E Fit		1.512***			
		(0.202)			
P-E Fit*Sector		0.574**			
		(0.269)			
P-J Fit			0.870***		0.588***
			(0.185)		(0.205)
P-J Fit*Sector			0.407*		0.423
			(0.237)		(0.262)
P-O Fit				0.928***	0.836***
				(0.147)	(0.149)
P-O Fit*Sector				0.503**	0.419**
				(0.206)	(0.209)
Age	0.042***	0.044***	0.047***	0.039***	0.042***
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)
Job Tenure	-0.016	-0.020*	-0.018	-0.022*	-0.023*
	(0.010)	(0.012)	(0.011)	(0.012)	(0.012)
# of Children	0.056	0.008	0.044	0.029	-0.003
	(0.066)	(0.061)	(0.061)	(0.065)	(0.065)
Coldeg	-0.185	-0.067	-0.114	-0.226	-0.222
	(0.211)	(0.228)	(0.215)	(0.248)	(0.247)
Graddeg	-0.292	-0.160	-0.251	-0.297	-0.341
	(0.209)	(0.230)	(0.216)	(0.246)	(0.248)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.072	-0.037	-0.012	0.151	0.094
	(0.173)	(0.178)	(0.173)	(0.199)	(0.196)
Gender (Male)	-0.273**	-0.142	-0.177	-0.263*	-0.162
	(0.134)	(0.142)	(0.139)	(0.147)	(0.149)
Marital Status (Married)	0.363**	0.251	0.286*	0.329**	0.306*
	(0.162)	(0.165)	(0.165)	(0.167)	(0.168)
Sector (Public)	-1.659***	-1.163***	-1.500***	-1.269***	-1.294***
	(0.151)	(0.289)	(0.284)	(0.199)	(0.311)
State (GA)	0.887***	0.462***	0.674***	0.530***	0.426***
	(0.141)	(0.150)	(0.146)	(0.154)	(0.155)
Cut1 (Constant)	-2.472***	-1.098**	-1.442***	-2.139***	-1.571***
	(0.466)	(0.528)	(0.522)	(0.504)	(0.569)
Cut2 (Constant)	-0.987**	0.474	0.097	-0.646	-0.032
	(0.436)	(0.499)	(0.493)	(0.475)	(0.540)
Cut3 (Constant)	1.269***	3.127***	2.555***	1.842***	2.573***
	(0.442)	(0.503)	(0.496)	(0.478)	(0.541)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***$p<0.01$, **$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$)

Table 4.9 Marginal Changes for Commitment (OFM)

Satisfaction	b	z	P>z	bStdX	bStdY	bStdXY	SDofX
P-J Fit	2.053	3.340	0.001	0.515	0.817	0.205	0.251
P-O Fit	6.186	7.533	0.000	1.373	2.463	0.547	0.222
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.035	-0.046	0.963	-0.010	-0.014	-0.004	0.277
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.495	-0.524	0.600	-0.158	-0.197	-0.063	0.319
Age	0.027	2.941	0.003	0.233	0.011	0.093	8.653
Job Tenure	-0.027	-2.285	0.022	-0.177	-0.011	-0.070	6.476
# of Children	0.047	0.698	0.485	0.053	0.019	0.021	1.124
Educ (college)	-0.382	-1.593	0.111	-0.188	-0.152	-0.075	0.494
Educ (graduate)	-0.589	-2.448	0.014	-0.293	-0.235	-0.117	0.497
Ethnicity	0.019	0.092	0.926	0.007	0.008	0.003	0.347
Gender	-0.178	-1.134	0.257	-0.089	-0.071	-0.035	0.499
Marital Status	0.184	1.012	0.312	0.076	0.073	0.030	0.414
Sector	0.093	0.138	0.890	0.044	0.037	0.018	0.474
State	0.259	1.520	0.128	0.129	0.103	0.051	0.498

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
bStdX = x-standardized coefficient
bStdY = y-standardized coefficient
bStdXY = fully standardized coefficient
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 4.10 Marginal Changes for Commitment (AFM)

Satisfaction	b	z	P>z	bStdX	bStdY	bStdXY	SDofX
PJ Fit	0.588	2.866	0.004	0.400	0.241	0.164	0.681
PO Fit	0.836	5.622	0.000	0.844	0.343	0.346	1.010
P-J Fit*Sector	0.423	1.617	0.106	0.254	0.174	0.104	0.600
P-O Fit*Sector	0.419	2.007	0.045	0.285	0.172	0.117	0.680
Age	0.042	5.015	0.000	0.363	0.017	0.149	8.737
Job Tenure	-0.023	-1.849	0.064	-0.146	-0.009	-0.060	6.484
# of Children	-0.003	-0.041	0.967	-0.003	-0.001	-0.001	1.125
Educ (college)	-0.222	-0.900	0.368	-0.109	-0.091	-0.045	0.492
Educ (graduate)	-0.341	-1.375	0.169	-0.170	-0.140	-0.070	0.498
Ethnicity	0.094	0.478	0.633	0.032	0.038	0.013	0.342
Gender	-0.162	-1.088	0.276	-0.081	-0.066	-0.033	0.498
Marital Status	0.306	1.819	0.069	0.126	0.126	0.052	0.411
Sector	-1.294	-4.161	0.000	-0.608	-0.531	-0.249	0.470
State	0.426	2.753	0.006	0.212	0.175	0.087	0.497

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
bStdX = x-standardized coefficient
bStdY = y-standardized coefficient
bStdXY = fully standardized coefficient
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 4.11 Marginal Effects for Commitment at "Strongly Agree" (OFM)

Pr = .4935	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
PJ Fit	0.513	0.154	3.340	0.001	0.212	0.814	0.522
PO Fit	1.546	0.205	7.530	0.000	1.144	1.949	0.633
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.009	0.191	-0.050	0.963	-0.383	0.366	0.292
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.124	0.236	-0.520	0.600	-0.586	0.339	0.374
Age	0.007	0.002	2.940	0.003	0.002	0.011	49.182
Job Tenure	-0.007	0.003	-2.280	0.022	-0.013	-0.001	8.575
# of Children	0.012	0.017	0.700	0.485	-0.021	0.045	0.962
Educ (college)*	-0.095	0.059	-1.600	0.109	-0.211	0.021	0.418
Educ (graduate)*	-0.146	0.059	-2.490	0.013	-0.261	-0.031	0.443
Ethnicity*	0.005	0.052	0.090	0.926	-0.098	0.108	0.140
Gender*	-0.044	0.039	-1.140	0.256	-0.121	0.032	0.540
Marital Status*	0.046	0.045	1.020	0.310	-0.043	0.134	0.781
Sector*	0.023	0.168	0.140	0.890	-0.306	0.352	0.660
State*	0.065	0.042	1.520	0.127	-0.018	0.148	0.450

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 4.12 Marginal Effects for Commitment at "Strongly Agree" (AFM)

Pr = .5173	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
PJ Fit	0.147	0.051	2.870	0.004	0.046	0.247	0.940
PO Fit	0.209	0.037	5.650	0.000	0.136	0.281	0.781
P-J Fit*Sector	0.106	0.065	1.620	0.106	-0.022	0.234	0.503
P-O Fit*Sector	0.105	0.052	2.010	0.045	0.002	0.207	0.331
Age	0.010	0.002	5.010	0.000	0.006	0.014	49.212
Job Tenure	-0.006	0.003	-1.850	0.065	-0.012	0.000	8.587
# of Children	-0.001	0.016	-0.040	0.967	-0.033	0.031	0.960
Educ (college)*	-0.055	0.062	-0.900	0.367	-0.176	0.065	0.409
Educ (graduate)*	-0.085	0.062	-1.380	0.167	-0.206	0.036	0.457
Ethnicity*	0.023	0.049	0.480	0.632	-0.072	0.119	0.135
Gender*	-0.040	0.037	-1.090	0.276	-0.113	0.032	0.543
Marital Status*	0.076	0.042	1.830	0.068	-0.006	0.158	0.784
Sector*	-0.307	0.067	-4.550	0.000	-0.439	-0.174	0.671
State*	0.106	0.038	2.780	0.005	0.031	0.181	0.441

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 4.13 O-Logit Estimation for Motivation (OFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1082	1026	1037	998	976
Pseudo R2	0.0391	0.1836	0.0703	0.0893	0.1006
Wald (Chi2)	68.40***	114.76***	99.97***	113.95***	116.64***
P-E Fit		4.990***			
		(0.840)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-2.146**			
		(0.961)			
P-J Fit			3.175***		2.588***
			(0.628)		(0.677)
P-J Fit*Sector			-1.223		-1.474*
			(0.750)		(0.822)
P-O Fit				4.104***	3.333***
				(0.831)	(0.817)
P-O Fit*Sector				-1.081	-0.745
				(0.945)	(0.951)
Age	0.044***	0.037***	0.040***	0.034***	0.030***
	(0.009)	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.010)	(0.010)
Job Tenure	-0.026**	-0.034***	-0.031***	-0.034***	-0.035***
	(0.011)	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.013)	(0.013)
# of Children	0.160**	0.110	0.115	0.152**	0.138*
	(0.067)	(0.072)	(0.071)	(0.075)	(0.075)
Coldeg	0.084	0.055	0.150	-0.065	-0.052
	(0.220)	(0.228)	(0.225)	(0.232)	(0.234)
Graddeg	0.026	-0.073	0.015	-0.113	-0.133
	(0.218)	(0.228)	(0.226)	(0.231)	(0.235)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.022	0.039	0.097	-0.082	-0.017
	(0.202)	(0.208)	(0.204)	(0.220)	(0.219)
Gender (Male)	-0.409***	-0.444***	-0.425***	-0.400**	-0.395**
	(0.146)	(0.155)	(0.152)	(0.159)	(0.162)
Marital Status (Married)	0.467***	0.450**	0.518***	0.235	0.263
	(0.175)	(0.179)	(0.179)	(0.189)	(0.187)
Sector (Public)	-0.785***	1.352**	0.506	0.609	1.466**
	(0.172)	(0.582)	(0.440)	(0.642)	(0.672)
State (GA)	0.198	-0.231	-0.080	-0.152	-0.276
	(0.152)	(0.168)	(0.166)	(0.163)	(0.174)
Cut1 (Constant)	-2.983***	-0.487	-1.375**	-1.131	-0.286
	(0.544)	(0.701)	(0.646)	(0.762)	(0.771)
Cut2 (Constant)	-1.004**	1.556**	0.688	0.856	1.717**
	(0.491)	(0.673)	(0.594)	(0.745)	(0.751)
Cut3 (Constant)	0.730	3.420***	2.507***	2.733***	3.617***
	(0.498)	(0.691)	(0.606)	(0.757)	(0.767)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 4.14 O-Logit Estimation for Motivation (AFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1082	1074	1074	1014	1014
Pseudo R2	0.0391	0.0664	0.0630	0.0505	0.0681
Wald (Chi2)	68.40***	101.80***	103.73***	73.97***	97.77***
P-E Fit		0.939***			
		(0.238)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-0.064			
		(0.297)			
P-J Fit			0.802***		0.750***
			(0.223)		(0.243)
P-J Fit*Sector			-0.051		-0.071
			(0.274)		(0.298)
P-O Fit				0.356**	0.229
				(0.155)	(0.157)
P-O Fit*Sector				-0.039	-0.050
				(0.196)	(0.201)
Age	0.044***	0.042***	0.045***	0.041***	0.043***
	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.009)
Job Tenure	-0.026**	-0.028**	-0.027**	-0.029**	-0.029**
	(0.011)	(0.012)	(0.012)	(0.012)	(0.012)
# of Children	0.160**	0.111	0.120*	0.126*	0.105
	(0.067)	(0.070)	(0.070)	(0.072)	(0.073)
Coldeg	0.084	0.124	0.120	0.114	0.143
	(0.220)	(0.221)	(0.222)	(0.232)	(0.232)
Graddeg	0.026	0.093	0.054	0.026	0.023
	(0.218)	(0.220)	(0.221)	(0.228)	(0.228)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.022	-0.027	-0.024	0.065	0.022
	(0.202)	(0.201)	(0.201)	(0.211)	(0.209)
Gender (Male)	-0.409***	-0.360**	-0.368**	-0.417***	-0.361**
	(0.146)	(0.148)	(0.148)	(0.153)	(0.154)
Marital Status (Married)	0.467***	0.420**	0.454***	0.463**	0.466***
	(0.175)	(0.175)	(0.176)	(0.180)	(0.181)
Sector (Public)	-0.785***	-0.111	-0.264	-0.469*	-0.082
	(0.172)	(0.328)	(0.323)	(0.241)	(0.349)
State (GA)	0.198	-0.032	0.043	0.092	-0.003
	(0.152)	(0.157)	(0.156)	(0.159)	(0.163)
Cut1 (Constant)	-2.983***	-2.036***	-2.018***	-2.827***	-2.030***
	(0.544)	(0.587)	(0.593)	(0.577)	(0.623)
Cut2 (Constant)	-1.004**	-0.061	-0.044	-0.836	-0.030
	(0.491)	(0.537)	(0.541)	(0.521)	(0.567)
Cut3 (Constant)	0.730	1.731***	1.742***	0.934*	1.768***
	(0.498)	(0.546)	(0.545)	(0.529)	(0.571)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 4.15 Marginal Changes for Motivation (OFM)

Motivation	b	z	P>z	bStdX	bStdY	bStdXY	SDofX
P-J Fit	2.588	3.821	0.000	0.649	1.250	0.314	0.251
P-O Fit	3.333	4.078	0.000	0.740	1.610	0.358	0.222
P-J Fit*Sector	-1.474	-1.793	0.073	-0.408	-0.712	-0.197	0.277
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.745	-0.784	0.433	-0.238	-0.360	-0.115	0.319
Age	0.030	3.010	0.003	0.264	0.015	0.128	8.662
Job Tenure	-0.035	-2.679	0.007	-0.228	-0.017	-0.110	6.479
# of Children	0.138	1.836	0.066	0.155	0.067	0.075	1.124
Educ (college)	-0.052	-0.224	0.823	-0.026	-0.025	-0.013	0.494
Educ (graduate)	-0.133	-0.564	0.573	-0.066	-0.064	-0.032	0.497
Ethnicity	-0.017	-0.077	0.939	-0.006	-0.008	-0.003	0.348
Gender	-0.395	-2.443	0.015	-0.197	-0.191	-0.095	0.499
Marital Status	0.263	1.403	0.161	0.109	0.127	0.053	0.414
Sector	1.466	2.182	0.029	0.695	0.708	0.336	0.474
State	-0.276	-1.585	0.113	-0.138	-0.134	-0.067	0.498

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
bStdX = x-standardized coefficient
bStdY = y-standardized coefficient
bStdXY = fully standardized coefficient
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 4.16 Marginal Changes for Motivation (AFM)

Motivation	b	z	P>z	bStdX	bStdY	bStdXY	SDofX
P-J Fit	0.750	3.085	0.002	0.510	0.378	0.257	0.680
P-O Fit	0.229	1.460	0.144	0.231	0.115	0.117	1.010
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.071	-0.239	0.811	-0.043	-0.036	-0.022	0.598
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.050	-0.248	0.804	-0.034	-0.025	-0.017	0.679
Age	0.043	4.608	0.000	0.373	0.022	0.188	8.745
Job Tenure	-0.029	-2.353	0.019	-0.190	-0.015	-0.096	6.487
# of Children	0.105	1.435	0.151	0.118	0.053	0.060	1.126
Educ (college)	0.143	0.619	0.536	0.071	0.072	0.036	0.492
Educ (graduate)	0.023	0.101	0.919	0.012	0.012	0.006	0.498
Ethnicity	0.022	0.104	0.917	0.007	0.011	0.004	0.342
Gender	-0.361	-2.337	0.019	-0.180	-0.182	-0.091	0.498
Marital Status	0.466	2.577	0.010	0.192	0.235	0.097	0.412
Sector	-0.082	-0.235	0.815	-0.039	-0.041	-0.019	0.470
State	-0.003	-0.020	0.984	-0.002	-0.002	-0.001	0.497

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
bStdX = x-standardized coefficient
bStdY = y-standardized coefficient
bStdXY = fully standardized coefficient
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 4.17 Marginal Effects for Motivation at "Strongly Agree" (OFM)

Pr = .7710	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
PJ Fit	0.457	0.116	3.930	0.000	0.229	0.685	0.522
PO Fit	0.588	0.142	4.150	0.000	0.311	0.866	0.632
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.260	0.143	-1.810	0.070	-0.541	0.021	0.291
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.132	0.167	-0.790	0.432	-0.460	0.197	0.374
Age	0.005	0.002	3.020	0.003	0.002	0.009	49.184
Job Tenure	-0.006	0.002	-2.690	0.007	-0.011	-0.002	8.583
# of Children	0.024	0.013	1.830	0.068	-0.002	0.050	0.960
Educ (college)*	-0.009	0.041	-0.220	0.824	-0.090	0.072	0.419
Educ (graduate)*	-0.024	0.042	-0.560	0.574	-0.106	0.059	0.442
Ethnicity*	-0.003	0.039	-0.080	0.939	-0.079	0.073	0.140
Gender*	-0.069	0.028	-2.480	0.013	-0.124	-0.014	0.540
Marital Status*	0.048	0.036	1.350	0.176	-0.022	0.118	0.781
Sector*	0.286	0.137	2.080	0.037	0.017	0.555	0.660
State*	-0.049	0.031	-1.580	0.115	-0.110	0.012	0.451

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 4.18 Marginal Effects for Motivation at "Strongly Agree" (AFM)

Pr = .7673	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
PJ Fit	0.134	0.043	3.120	0.002	0.050	0.218	0.938
PO Fit	0.041	0.028	1.470	0.141	-0.013	0.095	0.780
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.013	0.053	-0.240	0.811	-0.117	0.092	0.502
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.009	0.036	-0.250	0.804	-0.079	0.061	0.330
Age	0.008	0.002	4.640	0.000	0.004	0.011	49.214
Job Tenure	-0.005	0.002	-2.350	0.019	-0.010	-0.001	8.595
# of Children	0.019	0.013	1.430	0.152	-0.007	0.044	0.958
Educ (college)*	0.025	0.041	0.620	0.533	-0.054	0.105	0.410
Educ (graduate)*	0.004	0.041	0.100	0.919	-0.076	0.084	0.456
Ethnicity*	0.004	0.037	0.100	0.917	-0.069	0.076	0.135
Gender*	-0.064	0.027	-2.370	0.018	-0.117	-0.011	0.543
Marital Status*	0.089	0.037	2.430	0.015	0.017	0.161	0.784
Sector*	-0.015	0.061	-0.240	0.813	-0.135	0.106	0.672
State*	-0.001	0.029	-0.020	0.984	-0.057	0.056	0.442

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 4.19 Results of Hypotheses Tests (Attitudinal Outcomes)

Hypotheses	Results	
	OFM	AFM
H1-1: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of job satisfaction.	Supported	Supported
H1-2: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of organizational commitment.	Supported	Supported
H1-3: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of work motivation.	Supported	Supported
H2-1: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on job satisfaction.	Supported	Supported
H2-2: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on organizational commitment.	Supported	Supported
H2-3: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on work motivation.	Supported	Supported
H3-1: P-J fit has a greater effect on job satisfaction than P-O fit.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H3-2: P-O fit has a greater effect on organizational commitment than P-J fit.	Supported	Supported
H3-3: P-J fit has a greater effect on work motivation than P-O fit.	Not Supported	Supported
H4-1: The effects of P-E fit on job satisfaction for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.	Supported	Not Supported
H4-2: The effects of P-E fit on organizational commitment for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.	Not Supported	Supported
H4-3: The effects of P-E fit on work motivation for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.	Supported	Not Supported

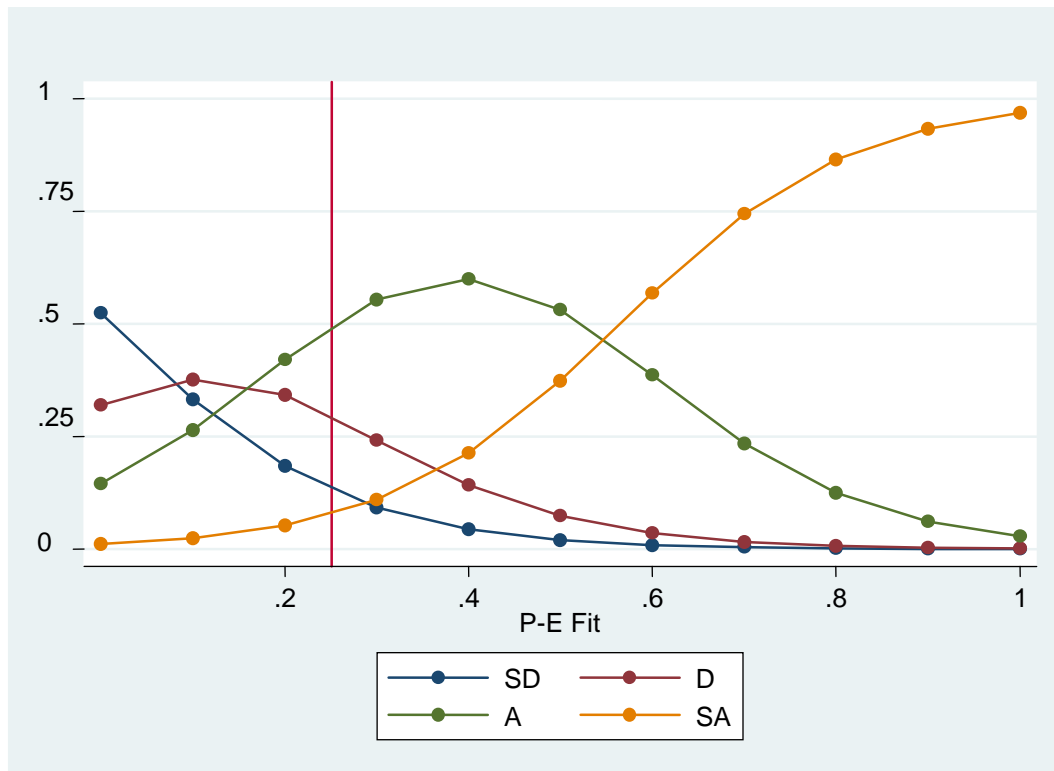Figure 4.1 Predicted Probabilities of Satisfaction by P-E Fit (OFM)

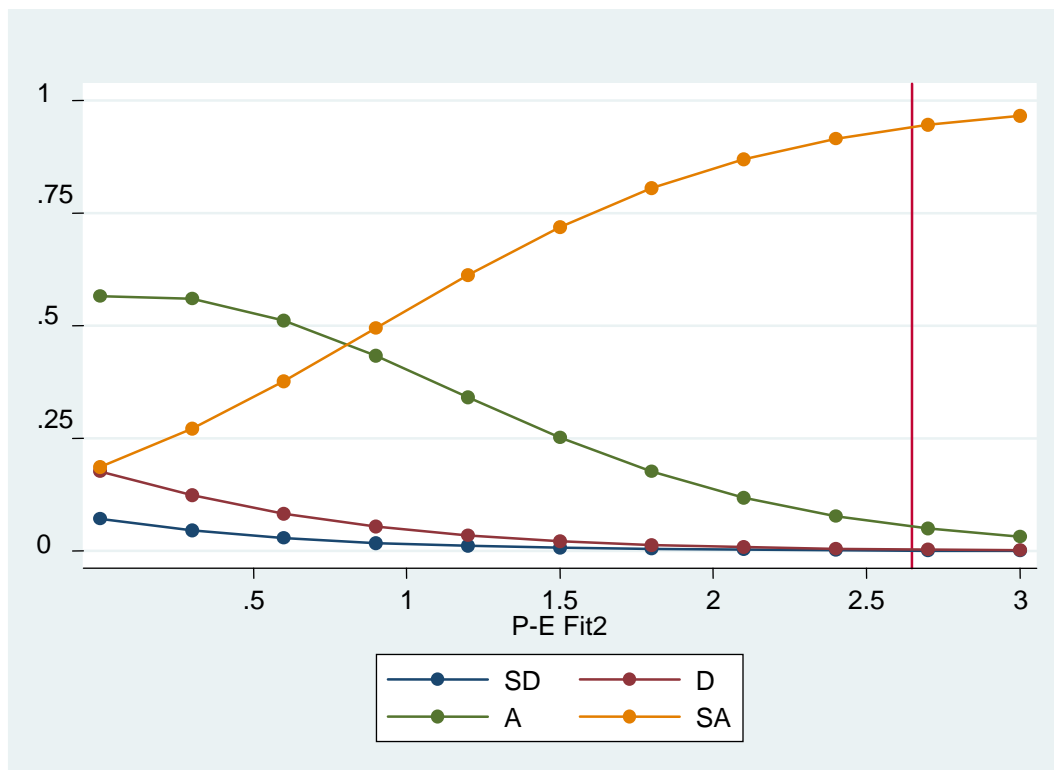Figure 4.2 Predicted Probabilities of Satisfaction by P-E Fit (AFM)

Figure 4.3 Predicted Probabilities of Satisfaction by P-J Fit (OFM)
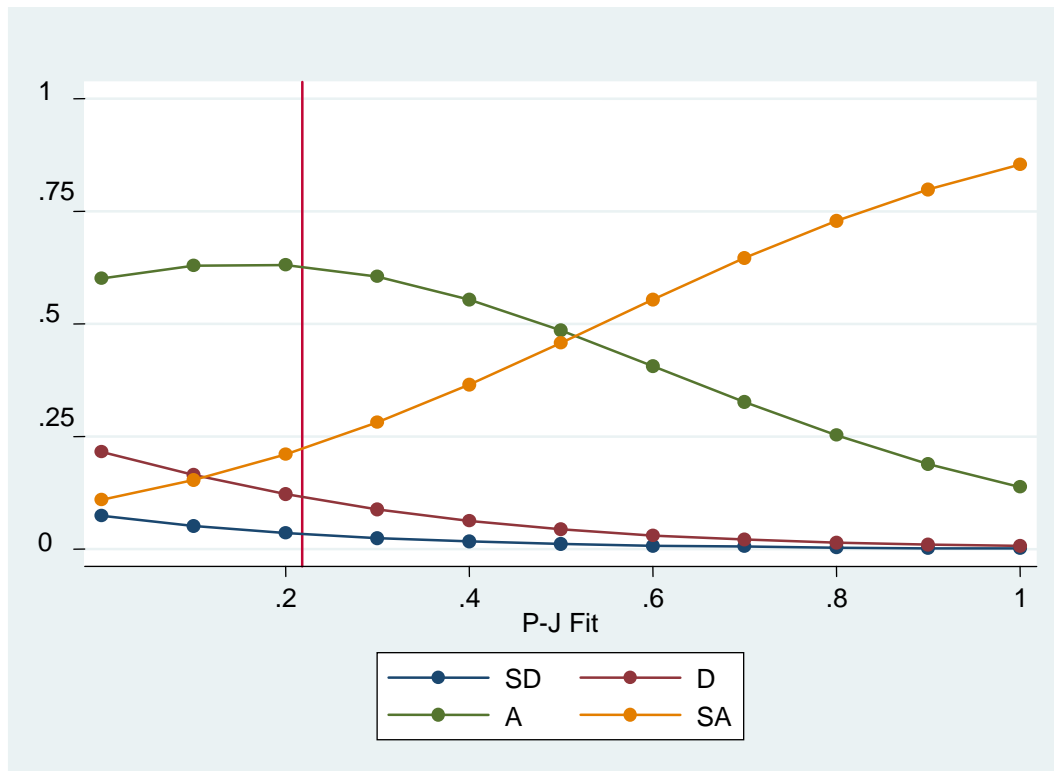

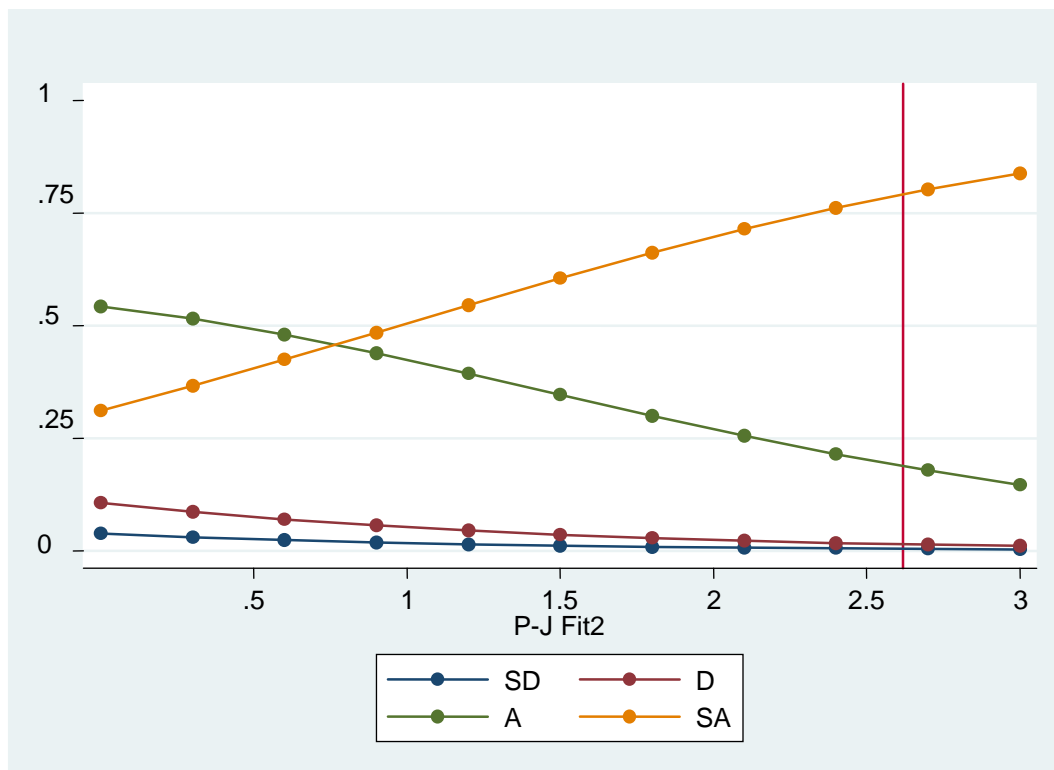Figure 4.4 Predicted Probabilities of Satisfaction by P-J Fit (AFM)

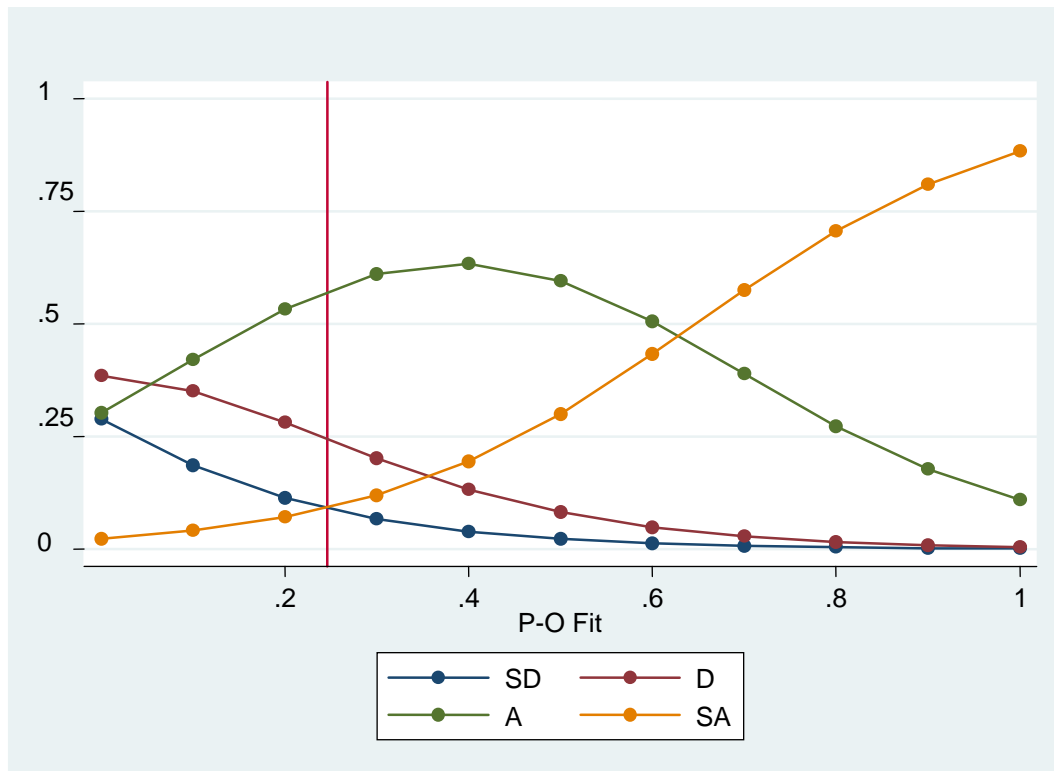Figure 4.5 Predicted Probabilities of Satisfaction by P-O Fit (OFM)

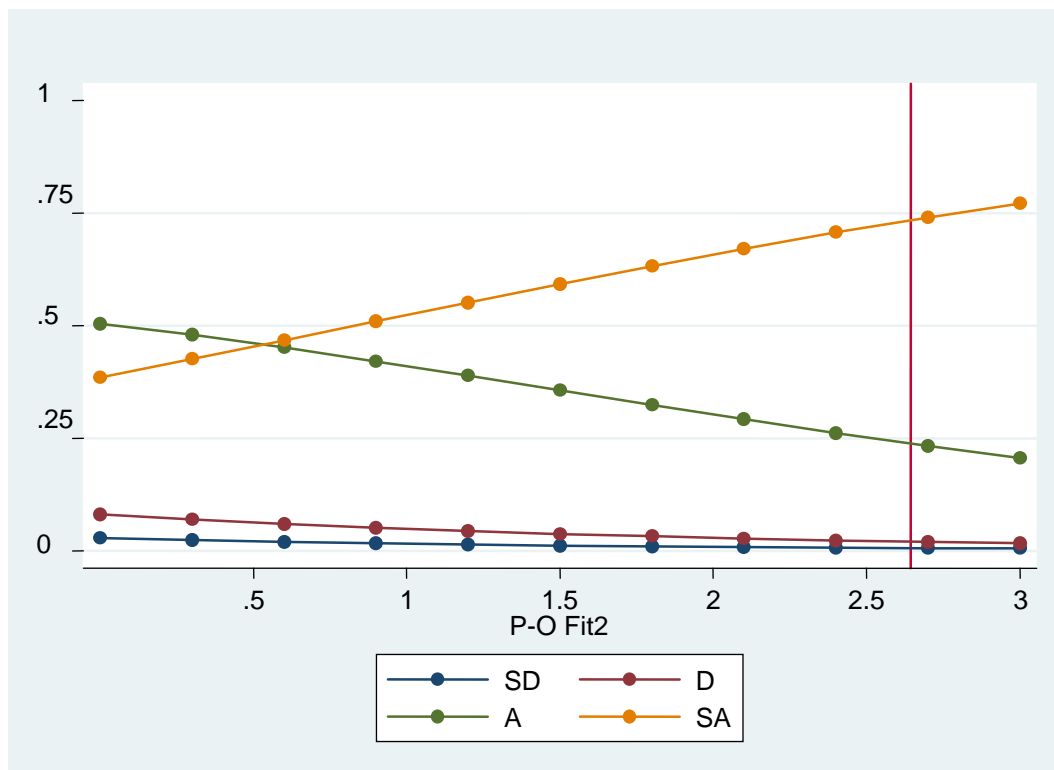Figure 4.6 Predicted Probabilities of Satisfaction by P-O Fit (AFM)

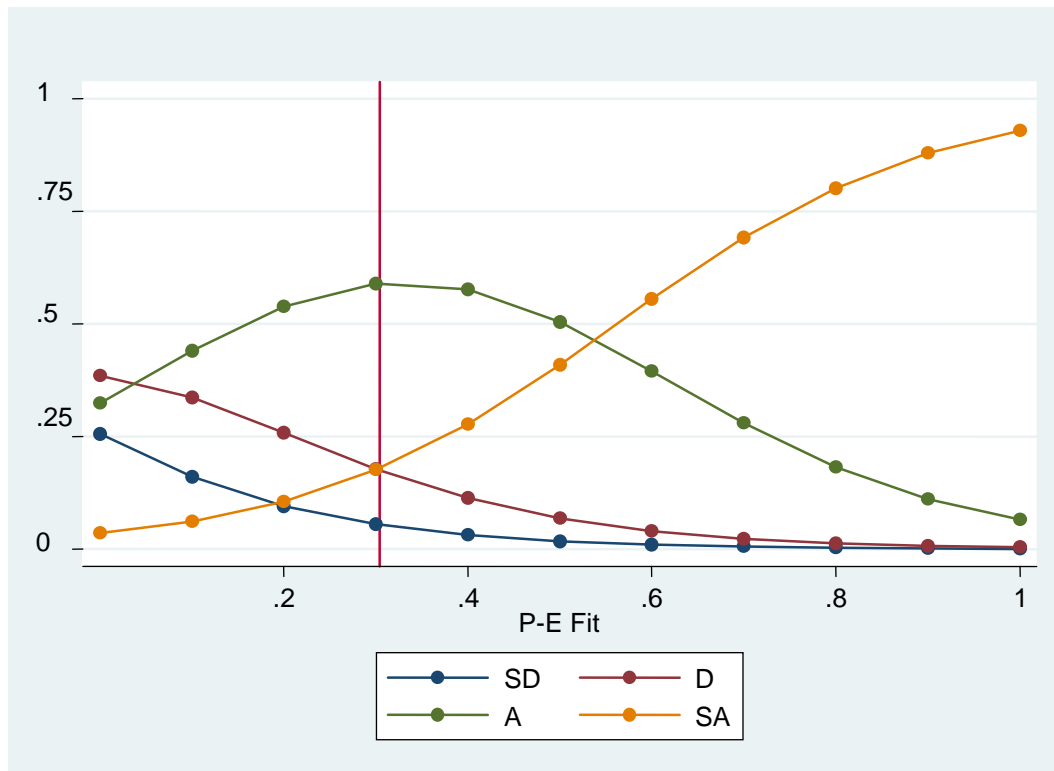Figure 4.7 Predicted Probabilities of Commitment by P-E Fit (OFM)

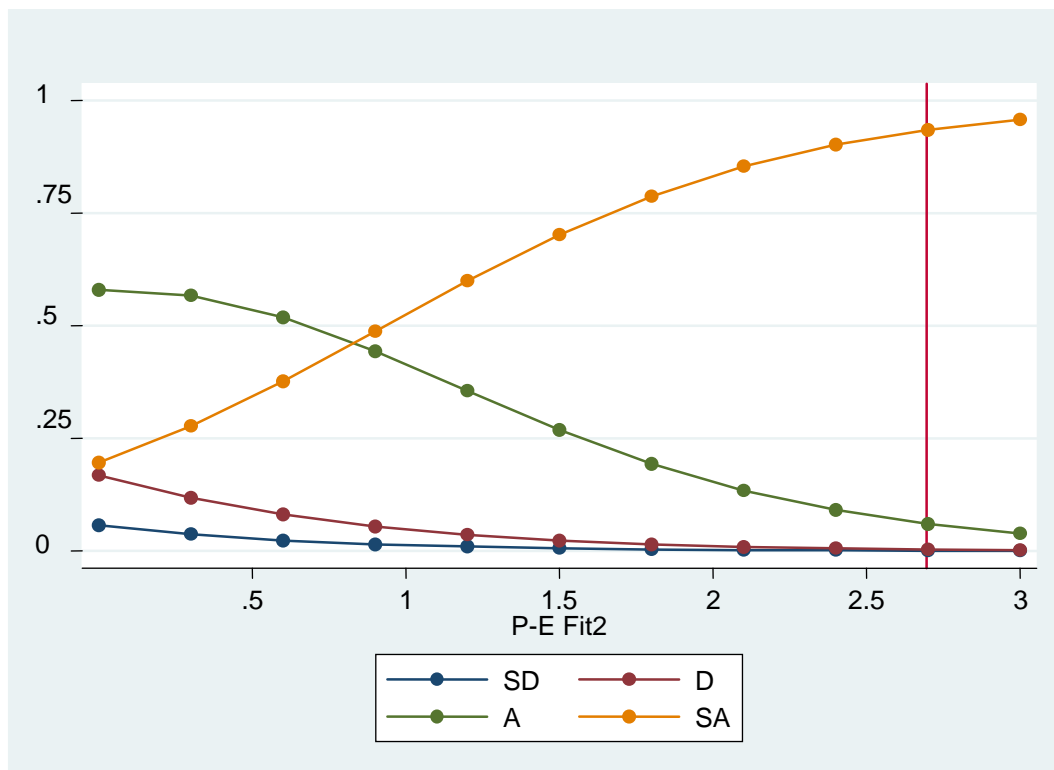Figure 4.8 Predicted Probabilities of Commitment by P-E Fit (AFM)

Figure 4.9 Predicted Probabilities of Commitment by P-J Fit (OFM)

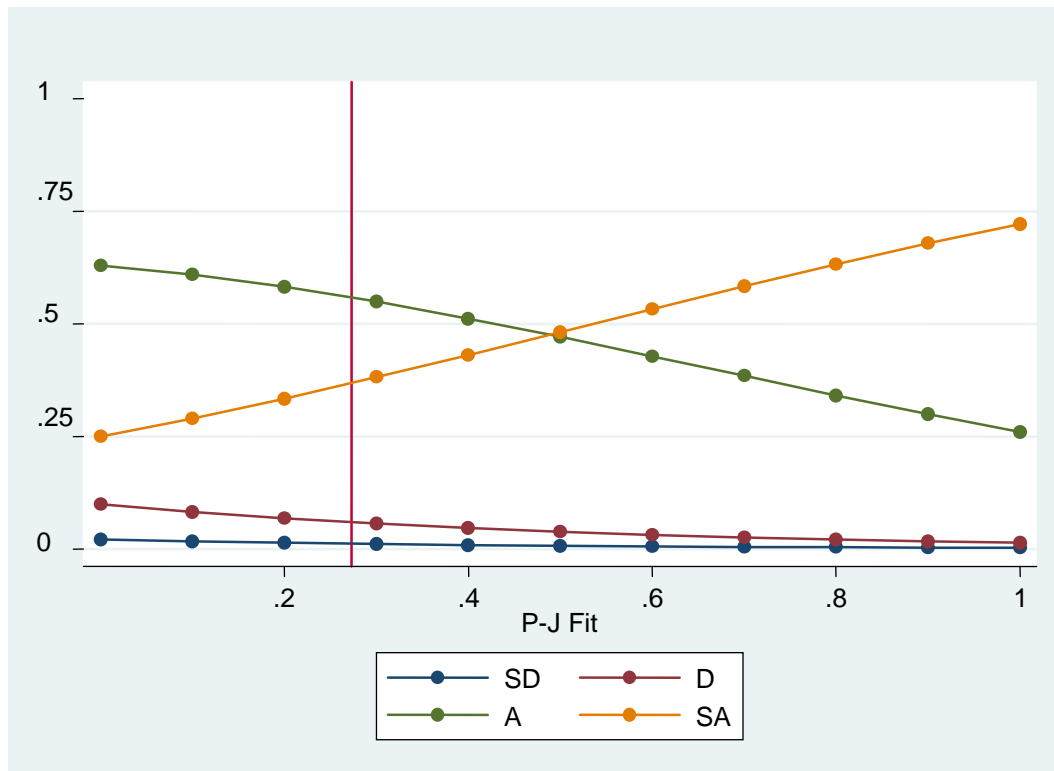Figure 4.10 Predicted Probabilities of Commitment by P-J Fit (AFM)

Figure 4.11 Predicted Probabilities of Commitment by P-O Fit (OFM)

Panel B: Predicted Probabilities of Commitment by P-O Fit
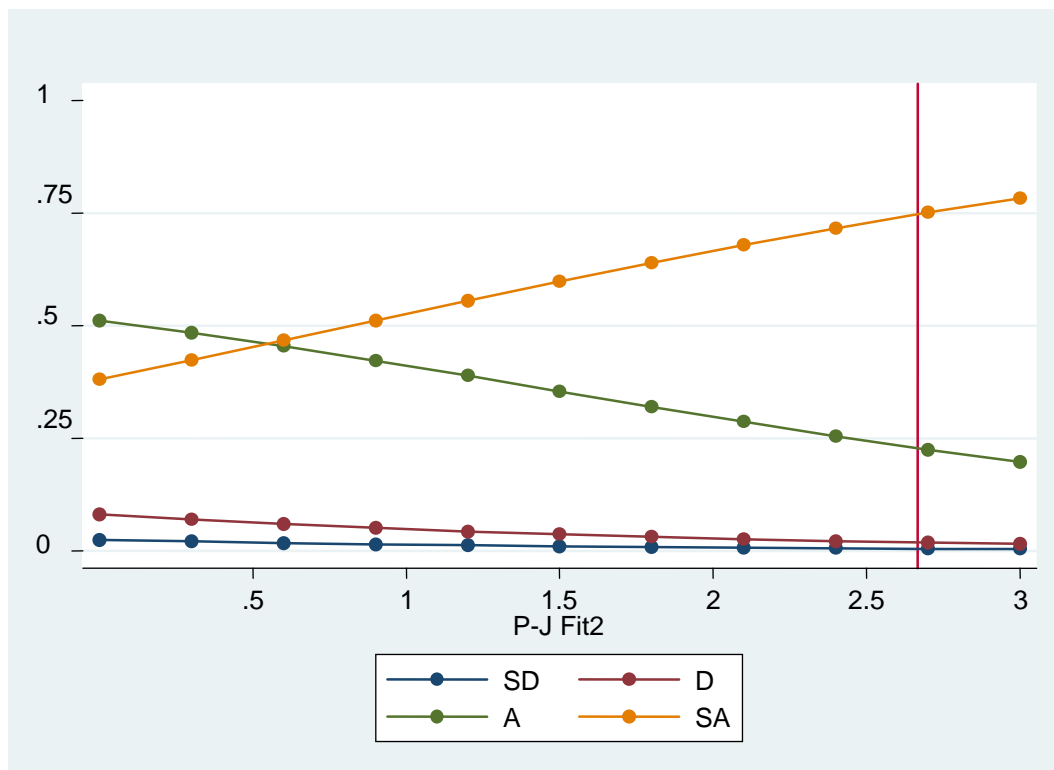
Figure 4.12 Predicted Probabilities of Commitment by P-O Fit (AFM)

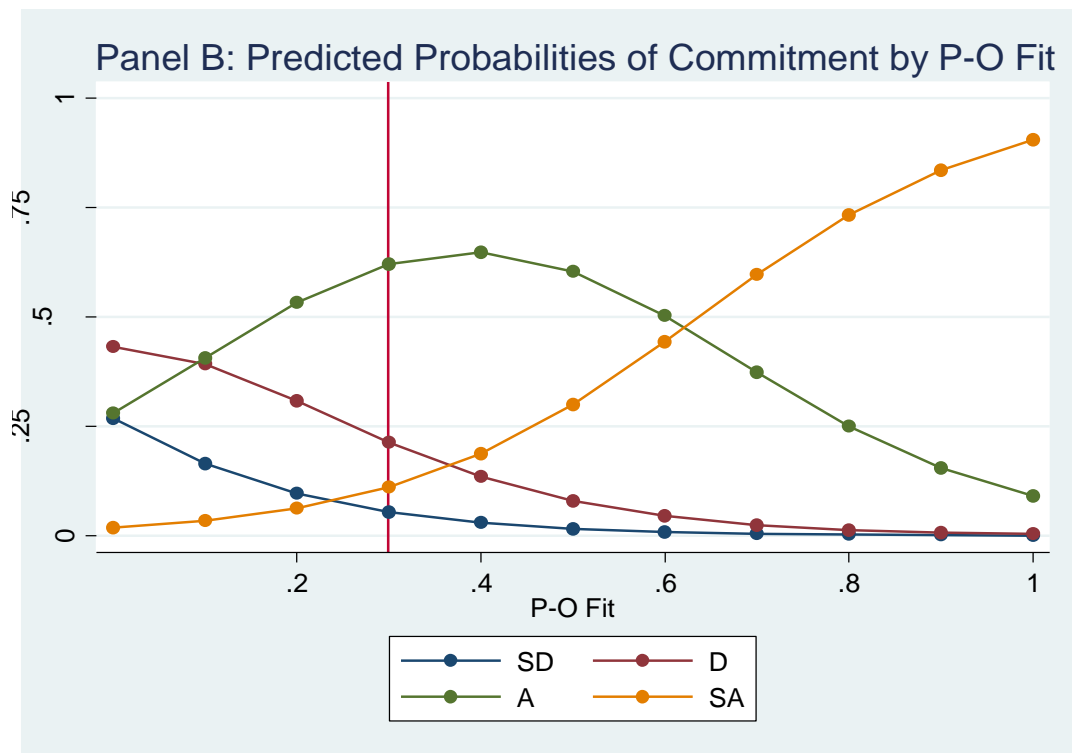Figure 4.13 Predicted Probabilities of Motivation by P-E Fit (OFM)

Figure 4.14 Predicted Probabilities of Motivation by P-E Fit (AFM)
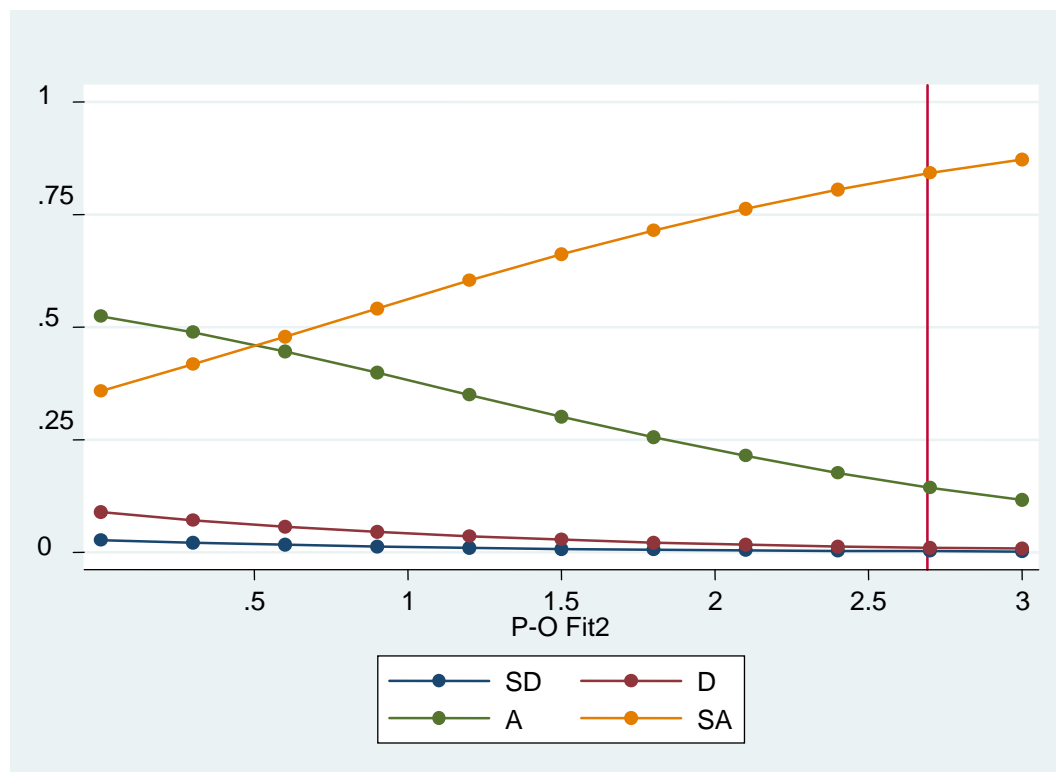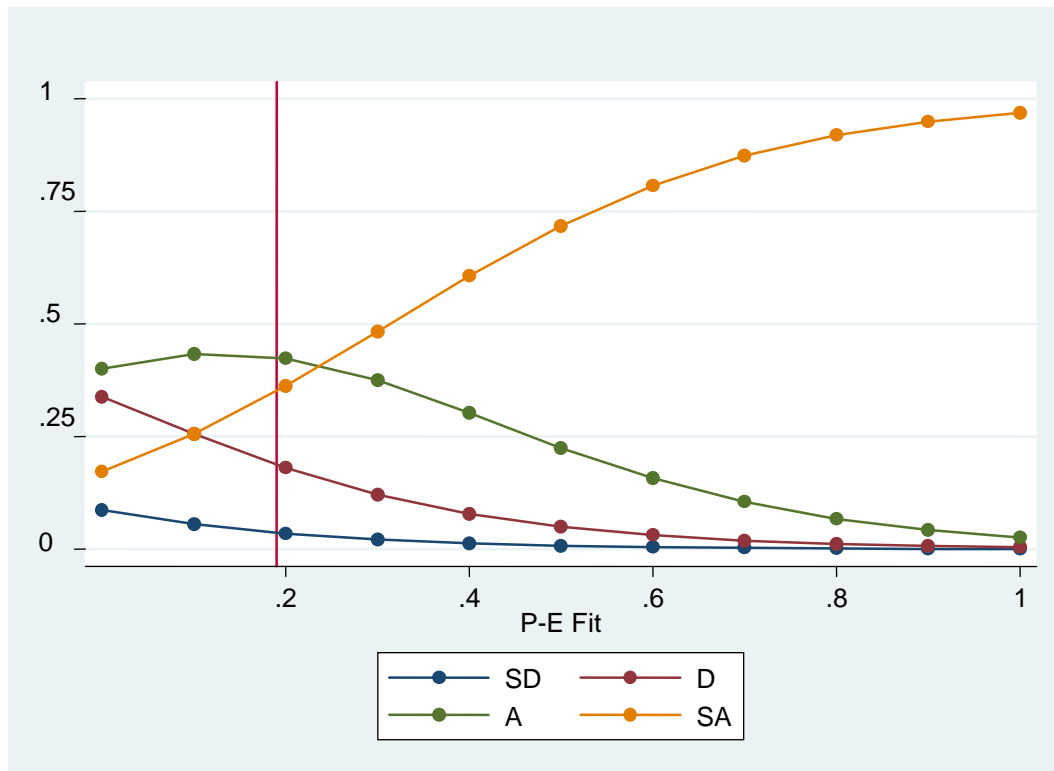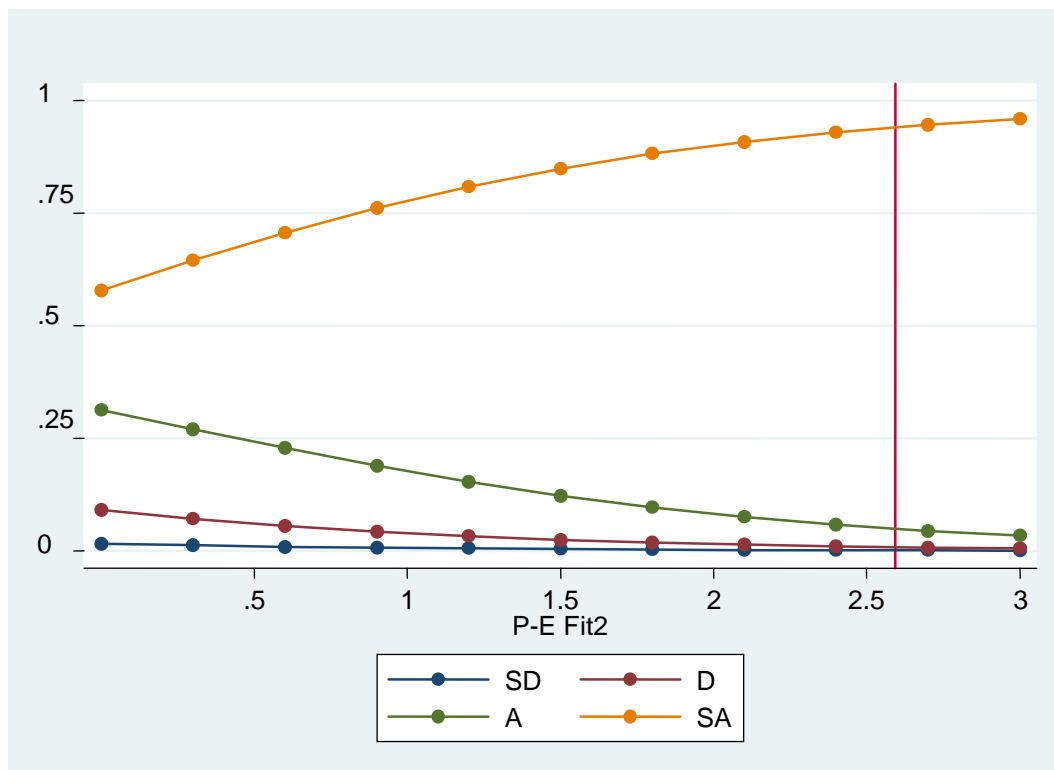
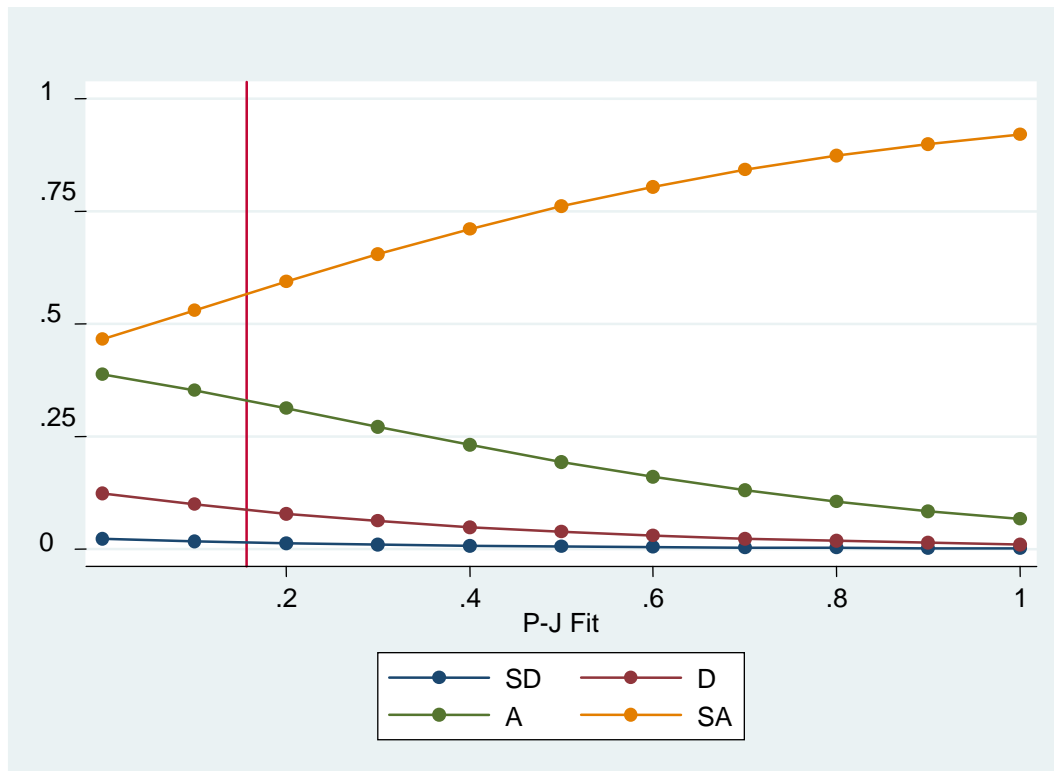Figure 4.15 Predicted Probabilities of Motivation by P-J Fit (OFM)

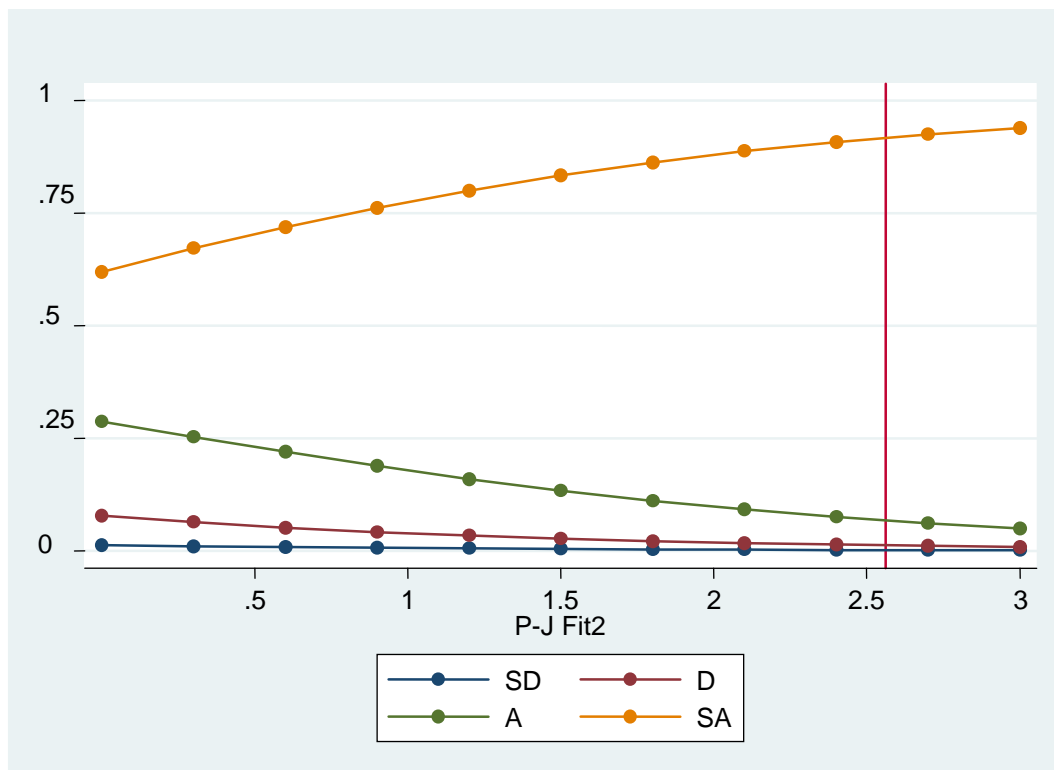Figure 4.16 Predicted Probabilities of Motivation by P-J Fit (AFM)

Figure 4.17 Predicted Probabilities of Motivation by P-O Fit (OFM)
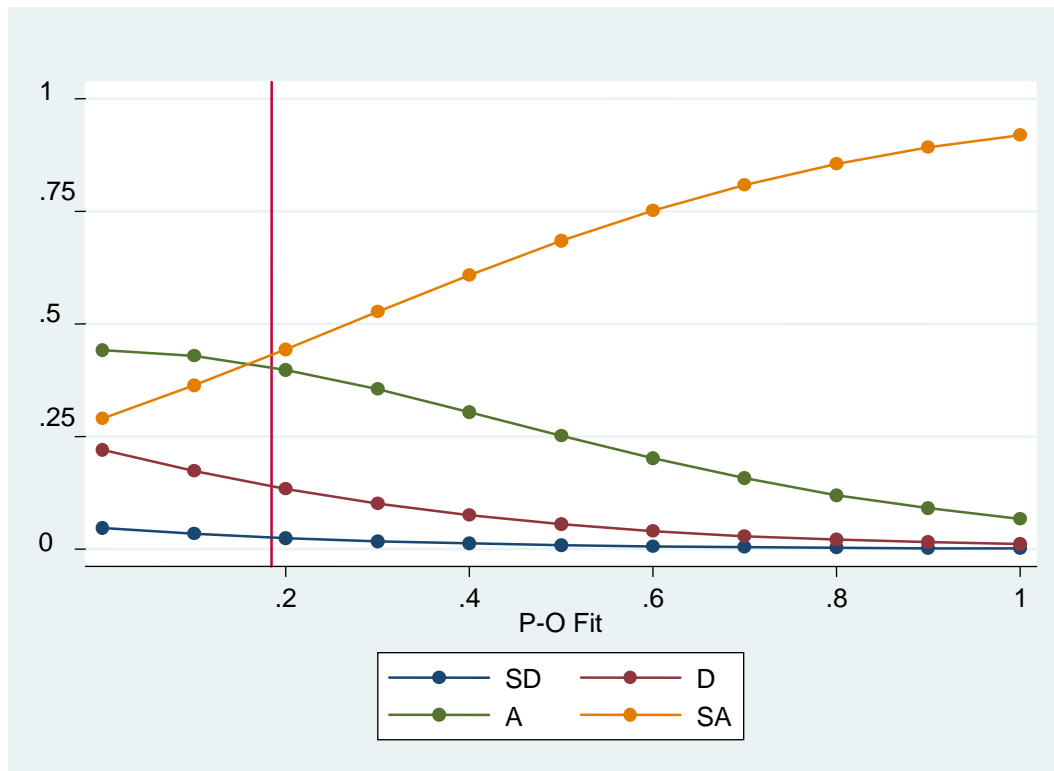
Figure 4.18 Predicted Probabilities of Motivation by P-O Fit (AFM)
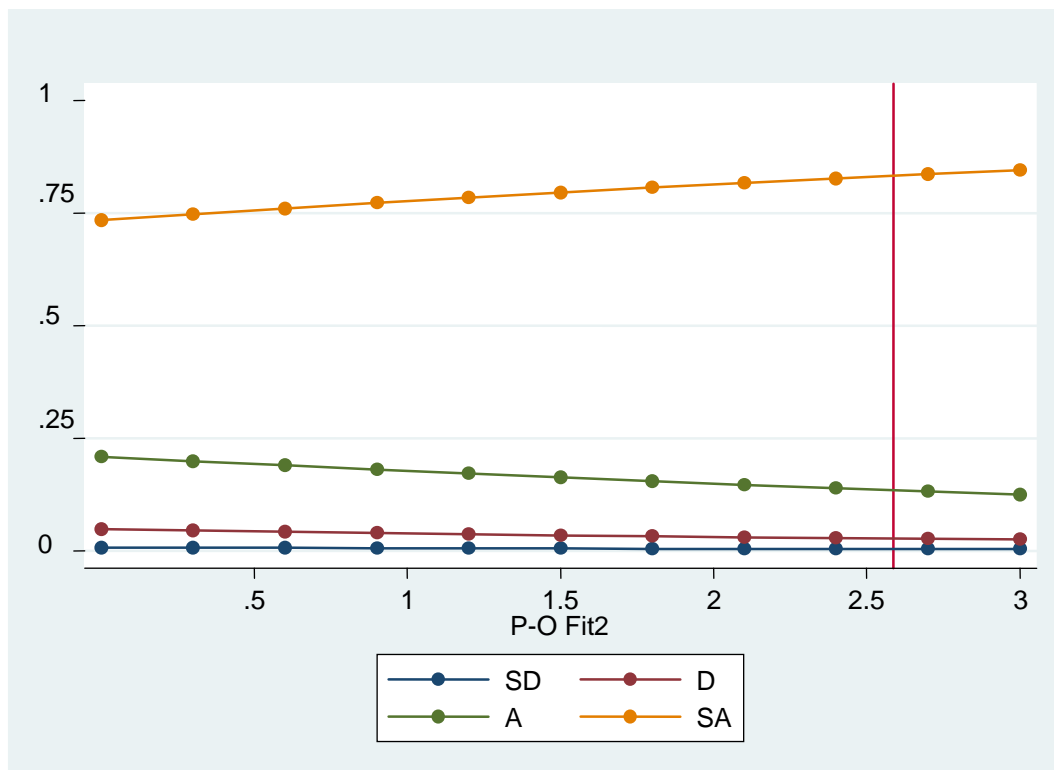
CHAPTER 5

RESULTS: PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT AND BEHAVIORAL OUTCOMES

Chapter five discusses findings for the relationships between P-E fit and behavioral outcomes: prosocial behaviors and absenteeism. As discussed in chapter three, this study uses two outcomes measures for each of these behavioral dependent variables. For prosocial behavior, this study examines the effects of P-E fit by using two outcome variables: number of civic activities participating and hours of volunteering in the last 12 weeks. As mentioned in chapter three, Poisson regression models (PRM) are used to provide estimates for number of civic activities participating while Ordinary Least Squared (OLS) regression techniques are used for the estimation of hours of volunteering. For the analyses of absenteeism, this study uses both involuntary and voluntary leaves as dependent variables. While involuntary leave is analyzed using OLS regressions, Zero Inflated Poisson regressions (ZIP) are used for the estimation of voluntary leave because it includes a lot of zero counts in the response. As in the previous chapter, the results from models with alternative fit measures (AFM) are also discussed at the end of each section for a comparison.

5.1 Effects of P-E fit on Prosocial Behavior

Participation in Civic Activities

This study first compares the observed probabilities for each value of the count variable with the predicted probabilities from fitting the Poisson distribution. As shown in Figure 5.1, the

overall pattern between the observed and the predicted probabilities are very similar although the fitted Poisson distribution little bit underpredicts counts 2 and 3 (see Figure 5.1). Table 5.1 presents the coefficients estimated from Poisson regression models (PRM) for examining the effects of P-E fit on employees' participation in civic activities. The outcome measures how many civic activities employees are involved in and the results from Poisson regressions with OFM partially support that P-E fit is a positive predictor of employees' participation in civic activities (H1-4a). Specifically, the results from Model 4 and 5 show that P-O fit is a positive determinant of employees' participation in civic activities (see Table 5.1). These results are different from those for attitudinal outcome variables, where both P-J fit and P-O fit were significant predictors. These results partially support the hypothesis that each of sub-dimensions of P-E fit has an independent effect on employees' participation in civic activities (H2-4a).

Table 5.3 shows the marginal effects for employee participation in civic activities. The results show that the predicted number of counts is 2.653 and the marginal effect of P-O fit on employee participation in civic activities is 0.863, which is the expected count change for a factor change in P-O fit, holding all other variables at their means. This positive marginal change on the number of civic activities participating is statistically significant at .05 level and these results partially support that P-O fit has a greater impact on prosocial behavior (H3-4a).

In relation to sectoral differences, all the coefficients for interaction terms for P-E fit and sector have negative signs from Poisson regressions. The negative signs for the interactions terms imply that the effects of P-E fit on employees' civic participation differ by sector settings, public employees having lower probability than those from non-profit sector (H4-4a). However, only the coefficient of interaction term for P-O fit and sector was statistically significant (see Table 5.1).

As shown in Figure 5.2, the pattern between the observed and the predicted probabilities for civic participation with alternative fit measures (AFM) is very similar to one shown in Figure 5.1 for OFM. However, the results from models with AFM are little different from those with OFM (see Table 5.2). For example, although all the coefficients of P-E fit variables have positive signs, none of them is statistically significant. In other words, the results from Poisson regression with AFM suggest that P-E fit is not a significant determinant of employees' civic participation (H1-4a, H2-4a, H3-4a). In addition, the sectoral difference for the effects of P-E fit between the public and non-profit sectors has not been found (H4-4a).

Interestingly, the results from Poisson regressions show that the three most important determinants of employees' civic participation are number of children, education, and marital status (other than P-O fit from the models with OFM). However, these findings are not surprising when we consider that we often see married couples with kids are actively involved in civic and community activities. It is also interesting that people with higher education levels are more likely to participate in civic activities (see Table 5.2 and 5.4 for details).

Hours of Volunteering

In addition to the number of civic activities participating, this study also examines how much time employees spend on volunteering for understanding the effects of P-E fit on employees' prosocial behaviors. As shown in Table 5.5, the explanatory powers of the models are very low and the coefficients from OLS regressions show that P-E fit is not a significant determinant of hours of volunteering (H1-4b, H2-4b, and H3-4b). Only statistically significant determinant of hours of volunteering is number of children throughout the models, which can be interpreted as the more employees have children; the more they spend their time on volunteering.

The results also show that the effects of P-E fit on hours of volunteering are not different between sectors (H4-4b). The results from models with AFM also confirm the findings from using OFM (see Table 5.6 for details).

Overall, the results from PRM and OLS regressions only partially support that P-E fit is a significant predictor of prosocial behavior. More specifically, the results from PRM suggest that only P-O fit has an independent effect on employees' participation in civic activities. The results also partially support that the effects of P-E fit on prosocial behavior may be different between sectors, showing that the positive effect of P-O fit on civic participation is smaller than for employees in non-profit sector. OLS estimates from models with AFM do not support any of the hypotheses proposed for employees' prosocial behavior in this study (see Table 5.13 for a summary of test results).

5.2 Effects of P-E fit on Absenteeism

Employees leave work for various reasons but they can be generally divided into two: voluntary and involuntary leaves. Although the distinction between voluntary and involuntary leave can be different, involuntary leave often includes reasons that are unavoidable or out of their controls, such as sickness, personal appointment, or family vacation. On the other hand, voluntary leave refers to be absent from work without specific reasons. In this study, absence with sickness, personal appointment, and family vacation are considered as involuntary leave while absence from employees who missed work because they were not sick or on vacation, but could not facing working is included in the category of voluntary leave.

Involuntary Leave

The effects of P-E fit on involuntary absence were examined from using OLS regression models and the results shown in Table 5.7 suggest that P-E fit is a determinant of involuntary leave (H1-5a). All the coefficients of P-E fit show have a negative sign, which implies that involuntary leave of employees decrease as the level of P-E fit increases. In relation to an independent effect for its sub-dimensions, only P-J fit from Model 3 shows a statistically significant effect on reducing involuntary leave (H2-5a). Unlike the expectation from the previous literature, P-O fit was not a significant predictor of employee absenteeism (H3-5a). An interesting finding from OLS regressions is that employees with longer job tenure (who have been relatively long in the current) are more likely to absent from work. In addition, findings from Model 1 through Model 5 show that being a female has higher probabilities of being absent from work for involuntary reasons. These findings provide rationales for future research whether the effects of job tenure shown in this study are due to the relationships with third variables, such as age and health. The higher level of involuntary absenteeism for females should be also investigated further whether it is because they primary care takers for their family members or for other reasons. In addition, the hypothesis that the effects of P-E fit on involuntary absenteeism differ by sector settings has not been supported in this study (H4-5a).

Table 5.8 shows results from OLS regression models with AFM. Unlike in the models with OFM, none of P-E fit variables is a statistically significant predictor of involuntary absenteeism. In addition, the sectoral difference for the effects of P-E fit has not been also supported. However, the results from the models with AFM also support the findings from OFM for job tenure and gender (see Table 5.8 for details).

Voluntary Leave

As shown in Figure 5.3, the observed and the predicted probabilities for zero are relatively huge. The lines from both the observed and predicted probabilities in Figure 5.3 show that samples in the data are well fitted to ZIP predictions (see Figure 5.3). As voluntary leave variable includes a lot of zero counts in the sample, this study presents results from Zero-Inflated Poisson (ZIP) regression models, which is suggested from the literature for a better regression technique than simple Poisson regressions (Long, 1997). ZIP models assume that there are two latent groups: one with individuals who have an outcome of zero with a probability of 1 (Always Zero group); and the other with individuals who might have a zero count, but there is a nonzero probability that they have a positive count (Not Always Zero group). Based on this assumption, results from ZIP models provide two sets of coefficients for each variable (i.e., one for count equation and the other for inflate equation), and statistics from Vuong test allow to decide which model is better for analysis (Long, 1997).

As shown in Table 5.9, results from Vuong test suggest that ZIP models are more favored than PRM for the analyses of voluntary leave for models with both OFM and AFM (see Table 5.9 and 5.11). As mentioned earlier in the chapter, voluntary leave are counts for employees' absence without sickness or specific reasons. Thus, it is very important to understand the determinants of voluntary leave from management perspective. Results from ZIP regressions shown in Table 5.9 suggest that having a graduate degree significantly decreases the level of voluntary leave of employees, compared to those who only have completed high school. However, the coefficients from both count equation (i.e., not always zero group) and inflate equation models (i.e., always zero group) show that P-E fit is not a significant predictor of voluntary leave (H1-5b, H2-5b, and H3-5b). In addition, the results from ZIP regressions with

OFM do not support the hypothesis that the effects of P-E fit are different by sector settings (H4-5b).

On the other hand, the findings from the models with AFM show different results on the effects of P-E fit on voluntary absenteeism. While the coefficients from the models with OFM showed no signs of statistical important of P-E fit on voluntary leave, the results from ZIP regressions with AFM partially support the hypothesis that P-E fit is a determinant of voluntary leave of employees (H1-5b). For example, the coefficient for P-J fit in Model 5 from count equation model shows a negative relationship with voluntary leave and it is statistically significant at .1 level (see Table 5.11). The impact of P-J fit can be explained using a factor change in expected count. As shown in Table 5.12, the coefficient of P-J fit is -0.395 and its coefficient for factor change is 0.674. It implies that among those who have the opportunity to have voluntary leave, a unit increase in P-J fit decreases the expected rate of voluntary leave by a factor of .674, holding all other factors constant.

For the always zero group (inflate or binary equation model), only P-O fit is a statistically significant predictor of voluntary absenteeism (see Table 5.11). However, the coefficient for P-O fit from the inflated equation model has a positive sign. The results from ZIP regression models require us to pay additional attention to its interpretation of the results. When the same variables are included in both count and inflate equations in the ZIP models, the signs of the corresponding coefficients are often in the opposite direction from one another. This is because the binary (inflate equation) model predicts membership in the group with having always zero counts, a positive coefficient in the inflate model implies lower absenteeism. Thus, the positive coefficient for P-O fit in Model 4 from inflate equation model can be interpreted that P-O fit increases the probability of having zero counts of voluntary leave. For the comparison of impact between the

sub-dimensions of P-E fit, P-J fit has a greater impact on reducing voluntary leave than P-O fit for those who have opportunities for potential voluntary leave. For increasing the probability of having zero counts for voluntary leave, P-O fit has a greater effect than P-J fit (see Table 5.12). Thus, these results partially support the hypothesis that P-O fit has a greater effect on voluntary leave than P-J fit (H3-5b). The hypothesis that the effects of P-E fit on voluntary leave differ by sector settings has not been supported from the results.

Overall, the results from OLS and ZIP regression models partially support that P-E fit is an important predictor of employee absenteeism (H1-5). In addition, the hypothesis that the sub-dimensions of P-E fit have independent effects on employee absenteeism (H2-5). However, the hypothesis that P-O fit has a greater impact on employee absenteeism has been only partially supported (H3-5). More specifically, the results from ZIP models with AFM suggest that P-J fit has an effect on reducing voluntary absenteeism for those who have opportunities for potential voluntary leave while P-O fit has a positive effect on increasing the probability of having zero counts. Lastly, the sectoral difference for the effects of P-E fit on employee absenteeism has not been supported from models with both OFM and AFM (see Table 5.13 for a summary of hypotheses tests).

Table 5.1 Poisson Regression Estimates for Participation in Civic Activities (OFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1089	1027	1039	1000	977
Pseudo R2	0.0251	0.0290	0.0285	0.0292	0.0300
Wald Test (Chi2)	105.53***	168.97***	164.53***	169.61***	168.88***
P-E Fit		0.197			
		(0.129)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-0.177			
		(0.165)			
P-J Fit			0.085		-0.007
			(0.102)		(0.106)
P-J Fit*Sector			-0.109		-0.021
			(0.135)		(0.147)
P-O Fit				0.357***	0.325**
				(0.125)	(0.132)
P-O Fit*Sector				-0.292*	-0.294*
				(0.158)	(0.168)
Age	0.007***	0.009***	0.009***	0.008***	0.009***
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)
Job Tenure	-0.004	-0.006**	-0.006**	-0.006**	-0.007**
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
# of Children	0.094***	0.125***	0.124***	0.121***	0.125***
	(0.021)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.014)
Coldeg	0.133***	0.126**	0.117**	0.121**	0.127**
	(0.050)	(0.050)	(0.050)	(0.051)	(0.051)
Graddeg	0.140***	0.135***	0.128***	0.118**	0.123**
	(0.049)	(0.049)	(0.049)	(0.050)	(0.050)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.096*	0.081	0.086*	0.087*	0.089*
	(0.050)	(0.051)	(0.050)	(0.050)	(0.051)
Gender (Male)	0.041	0.028	0.031	0.048	0.049
	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.036)
Marital Status (Married)	0.141***	0.126***	0.128***	0.112**	0.112**
	(0.044)	(0.044)	(0.043)	(0.044)	(0.044)
Sector (Public)	-0.181***	-0.035	-0.107	0.072	0.075
	(0.034)	(0.108)	(0.086)	(0.114)	(0.121)
State (GA)	0.107***	0.086**	0.094***	0.073**	0.075**
	(0.034)	(0.036)	(0.035)	(0.036)	(0.036)
Constant	0.361***	0.144	0.247*	0.071	0.054
	(0.127)	(0.140)	(0.135)	(0.142)	(0.148)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.2 Poisson Regression Estimates for Participation in Civic Activities (AFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1089	1081	1081	1020	1020
Pseudo R2	0.0251	0.0276	0.0275	0.0275	0.0275
Wald Test (Chi2)	105.53***	166.92***	165.74***	156.13***	156.15***
P-E Fit		0.017			
		(0.036)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-0.056			
		(0.052)			
P-J Fit			0.018		0.011
			(0.031)		(0.033)
P-J Fit*Sector			-0.044		-0.019
			(0.046)		(0.050)
P-O Fit				0.013	0.011
				(0.022)	(0.022)
P-O Fit*Sector				-0.055	-0.051
				(0.035)	(0.036)
Age	0.007***	0.008***	0.008***	0.008***	0.008***
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)
Job Tenure	-0.004	-0.005*	-0.005*	-0.004	-0.004
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
# of Children	0.094***	0.121***	0.120***	0.119***	0.120***
	(0.021)	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.014)	(0.014)
Coldeg	0.133***	0.117**	0.118**	0.117**	0.118**
	(0.050)	(0.049)	(0.049)	(0.052)	(0.052)
Graddeg	0.140***	0.131***	0.133***	0.136***	0.136***
	(0.049)	(0.048)	(0.048)	(0.051)	(0.051)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.096*	0.089*	0.087*	0.082	0.083
	(0.050)	(0.050)	(0.050)	(0.052)	(0.052)
Gender (Male)	0.041	0.028	0.029	0.028	0.028
	(0.035)	(0.034)	(0.034)	(0.036)	(0.036)
Marital Status (Married)	0.141***	0.133***	0.132***	0.130***	0.130***
	(0.044)	(0.043)	(0.043)	(0.044)	(0.045)
Sector (Public)	-0.181***	-0.131**	-0.136**	-0.144***	-0.128**
	(0.034)	(0.063)	(0.058)	(0.048)	(0.064)
State (GA)	0.107***	0.114***	0.111***	0.121***	0.122***
	(0.034)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.036)	(0.036)
Constant	0.361***	0.289**	0.289**	0.300**	0.288**
	(0.127)	(0.124)	(0.125)	(0.122)	(0.128)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.3 Marginal Effects for Participation in Civic Activities (OFM)

Pr = 2.653	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
P-J Fit	-0.019	0.281	-0.070	0.946	-0.570	0.531	0.522
P-O Fit	0.863	0.352	2.450	0.014	0.173	1.552	0.632
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.056	0.389	-0.140	0.885	-0.819	0.707	0.292
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.781	0.447	-1.750	0.081	-1.656	0.095	0.374
Age	0.025	0.006	4.080	0.000	0.013	0.036	49.171
Job Tenure	-0.017	0.008	-2.290	0.022	-0.032	-0.003	8.549
# of Children	0.332	0.037	9.080	0.000	0.260	0.403	0.961
Educ (college) *	0.340	0.138	2.470	0.014	0.070	0.610	0.419
Educ (graduate) *	0.328	0.135	2.430	0.015	0.063	0.593	0.442
Ethnicity *	0.244	0.143	1.710	0.088	-0.036	0.525	0.140
Gender*	0.129	0.094	1.370	0.170	-0.055	0.313	0.539
Marital Status *	0.288	0.111	2.600	0.009	0.070	0.505	0.781
Sector*	0.197	0.315	0.630	0.531	-0.420	0.815	0.660
State *	0.199	0.096	2.080	0.038	0.011	0.387	0.449

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 5.4 Marginal Effects for Participation in Civic Activities (AFM)

Pr = 2.647	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P>z	[95%	C.I.]	X
P-J Fit	0.028	0.086	0.320	0.747	-0.141	0.197	0.934
P-O Fit	0.028	0.058	0.490	0.626	-0.085	0.142	0.784
P-J Fit*Sector	-0.051	0.132	-0.390	0.700	-0.309	0.207	0.501
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.134	0.096	-1.400	0.163	-0.322	0.054	0.329
Age	0.022	0.006	3.720	0.000	0.010	0.033	49.226
Job Tenure	-0.010	0.007	-1.400	0.161	-0.025	0.004	8.545
# of Children	0.316	0.037	8.520	0.000	0.244	0.389	0.961
Educ (college) *	0.315	0.141	2.230	0.026	0.038	0.591	0.411
Educ (graduate) *	0.362	0.137	2.640	0.008	0.093	0.630	0.455
Ethnicity *	0.226	0.148	1.530	0.125	-0.063	0.516	0.134
Gender*	0.075	0.095	0.790	0.431	-0.111	0.260	0.544
Marital Status *	0.332	0.110	3.030	0.002	0.117	0.547	0.785
Sector*	-0.347	0.176	-1.970	0.049	-0.692	-0.002	0.670
State *	0.324	0.097	3.330	0.001	0.134	0.515	0.439

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Table 5.5 OLS Estimates for Volunteer Hours (OFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1069	1011	1023	983	961
R-squared	0.0225	0.0446	0.0434	0.0400	0.0490
F-Test	1.64*	2.91***	2.98***	2.40***	2.70***
P-E Fit		-1.695			
		(3.953)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-1.569			
		(4.493)			
P-J Fit			-0.230		0.457
			(2.722)		(2.551)
P-J Fit*Sector			-3.285		-3.709
			(3.527)		(3.805)
P-O Fit				-1.623	-2.399
				(4.062)	(4.035)
P-O Fit*Sector				0.525	2.725
				(4.446)	(4.658)
Age	0.033	0.037	0.032	0.028	0.031
	(0.050)	(0.052)	(0.052)	(0.053)	(0.055)
Job Tenure	0.082	0.114	0.095	0.130	0.118
	(0.079)	(0.080)	(0.079)	(0.083)	(0.084)
# of Children	1.335**	1.912***	1.879***	1.811***	1.901***
	(0.545)	(0.565)	(0.562)	(0.575)	(0.589)
Coldeg	0.860	0.628	0.243	0.697	0.619
	(1.244)	(1.125)	(1.156)	(1.158)	(1.177)
Graddeg	1.071	1.029	0.797	0.715	0.603
	(1.139)	(1.112)	(1.148)	(1.114)	(1.111)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.764	0.791	0.923	0.701	0.750
	(1.203)	(1.241)	(1.218)	(1.244)	(1.273)
Gender (Male)	0.311	0.801	0.803	0.942	1.178
	(0.980)	(0.928)	(0.926)	(0.916)	(0.908)
Marital Status (Married)	-0.026	-0.497	-0.434	-0.615	-0.579
	(1.069)	(0.997)	(0.981)	(1.052)	(1.038)
Sector (Public)	-0.330	-0.194	0.605	-1.329	-0.916
	(0.977)	(3.346)	(2.440)	(3.615)	(4.018)
State (GA)	-1.426	-1.155	-1.145	-1.115	-1.280
	(0.893)	(0.808)	(0.807)	(0.831)	(0.814)
Constant	3.598	3.872	3.685	4.526	4.670
	(2.779)	(3.283)	(2.978)	(3.443)	(3.621)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.6 OLS Estimates for Volunteer Hours (AFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1069	1063	1063	1003	1003
R-squared	0.0225	0.0285	0.0286	0.0353	0.0360
F-Test	1.64*	2.05**	2.05**	2.20**	2.01**
P-E Fit		-0.578			
		(1.150)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-1.318			
		(1.438)			
P-J Fit			-0.527		-0.729
			(0.938)		(0.884)
P-J Fit*Sector			-1.048		-0.103
			(1.284)		(1.246)
P-O Fit				0.097	0.226
				(0.644)	(0.617)
P-O Fit*Sector				-1.193	-1.117
				(0.798)	(0.846)
Age	0.033	0.051	0.047	0.030	0.029
	(0.050)	(0.051)	(0.050)	(0.051)	(0.051)
Job Tenure	0.082	0.082	0.081	0.139*	0.139*
	(0.079)	(0.080)	(0.081)	(0.081)	(0.082)
# of Children	1.335**	1.708***	1.691***	1.778***	1.804***
	(0.545)	(0.557)	(0.555)	(0.566)	(0.572)
Coldeg	0.860	0.747	0.782	0.838	0.815
	(1.244)	(1.235)	(1.241)	(1.143)	(1.146)
Graddeg	1.071	0.945	1.041	1.363	1.389
	(1.139)	(1.131)	(1.137)	(1.157)	(1.163)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.764	0.827	0.788	0.360	0.419
	(1.203)	(1.196)	(1.194)	(1.228)	(1.212)
Gender (Male)	0.311	0.100	0.107	0.381	0.293
	(0.980)	(1.007)	(1.006)	(0.954)	(0.971)
Marital Status (Married)	-0.026	-0.042	-0.073	-0.774	-0.745
	(1.069)	(1.083)	(1.071)	(1.039)	(1.023)
Sector (Public)	-0.330	0.054	0.076	0.019	-0.268
	(0.977)	(2.119)	(1.910)	(1.360)	(1.981)
State (GA)	-1.426	-0.993	-1.136	-0.787	-0.684
	(0.893)	(0.865)	(0.875)	(0.837)	(0.845)
Constant	3.598	3.291	3.430	2.992	3.791
	(2.779)	(2.829)	(2.793)	(2.767)	(2.786)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.7 OLS Estimates for Involuntary Leave (OFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1056	1001	1013	974	952
R-squared	0.0287	0.0292	0.0298	0.0270	0.0291
F-Test	4.83***	4.23***	4.46***	3.66***	3.63***
P-E Fit		-5.419**			
		(2.565)			
P-E Fit*Sector		3.875			
		(3.322)			
P-J Fit			-3.751*		-3.101
			(2.018)		(2.197)
P-J Fit*Sector			2.188		0.102
			(2.798)		(3.981)
P-O Fit				-3.780	-2.990
				(2.722)	(3.026)
P-O Fit*Sector				4.821	5.177
				(4.579)	(5.702)
Age	-0.079	-0.058	-0.064	-0.075	-0.069
	(0.052)	(0.056)	(0.057)	(0.058)	(0.060)
Job Tenure	0.186***	0.193***	0.189***	0.192***	0.192***
	(0.062)	(0.066)	(0.065)	(0.067)	(0.068)
# of Children	0.136	0.183	0.211	0.080	0.090
	(0.373)	(0.442)	(0.438)	(0.458)	(0.467)
Coldeg	0.535	0.480	0.369	0.318	0.281
	(1.076)	(1.125)	(1.106)	(1.137)	(1.134)
Graddeg	0.060	0.082	0.098	0.086	0.160
	(0.961)	(1.014)	(0.997)	(1.043)	(1.058)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	1.740	1.683	1.500	2.026	1.850
	(1.446)	(1.526)	(1.478)	(1.573)	(1.608)
Gender (Male)	-2.160***	-2.445***	-2.448***	-2.337***	-2.505***
	(0.782)	(0.816)	(0.805)	(0.837)	(0.851)
Marital Status (Married)	1.367	1.606	1.522	1.542	1.589
	(1.279)	(1.353)	(1.330)	(1.382)	(1.402)
Sector (Public)	2.447***	-0.788	0.570	-1.189	-2.065
	(0.706)	(2.158)	(1.730)	(2.895)	(2.838)
State (GA)	-2.290***	-1.709*	-1.841**	-1.713**	-1.430
	(0.832)	(0.877)	(0.899)	(0.833)	(0.883)
Constant	20.462***	23.088***	22.161***	23.095***	24.279***
	(2.790)	(2.999)	(2.985)	(3.197)	(3.218)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***$p<0.01$, **$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$)

Table 5.8 OLS Estimates for Involuntary Leave (AFM)

Variable	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Observation	1056	1049	1049	989	989
R-squared	0.0287	0.0294	0.0297	0.0297	0.0305
F-Test	4.83***	4.19***	4.47***	4.01***	3.81***
P-E Fit		-0.146			
		(0.642)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-0.510			
		(1.081)			
P-J Fit			-0.606		-0.952
			(0.609)		(0.701)
P-J Fit*Sector			-0.000		0.682
			(1.046)		(1.228)
P-O Fit				0.065	0.244
				(0.429)	(0.470)
P-O Fit*Sector				-0.615	-0.730
				(0.761)	(0.850)
Age	-0.079	-0.073	-0.074	-0.074	-0.075
	(0.052)	(0.054)	(0.053)	(0.055)	(0.055)
Job Tenure	0.186***	0.185***	0.186***	0.185***	0.188***
	(0.062)	(0.063)	(0.063)	(0.065)	(0.066)
# of Children	0.136	0.253	0.252	0.236	0.248
	(0.373)	(0.423)	(0.423)	(0.450)	(0.450)
Coldeg	0.535	0.359	0.369	0.325	0.310
	(1.076)	(1.085)	(1.080)	(1.143)	(1.141)
Graddeg	0.060	-0.123	-0.088	0.099	0.115
	(0.961)	(0.977)	(0.974)	(1.010)	(1.014)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	1.740	1.757	1.741	1.778	1.796
	(1.446)	(1.430)	(1.423)	(1.561)	(1.523)
Gender (Male)	-2.160***	-2.273***	-2.287***	-2.230***	-2.283***
	(0.782)	(0.792)	(0.791)	(0.829)	(0.838)
Marital Status (Married)	1.367	1.394	1.390	1.455	1.452
	(1.279)	(1.322)	(1.320)	(1.361)	(1.378)
Sector (Public)	2.447***	2.656**	2.064*	2.981***	2.111*
	(0.706)	(1.164)	(1.253)	(0.856)	(1.269)
State (GA)	-2.290***	-2.111**	-2.122**	-2.209***	-2.155**
	(0.832)	(0.843)	(0.856)	(0.855)	(0.870)
Constant	20.462***	20.447***	21.059***	19.935***	20.959***
	(2.790)	(2.833)	(2.906)	(2.849)	(2.938)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***$p<0.01$, **$p<0.05$, *$p<0.1$)

Table 5.9 Zero Inflated Poisson Regression Estimates for Voluntary Leave (OFM)

Count Model (Not Always Zero)	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Total Observation	1057	1002	1014	975	953
Nonzero Observation	136	123	128	119	117
Zero Observation	921	879	886	856	836
LR Test (Chi2)	21.93**	41.82***	26.75***	47.19***	48.69***
Vuong Test (Z-score)	5.24***	4.97***	5.07***	4.80***	4.81***
P-E Fit		-0.995			
		(0.799)			
P-E Fit*Sector		-0.904			
		(0.927)			
P-J Fit			-0.817		-0.904
			(0.646)		(0.661)
P-J Fit*Sector			0.034		0.372
			(0.737)		(0.788)
P-O Fit				-0.477	-0.220
				(0.807)	(0.838)
P-O Fit*Sector				-1.295	-1.248
				(0.878)	(0.915)
Age	0.001	0.001	0.010	-0.007	-0.003
	(0.009)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.011)	(0.011)
Job Tenure	0.002	-0.004	-0.009	0.007	0.003
	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.013)	(0.014)
# of Children	0.010	0.074	0.075	0.024	0.073
	(0.078)	(0.086)	(0.081)	(0.088)	(0.092)
Coldeg	-0.103	-0.203	-0.208	-0.069	-0.127
	(0.169)	(0.175)	(0.173)	(0.177)	(0.181)
Graddeg	-0.327*	-0.612***	-0.435**	-0.585***	-0.606***
	(0.186)	(0.199)	(0.188)	(0.200)	(0.203)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.330**	0.180	0.251	0.244	0.164
	(0.150)	(0.167)	(0.153)	(0.173)	(0.178)
Gender (Male)	0.372***	0.217	0.290**	0.259*	0.216
	(0.135)	(0.148)	(0.139)	(0.153)	(0.159)
Marital Status (Married)	-0.229*	-0.244*	-0.174	-0.267*	-0.279**
	(0.129)	(0.135)	(0.130)	(0.139)	(0.140)
Sector (Public)	0.117	0.083	-0.110	0.487	0.156
	(0.167)	(0.534)	(0.417)	(0.567)	(0.642)
State (GA)	-0.258*	-0.127	-0.149	-0.204	-0.151
	(0.146)	(0.163)	(0.153)	(0.160)	(0.165)
Constant	0.867*	1.725**	1.082*	1.635**	1.891**
	(0.482)	(0.688)	(0.611)	(0.749)	(0.815)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.9 Zero Inflated Poisson Regression Estimates for Voluntary Leave (OFM, Continued)

Inflated Model (Always Zero)	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Total Observation	1057	1002	1014	975	953
Nonzero Observation	136	123	128	119	117
Zero Observation	921	879	886	856	836
LR Test (Chi2)	21.93**	41.82***	26.75***	47.19***	48.69***
Vuong Test (Z-score)	5.24***	4.97***	5.07***	4.80***	4.81***
P-E Fit		1.349			
		(1.135)			
P-E Fit*Sector		0.958			
		(1.359)			
P-J Fit			0.777		0.301
			(0.890)		(0.932)
P-J Fit*Sector			0.776		0.622
			(1.076)		(1.191)
P-O Fit				1.619	1.466
				(1.055)	(1.118)
P-O Fit*Sector				0.581	0.401
				(1.248)	(1.343)
Age	0.042***	0.042***	0.045***	0.036**	0.037**
	(0.013)	(0.015)	(0.014)	(0.015)	(0.015)
Job Tenure	0.005	-0.006	-0.001	-0.000	-0.003
	(0.019)	(0.020)	(0.019)	(0.020)	(0.021)
# of Children	0.281***	0.314***	0.298***	0.261**	0.304**
	(0.109)	(0.120)	(0.113)	(0.121)	(0.124)
Coldeg	0.250	0.167	0.283	0.224	0.237
	(0.290)	(0.313)	(0.301)	(0.319)	(0.322)
Graddeg	0.487	0.308	0.474	0.197	0.229
	(0.300)	(0.330)	(0.311)	(0.335)	(0.338)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	-0.759***	-0.818***	-0.827***	-0.842***	-0.889***
	(0.257)	(0.288)	(0.267)	(0.292)	(0.298)
Gender (Male)	0.872***	0.832***	0.846***	0.823***	0.827***
	(0.220)	(0.238)	(0.229)	(0.242)	(0.247)
Marital Status (Married)	0.433*	0.495**	0.530**	0.396	0.397
	(0.231)	(0.247)	(0.238)	(0.252)	(0.255)
Sector (Public)	-0.468*	-0.378	-0.443	-0.303	-0.330
	(0.248)	(0.825)	(0.637)	(0.831)	(0.931)
State (GA)	0.284	-0.096	0.073	-0.128	-0.173
	(0.222)	(0.246)	(0.234)	(0.249)	(0.254)
Constant	-1.200*	-1.960*	-1.846**	-1.799*	-2.013*
	(0.708)	(1.028)	(0.913)	(1.024)	(1.106)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.10 Factor Change in Expected Count (OFM)

Count Equation	b	z	P>z	e^b	e^bStdX	SDofX
P-J Fit	-0.904	-1.368	0.171	0.405	0.797	0.251
P-O Fit	-0.220	-0.262	0.793	0.803	0.952	0.222
P-J Fit*Sector	0.372	0.473	0.636	1.451	1.109	0.277
P-O Fit*Sector	-1.248	-1.364	0.173	0.287	0.672	0.318
Age	-0.003	-0.261	0.794	0.997	0.976	8.642
Job Tenure	0.003	0.206	0.837	1.003	1.019	6.502
# of Children	0.073	0.788	0.431	1.076	1.086	1.129
Educ (college)	-0.127	-0.702	0.483	0.881	0.939	0.494
Educ (graduate)	-0.606	-2.990	0.003	0.546	0.740	0.497
Ethnicity	0.164	0.918	0.359	1.178	1.058	0.342
Gender	0.216	1.355	0.176	1.241	1.114	0.499
Marital Status	-0.279	-1.990	0.047	0.757	0.892	0.412
Sector	0.156	0.244	0.808	1.169	1.077	0.475
State	-0.151	-0.919	0.358	0.860	0.928	0.498
Binary Equation	b	z	P>z	e^b	e^bStdX	SDofX
P-J Fit	0.301	0.324	0.746	1.352	1.079	0.251
P-O Fit	1.466	1.311	0.190	4.333	1.385	0.222
P-J Fit*Sector	0.622	0.522	0.602	1.862	1.188	0.277
P-O Fit*Sector	0.401	0.298	0.765	1.493	1.136	0.318
Age	0.037	2.484	0.013	1.038	1.383	8.642
Job Tenure	-0.003	-0.163	0.870	0.997	0.978	6.502
# of Children	0.304	2.459	0.014	1.355	1.409	1.129
Educ (college)	0.237	0.737	0.461	1.267	1.124	0.494
Educ (graduate)	0.229	0.678	0.498	1.257	1.120	0.497
Ethnicity	-0.889	-2.979	0.003	0.411	0.738	0.342
Gender	0.827	3.343	0.001	2.287	1.511	0.499
Marital Status	0.397	1.556	0.120	1.488	1.178	0.412
Sector	-0.330	-0.355	0.723	0.719	0.855	0.475
State	-0.173	-0.682	0.495	0.841	0.917	0.498

Vuong Test = 4.81 (p=0.000) favoring ZIP over PRM.

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
e^b = exp(b) = factor change in odds for unit increase in X
e^bStdX = exp(b*SD of X) = change in odds for SD increase in X
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 5.11 Zero Inflated Poisson Regression Estimates for Voluntary Leave (AFM)

Count Model (Not Always Zero)	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Total Observation	1057	1050	1050	990	990
Nonzero Observation	136	135	135	123	123
Zero Observation	921	915	915	867	867
LR Test (Chi2)	21.93**	23.24**	24.42**	19.37*	22.22*
Vuong Test (Z-score)	5.24***	5.10***	5.10***	4.98***	4.90***
P-E Fit		-0.205			
		(0.234)			
P-E Fit*Sector		0.035			
		(0.276)			
P-J Fit			-0.370		-0.394*
			(0.227)		(0.240)
P-J Fit*Sector			0.277		0.384
			(0.258)		(0.274)
P-O Fit				0.034	0.070
				(0.123)	(0.128)
P-O Fit*Sector				-0.132	-0.169
				(0.164)	(0.174)
Age	0.001	0.006	0.006	0.001	0.006
	(0.009)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.011)
Job Tenure	0.002	-0.001	-0.000	0.004	0.003
	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.014)	(0.014)
# of Children	0.010	0.031	0.039	0.008	0.027
	(0.078)	(0.080)	(0.082)	(0.080)	(0.084)
Coldeg	-0.103	-0.182	-0.174	-0.144	-0.168
	(0.169)	(0.175)	(0.175)	(0.178)	(0.182)
Graddeg	-0.327*	-0.401**	-0.396**	-0.299	-0.323*
	(0.186)	(0.189)	(0.190)	(0.191)	(0.195)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	0.330**	0.354**	0.318**	0.346**	0.344**
	(0.150)	(0.155)	(0.152)	(0.163)	(0.164)
Gender (Male)	0.372***	0.334**	0.351**	0.340**	0.340**
	(0.135)	(0.144)	(0.140)	(0.147)	(0.149)
Marital Status (Married)	-0.229*	-0.214*	-0.227*	-0.171	-0.193
	(0.129)	(0.129)	(0.129)	(0.137)	(0.138)
Sector (Public)	0.117	-0.057	-0.273	0.179	-0.234
	(0.167)	(0.322)	(0.303)	(0.225)	(0.330)
State (GA)	-0.258*	-0.191	-0.209	-0.291*	-0.293*
	(0.146)	(0.150)	(0.149)	(0.157)	(0.158)
Constant	0.867*	0.936*	1.126**	0.802	1.041**
	(0.482)	(0.516)	(0.508)	(0.518)	(0.523)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.11 Zero Inflated Poisson Regression Estimates for Voluntary Leave (AFM, Continued)

Inflated Model (Always Zero)	Model 1 (No fit)	Model 2 (P-E fit)	Model 3 (P-J fit)	Model 4 (P-O fit)	Model 5 (All fit)
Total Observation	1057	1050	1050	990	990
Nonzero Observation	136	135	135	123	123
Zero Observation	921	915	915	867	867
LR Test (Chi2)	21.93**	23.24**	24.42**	19.37*	22.22*
Vuong Test (Z-score)	5.24***	5.10***	5.10***	4.98***	4.90***
P-E Fit		0.299			
		(0.322)			
P-E Fit*Sector		0.257			
		(0.406)			
P-J Fit			0.129		0.083
			(0.320)		(0.357)
P-J Fit*Sector			0.351		0.341
			(0.392)		(0.433)
P-O Fit				0.329*	0.303
				(0.193)	(0.202)
P-O Fit*Sector				-0.172	-0.253
				(0.260)	(0.273)
Age	0.042***	0.045***	0.046***	0.035**	0.039***
	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.013)	(0.014)	(0.014)
Job Tenure	0.005	0.004	0.005	0.003	0.004
	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.019)
# of Children	0.281***	0.255**	0.265**	0.222*	0.220*
	(0.109)	(0.110)	(0.110)	(0.113)	(0.114)
Coldeg	0.250	0.271	0.267	0.266	0.285
	(0.290)	(0.296)	(0.295)	(0.308)	(0.309)
Graddeg	0.487	0.521*	0.492	0.486	0.490
	(0.300)	(0.306)	(0.305)	(0.314)	(0.315)
Ethnicity (Non-White)	-0.759***	-0.807***	-0.821***	-0.727***	-0.770***
	(0.257)	(0.262)	(0.262)	(0.271)	(0.274)
Gender (Male)	0.872***	0.902***	0.902***	0.754***	0.795***
	(0.220)	(0.223)	(0.223)	(0.229)	(0.231)
Marital Status (Married)	0.433*	0.418*	0.421*	0.512**	0.487**
	(0.231)	(0.233)	(0.233)	(0.240)	(0.242)
Sector (Public)	-0.468*	-0.395	-0.578	-0.209	-0.334
	(0.248)	(0.470)	(0.471)	(0.334)	(0.500)
State (GA)	0.284	0.192	0.233	0.249	0.201
	(0.222)	(0.228)	(0.226)	(0.238)	(0.240)
Constant	-1.200*	-1.712**	-1.608**	-1.143	-1.414*
	(0.708)	(0.799)	(0.805)	(0.753)	(0.836)

Robust standard errors in parentheses (***p<0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1)

Table 5.12 Factor Change in Expected Count (AFM)

Count Equation	b	z	P>z	e^b	e^bStdX	SDofX
P-J Fit	-0.395	-1.645	0.100	0.674	0.763	0.684
P-O Fit	0.070	0.543	0.587	1.072	1.073	1.011
P-J Fit*Sector	0.384	1.401	0.161	1.469	1.259	0.600
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.169	-0.973	0.331	0.845	0.893	0.669
Age	0.006	0.532	0.595	1.006	1.050	8.730
Job Tenure	0.003	0.221	0.825	1.003	1.020	6.512
# of Children	0.027	0.319	0.750	1.027	1.031	1.131
Educ (college)	-0.168	-0.924	0.355	0.845	0.921	0.493
Educ (graduate)	-0.323	-1.658	0.097	0.724	0.851	0.498
Ethnicity	0.344	2.089	0.037	1.410	1.123	0.337
Gender	0.340	2.272	0.023	1.404	1.184	0.498
Marital Status	-0.193	-1.399	0.162	0.824	0.924	0.410
Sector	-0.234	-0.708	0.479	0.791	0.896	0.471
State	-0.293	-1.856	0.063	0.746	0.864	0.497
Binary Equation	b	z	P>z	e^b	e^bStdX	SDofX
P-J Fit	0.083	0.233	0.816	1.087	1.059	0.684
P-O Fit	0.303	1.504	0.133	1.354	1.359	1.011
P-J Fit*Sector	0.341	0.787	0.431	1.406	1.227	0.600
P-O Fit*Sector	-0.253	-0.926	0.355	0.777	0.844	0.669
Age	0.039	2.758	0.006	1.040	1.404	8.730
Job Tenure	0.004	0.204	0.838	1.004	1.026	6.512
# of Children	0.220	1.922	0.055	1.246	1.283	1.131
Educ (college)	0.285	0.922	0.356	1.330	1.151	0.493
Educ (graduate)	0.490	1.556	0.120	1.632	1.276	0.498
Ethnicity	-0.770	-2.808	0.005	0.463	0.771	0.337
Gender	0.795	3.440	0.001	2.215	1.486	0.498
Marital Status	0.487	2.008	0.045	1.627	1.221	0.410
Sector	-0.334	-0.669	0.503	0.716	0.854	0.471
State	0.201	0.837	0.403	1.223	1.105	0.497

Vuong Test = 4.90 (p=0.000) favoring ZIP over PRM.

b = raw coefficient
z = z-score for test of b=0
P>|z| = p-value for z-test
e^b = exp(b) = factor change in odds for unit increase in X
e^bStdX = exp(b*SD of X) = change in odds for SD increase in X
SDofX = standard deviation of X

Table 5.13 Results of Hypotheses Tests (Behavioral Outcomes)

Hypotheses	Results	
	OFM	AFM
H1-4: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of prosocial behaviors.	**Partially Supported**	**Not Supported**
H1-4a: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of civic participation.	Supported	Not Supported
H1-4b: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a positive predictor of hours of volunteering.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H1-5: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a negative predictor of employee absenteeism.	**Partially Supported**	**Partially Supported**
H1-5a: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a negative predictor of involuntary leave.	Partially Supported	Not Supported
H1-5b: P-E fit (assessed by a wholistic measure) is a negative predictor of voluntary leave.	Not Supported	Partially Supported
H2-4: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on prosocial behaviors.	**Partially Supported**	**Not Supported**
H2-4a: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on civic participation.	Partially Supported	Not Supported
H2-4b: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on hours of volunteering.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H2-5: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on employee absenteeism.	**Partially Supported**	**Partially Supported**
H2-5a: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on involuntary leave.	Partially Supported	Not Supported
H2-5b: Both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on voluntary leave.	Not Supported	Partially Supported
H3-4: P-O fit is a stronger determinant of employees' prosocial behavior than P-J fit.	**Partially Supported**	**Not Supported**
H3-4a: P-O fit is a stronger determinant of civic participation than P-J fit.	Supported	Not Supported
H3-4b: P-O fit is a stronger determinant of hours of volunteering than P-J fit.	Not Supported	Not Supported

Table 5.13 Results of Hypotheses Tests (Behavioral Outcomes, continued)

Hypotheses	Results	
	OFM	AFM
H3-5: P-O fit has a greater effect on reducing employee absenteeism than P-J fit.	**Not Supported**	**Partially Supported**
H3-5a: P-O fit has a greater effect on reducing involuntary leave than P-J fit.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H3-5b: P-O fit has a greater effect on reducing voluntary leave than P-J fit.	Not Supported	Partially Supported
H4-4: The effects of P-E fit on employees' prosocial behaviors in the public sector differ from those in the non-profit sector.	**Partially Supported**	**Not Supported**
H4-4a: The effects of P-E fit on civic participation in the public sector differ from those in the non-profit sector.	Supported	Not Supported
H4-4b: The effects of P-E fit on hours of volunteering in the public sector differ from those in the non-profit sector.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H4-5: The effects of P-E fit on absenteeism for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.	**Not Supported**	**Not Supported**
H4-5a: The effects of P-E fit on involuntary leave for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.	Not Supported	Not Supported
H4-5b: The effects of P-E fit on voluntary leave for public employees differ from those for employees in the non-profit sector.	Not Supported	Not Supported

Figure 5.1 Observed and Predicted Counts of Civic Participation from PRM (OFM)
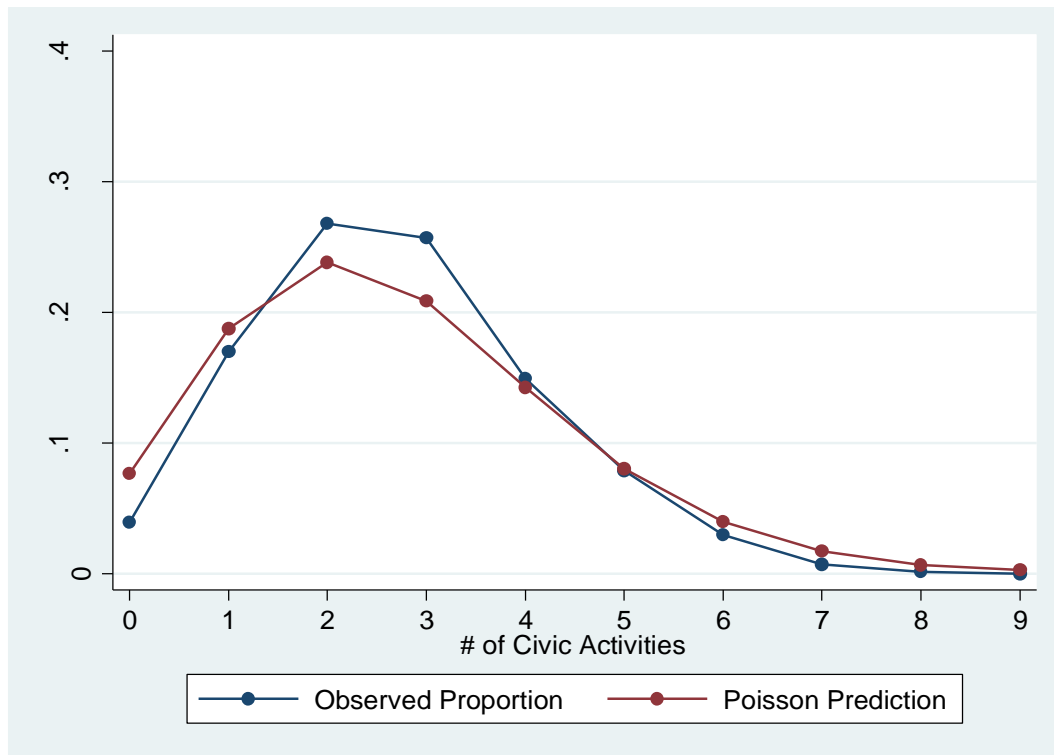
Figure 5.2 Observed and Predicted Counts of Civic Participation from PRM (AFM)
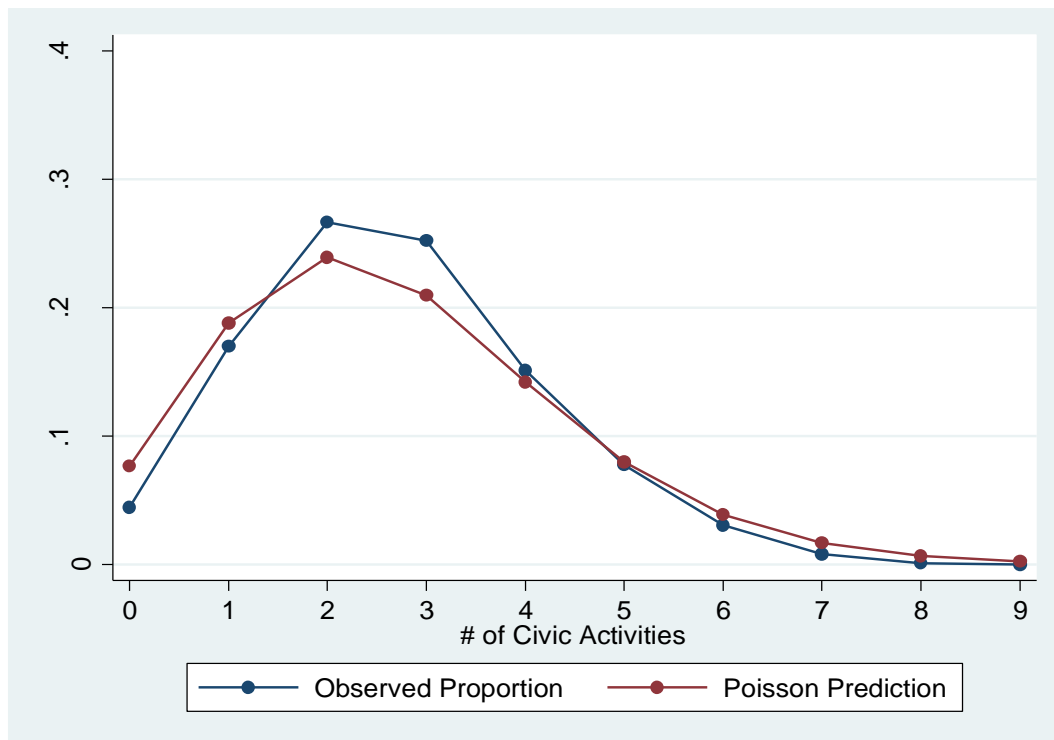
Figures 5.3 Observed and Predicted Counts of Voluntary Leave from ZIP (OFM)
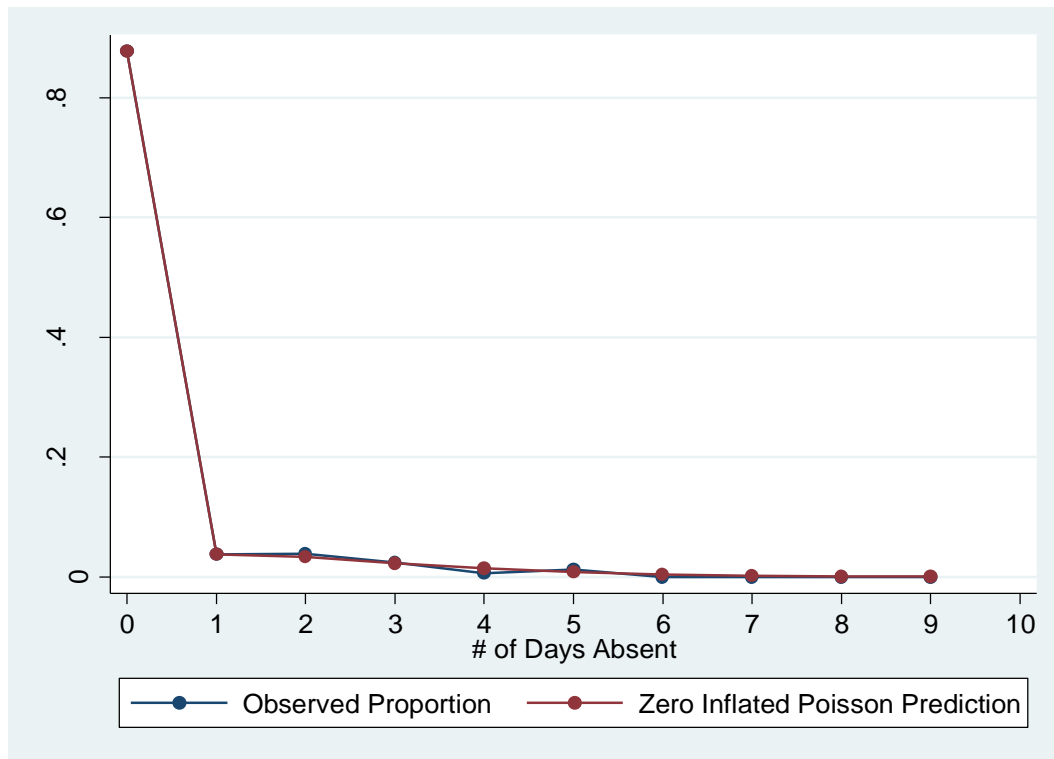
Figures 5.4 Observed and Predicted Counts of Voluntary Leave from ZIP (AFM)
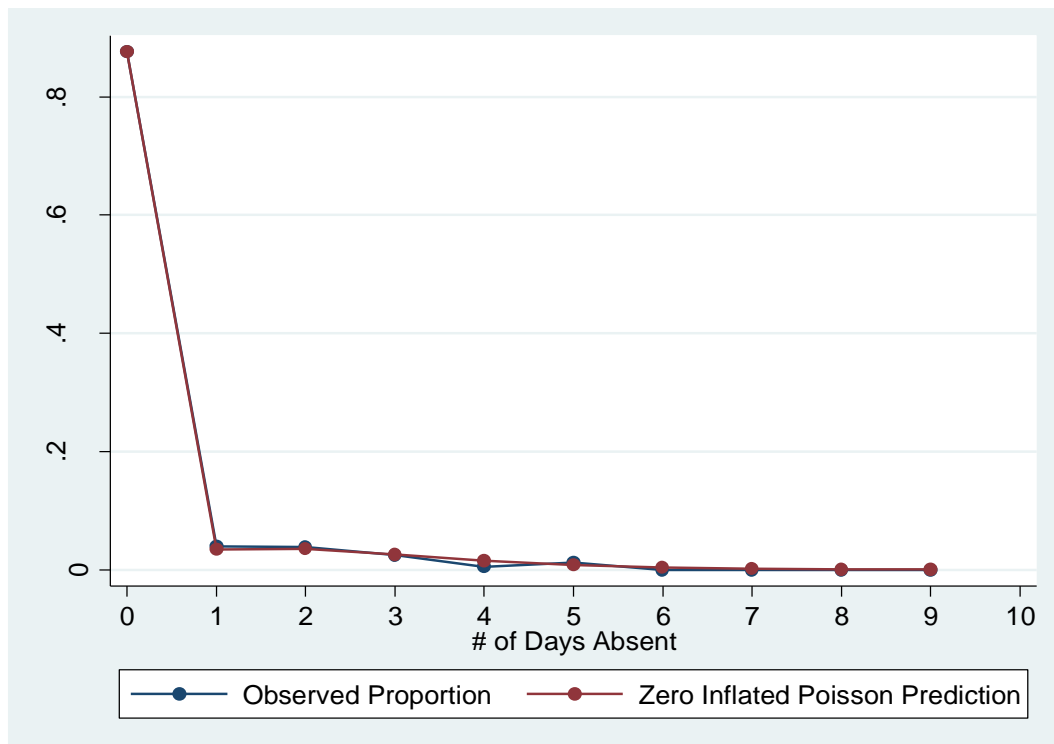
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

Organizations are striving for success in attaining and managing their workforce while individuals are seeking and leaving jobs for various internal or external reasons. This dissertation has sought to address how those needs between individuals and organizations may be met by introducing the concept of person-environment fit in the discussion. Although the term, person-environment fit, may seem new to some, the concept of P-E fit has long been pervasive in the field of social science. The argument that people are differently compatible with their work environment, such as characteristics of jobs, organizations, and other individuals, is almost axiomatic (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson, 2005).

However, previous research has not been very successful in providing integrating review on the topic. In addition, although previous literature suggests that P-E fit may play an important role for employees throughout their organizational work life, only little research has examined this possibility empirically. In this vein, this study has first provided a comprehensive review on its conceptualizations, operationalizations, and measurement of P-E fit and examined the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work motivation, prosocial behavior, and absenteeism). In this concluding chapter, the major findings of this study are summarized, followed by a discussion about implications of these findings as well as suggestions for future research on the topic.

6.1 A Summary of Findings

The primary finding from this research is that P-E fit is indeed an important predictor of employee attitudes but needs further attention for its effects on behavioral outcomes. This study has also found that the sub-dimensions of P-E fit have independent effects on employee attitudes and behaviors. More specifically, chapter four presents the effects of P-E fit on three attitudinal outcome variables (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, work motivation), and the results from O-logit regression models with both OFM and AFM do not support the hypothesis that P-J fit has a greater effect on job satisfaction than P-O fit. However, findings from the models with alternative fit measures (AFM) for the predicted probabilities at "strongly agree" category show that P-J fit has greater impact on employee satisfaction than P-O fit in that category.

The predicted probabilities at "strongly agree" category increase dramatically as the level of P-E fit increases while the predicted probabilities in other categories decrease as P-E fit increases. While the predicted probabilities of job satisfaction by its categories have almost linear relationship with P-J fit, those with P-O fit have more curvilinear pattern. Interestingly, the predicted probability for "agree" has a non-linear relationship, first increasing then decreasing after certain point as the level of P-O fit increases. A potential explanation for this finding is that individuals are switching their responses from "strongly disagree" and "disagree" to "agree" as the level of P-O fit increases up to a certain point, then switching their responses again to "strongly agree" after surpassing the certain point of P-O fit.

For organizational commitment, results from models with both OFM and AFM support the hypothesis that P-O fit has a greater effect on organizational commitment than P-J fit. While the difference of impact between P-J fit and P-O fit was very small for job satisfaction, the

impact of P-O fit on organizational commitment is far greater than that of P-J fit (more than times). The predicted probabilities of organizational commitment by its categories have a similar pattern shown for job satisfaction. However, this pattern does not hold for the relationship between P-E fit and employee work motivation.

P-E fit variables have more linear relationships for work motivation and the predicted probability for the category of "agree" does not show a non-linear pattern any more in this model. The findings from models with both OFM and AFM support that P-E fit is a positive determinant of work motivation and its sub-dimensions have independent effects on motivation. The results from AFM also support that P-J fit is a more important predictor of work motivation than P-O fit. However, the results from OFM do not support this hypothesis. Overall, the impacts of P-E fit on work motivation are relatively small, compared to those on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Chapter five presented findings for two behavioral outcome variables: prosocial behavior and employee absenteeism. The results from PRM with OFM partially support that P-E fit is a significant predictor of employees' prosocial behavior. However, results from OLS models with both OFM and AFM do not support that P-E fit is a significant determinant of hours of volunteering. Specifically, the findings from PRM suggest that both P-J fit and P-O fit have independent effects on employees' participation on civic activities and P-O fit has a greater impact on employee participation in civic activities than P-J fit. For models with AFM, results do not support any of the hypotheses for prosocial behavior proposed in this study.

For employee absenteeism, the results from OLS and ZIP regression models partially support that P-E fit is an important predictor of absenteeism and its sub-dimensions have independent effects on employee absenteeism. The findings from this study also partially support

that P-O fit has a greater impact on absenteeism than P-J fit. Specifically, the results from ZIP models with AFM suggest that P-O has an effect of increasing the probability of having zero voluntary leave. On the other hand, this study has also found that P-J fit has a positive effect on reducing voluntary leave. As voluntary absenteeism is a more concern for managers, these findings provide a practical implication for managers who are facing higher level of absenteeism in their organizations.

6.2 Contributions of This Study

Several theoretical frameworks have contributed to the development of the concept of P-E fit and researchers have sought to investigate the role of P-E fit throughout organizational work cycle. Although previous research on fit has become an important foundation of this study, several contributions from this dissertation could be made to the field of public administration and management. First, the introduction of the concept of P-E fit into the study of administration can provide meaningful discussions between public management scholars for the development of measures and tools for assessing P-E fit that can be used in public organizations. This study developed two sets of P-E fit measures, based on the conceptualization of needs-supplies fit. From the measurement perspective, the P-E fit measures developed in this study are subjective fit measures, which assess fit, using two separate ratings for person and environment based on individuals' perception. As discussed in chapter two, previous research has suggested that the alignment of "commensurability" between person and the environment is one of the most important aspects when developing fit measures, especially for P-O fit measures (Kristof, 1996). However, findings from this study suggest that how the fit between person and environment was weighted is also an important factor when developing fit measures. When this study tests

hypotheses using two different sets of fit measures, which were developed from the same items with only different weighting schemes, the results for the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors were different from the two measures in several ways.

Second, although the findings from this study generally support the hypotheses drawn from the previous literature, they also provide evidence that P-O fit may be a more important predictor for attitudinal and behavioral outcomes than P-J fit. For example, previous literature has suggested that P-J fit is more closely related to job satisfaction and work motivation than P-O fit but the findings from this study (with OFM) is exactly opposite, showing P-O fit has a greater impact on job satisfaction and work motivation. P-O fit seems to have a significant impact on behavioral outcomes, especially for reducing voluntary leave of employees. These findings can be applied in practice for organizations to manage their workforce more effectively, minimizing organizational costs regarding employee absenteeism and turnover.

Third, the fit measures developed in this study can be more broadly applied to measuring other dimensions of P-E fit. Although the measures are developed based on needs-supplies fit, the weighting schemes used for developing these subjective fit can be easily applied to measuring demands-abilities fit as well as measuring supplementary fit. In addition, the measures developed in this study are useful to measure a multi-dimensional aspect of P-E fit as they are designed to assess various fit dimensions with different constructs. I believe these practical and methodological strengths of this study will help the study of public administration and management move forward.

6.3 Implications for Practice

This study provides useful knowledge on the relationships between P-E fit and its potential influence on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of employees. Studies have suggested that employee attitudes are often closely related with organizational outcomes. For example, previous research provides some evidence that job satisfaction is an important determinant of individual and organizational performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Scholars also argue that organizational commitment is one of the most important employee attitudes that affect organizational performance (Rainey, 2003). In addition to the significance of employee attitudes in relation to task performance, previous research argues that contextual performance, such as prosocial behavior, is also important for organization's long term performance (Sekiguchi, 2004). Findings of this study provide evidence that increasing fit between person and work environment would increase employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and work motivation. More practically, the findings on absenteeism suggest that increasing P-E fit might be a useful strategy for reducing voluntary leave, which is fairly avoidable if appropriately managed.

In general, there are two ways to secure higher level of fit between person and work environment. The first strategy is for organizations to make hire individuals who have characteristics that match well with those of the organizations from the beginning. However, several limitations keep this option out from perfection. First, it is sometimes difficult for organizations to hire their best candidates. For example, previous research on employee selection found that organizations make hiring decisions based on both P-J fit and P-O fit but recruiters consider applicants' P-J fit (or KSAs) more importantly in the screening stage while they prefer to select applicants with high level of P-O fit in the selection stage (Bretz et al., 1993; Kristof-

Brown, 2000; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). On the contrary, research from the applicants' perspective also suggests that P-O fit may play a more important role in the job search or screening stage while applicants often make their job choice decisions based on P-J fit rather than P-O fit (Carless, 2005). As applicants assess their P-J fit based on needs-supplies fit (what they can get from taking the job), it is very likely that organizations do not always get to hire the candidates who has best P-O fit with the organizations. In order to balance this divergence between recruiters and applicants, hiring entities (organizations) should develop strategies for informing the characteristics of their organizations as well as tools for understanding applicants' needs.

Second, even though we suppose that organizations hire individuals who best fit with the organizations among candidates, it is very likely that fit between person and environment can change over time. One possibility is that the assessment of fit in employee selection or job choice stages may be inaccurate. As fit is often assessed by perception with limited information about the person or work environment, it is possible that the actual fit between the person and the environment is lower than expected. Another possibility is that fit between person and environment change as their needs and demands change over time. Because of this dynamic nature of P-E fit, managers need to have an alternative strategy that focuses on improving fit between employees and their work environment. In other words, organizations need to have effective tools not only for hiring candidates who best fit with their organizations but also for managing their employees through continuous reassessment of fit to improve fit between their employees and work environment.

One of such tools discussed in the literature is to use to socialization tactics. Previous research has suggested that socialization tactics may have a moderating effect on the relationship

between P-E fit and employee attitudes and behaviors (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Dawley et al., 2010; Goodman & Syvantek, 1999; Judge & Bretz, 1992). More specifically, some studies have found that institutionalized socialization tactics can enhance P-O fit within organizations (e.g., Cable & Parsons, 2001; Kim et al., 2005). Research from the field of public management also has suggested that social network and mentorship can be potential moderators for the relationship between P-E fit and attitudinal and behavioral variables (Moynihan & Pandey, 2008; Dawley et al., 2010). In addition, Bozeman and Feeney (2009) have recently pointed out the important role of mentoring in the public sector (Bozeman & Feeney, 2009).

In short, managers should consider both pre-entry and post-entry contexts to improve fit between employees and organizations and understand the underlying mechanisms by which they believe fit is operating when selecting a tool for assessing fit. In addition, managers who wish to maximize the benefits of fit are encouraged to attend to the various aspects of the environment with which fit may occur. To improve managers' decision making during the periods of employee selection and for reassessment of fit for current employees, fit-based instruments with demonstrated criterion-related validity must be developed. For managers, it is important to pay attention to how clearly they are communicating with their employees from the beginning of the recruitment process through long-term employment.

6.4 Future Research

Although this study provides findings that lead to meaningful discussions on fit between person and environment and its effects on employee attitudes and behaviors, several limitations as well as suggestions for future research can be discussed. First, there is a possibility that estimates of P-O fit obtained from the analyses in this study may not be efficient and the

interpretation of results for the effects of P-O fit may not be repeated in other studies. Although the results from the Brant tests show that the models used in the analyses do not violate the parallel regression assumption for O-logit regressions overall, they also suggest a possibility that P-O fit variable may have violated the assumption. Thus, it is recommended to find another method to solve the issue in future research.

Second, this study has attempted to validate the multi-dimensional aspect of P-E fit but the data only allowed the analyses of two sub-dimensions of P-E fit (i.e., P-J and P-O fit). As suggested in the previous research, little research has been conducted on person-group (P-G) fit despite its importance in contemporary organizations. Thus, it is recommended that future research on fit develop measures of P-G fit and examine its influence on employee attitudes and behaviors.

Third, this study did not examine the role of potential moderators that might affect the relationship between P-E fit and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. However, findings from this study suggest that the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors might differ by sector settings. As discussed earlier in this study, studies suggest that employees in the public sector may have different motivational orientation toward work (Kellough & Lu, 1993; Perry & Wise, 1990; Rainey, 2003). For example, it is possible that the orientation of an individual's job choice decision (e.g., whether it is intrinsic or extrinsic) may have a moderating effect on the relationship between P-E fit and employee attitudes and behaviors. In relation to the effects of public service motivation (PSM) on individuals' job choice decisions, a recent study has found that PSM may play a more important role in P-J fit rather than P-O fit on job choice decisions across the sectors (Christensen & Wright, 2011). This argument, however, may conflict with previous arguments regarding the role of PSM (Perry and Wise, 1990; Rainey, 2003). Thus,

future research in the field of public management should seek to investigate to further verify the argument regarding the role of PSM both empirically and theoretically.

Fourth, findings from this study also suggest that results for the effects of P-E fit may differ by fit measures used for analysis. For example, this study has developed two different sets of fit measures using the same items. The only difference for the two measures was the weighting scheme. However, the results for the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors were different in many aspects. Thus, researchers are encouraged to investigate to find appropriate measurement techniques that ensure the consistency between fit measures.

Lastly, research on fit often examines the role of fit in employee selection and its effect on employee attitudes and behaviors. However, there is a lack in theories that provide potential explanations on how individual actions and organizational practices during and immediately following entry impact both perceived and actual levels of fit. Thus, scholars need to develop theories that explain the underlying linkage between perceived and actualized fit. This study has been seeking to examine the effects of P-E fit on employee attitudes and behaviors in the public and non-profit sectors. It is a small attempt to vet the potential of P-E fit as a useful tool in public and non-profit management and I hope this study initiates the discussion further among scholars and practitioners in the field of public administration and management.

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National Administrative Studies Project (NASP III)

A Survey of Managers in Public Agencies and Non-Profit Organizations

NATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE STUDIES PROJECT

A National Survey of Government and Nonprofit Managers

A Project of

This questionnaire is part of a study sponsored by researchers at the Georgia Institute of Technology. The study's purpose is to increase understanding of the career trajectories of administrators working in state agencies, and private and nonprofit organizations.

Georgia Institute of Technology – School of Public Policy
Atlanta, GA 30332-0345
USA

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

You are being asked to volunteer for a research project the National Administrative Studies Project (NASP), which seeks information about the careers of administrators working in state agencies and nonprofit organizations. The study's purpose is to increase our understanding of managers' career trajectories and personal and professional characteristics.

This study is being conducted by researchers at the Georgia Institute of Technology (Georgia Tech). All data will be held at Georgia Tech and will be used for research purposes only. When you return your completed questionnaire, your name will be deleted from the mailing list and never be connected to your answers in any way. Your survey will be destroyed two months after we receive it. We will not release data publicly that would enable others to infer your identity.

There is no direct benefit to you by participating. There are no foreseeable risks to you. You will not be paid nor is there any cost to you by participating.

The survey is for scientific purposes and individual data will not be analyzed. All analyses will be conducted at the aggregate level. Aggregate results will be publicly available on our web site www.rvm.gatech.edu. We estimate that the questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. If you have questions about this research or questionnaire, please contact the project manager:

Mary Feeney
Senior Research Associate
School of Public Policy
Georgia Institute of Technology
Atlanta, GA 30332-0345
rvm@pubpolicy.gatech.edu
(404) 894-0093

If you do not wish to take part, you will have no penalty. You may stop taking part at any time. If you have questions about this research, the questionnaire, or your rights in completing this questionnaire, please call or write:

Ms. Melanie Clark
Office of Research Compliance
Georgia Institute of Technology
Atlanta, GA 30332-0420
Voice (404) 894-6942

If you have read the statement above and consent to participate, sign below. If you do not wish to participate, simply stop here. We thank you for your interest.

I _____ have read the above statement and grant my informed consent.

_____ Signature   _____ Date

APPROVED   Consent Form Approved by Georgia Tech IRB: June 13, 2005 - June 12, 2006

Section I.   Your Current Job

1. We are interested in the factors that motivated you to accept a job at your <u>current</u> organization. Please indicate the extent to which the factors below (some personal and family, some professional) were important in making your decision to take a job at your <u>current</u> organization. *[Please mark X only one box in each row]*

	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Somewhat Unimportant	Not Important
Opportunity for advancement within the organization's hierarchy	☐	☐	☐	☐
Opportunity for training and career development	☐	☐	☐	☐
Job security	☐	☐	☐	☐
The organization's reputation for opportunities for women or minorities	☐	☐	☐	☐
Overall quality and reputation of this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐
The organization's pension or retirement plan	☐	☐	☐	☐
Desire for less bureaucratic red tape	☐	☐	☐	☐
Desire for a low conflict work environment	☐	☐	☐	☐
Desire for increased responsibility	☐	☐	☐	☐
Benefits (medical, insurance)	☐	☐	☐	☐
"Family friendly" policies (e.g. flexible work hours, parental leave)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Salary	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ability to serve the public and the public interest	☐	☐	☐	☐
Few, if any, alternative job offers	☐	☐	☐	☐
Relatively low cost of living in the region	☐	☐	☐	☐
Employment opportunities for spouse or partner	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section II.   Work Environment

2. During a typical week, about how many hours do you work (including work done away from the office but as part of your job)?

_____ hours worked during typical work week

3. Thinking about the last 12 months, please estimate how many days of work you missed because:

You were sick .... ☐ days missed

Someone else in your household was sick .... ☐ days missed

Your spouse or partner was sick .... ☐ days missed

You were on vacation .... ☐ days missed

You took personal leave (e.g. dentist appointment) .... ☐ days missed

You were not sick or on vacation, but you could not face working .... ☐ days missed

4. We are interested in your views about your job. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following comments about your current job. *[Please check only one box in each row]*

	Strongly Agree	Agree Somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Strongly Disagree
I put forth my best effort to get the job done regardless of the difficulties	☐	☐	☐	☐
Time seems to drag while I am on the job	☐	☐	☐	☐
It has been hard for me to get very involved in my current job..	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do extra work for my job that isn't really expected of me.........	☐	☐	☐	☐
All in all, I am satisfied with my job	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would rate the overall quality of work being done in my organization as very good	☐	☐	☐	☐
The most important things that happen to me involve my work	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel a sense of pride working for this organization...................	☐	☐	☐	☐
I do not have enough authority to determine how to get my job done	☐	☐	☐	☐
There are incentives for me to work hard in my job...................	☐	☐	☐	☐
My job offers a great deal of flexibility..	☐	☐	☐	☐
This organization has high ethical standards.............................	☐	☐	☐	☐
Innovation is one of the most important values in this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel I am underpaid	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section III. Organizational Rules and Procedures

5. If red tape is defined as "burdensome administrative rules and procedures that have negative effects on the organization's effectiveness," how would you assess the level of red tape in your organization? *(Please circle the appropriate response).*

Almost No Red Tape   Great Deal of Red Tape

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

6. Here we ask that you provide information about rules and procedures at your <u>current</u> organization. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Agree	Agree Somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Strongly Disagree
Because of the rules here, promotions are based mainly on performance	☐	☐	☐	☐
Even if a manager is a poor performer, formal rules make it hard to remove him or her from the organization	☐	☐	☐	☐
The formal pay structures and rules make it hard to reward a good employee with higher pay here	☐	☐	☐	☐
I often have to do work that my subordinates should be doing	☐	☐	☐	☐
Most employees here are clear about the tasks they are expected to perform	☐	☐	☐	☐
Employees in this organization are afraid to take risks	☐	☐	☐	☐
Our clients seem quite satisfied with the performance of this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐
Top management displays a high level of trust in this organization's employees	☐	☐	☐	☐
Top management in this organization is afraid to take risks	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. In your current job, do you feel that you have about the right amount of supervision, too little, or not enough? [*Please place an X at the appropriate point on the scale below*]

Not enough supervision   **Right amount**   **Too much supervision**

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

8. During the <u>last five working days</u>, what percentage of work-related mail, email, and phone calls you <u>sent</u> to each of the following categories of recipients? *[Percentages should add up to 100; your best estimate will do]*

Recipient	Percentage of correspondence
Persons within this organization	
Clients of this organization	%
Government agencies or institutions	%
Private companies (i.e., individual firms)	%
Non-profit organizations	%
Total	**100 %**

9. In this section we ask your <u>perception</u> of work in the public and business sectors. Please answer these questions even if you have stayed in the same sector for your entire career. *[Please check only ONE box in each row]*

	Public Sector	Business Sector	No Difference
Work is more personally gratifying............................	☐	☐	☐
Managers have more work autonomy	☐	☐	☐
Persons doing similar jobs are more talented	☐	☐	☐
Women have more opportunity.................................	☐	☐	☐
Minorities have more opportunity.............................	☐	☐	☐
Employees are more creative and innovative...........	☐	☐	☐

Section IV. Civic and Political Activity

10. In this section we ask you about your personal civic activities. Please indicate which of the following organizations you are currently a member, if any. *[Please check all that apply]:*

- ☐ Church, synagogue, mosque, or religious organization
- ☐ Political club or political party committees
- ☐ Professional societies, trade or business association, or labor union
- ☐ Service organizations such as Rotary or Lions
- ☐ Youth support groups (e.g. Girl's & Boy's Club, Little League Parents Association)
- ☐ Neighborhood or homeowners associations
- ☐ PTA, PTO, or school support groups
- ☐ Groups sports team or club (e.g. softball team, bowling league)
- ☐ Other: Please specify _____

11. In the <u>last four weeks</u>, how many hours, if any, did you engage in volunteer activities?

_____ hours of volunteer work in the last four weeks.

Section V.   Mentoring

We define mentoring as "a developmental relationship between two colleagues where one person has more experience or authority than the other." Mentoring may include helping another person with improving work skills, understanding the organizational history, providing information about "getting ahead" in the job or profession, and giving personal or emotional support. In the following section we ask about your experiences, if any, <u>having a mentor</u>.

12. Have you ever had a mentor?

☐ Yes

☐ No   [If no, skip to Question 18 on the next page]

13. (If Yes) Was your mentor a member of your current organization?

☐ Yes

☐ No

14. Please indicate the period in which you were in this mentoring relationship:

Approximate month and year mentoring began

_____ Month   _____ Year

Approximate month and year mentoring ended

_____ Month   _____ Year   _____ [Check here if not yet ended]

15. Please indicate how your relationship with your mentor began

☐ My mentor was assigned through a formal program

☐ The mentor was more active than I was in initiating an informal mentoring relationship

☐ I was more active than the mentor in initiating an informal mentoring relationship

16. What is your mentor's gender:

☐ Male   ☐ Female

17. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements. *[Please check only one box in each row]*

	Strongly Agree	Agree Somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Strongly Disagree
My mentor and I share similar professional values....................	☐	☐	☐	☐
My mentor helped introduce me to influential people in this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐
My mentor helped to introduce me to influential people outside this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐
My mentor and I are friends......................................	☐	☐	☐	☐
My mentor has a great deal of respect for my ideas	☐	☐	☐	☐
My mentor has helped me deal with "office politics"..................	☐	☐	☐	☐
My mentor often makes unwanted suggestions about my work...	☐	☐	☐	☐
Overall, my mentor has contributed a great deal to my success in this organization	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have a great deal of respect for my mentor's ideas.................	☐	☐	☐	☐
If I had to do it over again, I would be reluctant to have this person as a mentor	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. Have <u>you</u> ever been a mentor?

☐ Yes

☐ No

Section VI. Job History

19. Is your current job your first full-time job?

☐ Yes

☐ No

20. The following four boxes, ask about your recent job history. Each box represents a <u>single job</u>. Please work backward, starting with your <u>current</u> job. If you have changed jobs within the same organization, please use separate boxes for each job. If you have not held five positions, simply leave the extra boxes blank and continue to the next section.

Box 1: Your current job		
Organization type ☐ Public (government) ☐ Private company ☐ Non-profit organization ☐ Different job but same organization as current one	**Main responsibility** ☐ Managerial ☐ Professional (e.g. legal, accounting) ☐ Technical ☐ Other	**This job was:** ☐ A promotion to a higher position from within the same organization ☐ A lateral move within the same organization ☐ A lateral move from a different organization ☐ An upwards move from a different organization ☐ Your first job
Agency or Company:	# of employees supervised, if any:	Formal job title: Year started:

Box 2: The job you held immediately before your current job		
Organization type ☐ Public (government) ☐ Private company ☐ Non-profit organization ☐ Different job but same organization as current one	**Main responsibility** ☐ Managerial ☐ Professional (e.g. legal, accounting) ☐ Technical ☐ Other	**This job was:** ☐ A promotion to a higher position from within the same organization ☐ A lateral move within the same organization ☐ A lateral move from a different organization ☐ An upwards move from a different organization ☐ Your first job
Agency or Company:	# of employees supervised, if any:	Formal job title: Year started: Year ended:

Box 3: The job you held immediately before the job listed in Box 2		
Organization type ☐ Public (government) ☐ Private company ☐ Non-profit organization ☐ Different job but same organization as current one	**Main responsibility** ☐ Managerial ☐ Professional (e.g. legal, accounting) ☐ Technical ☐ Other	**This job was:** ☐ A promotion to a higher position from within the same organization ☐ A lateral move within the same organization ☐ A lateral move from a different organization ☐ An upward move from a different organization ☐ Your first job
Agency or Company :	# of employees supervised, if any:	Formal job title: Year started: Year ended :

Box 4: The job you held immediately before the job listed in Box 3		
Organization type ☐ Public (government) ☐ Private company ☐ Non-profit organization ☐ Different job but same organization as current one	**Main responsibility** ☐ Managerial ☐ Professional (e.g. legal, accounting) ☐ Technical ☐ Other	**This job was:** ☐ A promotion to a higher position from within the same organization ☐ A lateral move within the same organization ☐ A lateral move from a different organization ☐ An upward move from a different organization ☐ Your first job
Agency or Company :	# of employees supervised, if any:	Formal job title: Year started: Year ended:

Section VII. Demographic Characteristics

21. Are you: ☐ Male ☐ Female

22. In what year were you born? 19_____

23. What is your <u>highest</u> level of formal education? *[Please check ONE box]*

Attended high school, but did not graduate.. ☐
High school graduate .... ☐
Attended college, but did not graduate from a 4-year college .... ☐
Graduated from a 4-year college... ☐
Attended graduate or professional school, but did not graduate .... ☐
Graduated from a graduate or professional school (e.g. MBA, MPA, JD, MD) ..... ☐

24. If you happen to have a college degree, what is the discipline of your <u>highest</u> degree (e.g. political science, business, engineering)?

_____

25. If you happen to have a college degree, what is the name of the institution from which you received your <u>highest</u> degree?

_____

26. What is your racial identification? [*Please specify*] _____

27. Which of the following is true? *[Please check all that apply]:*

☐ I was <u>not</u> born in the United States
☐ At least one of my parents was <u>not</u> born in the United States
☐ At least one of my parents spent most of his or her working career in the public sector
☐ At least one of my parents graduated from a four-year college

28. <u>Currently</u>, are you either married or living with a domestic partner?

☐ Yes

☐ No

29. Do you have any dependent children? If so, how many? [_____] Children
     [Enter "0" if you have no dependent children]

Thank you for taking your time to complete this questionnaire. Your assistance in providing this information is very much appreciated.

When the study is completed, we intend to post results at a public domain website: www.rvm.gatech.edu. We invite you to peruse the results.

If there is anything else you would like to tell us about any of the topics covered by this questionnaire, please do so in the space provided below:

Please <u>fold and tape</u> this questionnaire, with return address showing, and place in the mail.

No postage is necessary!

Dr. B. Bozeman
National Administrative Studies Project
School of Public Policy
Georgia Institute of Technology
Atlanta, GA. 30313-9810

No postage is necessary!

Please fold and tape with return address showing and place in the mail.

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