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PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT AND READINESS FOR CHANGE:

EXPLORING THE MODERATING ROLE OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE

AND PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
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Joana R.C. Pimentel

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my loving family. This project is especially dedicated to my mother (m.p.b.), whose unconditional love, support, and sacrifice throughout my life has made all endeavors possible, even one as epic as this. To my grandfather Coelho, who has done his title justice by being more than a father to me and the pillar of the wonderful family I am honored to be a part of. To my brother Tiago, who has always been there and who continuously reminds me that the courage to walk alternative paths in life is greatly rewarded. To my grandmother, cousins, aunts, uncles, and Gil, the best supporters I could possibly have. Finally, to my husband Joe, whose endless love, dedication, patience, and amazing gourmet cooking have made these last few years so much sweeter.

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ABSTRACT

This paper was aimed at investigating the interplay of multiple facets of person-environment fit with individual readiness for change; and to expose potential moderators of this relationship, namely organizational support and quality of relationship with supervisors. The extant research on the relationships between person-environment fit and a number of individual- and organization-level outcomes reveals considerable discrepancies, mainly attributed to the measurement of person-environment fit and to potential moderators. With this in mind, moderated multiple regressions (MMR) were conducted in order to test the hypotheses of existing interaction effects.

The results revealed no significant interactions between facets of person-environment fit and the moderators proposed. However, the significant correlations found between tenure and readiness for change dimensions led to a series of post hoc analyses to explore whether different tenure groups exhibited different relationship patterns across the variables measured in this study, and to investigate a potential moderating effect of tenure on the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change. The results indicated that tenure significantly increased the prediction of readiness for change by person-environment fit, underscoring the importance of workforce composition on readiness for change research. The findings obtained hold interesting implications for both research and practice concerning the measurement of person-environment fit, and with respect to the impact of individual- and organization-level variables on the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change. These implications, along with limitations of the present study, are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Today's rapidly changing business environment demands from most organizations the capacity to continually adjust their strategic direction, redefine their goals, and develop their workforce in accordance with anticipated transformations. The organizations' ability to successfully prepare and develop their constituents for change processes is simultaneously a product of and precursor to these individuals' willingness and capacity to undergo organizational change. Employees who report high readiness for change are motivated to develop new behaviors and competencies, to rethink their current work values, and to commit to new goals. This positive attitude is expected to greatly facilitate the implementation of change programs in organizations. As an individual-level phenomenon, readiness for change is a result of dispositional variables (e.g., personality), experience (e.g., experience with the organization and job position), and employee perceptions of change benefits for themselves and for the organization. Consequently, the organization's successful implementation of change programs is largely influenced by its ability to adequately diagnose individual readiness for change, and to subsequently plan managerial interventions aimed at engaging its workforce in transformational activities. Considering that readiness for change is reflected in willingness and capacity to make adjustments to work values, professional goals, and individual behaviors and competencies, it seems plausible that the extent to which personal values and goals are

aligned with the organization's mission, objectives, and functional characteristics will significantly impact individual readiness for value-based, goal-based, and functional changes.

The present paper had three main objectives. The first objective was to examine the extant person-environment fit literature, to conceptually clarify the distinction between three forms of fit (i.e., person-organization, person-job, and person-group fit), and to identify their main correlates, moderators, and outcomes. The second objective was to explore the readiness for change construct in an organizational context and to suggest a sound measurement approach. Finally, the third goal of this study was to uncover the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change, considering dispositional variables, organizational support, and the quality of the relationships between employees and their supervisors.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Exploring Person-Environment Fit

Person-environment fit represents one of the most convoluted and fragmented constructs in organizational research (Billsberry, Ambrosini, Moss-Jones, & Marsh, 2005; Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Kristof, 1996). The existing literature presents differing positions with regard to construct definition, dimensionality, and measurement. The following sections offer a clarification of the person-environment fit construct; an examination of exiting fit types, dimensions, and frameworks; a description of its correlates and moderators; and an assessment of the principal measurement issues in the fit research.

Defining fit

For over four decades, researchers have attempted to describe person-environment fit and its operating dynamics. Two distinct, yet related areas of research emerge in the early literature. The first area highlights the need for a paradigm shift from selecting and developing employees based on pre-defined job characteristics, to changing specific facets of the job in order to accommodate individual differences (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hulin & Blood, 1968; Morse, 1975; O'Reilly, 1977). The second research area examines the positive effects of goal and value congruence between employees and the organization on a number of outcomes, including job satisfaction and performance

(Blood, 1969; Mount & Muchinski, 1978; Pervin, 1968). Taken together, these early studies suggest that a comprehensive investigation of person-environment fit must integrate job characteristics, personal goals, and work-related values. A third and less explored field concerns the impact of interpersonal relations among organizational constituents on individual behavior and subsequent organizational outcomes, i.e., the investigation of the upshot of value congruence and quality of relationships among organizational members (Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005; Piasentin & Chapman, 2007; Schneider, 1987). Overall, congruence between personal and organizational values and goals, between individual KSAs and job characteristics, and between individual and work unit members' values and skills all represent distinct components of fit in organizational settings. Person-environment fit can be broadly defined as the matching between individuals and organizations or between individuals and other workgroup members resulting from satisfaction of mutual needs, from similarity of work values, and from work goal congruence (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Kristof, 1996; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). While there is some discussion with respect to the operational levels of analysis of the different types of fit (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006), the general consensus, albeit disputable, is that the components of person-environment fit are perceptual in nature and should be assessed at the individual level of analysis (Kristof, 1996).

In addition to the selection of level of analysis, which constitutes one of the most prevalent concerns in person-environment fit measurement, the dimensional structure of the different fit types has been presented based on different frameworks. Moreover, the

research focus often dictates the principles for establishing and defining fit dimensions, leading to a wide range of results and inherent interpretations. For this reason, a clarification of the different fit types and respective dimensions is essential prior to empirical examinations.

Person-Organization Fit

Among the existing person-environment fit types, person-organization fit (herein p-o fit) represents the most commonly investigated component (Kristof, 1996; Ostroff et al., 2005). P-o fit reflects two dimensions of congruence between an organization and its members: supplementary fit and complementary fit (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristoff, 1996; Verquer et al., 2003; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Supplementary fit occurs when individual and organization share similar values relative to work situations, including beliefs regarding employment policies, corporate social responsibility, and diversity management (Meligno & Ravlin, 1998; Sims & Keon, 1997). This dimension typically characterizes the degree of similarity in importance attributed to a particular value or situation. However, the values of the organization as an entity are either reflected on the values of its founders (e.g., mission statement, goals), or determined by an aggregate measure of the beliefs of all its contributors, which is not always sensible or possible considering the methodological challenges. In this sense, individual contributors are often called to provide an assessment of perceived organizational values, and to establish the degree of congruence between their own values and those believed to be fostered by the organization.

Complementary fit occurs when the individual, the organization, or both are capable of satisfying the needs of the other party (Verquer et al., 2003), including skill and competency development, allocation of benefits, and job security. Although theoretically defined as *quid pro quo* between employee and organization, at the individual level it is represented by perceptions of the degree to which organizations satisfy individual needs; in particular, whether the desired or needed amount of resources is provided by the organization.

This twofold definition of p-o fit underscores value congruence and need fulfillment as components of similarity between individuals and the organization to which they are affiliated. Though complementary and supplementary fit describe different facets of the same construct, the difference between the two dimensions extends beyond definition and content. In practice, supplementary fit, or value congruence, requires a measure that assesses the degree to which individual and organization attribute similar importance to particular values, whereas complementary fit, or need-fulfillment, compares the individual's desired amount of an attribute in relation to the amount offered by the organization. Research findings show that value congruence and need-fulfillment independently and additively affect individual attitudes, suggesting that both components are necessary to determine the impact of p-o fit on work outcomes (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown, Jansen, & Colbert, 2002; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Moreover, individuals differentiate between value congruence and need-fulfillment fit, and these fit components have distinct implications. Value congruence is a stronger predictor of organizational citizenship behaviors and turnover intentions, and

need-fulfillment fit is positively related to job satisfaction and occupational commitment (Cable & DeRue, 2002). However, it should be noted that value congruence, is a stronger predictor of work attitudes than need-fulfillment fit (Verquer et al., 2003). In fact, recent research shows that value congruence is strongly related to job satisfaction when individuals report lack of need-fulfillment fit, suggesting a compensatory effect of value-based congruence on alternative fit dimensions (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002; Resick, Baltes, & Shantz, 2007). Despite the promising results, a direct, subjective measure of the different dimensions of p-o fit has yet to be developed and validated.

Person-Job Fit

Similar to p-o fit, person-job fit (p-j fit) is also comprised of several distinct dimensions. Demands-abilities fit, needs-supplies fit, and the recently proposed self-concept/job fit (Scroggins, 2003) represent three distinct dimensions of p-j fit that merit observation. Demands-abilities fit reflects the congruence between the individual's wealth of knowledge, skills, and competencies, and the demands inherent in the job position (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Scroggins, 2007); needs-supplies fit describes the congruence between an individual's motivational preferences, and work characteristics and job supplies (Billberry et al., 2005; Scroggins, 2003, 2007); finally, self-concept/job fit refers to the congruence between the employee's self-concept at work and job characteristics, where specific facets of the job and performance outcomes provide information that validates the employee's self-concept (Scroggins, 2003, 2007). The latter dimension holds strong similarities with the psychological empowerment construct, in that job characteristics and

organizational structures facilitate or hinder the feedback obtained by individuals concerning their ability to perform a specific task and the impact of their work inputs on organizational outputs (Spreitzer, 1995). Furthermore, the needs-supplies fit dimension is similar to the p-o fit need-fulfillment dimension: needs-supplies fit refers to the extent to which employee needs are satisfied by job characteristics, and need-fulfillment fit reflects whether broad facets of organizational support such as work-life balance and reward allocation satisfy employee needs. Examples of p-j needs-supplies fit include job autonomy, span of control, and level of formalization.

The impact of p-j fit in organizational outcomes is particularly salient in early stages of organizational affiliation or career path (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002) in the sense that individuals are highly mindful of the extent to which they adequately fulfill job requirements, and rely heavily on their abilities and knowledge to secure a job position or to initiate career moves. For this reason, most of the existing p-j fit research is conducted at the recruitment and selection stages of organizational affiliation (Cable & Judge, 1996; Carless & Imber, 2007; Ehrhart, 2006). However, recent research has been increasingly interested in the integration of p-o fit and p-j fit frameworks, and in the impact on these fit types on attitudes toward the organization and other work-related outcomes (Kristof, 1996; Scroggins, 2007). Research findings suggest that different dimensions of p-j fit differentially impact attitudinal outcomes, namely job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention. However, current direct, subjective measures of p-j fit do not provide a separate assessment of demands-abilities and needs-supplies fit.

P-j fit explains variance in job satisfaction and commitment beyond the influence of p-o fit dimensions (Ostroff et al., 2005; Scroggins, 2007). In view of these results, the fit research appears to benefit from the inclusion of different types of fit when examining outcomes of interest.

Person-Group Fit

A final category of fit in organizational settings is represented by person-group fit (p-g fit), or the extent to which individual values and those of workgroup or work unit members are congruent (Bilsberry et al., 2005; Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Ostroff et al., 2005). The underlying assumption is that matching between the individual and his/her workgroup is related to the quality of their interactions, which in turn affects the individual's capacity to make positive contributions to the organization (Werbel & Johnson, 2001). In addition, p-g fit relies on the notion that different work units and teams have unique climates (Adkins & Caldwell, 2004), suggesting that the degree of value similarity between employee and workgroup – and ensuing implications – may differ from the degree of value congruence between employee and organization (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

With respect to dimensionality, supplementary and complementary fit represent two distinct facets of p-g fit. Supplementary p-g fit occurs when the individual holds values that are similar to the values held by other group members, and complementary p-g fit occurs when there is a degree of skill diversity among team members that enhances the overall quality of group contributions (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). An interesting aspect of complementary p-g fit concerns the emphasis placed on different or

complementary skills among members of a work group, contrasting with the focus on value similarity suggested by the supplementary p-g fit component (Werbel & Johnson, 2001). Consequently, the two dimensions of p-g fit should be differentially related to individual, group, and organizational variables. Supplementary p-g fit criteria include cohesiveness and cooperation, and complementary fit criteria include decision-making quality and other task-related variables, namely group performance (Werbel & Johnson, 2001). Moreover, supplementary and complementary p-g fit will likely be beneficial to organizational change initiatives that typically require interpersonal trust, cohesiveness, and complementary knowledge and skills.

P-g fit research is still scarce and largely inconclusive, especially when integrated with other fit frameworks and in the context of organizational change. For that reason, the present study proposes the examination of criterion variables based on an integrative approach to fit types and dimensions.

Mediators and Moderators of Person-Environment Fit

All-encompassing and vastly complex, the relationship between person-environment fit and individual and organizational outcomes will expectedly involve numerous moderators. Because it is unreasonable to consider the totality of potential person-environment fit mediators and moderators in a single examination, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Perceived Organizational Support (POS) will be included in the present analysis. LMX and POS have been extensively investigated in the extant organizational literature as variables that significantly impact attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Aube, Rousseau, & Morin, 2007; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, &

Sowa, 1986; Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Jawahar & Carr, 2007). LMX proponents suggest that supervisors have differing quality relationships with their subordinates, ranging from liking to the provision of the necessary resources to perform job requirements (Erdogan & Enders, 2007). POS is defined as the global perception developed by organizational members concerning the extent to which they are valued and cared for, with regard to contractual and non-contractual facets of employment (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

These constructs have been extensively and independently researched, and the attempts at establishing a relationship between LMX and POS have provided conflicting findings. While a number of researchers consider the two constructs related, but explaining differential variance on the outcomes of interest (Jawahar & Carr, 2007), others argue that POS moderates the effects of LMX on attitudinal and behavioral variables (Erdogan & Enders, 2007). Despite this discrepancy, there is substantial evidence supporting the impact of the two constructs on turnover intentions (Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007), organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (Aube et al., 2007; Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki, & McNamara, 2005; Stinglhamber, Bentein, & Vandenberghe, 2004). With regard to LMX, high quality relationships between managers and subordinates typically involve clear and open communication relative to current organizational strategies and goals, which in turn increases commitment to goals and to the organization as an entity (Van Vuuren, de Jong, & Seydel, 2007). On the other hand, perceived support from the organization is indicative that the company is not in violation of formal and psychological contracts with

employees, and is typically associated with increased trust in and commitment to the organization.

The recent literature has explored the relationships between person-environment fit and managerial and organizational support in relation to individual and organizational outcomes (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Van Vuuren et al., 2007). Empirical findings show that LMX and POS lead to positive work attitudes even when reported person-environment fit is low, proposing that support from managers and organizations may substitute for lack of perceived value congruence in eliciting positive attitudes and work behaviors (Erdogan et al., 2004; Self, Armenakis, & Schraeder, 2007). This suggests that the impact of p-e fit on criterion variables of interest may be more accurately interpreted in light of interaction effects.

P-e fit Substitutes

Though empirical evidence for the specific moderating effect of LMX and POS on p-j fit and p-g fit has yet to be provided, the idea that LMX and POS may operate as substitutes for the relationship between p-e fit and outcome variables is concurrently engaging and problematic. The literature on substitutes comprehensively debates the differential roles of moderator and mediator variables on the relationship between leadership behaviors and organizational outcomes (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & James, 2002; Dionne, Yammarino, Howell, & Villa, 2005; Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Although the substitutes construct emerged and evolved in an effort to describe moderated, mediated, and main effects specific to the leadership

research, it is reasonable to assume that the scope of this research can be extended to other areas of organizational behavior.

The empirical examination of substitutes for leadership has provided less than encouraging findings, namely with respect to the consistency of the moderating effects. Research findings put forward three explanations for these inconsistencies. First, using the same source to provide data for all the variables in the model (i.e., common-method bias) may lead to non-significant research findings (Dionne et al., 2002; Podsakoff, McKenzie, & Bommer, 1996). Second, mixing several moderators and predictors in the same analysis, instead of advancing distinct hypotheses for each substitute-predictor pair, reduces their predictive influence on outcomes of interest (Dionne et al., 2002). Lastly, the pervasive classification of variables as substitutes in the absence of sound theoretical support for their substitute qualities weakens the general research findings in the literature (Dionne et al., 2005). Hence, controlling for common-method variance, providing sound theoretical foundation for substitute effects in moderated analysis, and clearly outlining the proposed hypotheses in order to minimize confounds appear to be critical steps to consider when testing for substitute moderators.

A classical conceptualization of substitutes defines them as variables that render the relationship between leadership behaviors and criterion variables not only impossible but also unnecessary (Howell et al., 1986). However, a more current description suggests that substitute variables may not deem the predictor variable ineffective, but only partially ineffective, (i.e., substitutes may only decrease the impact of the predictor variable on the criterion variable) (Dionne et al., 2005). In fact, substitutes may operate at

different levels and in different forms. Howell and Villa introduced a matrix of moderated relationships that includes four types of moderator (enhancer, partial neutralizer, complete neutralizer or substitute, and counter-effect) and three levels of the moderator (high intercept, no main effect of moderator, and low intercept). This classification allows for a more flexible and accurate exploration of moderating effects: a) Enhancers increase the effect of the predictor when the signs of the predictor with and without the moderator are the same; b) Partial neutralizers decrease the slope of the predictor-criterion relationship; c) Complete neutralizers reduce the slope of the predictor-criterion relationship to zero; and d) Counter effect moderators illustrate a case where the predictor has opposite effects at high and low levels of this moderator, also called "disordinal interaction" (Dionne et al., 2005).

The methodological approach to fit constitutes another important moderator of p-e fit that merits some attention. Results of Hoffman and Woehr's (2006) and Verquer et al.'s (2003) meta-analytical studies reveal that the method used to determine fit, or the dissimilar operational definitions of fit, moderate the relationship between the different types of p-e fit with their individual and organizational outcomes. These findings indicate that the impact of person-environment fit on outcomes of interest is moderated by the methodological approach used to assess fit. Understanding the manner in which the methodological component impacts research outcomes in the p-e fit literature may provide some level of interpretation for inconsistent findings and provide direction for future research. The following sections elucidate this point.

Measuring Person-Environment Fit

Early p-e fit literature provided a number of different research foci, which created multiple approaches to the definition and measurement fit. As mentioned in the previous section, several streams of research emerged in an attempt to clarify the impact of p-e fit on organizational outcomes. In practice, the selection literature underscores p-j fit as an important component of newcomer adjustment and success, while studies investigating the antecedents of employee performance, turnover, commitment, and satisfaction emphasized the positive effects of goal and value congruence, and the quality of interpersonal relations. Consequently, different research areas of p-e fit brought forth idiosyncratic methodologies to conform to their constructs of interest and measurement objectives, which caused later attempts to integrate fit constructs into broader models to fall short. Moreover, many meta-analytical studies are forced to exclude specific types of fit from their analysis due to lack of commensurability within and between fit types (Verquer et al., 2003), to reject studies on the basis of their measures (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and to provide extensive cautionary notes regarding the interpretation of results due to measurement issues (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006), further complicating the investigation of the fit construct. This section proposes an examination of the principal measurement and interpretation methods found in person-environment fit research, and introduces current methodologies that are copacetic with integrative models of fit.

Subjective and Objective Fit Measures

One of the most frequently referenced limitations of person-environment fit measures involves the absence of an implicit method for determining fit (Verquer et al.,

2003). The existing literature offers either subjective or objective measures of the degree to which individuals believe that their values and goals match those of the organization. In studies using subjective measures of fit, individuals provide an assessment of the degree to which personal and organizational characteristics fit, offering a self-description and organizational description along the same dimensions (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Ostroff et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). Although they have been widely adopted in the fit literature, subjective measures of fit present several limitations. The main constraint identified concerns common-method variance. Common-method variance constitutes one of the principal sources of systematic measurement error, and it arises from using a common rater, a common measurement context, and/or a common item context (Podsakoff, McKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Subjective fit measures rely on responses to personal and organizational characteristics provided solely by the employee, the content of the measure for both personal and organizational characteristics reflects work goals and values, and the items developed to determine fit between individuals and organizations are similar in content to allow for direct comparison. Therefore, these measures are especially susceptible to common-method bias, and tend to inflate the correlation between person and organization factors (Arthur, Bell, Villardo, & Doverspike, 2006; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006, Verquer et al., 2003), confounding these factors into a single index (Ostroff et al., 2005).

Despite this methodological issue, subjective or perceptual measures of fit hold some advantages in predicting the impact of personal and organizational match on outcomes of interest. In particular, research shows that subjective measures elicit the

strongest relationships with criterion variables (Arthur et al., 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Although common-method variance can be advanced as a possible explanation, and undermine the strength of the relationships found, employee attitudes and subsequent behaviors are strongly determined by personal perceptions of fit, which underscores the value of perceptual or subjective instruments. Finally, the literature differs regarding the relationship between perceptual measures of fit and behavioral outcomes. While some argue that perception of value congruence is a better and more relevant predictor of behavioral outcomes (Stinglhamber et al., 2004), recent meta-analytical findings that included different types of person-environment fit suggest that subjective measures are strongly related to attitudinal outcomes, but weakly related to behavioral outcomes (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Moreover, research suggests that fit between individual characteristics and objective job requirements are more adequately assessed using objective methods (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990). Hence, it is important to further examine the adequacy of subjective or objective measures when assessing different types of fit.

Objective fit measures require that individuals describe their values, goals, and/or needs along particular dimensions, and that this assessment is later equated with an aggregate measure of other employees' perceptions of organizational values and goals, i.e., an independent assessment of organizational environment (Verquer et al., 2003). These measures present two main weaknesses. First, the level of analysis relative to which the aggregate index is obtained must be examined with caution. The typical aggregate index for individual response comparison is based on a cross-unit assessment of employee perceptions. However, organizations with strong departmental

differentiation will likely have different climates, which compromises the meaningfulness of the aggregate indices obtained (Ostroff et al., 2005). Second, objective fit measures tend to elicit weaker relationships with individual attitudes than perceptual measures, especially with respect to value congruence (Stinglhamber et al., 2004).

Overall, the existing literature presents compelling arguments in favor of both objective and subjective fit measures, while describing the weaknesses inherent in each. It is plausible that perceptual fit is best suited for the assessment of value congruence, and aggregate measures are more appropriate for the prediction of job-related and interpersonal fit (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Ostroff et al., 2005; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). On the other hand, perceptual measures will also influence the extent to which dimensions within fit types are empirically discerned. While value congruence and need-fulfillment are typically considered independent facets of p-o fit (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002), research evidence suggests that most perceptual, direct measures of p-o fit fail to distinguish those two dimensions. A similar phenomenon can be observed in the examination of p-j fit, where demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit are not always empirically discerned using perceptual and direct measures. Furthermore, it has been suggested that all-inclusive fit examinations should provide both individual- and cross-level examinations of fit (Choi & Price, 2005; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Future research is needed to illuminate the discrepancy between meta-analytical findings and individual studies by determining the differential impact of objective and subjective fit measures on the relationship between types of person-environment fit and criterion variables.

Normative Methods and Ipsative Methods

Another categorization of research methods in the fit research involves a distinction between normative methods and ipsative methods, one that has been widely investigated in the values literature. Normative methods or measures of absolute fit provide an assessment of values where these values are measured independently from each other and in relation to a normative group, and ipsative methods use forced choice and rank ordering to provide within-person comparisons (Hambleton, Kalliath, & Taylor, 2000; Meligno & Ravlin, 1998). Normative methods are more appropriate when the purpose is to contrast the respondent's beliefs with organizational or job characteristics, since it is possible to capture absolute differences between values and to draw inferences regarding a referent group. Conversely, ipsative methods are better suited to determine individual preferences among alternatives (Meligno & Ravlin, 1998; Ostroff et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). Because the fit literature is concerned not only with understanding and measuring value and goal congruence between individuals and organizations, but also with comprehending individual needs and motivations, the development and validation of fit instruments that integrate normative and ipsative components will expectedly bring forth comprehensive information regarding the relationships between individuals and their primary workgroup, between individuals and job characteristics, and between individuals and the organization.

Irrespective of the application, the most commonly used normative and ipsative methods in fit research present a number of methodological issues. The following section describes some of the main methodological problems with difference scores and profile

similarity methods, and the statistical procedures that can be adopted to minimize these issues.

Difference scores and Profile Similarity Index (PSI). Person-environment fit studies have relied on difference scores to assess congruence between individuals and their jobs and organizations with regard to values, goals, and expectations (Edwards, 2001; Kristof, 1996). This method entails the calculation of the absolute or squared difference between two component measures: individual and group or individual and organization. Conversely, a PSI represents the sum of absolute or squared differences between profiles of component measures (Edwards, 1993, 1995). PSI is used when individual values and perceptions are the focus of the research, and when the distance between dimensions is of secondary interest (Ryan & Schmit, 1996). PSI uses the q-sort methodology to generate data. In practice, respondents are asked to sort through a series of statements representing values and goals, and to organize these statements based on the extent to which they are representative of his/her preferences (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Although the use of correlations in detriment of difference scores has been eulogized in the fit literature (Ostroff et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003), both approaches entail a series of methodological problems that may partly explicate the conflicting findings of person-environment fit research. For instance, when the component measures obtained are positively correlated, the reliabilities of difference scores tend to be lower than the reliabilities of the components, and the reliabilities of PSI tend to be higher than the reliabilities of the components, which affects the interpretation of findings (Edwards, 1995). Furthermore, PSIs collapse across the various intra-

individual dimensions of interest, eliciting a meaningless unidimensional reliability estimate for a multidimensional measure. Finally, the relative contribution of each of the component measures to the composite variance is uncertain.

The methodological issues identified in the last decade have led researchers to seek statistical procedures that diminish the effect of these problems. Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) and Polynomial Regression exemplify some of the procedures developed to improve fit analyses (Arthur et al., 2006; Edwards, 1995, 2001). The latter is further developed in the next section.

Polynomial Regression. Polynomial regression reduces most of the problems inherent in difference scores and PSIs (Arthur et al., 2006; Choi & Price, 2005; Edwards, 2001; Edwards & Parry, 1993). Concretely, it allows for multiple pairs of profiles to be included in the same dimension, and provides a three-dimensional way of visualizing quadratic regression equations (response surface methodology) that reduces the frequent interpretation errors in difference scores (Edwards & Parry, 1993). Despite the promising features, polynomial regression has several limitations, namely the assumption that independent variables are free from error, and the need for large sample sizes when using multiple dimensions (Edwards, 2001). Nonetheless, polynomial regression constitutes a highly effective fit analytical approach to the assessment of fit.

Organizational Change

Managing change has become one of the most critical competencies in organizational settings. In general, the process of managing change entails continual redefinition of organizational goals and values, anticipation of internal and external customer needs, and response to changes in the business environment (By, 2005; Causon, 2004). This process should result in improvements to goal attainment and organizational functioning (Lines, 2005). Ackerman (1986) describes three types of change. Developmental change refers to improvement upon current systems, including team structures, competencies, and technical expertise; transitional change entails the redesign and implementation of new operating methods, including new technology and new products or services; and transformational change stems from environmental pressures or identified opportunities and involves profound transformations to the structure, functions, and strategy of the organization. Mergers and acquisitions are examples of transformational changes. Given the dissimilar requirements and future state inherent in each change type, it is expected that these transformations will call for different leadership and functional approaches. As a result, most of the extant change literature has focused on developing and proposing prescriptive change frameworks to guide managerial interventions, including training for organizational transitions (Ackerman, 1986; Osman, Ahad, & Jacobs, 2005; Quinones & Ehrenstein, 1997; Scheeres & Rhodes, 2006; Schraeder, Tears, & Jordan, 2005), and leadership strategies to plan and facilitate change (Ackerman, 1986; Axelrod, 2000; Furnham, 2002; Kerber & Buono, 2005; Paglis & Green, 2002; Whitmore, 2004; Woodward & Hendry, 2004). The proposed

frameworks are systemic in nature, highlighting the importance of aligning environmental and organizational factors in response to change demands. Despite the wealth of comprehensive guidelines and strategies to manage organizational change, the reported failure rate of recently implemented change programs amounted to nearly 70% (By, 2005). In an attempt to identify the causes of unsuccessful change strategy implementation, and to provide more reliable courses of action to manage transformations, researchers have turned to the examination of individual attitudes toward change and perceptions of change processes. Consequently, the concept of readiness for change has become the most widely examined individual-level construct in the recent change management literature.

Readiness for Change

Readiness for change is reflected on positive attitudes and beliefs about the need for organizational change, a manifest intention to support the change process, and the conviction that the proposed transitions can be successfully accomplished by the organization and will entail benefits for all parties involved (Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Although by definition readiness for change is an individual-level variable, it has been examined both at the individual level of analysis (Cunningham, Woodward, Shannon, MacIntosh, Lendrum, Rosenbloom, & Brown, 2002) and at the organizational level of analysis (Weeks, Roberts, Chonko, & Jones, 2004). The first position argues that the individual level is the most adequate to investigate organizational change given that different readiness for change perspectives coexist within the same work unit (Rafferty & Simons,

2006), and the second position suggests that if change is a systems-level phenomenon, it should be examined at the organizational level of analysis (Cole, Harris, & Bernerth, 2006).

Most of the organization-level instruments to measure change-related constructs have been developed in the Strategy literature for the past two decades, whereas sound individual-level measures have only been proposed in recent years. Holt, Armenakis, Field, and Harris (2007) developed and validated an individual-level measure of readiness for change that includes four dimensions: appropriateness, management support, change efficacy, and personal valence. Appropriateness denotes perceived need for organizational change and perceived benefits of this change to the organization; management support is an indicator of individual perception that senior leaders support change; change efficacy reflects respondents' confidence that they will perform well following the organizational transition; and personal valence measures whether change is perceived as personally beneficial.

In order to assess readiness for change at the organizational level of analysis, researchers have used aggregate measures of individual readiness, similar to the one proposed by Holt et al., or opted for requesting a managerial assessment of employee attitudes toward change and adequacy of organizational structures and in order to determine organizational readiness for change (Holt et al., 2007; Weeks et al., 2004).

Overall, individual and organizational readiness for change have been measured with emphasis on at least one of the following: the change process, the change type or content, the change context in relation to internal and external pressures, and individual

attributes and dispositions, including perception of clarity of change vision, self-efficacy, appropriateness of change, and change execution from a resource management standpoint (Cole et al., 2006; Holt et al., 2007). This suggests that a comprehensive assessment of readiness for change should include both individual and organizational perspectives to provide distinct and important information relative to the role of individual contributors and functional and structural factors on the success of organizational change initiatives (Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004).

Antecedents and Correlates of Readiness for Change

The growing interest on individual attitudes toward organizational change resulted in a series of empirical examinations with the purpose of identifying the factors that determine positive perceptions of change. A cross-examination of recent empirical findings reveals a number of individual, group, and organizational variables that account for readiness for change in organizational settings.

Self-efficacy is one of the most widely referenced individual factors associated with readiness for change (Cunningham et al., 2002; Kirton & Mulligan, 1973; Paglis & Green, 2002; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Research findings suggest that employees who perceive themselves as able to successfully respond to organizational transitions (Cunningham et al., 2002; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and report high level of job knowledge (Hanpachern, Morgan, & Griego, 1998) are more accepting of change initiatives. Moreover, managers who believe that they possess the necessary skills and knowledge to lead change initiatives are more willing and likely to initiate these initiatives, and to persist in the face of obstacles (Paglis

& Green, 2002). In this sense, it appears that self-efficacy is critical to the acceptance of change processes and to the motivation to plan and conduct change. In addition to self-efficacy, personality has also been reported as an individual-level construct related to readiness for change, particularly the dimensions of neuroticism (Holt et al., 2007; Pierro, Capozza, Mannetti, & Livi, 2002) and openness to experience (Pierro et al., 2002). Empirical findings show that individuals with low neuroticism and high openness to experience tend to show more positive attitudes toward change.

While personality features are not susceptible to training or other managerial interventions, change self-efficacy can be enhanced through the implementation of communication systems that clarify the proposed vision and process, and a by supportive leadership concerned with employee responsiveness to the transition. Regarding the latter aspect, research shows that trust in leadership and perception of managerial ability to plan and implement change processes are positively associated with employee readiness for change (Holt et al., 2007; Rafferty & Simons, 2006).

Managers and organizations can also increase acceptance of change by fostering a supportive work environment and providing organizational members with challenging and meaningful assignments. With regard to job characteristics, the change literature provides extensive support for the positive relationship of empowerment, challenging jobs, and appropriateness of job demands with positive attitudes toward change (Cunningham et al., 2002; Hanpachern et al., 1998; Joffe & Glynn, 2002; Kirton & Mulligan, 1973). Hence, an assessment of readiness for organizational transformations should entail a careful analysis of the existing job requirements and of individual

perceptions regarding the appropriateness of job demands. On the other hand, supportive managers who clearly communicate the purposes and benefits of planned and ongoing transformations provide the necessary resources and support to ensure employee adjustment to the new work systems and effectively involve employees in planning and implementing change strategies are more likely to ensure readiness for change, both in terms of positive attitudes toward the proposed transitions, and by developing employee competencies and skills that allow them to provide valuable input during the process (Cole et al., 2006; Cunningham et al., 2002; Furnham, 2002; Joffe & Glynn, 2002; Jones et al., 2005; Pierro et al., 2002; Madsen et al., 2005; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Whitmore, 2002; Woodward & Hendry, 2004). In addition to managerial support and job characteristics, congruence between individual values/goals and those of the organization have also been associated with attitude toward change. Research findings suggest that the extent to which value and goal congruence is beneficial or detrimental to readiness for change will depend upon the type of change (Caldwell et al., 2004; Cole et al., 2006), the specific dimensions of congruence (Choi & Price, 2005; Harris & Mossholder, 1996), and whether managers and organizations are trusted and supportive (Erdogan et al., 2004; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Werther, 2003).

Finally, the relationship between individuals and their work group has also been referenced as an important factor influencing readiness for change, and has brought forth conflicting findings. Early research on attitude toward change shows that group cohesiveness may have a detrimental effect on employee perception of the benefits of organizational change (Trumbo, 1961). One explanation advanced suggests that proposed

changes to an already desired and rewarding state will be perceived as threatening. With respect to work units, departmental transformations will bring forth negative attitudes on the part of cohesive work groups, as changes to unit structure and work dynamics have the potential to weaken an important source of functional and social support (Jones et al., 2005). However, recent studies reveal that the quality of work relationships, namely peer support and trust in peers, will have a positive impact on readiness for change (Rafferty & Simons, 2006). The inconsistent findings regarding the role of group trust, cohesiveness, and support on attitude toward organizational change merit further research to explore whether different facets of group relations and unit functioning have a differential impact on readiness for change. On this note, organizational level research shows that high identification with the organization will be associated with resistance to change, as employees perceive changes to goals and values as threatening to their identities, but this detrimental effect will be attenuated if the benefits of change for the individual and the organization are clearly stated, and there is support from managers during the process (Van Knippenberg, Martin, & Tyler, 2006).

The extant research on readiness for change and attitudes toward change brings about important questions regarding the role of individuals, their immediate work groups, and the organizational system in promoting positive or negative attitudes toward change. In particular, it suggests that readiness for change is an individual-level phenomenon impacted by dispositional, relational, structural, and functional factors in the work setting. Furthermore, it appears that the interplay of individual characteristics with the organization's culture, with job characteristics, and with managerial and peer dynamics is

multifaceted, where perceived differences and commonalities between the individual and the work environment operate as catalysts or as obstacles to change readiness. In this sense, a careful examination of the relationship between attitudes toward change and perceptions of fit with the organization, work, and work group is critical to the success of change management initiatives (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Caldwell et al., 2004; Nadler, 1999; Pellettiere, 2006; Ryan & Schmit, 1996).

Person-environment Fit and Readiness for Change

The proposed relationship between fit and organizational change focuses mostly on the extent to which the goals and values of an organization match those of its employees (Caldwell et al., 2004; Harris & Mossholder, 1996; Middleton & Harper, 2004), and on the impact of overall fit among elements of the organizational system in ensuring effective response to transitions (Nadler, 1999). There is general consensus in the change literature that perfect fit is seldom a guarantee of readiness for change – high identification with the organization and workgroup has even shown a detrimental effect on readiness for change – , and that matching between employees and their managers, work group, job requirements, and organizational culture is only advantageous to change initiatives to the extent that it confers a sound balance between positive affect and functional adaptability (Choi & Price, 2005; Ostroff et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003). Moreover, while the change literature highlights the importance of integrating job-related characteristics, managerial support, and work group dynamics with readiness for change frameworks, the extant readiness for change research has failed to incorporate functional and relational elements into their empirical models. Hence, a careful examination of the

relationships between components of p-o fit, p-j fit, and p-g fit and dimensions of readiness for change was in order to clarify the specific dynamics where fit is beneficial or detrimental.

CHAPTER 3

THE PRESENT STUDY

The previous discussion underscored the importance of clarifying the structural composition of the different dimensions of person-environment fit, of investigating whether the discrepancies found in the literature with respect to the relationship between fit and organizational outcomes are a result of disparate operational definitions of fit, and of exploring the interplay between person-environment fit and readiness for change, considering key interactions. Because the literature consistently suggests that the incongruous findings in this area can be attributed to moderators, the present study provided separate investigations of main effects of p-e fit dimensions on selected criterion variables, and of interaction effects of p-e fit and LMX, and p-e fit and POS using readiness for change as the criterion of interest. Therefore, this section is divided into two separate segments with competing hypotheses. The first segment (Hypotheses 1-4) includes a set of hypotheses that test the relationship between three types of person-environment fit – p-o, p-j, and p-g – and three criterion variables – job satisfaction, affective commitment, and readiness for change. The second segment (Hypotheses 5 and 6) offers a series of hypotheses that explore the interaction effects of dimensions of p-e fit and LMX, and dimensions of p-e fit and POS on readiness for change.

Hypotheses 1-4

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been the most widely examined criteria of the different facets of person-environment fit in the extant literature (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown et al., 2002; Ostroff et al., 2005; Resick et al., 2007; Scroggins, 2007). Moreover, empirical evidence suggests that the relationships between dimensions of person-environment fit and employee satisfaction and commitment are generally positive (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). Despite evidence of the positive impact of p-e fit on a number of criterion variables, the readiness for change literature consistently suggests that a high degree of identification with the organization, with the current job position, and with the immediate workgroup, can have a detrimental impact on employees' readiness for change. The following set of hypotheses tested main effects between dimensions of p-e fit and criteria of interest.

Hypothesis 1

P-o fit at a subjective level reflects the perceived congruence between individual and organizational values, and also the perceived degree to which the organization satisfies employee needs (e.g., resource allocation) (Meligno & Ravlin, 1998; Sims & Keon, 1997; Verquer et al., 2003). Hence, it is expected that employees who perceive greater value congruence with the organization will feel a stronger sense of affiliation to this organization. Likewise, employees who perceive that their organization as an entity is concerned with the provision of necessary resources and professional opportunities are also expected to feel greater attachment to the organization. In this sense, it was anticipated that p-o fit would be positively associated with affective commitment to the

organization. Additionally, the extant literature also suggests a positive relationship between p-o fit and the degree to which employees report satisfaction with their work.

H1a: Person-organization fit is positively related to job satisfaction

H1b: Person-organization fit is positively related to affective commitment

Hypothesis 2

Previous research suggests that congruence between employees' needs and abilities, and the different dimensions of job characteristics is positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Cable & Judge, 1996; Kristof-Brown, 2002). While it could be inferred that the overarching fit between person and organization would explicate these results, recent empirical evidence contends that p-j fit explains variance in job satisfaction and commitment beyond that accounted for by p-o fit (Ostroff et al., 2005; Scroggins, 2007). The following hypotheses tested the relationship between p-j fit, and job satisfaction and affective commitment. In addition, it was proposed that p-j fit – including self-concept/job fit – explained additional variance in the criterion variables that was not accounted for by p-o fit.

H2a: Person-job fit is positively related to job satisfaction

H2b: Person-job fit is positively related to affective commitment.

H2c: Person-job fit explains additional variance in affective commitment and job satisfaction beyond p-o fit.

Hypothesis 3

P-g fit, defined as a function of the degree value congruence among workgroup members, is a largely unexplored construct (Werbel & Johnson, 2001). As a result, research on p-g fit criteria is still at an embryonic stage and has yet to provide substantive support for its claims. Nonetheless, the existing research points to a number of p-g fit criteria, namely cooperation, group performance, and other task-related variables. Considering that individual work units possess climates that can be distinct from other units and from the overall organization, it is plausible that the positive upshot of p-g fit will be more salient for job-related criteria than for attitudes toward the organization, in particular with regard to positive perceptions of one's job. Hence, the following was hypothesized:

H3: Person-group fit is positively related to job satisfaction

Hypothesis 4

To date, the investigation of the impact of person-environment fit on readiness for change has provided scarce and conflicting findings. The convoluted operational definition of p-e fit and subsequent measurement issues are likely at the source of limited empirical examination and inconclusive results. However, most of the extant research suggests that high identification with the organization and workgroup will be associated with resistance to change, as employees perceive changes to organizational goals and mission, work requirements, and unit structure to be threatening to their identity as professionals, to their job-related status, and to the group as an important source of functional and social support (Jones et al., 2005; Van Knippenberg et al., 2006). Finally,

change tends to be negatively perceived by employees integrated in cohesive workgroups (Jones et al., 2005).

H4a: Person-organization fit is negatively related to readiness for change

H4b: Person-job fit is negatively related to readiness for change

H4c: Supplementary person-group fit is negatively related to readiness for change

Hypotheses 5 and 6

As mentioned previously, most of the empirical evidence proposes that high identification with the organization and with peers at work is typically associated with resistance to proposed change. Interestingly, however, the same body of research argues that the detrimental effect of high identification on change perceptions can be attenuated or modified by a number of individual, functional, and organizational variables (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Nadler, 1999; Pellettiere, 2006; Van Knipperberg et al., 2006). In particular, managerial support, trust in leadership, individual differences, and organizational culture integrate the group of variables believed to positively influence readiness for change (Goodman & Truss, 2004; Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005) and to account for the inconsistent research findings (Erdogan et al., 2004; Holt et al., 2007; Ryan & Schmit, 1996). Although these moderating effects remain largely unexamined, the extant research suggests that positive relationships with supervisors and trust in the organization's capacity to effectively plan and implement change are positively related to readiness for change in individuals with high degree of identification with their

organization (Holt et al., 2007; Raffery & Simons, 2006). Moreover, there has been recent evidence of the positive effect of LMX and POS on attitude toward change (Self et al., 2007; Tierney, 1999), but these effects have not been examined in the context of person-environment fit frameworks. In view of this, an exploration of the impact of LMX and POS on the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change would expectedly clarify the inconclusive empirical findings and guide further research in this area. Furthermore, this examination would uncover the specific form(s) of interaction of p-e fit and the moderators (i.e., partial neutralizer, complete neutralizer, or counter effect). The following hypotheses were advanced:

Hypothesis 5

H5a: There is an interaction between LMX and p-o fit such that low LMX individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high LMX individuals when p-o fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-o fit is low.

H5b: There is an interaction between LMX and p-j fit such that low LMX individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high LMX individuals when p-j fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-j fit is low.

H5c: There is an interaction between LMX and p-g fit such that low LMX individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high LMX individuals when p-g fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-g fit is low.

Hypothesis 6

H6a: There is an interaction between POS and p-o fit such that low POS individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high POS individuals when p-o fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-o fit is low.

H6b: There is an interaction between POS and p-j fit such that low POS individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high POS individuals when p-j fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-j fit is low.

H6c: There is an interaction between POS and p-g fit such that low POS individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high POS individuals when p-g fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-g fit is low.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The data for the present study were collected in the headquarters of two large manufacturing organizations located in the Southeast. In the first organization, the survey was sent out to 135 employees and 94 have volunteered to participate, leading to a response rate of 70%. In the second organization, of the 147 employees the survey link was sent to, 75 successfully completed the survey. The response rate for this second organization was 52%. Overall, the present study had 169 participants. In order to determine whether this sample size was adequate vis-à-vis the minimization of Type I and II errors, a power analysis was conducted. For the calculation of the appropriate sample size for multiple regression analysis, I selected a high power estimate (.95) and an alpha of .05. In order for the *a priori* effect size to be considered small (between 0.02 and 0.15) the sample size had to exceed 107 participants (see Appendix 2). This study's sample size could be considered adequate for the analyses proposed.

As shown in Table 1 (Henceforth, all tables and figures can be found in Appendix 3), this study's participants were mostly male (69.7%), and 64.2% were over the age of 40. Although 40.9% had been affiliated to the organization for less than 5 years, 30% reported that they had been affiliated to the organization for 15 years or more. The majority of the respondents did not have managerial responsibilities (60.8%). Lastly,

although most participants were evenly distributed across departments, as many as 24.2% were IT professionals and 31% fell into the “others” category provided, which included “maintenance” and “operations” functions.

Procedure

Respondents from both participating organizations were instructed to access a web link connecting them to the survey page. The respondents were informed of the purpose of the research, conditions of participation, and deadlines for survey completion (see Appendix 1). In addition, the respondents were assured that the results would only be reviewed by the Organizational Development and Human Resources teams of their respective organizations. The HR and OD managers of the participating organizations were provided an executive summary of the general results for their respective companies, containing no information pertaining to individual respondents. Each person was assigned an access code to ensure that the survey was only administered once to the same respondent. Although the access code was sent out via e-mail to each participant, their subsequent responses could not be traced back to the respondents, as the code did not appear in the database retrieved.

The online survey consisted of 85 items, including demographic information (i.e., age, gender, managerial position, tenure, and functional group), one item determining the degree to which current organizational changes affected the respondent, 10 measures for the variables of interest, and a cover page with a disclaimer regarding informed consent,

confidentiality, and use of the data collected. Two alternate forms of the survey were issued to both participating organizations.

Measures

The survey proposed for this study was comprised of ten scales: four scales for the three types of Person-Environment fit (Person-Organization fit, Person-Job fit, and Person-Group fit), and one scale for Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Resistance to Change, and Readiness for Change. These scales are described in detail in the following sections.

Person-Environment Fit

Person-organization fit (POFit) was measured using a scale developed by Saks and Ashforth (2002). The four items reflect value congruence between employee and organization, and the extent to which the organization satisfied the respondent's needs. The reported internal consistency for this 4-item scale is .87 (Saks & Ashforth, 2002). Participants responded along a 5-point Likert-type scale with anchors from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very large extent*).

Person-job fit (PJFit) was also assessed using a Saks and Ashforth's (2002) measure that included four items reflecting demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit. This scale's reliability was estimated at .84. Participants responded by using a 5-point Likert-type scale with anchors from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very large extent*). In addition, the present study included a self-concept job fit measure of p-j fit (PJFitSC) developed by Scroggins (2003). This scale was comprised of five items and has a

reported internal consistency of .74 (Scroggins, 2003). Respondents provided their answers along a 5-point Likert-type scale with anchors from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Finally, person-group fit (PGFit) was determined with the three-item scale developed by DeRue and Morgeson (2007), which was developed based on Cable and DeRue's (2002) scale to determine fit at the group-level. This scale's internal consistency is estimated at .88 (DeRue & Morgeson, 2007). Responses to the three items were measured along a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*to a very little extent*) to 5 (*to a very large extent*).

LMX

The participants were also asked to provide an assessment of perceived quality of relationship with the supervisor, measured with the five-item scale LMX 5 developed by Graen, Liden, and Hoel, (1982). This scale has a reported internal consistency of .80. Unlike other measures used in the present study, the LMX response anchors are specific to each of the five items. For example, the first question – "How flexible is your supervisor about evolving changes in your job?" – is anchored at 4 with "Supervisor is enthused about change", 3 with "Supervisor is lukewarm to change" 2 with "Supervisor sees little need to change" and 1 with "Supervisor sees no need for change". However, the following question – "Regardless of how much formal authority your supervisor has built into his/her position, what are the chances s/he would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?" – is anchored at 4 with "He

certainly would", at 3 with "Probably would", at 2 with "Might or might not", and at 1 with "No".

POS

The participants' Perceived Organizational Support (POS) was examined based on the responses to an abbreviated version of Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) scale, consisting of the nine items that obtained the highest factor loadings in the original scale development. This abbreviated version has been used in a number of studies, including Wayne, Shore, and Liden's (1997) and Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro's (1990). The aforementioned authors have reported internal consistencies for this short version ranging from .93 to .97. Responses were obtained on a 7-point Likert scale anchored at 1 with *strongly disagree* and at 7 with *strongly agree*.

Readiness for Change

Individual readiness for change was assessed using Holt et al.'s (2007) Readiness for Change Measure. The twenty five items from the original scale development study were used: ten items related to the perceived "appropriateness" of change to the organization (RCAppr), six items assessed the respondent's perception of "management support" for the upcoming change (RCMgtSup), six items determined the respondent's belief in his/her capacity to adjust and adequately respond to job demands following the organizational transformation ("change efficacy") (RCEffic), and three items evaluated the degree to which respondent's considered that the change would be "personally beneficial" (RCPersBene). The reported internal consistencies for these items are .80 for the items that represent the "appropriateness" dimension, .79 for the items in the

"management support" dimension, .79 for the "change efficacy" dimension, and .65 for the items included in the "personally beneficial" dimension (Holt et al., 2007). All items were measured on a 7-point response format ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction (JS) was measured using the six-item version of the original 18-item Brayfield-Rothe job satisfaction index (Aryee, Fields, & Luk, 1999; Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). The six-item measure of job satisfaction has a reported internal consistency of .83 (Aryee et al., 1999). The respondents scored each item on a 5-point Likert scale anchored at 5 with *strongly agree* and at 1 with *strongly disagree*.

Organizational Commitment

This study used the revised version of the affective commitment scale by Meyer and Allen (1997). The affective commitment measure (AffCommit) determines the degree to which employees feel identified with and attached to the organization. The reported coefficient alphas for the affective commitment scale range from .77 to .88 (Fields, 2002). Participants were asked to provide their answers on a 7-point Likert scale with anchors from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Resistance to Change

The final measure included in this study was a dispositional measure of resistance to change (RTC) to account for the individual differences in reaction to change that were not a direct result of specific work arrangements and organizational characteristics (Oreg, 2003). The RTC measure was comprised of 18 items organized along four dimensions:

“routine seeking” (RTCRoutine) pertaining to the attitude toward incorporating routines into one’s life, measured with five items; “emotional reaction” (RTCEmotion) reflecting one’s response to imposed change, measured with four items; “short term focus” (RTCShtTrm) referring to one’s greater or lesser propensity to perceive benefits of change, measured along five items; and lastly “cognitive rigidity” (RTCCogRig) reflecting the ease and frequency with which individuals change their minds, assessed using four items. The reported internal consistencies for these four scales are .79, .86, .87, and .77, respectively (Oreg, 2003). Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree). These scales are significantly related to openness to experience (correlations ranging from -.19 to -.21) and with neuroticism (correlations ranging from .26 to .33). Relationships with other well-established dispositional variables include tolerance for ambiguity (correlations ranging from -.34 to -.56) and risk aversion (correlations ranging from .38 to .47) (Oreg, 2003).

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Response means and standard deviations for this study can be found in Table 2. With regard to the measures anchored in five points, the mean values for the person-environment fit measures ranged from 3.25 to 3.75 with standard deviations between .68 and .98; the mean values for resistance to change measures ranged from 2.41 to 3.56, with associated standard deviations between .64 and .89; and the job satisfaction mean found was 3.53 with a standard deviation of .80. Regarding the 7-point scales used in this study, POS obtained a mean of 4.44 with standard deviation of 1.36; the mean values for the readiness for change measure ranged from 4.30 to 5.55, with associated standard deviations between .91 and 1.60; and the mean of affective commitment for this sample was 4.73 with a standard deviation of 1.36. Lastly, the 4-point scale that measured LMX elicited a mean of 3.09 and an associated standard deviation of .56.

Table 2 also illustrates the skewness values obtained. As shown, the distributions of POFit, PJFitSC, change perceived as personally beneficial (RCPersBene) and two dimensions of resistance to change (Emotional Reaction and Short-Term Thinking) were approximately normal (mean and mode showed negligible deviation) with skewness ranging from -.22 to .02; the distributions of PJFit, PGFit, POS, LMX, all four readiness for change scales, job satisfaction, and affective commitment were left skewed (mode

higher than mean) with skewness values ranging from -.82 to -.36. Lastly, the distributions of the remaining resistance to change dimensions (Routine Seeking and Cognitive Rigidity) were right skewed (mode lower than mean) with skewness of .26 and .31, respectively.

Finally, Table 2 also provides information on the reliabilities obtained for the scales used in the present study. Results show that coefficient alphas for p-e fit measures ranged from .87 to .94, with the exception of PJFitSC (.71). Similar results were obtained for the readiness for change scales, with coefficient alphas between .80 and .92. Regarding the study's moderator variables, POS displayed a coefficient alpha of .95 – the highest among all measures included – and LMX obtained .77. The reliability values for resistance to change measures ranged from .70 to .82, except for cognitive rigidity (.57). The criteria "job satisfaction" and "affective commitment" showed coefficient alphas of .88 and .90, respectively. Overall these values did not differ substantially from those reported in the literature.

EFA

The Exploratory Factor Analysis is among the statistical techniques available to identify common-method bias. The presence of common-method bias implies that a general construct accounts for the majority of the covariance among all constructs (Podsakoff, 2003). In the present study, an EFA using Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation – also called Harman's one-factor test – was used to determine the factor structure of the survey and test for common-method bias prior to conducting analyses to determine relationships between the variables examined in the present study.

Based on the summary provided in Table 3, four distinct factors were identified, and the majority of the variance could not be accounted for by a single factor. Hence, common-method bias was not expected to negatively impact the results of this study. Table 4 provides a summary of the rotated factor loadings for the composites examined. Using the highest loadings on each factor as a reference, further inferences regarding the meaning of these factors could be made. The first factor was representative of perceived support from the organization and fit with the organization, job, and primary workgroup; the second factor represented resistance to change; the third factor referred to readiness for change, and the fourth factor was representative of a particular facet of resistance to change: cognitive rigidity. Regarding the latter factor, the internal consistency obtained for cognitive rigidity (.57) might explain why this resistance for change dimension failed to load with the other dimensions of the same overarching construct. While evidence for common-method bias – as defined in the literature – was not found in the present study, it should be noted that all measures of p-e fit, the moderators, and job satisfaction and affective commitment loaded on the same factor. This was indicative of the respondents' inability to discriminate among p-e fit facets, and between these facets and outcomes of interest, namely job satisfaction and affective commitment.

Bivariate Correlations

A series of correlations were conducted to ascertain relationships between the variables in study. Table 2 summarized these findings and revealed a number of significant relationships.

As expected, the four types of p-e fit were positively and significantly correlated, with values ranging from .28 to .61 ($p < .01$). Despite the reasonable magnitudes, EFA findings suggested that any results concerning the relationship between fit types and outcome variables needed to be carefully interpreted. In addition, all p-e fit types were positively and significantly related to the moderator variables, POS and LMX. The correlations reported on Table 2 range from .28 and .67 ($p < .01$).

With regard to the relationship between p-e fit and readiness for change, positive and significant correlations were found between all p-e fit types and perceptions of managerial support for change, ranging from .21 to .42. Moreover, with the exception of self-concept job fit (PJFitSC), the same pattern was obtained for p-e fit types and perceptions of appropriateness of change, with correlations between .19 and .42. However, it should be noted that no significant correlations were obtained relating p-e fit types with change self-efficacy and change perceived as personally beneficial.

POS and LMX were also positively and significantly related to both perceptions of appropriateness of change and to perceptions of appropriateness of change. These correlations ranged from .39 to .56 ($p < .01$). Furthermore, LMX was positively and significantly related to change self-efficacy ($r = .19$, $p < .05$).

Overall, these results corroborated the data obtained with EFA, providing clear indication that p-e fit and readiness for change criteria were distinct, albeit related. It should be noted that the dimension regarding perceptions of managerial support for change (RCMgtSup) was grouped with p-e fit types and with the two moderators in the first factor (Table 4). As shown in the correlation matrix, this readiness for change scale was the only one that exhibited positive and significant relationships with all p-e fit types and with the two moderators. Moreover, the magnitudes of these correlations were predominantly higher than for other readiness for change dimensions.

The relationship between p-e fit types and dispositional resistance to change was also investigated. The only significant findings reported on Table 2 pointed to a relationship between PJFitSC and three of the four resistance to change dimensions: negative relationships with emotional reaction ($r= -.24$, $p< .05$) and short-term thinking ($r=-.18$, $p< .05$), and a positive relationship with cognitive rigidity ($r= .16$, $p< .05$). It appears that the propensity to ascribe a sense of self-concept to work outcomes and processes was associated with more positive reactions to upcoming changes, especially when these changes improved current work processes, and with lower propensity to change current opinions on general matters.

An examination of the relationships among readiness for change dimensions revealed mixed findings. The dimension pertaining to perceptions of appropriateness of change was positively and significantly related to all other dimensions, with correlations ranging from .27 to .48 ($p< .01$). However, the only other significant correlation found

related perceptions of managerial support for change and change self-efficacy to a modest degree ($r= .18$, $p< .05$).

With respect to the relationships between readiness for change and dispositional resistance to change, the only significant correlations found involved change self-efficacy across dimensions of resistance to change, with the exception of cognitive rigidity. Change self-efficacy was negatively and significantly related to routine seeking behaviors ($r= -.29$, $p< .01$), emotional reaction to change ($r= -.30$, $p< .01$), and short-term thinking ($r= -.32$, $p< .01$). While change self-efficacy represents a functional dimension of readiness for change, the concept of self-efficacy is more closely related to dispositional traits than any of the other readiness for change dimensions, which might partly explain these significant findings.

In general, the four dimensions of resistance to change were positively and significantly related with each other, with correlations ranging between .22 and .62 ($p< .01$). The only non-significant relationship found occurred between the emotional reaction and cognitive rigidity dimensions. It should be noted that the weakest correlations involved cognitive rigidity. These findings corroborated EFA findings wherein all resistance to change dimensions loaded in a single factor, with the exception of cognitive rigidity.

Job satisfaction and affective commitment also displayed positive and significant correlations with all p-e fit types, LMX, POS, and readiness for change dimensions,

except perceptions of change as personally beneficial. These correlations ranged from .18 to .72, the latter between affective commitment and POS.

Lastly, Table 2 also illustrated the relationships between age, tenure, sample, and the variables examined in the present study. Interestingly, several significant results were found, especially with regard to tenure and sample. Tenure was negatively and significantly related to perceptions of appropriateness of change ($r= -.20$, $p< .05$), perceptions of change self-efficacy ($r= -.18$, $p< .05$), and perceptions of change as personally beneficial ($r= -.21$, $p< .05$). In addition, tenure was positively and significantly related to the resistance for change dimension "emotional reaction" ($r= .23$, $p< .01$). In practice, longer tenured individuals appeared to display lower readiness for change, and a more negative reaction to changes occurring in the workplace. However, these findings need to be interpreted with caution, considering the positive and significant relationship between tenure and sample ($r= .40$, $p< .01$).

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses 1a and 1b

The first two hypotheses suggested that person-organization fit would be positively related to job satisfaction and to affective commitment, respectively.

H1a: Person-organization fit is positively related to job satisfaction

H1b: Person-organization fit is positively related to affective commitment

The correlations between these variables (Table 2) confirmed the positive relationship between POFit and job satisfaction ($r= .62$, $p< .01$), and between POFit and affective commitment ($r= .65$, $p< .01$). Hence, hypotheses H1a and H1b were confirmed.

Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c

The second set of hypotheses stated that person-job fit would be positively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment, and that person-job fit would explain significant variance in the two outcome variables beyond that explained by person-organization fit.

H2a: Person-job fit is positively related to job satisfaction

H2b: Person-job fit is positively related to affective commitment.

H2c: Person-job fit explains additional variance in affective commitment and job satisfaction beyond p-o fit.

The results found confirmed hypotheses 2a and 2b. PJFit was positively related to job satisfaction ($r= .68$, $p< .01$) and to affective commitment ($r= .48$, $p < .01$). Moreover, these hypotheses were also confirmed for PJFitSC in relation to job satisfaction ($r= .60$, $p< .01$) and to affective commitment ($r= .42$, $p< .01$).

With respect to hypothesis 2c, job satisfaction was regressed on a model that included POFit and another model with both POFit and PJFit. Results provided evidence of significant increase of variance explained in job satisfaction when PJFit was added to the model ($\Delta R^2= .14$, $p< .01$). Hence, hypothesis 2c was confirmed for job satisfaction. The same procedure was followed to test the hypothesis using affective commitment as

the dependent variable. Similar to the findings for job satisfaction, the addition of PJFit to the initial model resulted in a significant increase of variance explained in affective commitment. Although the improvement was not as substantial with affective commitment ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$), hypotheses 2c could also be confirmed for this outcome variable.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis suggested that person-group fit would be positively related to job satisfaction.

H3: Person-group fit is positively related to job satisfaction

Based on information obtained from the correlation matrix (Table 2), the third hypothesis was also confirmed ($r = .38$, $p < .01$).

Hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c

This set of hypotheses proposed that person-organization fit, person-job fit, and person-group fit would be negatively related to readiness for change.

H4a: Person-organization fit is negatively related to readiness for change

H4b: Person-job fit is negatively related to readiness for change

H4c: Supplementary person-group fit is negatively related to readiness for change

As seen on Table 2, POFit was positively and significantly related to the readiness for change dimensions "appropriateness of change" ($r = .42$, $p < .01$), and "managerial support for change" ($r = .42$, $p < .01$); PJFit was positively and significantly related to

"appropriateness of change" (r= .19, p< .05) and "managerial support for change" (r= .21, p< .05); and PGFit was positively and significantly related to "appropriateness of change" (r= .34, p< .01) and to "managerial support for change" (r= .34, p< .01). Hence, hypotheses H4a-c were rejected.

Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c

The fifth set of hypotheses proposed that Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) would moderate the relationship between person-organization fit, person-job fit, and person-group fit, and the outcome readiness for change dimensions.

H5a: There is an interaction between LMX and p-o fit such that low LMX individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high LMX individuals when p-o fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-o fit is low.

H5b: There is an interaction between LMX and p-j fit such that low LMX individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high LMX individuals when p-j fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-j fit is low.

H5c: There is an interaction between LMX and p-g fit such that low LMX individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high LMX individuals when p-g fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-g fit is low.

A series of moderated multiple regressions were conducted to test this set of hypotheses. Table 5 illustrates the relationships between four types of fit and the first dimension of readiness for change ("appropriateness of change"). As seen in the table, POFit, PJFit, PJFitSC, and PG Fit were positively and significantly related to the "appropriateness of change" dimension. When LMX was added to the second model, the prediction improved for POFit (ΔR^2= .07, p< .01), PJFit (ΔR^2= .13, p< .01), and PGFit (ΔR^2= .08, p< .01). However, none of the interaction terms was significant. A similar pattern occurred for the second dimension of readiness for change ("managerial support for change"), where all main effects were significant across fit types, the addition of LMX to the second model significantly increased the variance explained in readiness for change, and none of the interaction terms revealed significant (see Table 6).

Results for the third dimension of readiness for change ("change self-efficacy") showed that none of the main effects were significant, but the inclusion of LMX in the model elicited significant R^2 changes for PO Fit (ΔR^2= .03, p< .05), PJ Fit (ΔR^2= .05, p< .01), and PJFitSC (ΔR^2= .03, p< .05). As reported in Table 7, no significant interactions between fit types and LMX were found.

Finally, the last MMR using LMX as the moderator was conducted to determine the impact of this variable on the relationship between types of person-environment fit and perceived benefits of change. Table 8 revealed that none of the main effects or interactions were significant for this readiness for change dimension, and only the addition of LMX to PJFitSC provided a significant improvement to the second prediction model (ΔR^2= .03, p< .05).

In sum, the results found failed to support hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c.

Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c

The final set of hypotheses suggested that Perceived Organizational Support (POS) would moderate the relationship between person-organization fit, person-job fit, and person-group fit, and the dependent variables comprised of readiness for change dimensions.

H6a: There is an interaction between POS and p-o fit such that low POS individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high POS individuals when p-o fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-o fit is low.

H6b: There is an interaction between POS and p-j fit such that low POS individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high POS individuals when p-j fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-j fit is low.

H6c: There is an interaction between POS and p-g fit such that low POS individuals demonstrate lower readiness for change than high POS individuals when p-g fit is high. However, this difference in readiness for change is not significant when p-g fit is low.

Analogous to the previous set of hypotheses, a series of MMRs were conducted to test the final set of hypotheses. Table 9 illustrates the relationship between fit types and "appropriateness of change" holding POS as a moderator. Similar to what was verified

with LMX, although all main effects were significant and the addition of POS to the model improved the prediction of "appropriateness of change" across all predictors, none of the interaction terms between fit types and POS were significant. Results from Table 10 summarizing the relationship between fit types and the readiness for change dimension "managerial support for change" show analogous results, with no significant interactions between predictors and POS. With respect to the third dependent variable, "change self-efficacy", Table 11 shows no significant main effects for POFit, PJFit, and PJFitSC, and no significant improvements to prediction when POS was added to the equation.

Lastly, Table 12 illustrates the relationship between types of person-environment fit and the readiness for change dimension "change perceived as personally beneficial". No significant main effects or interactions were found linking fit types with this readiness for change dimension.

Overall, the results obtained in the course of hypotheses testing were somewhat discouraging. While the first three sets of hypotheses regarding the positive impact of identification with the organization, job, and primary workgroup on job satisfaction and affective commitment were confirmed, the findings for the subsequent sets of hypotheses proposed failed to corroborate the relationships proposed. Contrary to the hypotheses suggesting a negative impact of high identification with the organization, job, and workgroup on readiness for change proposed, fit was positively associated to perceptions of appropriateness of change and to perceptions of managerial support for change. However, it should be noted that none of the fit types had a significant and direct impact

on readiness for change dimensions pertaining to confidence in one's ability to adapt to new job demands (change self-efficacy), and to perceptions of personal benefits of change. It appears that fit or identification with organization, job, and workgroup does not, at least directly, influence facets of readiness for change that are closely tied to individuals' work. Instead, fit only had a positive and significant effect on distal facets of readiness for change, related to perceived benefits for the broader organization and to perceptions of supervisory endorsement of upcoming transformations. These findings are further discussed in the next chapter.

The general results revealed no significant interaction effects between fit types and each of the two moderator variables (LMX and POS). Nevertheless, LMX and POS explained substantial variance in perceptions of appropriateness of change, perceptions of managerial support for change, and change self-efficacy beyond that explained by the different facets of person-environment fit. In particular, support from the supervisor appeared to enhance individuals' self-efficacy regarding change, which wasn't achieved by identification with organization, job, and workgroup alone.

The results obtained from correlations and from MMR suggested that, in the context of organizational transformations, the positive impact of perceived support from the organization and from supervisors on readiness for change exceeded that of identification with the organization, job, and primary workgroup. Although the role of person-environment fit should not be disregarded in the course of change management initiatives, the results suggested that the emphasis should be placed on improving top-

down communication and clearly conveying the organization's commitment to training, informing, and supporting the workforce throughout the process.

Other findings not directly related to hypotheses testing concerned the impact of tenure on readiness for change, specifically the negative correlations suggesting that longer tenured individuals tended to exhibit lower readiness for change. The impact of workforce composition on key criteria in this study raised additional questions, namely the role of tenure as a potential moderator of the relationship between p-e fit and readiness for change. However, it should be noted that sample group (organization) also showed significant correlations with readiness for change dimensions and other variables of interest, including tenure. In order to explore the nature of these findings, two tenure groups were created and independent t-tests were conducted to explore significant mean differences in dimensions of readiness for change by tenure group (Table 13a). Independent t-tests were also conducted to examine mean differences in readiness for change between the two participating organizations (Table 13b). Results showed that, with the exception of perceptions of managerial support for change, means across readiness for change dimensions were significantly lower for the sample of longer tenured individuals (more than 10 years in the organization), and significantly higher for organization A than for organization B. Considering the relationship between tenure and readiness for change, between sample and readiness for change, and between tenure and sample, a series of post hoc analyses were conducted. First, descriptive analyses of the two sample groups were provided to examine tenure distributions within each participating organization. Second, bivariate correlations were conducted to contrast

relationship patterns between tenure groups and between sample groups. Third, Hierarchical Regressions were conducted to control for the effects of tenure and sample on readiness for change; and finally a series of MMR were conducted to uncover interaction effects between p-e fit types and tenure on readiness for change dimensions. These analyses are summarized in the following section.

Post Hoc Analyses

Descriptive Analyses by Sample

Tables 14 and 15 illustrate the workforce composition of samples A and B, respectively. Considering the significant correlations found between tenure and sample, the distribution of participants' tenure within the two samples was of particular interest. Results showed that the tenure distributions for samples A and B differed substantially. In particular, around 45% of participants from sample A had been affiliated with the organization for more than five years, but only 13% reported tenure greater than 15 years. The overall tenure distribution for this first organization was approximately normal. Conversely, almost 50% of sample B participants reported that they had been affiliated to the organization for over 15 years, and only 24% reported less than 5 years of affiliation. The overall tenure distribution for the second organization was left skewed.

The findings obtained suggested that in this particular study, the relationships between tenure and the remaining variables in this study might have been influenced sample effects. In the following section, similarities in correlation patterns for tenure groups and for sample groups were established in order to further investigate the relationship between these two variables.

Bivariate Correlations by Tenure Group and by Sample Group

Upon creation of two separate groups based on tenure – a first group comprised of participants that reported shorter tenure (less than 10 years) and a second group representing longer tenured participants (more than 10 years) – the relationship among the variables of interest was examined within each group. Tables 16 and 17 depict the patterns of correlations between measures for shorter tenured and for longer tenured individuals, respectively.

The correlation patterns for the sample comprised of short tenure individuals showed several significant differences in relation to findings from the long tenure group. None of the p-e fit types were significantly related to change self-efficacy and to change perceived as personally beneficial for the short tenure group (Table 16), whereas change self-efficacy had a significant association with person-organization fit in the long tenure group (Table 17). While person-job fit was not significantly related to any of the readiness for change dimensions for either group, self-concept job fit was positively and significantly related to perceptions of managerial support for change in the longer tenure group. As shown in Tables 16 and 17, the correlation patterns among readiness for change dimensions also exhibited several significant differences between the short and the long tenure groups.

Tables 18 and 19 illustrate the correlations between variables by sample group. Similar to what was found for the tenure groups, perceptions of appropriateness of change and of managerial support for change were significantly related to p-e fit facets.

However, the relationship patterns between short and long tenure groups, and between samples A (lower tenure mean) and B (higher tenure mean) were not analogous.

Overall, differing correlation patterns and magnitudes were identified between the two tenure groups examined, suggesting unique impacts of fit and readiness for change on individuals of different lengths of affiliation with the organization. Although the sample distributions and the correlation suggesting that tenure effects might be largely attributed to sample effects, the correlation matrices showed little overlap with regard to the relationship patterns between tenure groups and sample groups. Despite these results, the significant correlations between tenure, sample, and the main predictors and criteria in the study led to the investigation of the differential impact of tenure and sample on the relationships between p-e fit facets and readiness for change dimensions. In order to examine these effects, a number of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted.

Hierarchical Regression Analyses

The different facets of person-environment fit correlated significantly with two of the four readiness for change dimensions present in this study: perceptions of appropriateness of change and perceived managerial support for change (see Table 2). Considering these findings, a series of stepwise regressions were conducted for the two criteria, and included tenure and sample as control variables. With regard to perceptions of managerial support for change, tenure and sample did not significantly add to the variance explained by different facets of person-environment fit. However, tenure and sample – especially the latter – explained a significant portion of the variance in perceptions of appropriateness of change beyond that explained by person-environment

fit (Table 20), and uniquely contributed to change self-efficacy and change benefits perceptions where p-e fit facets had no significant impact. In view of the results obtained, the moderating effect of tenure and of sample on the relationship between p-e fit and readiness for change merited further investigation.

MMR

In order to test whether tenure moderated the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change, a series of Moderated Multiple Regressions were conducted. Table 21 illustrates the effects of tenure on the relationship between p-e fit and perceptions of appropriateness of change. As shown, the addition of tenure to PJFit ($\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p < .05$) and PJFitSC ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $p < .01$) improved the prediction of this readiness for change dimension. Moreover, there was a significant interaction effect with PGFit ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .05$). This interaction is depicted in Figure 1. Regarding the interaction between PGFit and tenure, Figure 1 shows that at high levels of PGFit there were no significant differences in perceptions of appropriateness of change between tenure groups. However, at low levels of the predictor, individuals in the short tenure group displayed more positive perceptions with regard to appropriateness of change than their long tenure group counterparts. Individuals that had been affiliated to the organization for a longer period of time and exhibited low identification with the group were less willing to acknowledge the need for organizational change.

As shown in Table 23, there were no significant interactions between fit and tenure in relation to change self-efficacy. With regard to the moderating role of sample on the relationship between p-e fit and readiness for change, no significant interactions

were found across p-e fit facets and readiness for change dimensions (Tables 25-28). Although sample explained a greater proportion of the variance in readiness for change across dimensions of the construct, and had a more substantial impact on the main effects found, tenure significantly moderated a single relationship between p-e fit and readiness for change and also explained significant variance in readiness for change beyond p-e fit. The theoretical rationale for the differential impact of tenure and organization on the variables of interest is discussed in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the present paper was to investigate the interplay of multiple facets of person-environment fit with organizational readiness for change. In particular, this study expanded upon the extant research in several ways. First, it offered an operational definition of person-environment fit that considered three distinct facets of the construct (person-organization, person-job, and person group fit) and examined differences and similarities among these facets with respect to their relationships with other constructs of interest. Second, it proposed a test of competing hypotheses to examine the relationship between facets of person-environment fit and readiness for change dimensions. The first set of hypotheses investigated this relationship with reference to the assumption that higher levels of identification with the organization and primary workgroup would result in preference for current organizational and job arrangements, which in turn would be detrimental to readiness for change (Jones, 2005; Van Knippenberg et al., 2006). The second set of hypotheses tested the moderating role of organizational support and quality of relationship with the supervisor on the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change (Holt et al., 2007).

Finally, this study uncovered the relationships between readiness for change, dispositional resistance to change, and workforce composition. These results are further discussed in the following sections.

Main Study

As hypothesized, perceived fit with the organization, with the primary workgroup, and with the job, were positively and significantly related to job satisfaction and affective commitment. The failure to reject the hypotheses pertaining to job satisfaction and affective commitment was not surprising given the extensive body of research corroborating these findings. Table 29 provides a summary of the validity coefficients for the variables examined in the present study. As depicted, findings from this study fell within the range of correlations between fit measures and measures of job satisfaction and affective commitment typically found in the extant literature (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristoff-Brown et al., 2002). In practice, perceived similarity of values and goals between individuals and their organization and workgroup, and perceived correspondence of individual skills and competencies with existing job demands are associated with greater job satisfaction and affective commitment to the organization. The findings obtained in the exploratory factor analysis showed that the different facets of fit and job satisfaction and affective commitment loaded on the same factor, which appears to represent general affect toward the organization. As a result, the magnitude of the relationships between person-environment facets and these outcomes may be partly explained by the content of the fit measures used. These measures elicited global assessments of fit with organization, job, and primary workgroup, and relied mostly on supplementary, affect-based elements of fit, leaving the complementary, functional aspects of fit unexamined. Given that, by definition, person-environment fit entails a comprehensive and simultaneous assessment of work values similarity, work goal congruence, and

satisfaction of mutual needs (Elfenbein & O'Reilly, 2007; Kristoff, 1996; Verquer et al., 2003), a meaningful assessment of the relationship between fit and job satisfaction and organizational commitment should have been conducted using measures of fit that reflected both the affective and the functional components of the construct.

As mentioned in the introductory chapter of this paper, there has been considerable discussion and divide regarding the relationship between person-environment fit dimensions and readiness for change. While some authors contend that affect toward peers, job, and organization is a precursor to readiness for change (Rafferty & Simons, 2006), others argue that change initiatives are perceived as threatening and disruptive of the individual sense of identification with the organization, primary workgroup, and job characteristics (Jones et al., 2005; Trumbo, 1961; Van Knipenberg et al. 2006). The latter perspective was hypothesized in the present study, and the findings obtained challenged all the propositions advanced. Particularly, increasing fit with the organization, job, and primary workgroup was associated with increasingly positive perceptions regarding the appropriateness of upcoming changes to the organization, and with perceptions of managerial support for these changes. However, no significant findings were obtained with regard to the remaining dimensions of readiness for change: change self-efficacy and perceptions of change as personally beneficial. These findings are consistent with existing perspectives on organizational change, suggesting that multiple and often competing attitudes toward change and interpretations of change can coexist within an organization (Brotheridge, 2005; Gilbert, 2006). While change was perceived as positive and necessary to the organization, and fostered by senior level

managers, these positive attitudes were not extended to the individuals' sense of ability to functionally cope with upcoming changes nor did they reflect positive individual-level valence toward change. A possible explanation for these results can be found in the literature describing the interplay of cognitive representations of change and change implementation strategies, wherein cognitive mechanisms of response to organizational change operate in association with the overall change management strategy to result on attitude toward organizational transformations (Gavetti & Levinthal, 2000; Gilbert, 2006). At an earlier stage of change implementation, positive attitudes toward change are initially fostered by organization-wide communications that underscore the criticality of the changes to the future of the organization. At a latter stage, these positive attitudes are drawn out by an individual-level approach, including training and intra-departmental communication, emphasizing the personal benefits of change. Considering this perspective, it is plausible that the current implementation stage experienced by the participating organizations had an impact on the different facets of individual readiness for change. Both organizations were at early stages of implementation (i.e., strategy delineation, organization-wide communications), which effectively operated on perceptions of change climate to ensure acceptance and acknowledgment of the importance of change at the organizational level, but fell short of promoting self-efficacy and positive valence at the individual level. These differential findings suggest different groupings among readiness for change dimensions. Moreover, it should be noted that these groups may be associated with different behavioral outcomes, namely greater likelihood that change self-efficacy and positive change valence will be more strongly

associated with positive change behaviors. Based on the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), increased perceptions of behavioral control over a given target will result in increased performance relative to the target. In this case, the dimensions reflecting appropriateness of change to the organization and perceptions of managerial support for are not directly related to the respondent's ability, rationale, and motivation to engage in functional change, but instead solicit an appraisal of adequacy of change for external targets. These dimensions represent aspects of readiness for change that are not under volitional control, hence less likely to directly influence subsequent change-related behavior. Conversely, change self-efficacy can be enhanced with appropriate training and organizational support, which in turn will result in better change-related performance. Future research is needed to examine these effects.

With respect to the moderating role of the quality of relationship with the supervisor, none of the interaction hypotheses were confirmed. However, the positive and significant impact of this variable on readiness for change across dimensions was noteworthy. This found agreement with the extant literature suggesting that support from managers elicits positive attitudes and work behaviors even in the absence of perceived fit (Erdogan et al., 2004; Self et al., 2007). Positive relationships with the supervisor had a positive impact on attitudes toward organizational change, including change self-efficacy and perceptions of change as personally beneficial. The quality of relationship with the supervisor appeared to be a key component of readiness for change across its operational dimensions. In practice, the supervisors' role during organizational transformations is to promote confidence in their subordinates' ability to navigate

through organizational change, and to clarify the benefits of these transformations. Positive relationships with supervisors are typically associated with effective mentoring and training outcomes and with effective communication across organizational levels. Competency development for organizational change and clarity of communication regarding change initiatives are in turn associated with readiness for change. Further research should explore the causal links advanced.

Similar to the pattern encountered using quality of relationship with the supervisor as a moderator, the hypotheses proposing significant interactions between fit types and perceived support from the organization were also not supported. However, perceptions of organizational support were positively associated to perceptions of appropriateness of change and of managerial support for change. Unlike the quality of relationship with the immediate supervisor, support from the organization was not significantly related to change self-efficacy and to perceptions of change as personally beneficial. These findings uncovering the positive, yet differential impact of LMX and POS on organizational outcomes are consistent with the literature (Jawahar & Carr, 2007; Nadler, 1999; Van Knippenberg et al., 2006). Additionally, it should be noted that these dissimilar relationship patterns match the dimension groupings proposed for the readiness for change measure where, contrary to perceived organizational support, quality of relationship with the supervisor was significantly related to change self-efficacy and to perceptions of change as personally beneficial. Overall, quality of the relationship with the supervisor and support from the organization did not significantly interact with facets of person-environment fit to impact readiness for change. However, their positive and

unique effect on readiness for change highlights the importance of considering these variables in organizational change research.

Another step in data analysis for this study involved the examination of the relationship between dispositional variables - specifically resistance to change - on readiness for change. Previous research suggests that personal traits influence attitudes toward change and should be considered during the planning stages of change management programs, (By, 2005; Holt et al., 2007; Pierro et al., 2002). This study's findings showed that individuals displaying lower propensity for routine seeking behaviors, for short-term thinking, and for negative emotional reaction to upcoming change reported greater confidence in their ability to learn and perform new tasks in the course of functional changes to the workplace (i.e., change self-efficacy). The significant relationship obtained between elements of dispositional resistance to change and change self-efficacy helped clarify the role of change-related dispositions on different facets of readiness for change, and suggests further examination of individual traits in the context of organizational transitions.

In addition to these main findings, the significant relationships between tenure and readiness for change, and between sample group and readiness for change were noteworthy. Moreover, the significant relationship found between tenure and sample led to an examination of the sample organizations considering tenure groups, and to the investigation of potential moderating effects of tenure and sample on the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change. Results of these post hoc analyses are discussed in the next section.

Post Hoc Analyses

With the exception of perceptions of managerial support for change - relative to which no significant relationships were encountered - participants who reported shorter tenure displayed significantly greater readiness for change than participants who reported longer tenure. These findings were consistent with extant research showing that a conservative attitude toward change is directly proportional with tenure (Musteen, Baker, & Baeten, 2006). It should be noted that although tenure and age were positively and significantly correlated ($r= .50$, $p< .01$), age and readiness for change were not significantly related. This dissimilar relationship pattern with age and tenure has been frequently encountered in the job satisfaction literature. In fact, empirical evidence suggests that the relationship between age and job satisfaction is u-shaped, whereas the relationship between age and tenure is linear (Kacmar & Ferris, 1989). Moreover, it has been advanced that tenure and age are reliable predictors of different facets of job satisfaction (Hachwarter, Ferris, & Perrewe, 2001; Kacmar & Ferris, 1989), and of different organizational criteria (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Hachwarter et al., 2001; Salker, Crossman, & Chinmeteepituck, 2003; White & Spector, 1987). In particular, tenure is typically related to job autonomy, job involvement, and decision-making centrality, which represent critical antecedents of positive attitudes during organizational transitions. Hence, in the context of organizational change, it seems plausible that the relationship between tenure and readiness for change was significant, even when no significant relationship between age and readiness for change was identified.

With respect to the significant relationship found between tenure and sample, the analysis of tenure distributions by sample group revealed notable differences, in that participants from one of the organizations reported substantially longer tenure than their counterparts. In order to clarify the differential impact of tenure and sample on the outcomes of interest, a series of hierarchical linear regressions were conducted, and results showed that tenure and sample explained different proportions of variance in readiness for change dimensions. Moreover, the bivariate correlations by tenure group and by sample group showed that the relationship patterns for the organization with longer tenure participants were not similar to the relationship patterns exhibited by the long tenure group. This unique impact of tenure and of organizational climate on outcome variables, namely readiness for change, has been widely reported in the extant literature (Armenakis et al., 1993; Van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008). In regard to climate, a positive climate for change is associated with greater involvement in the process, enhanced trust in management, and better information networks, which in turn have a positive influence on cognitions regarding change and increase overall readiness (Van Dam et al., 2008). With respect to tenure, individuals remain in the organization because they are satisfied with its culture and functioning, which makes them less approving of changes to the status quo (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Barker & Patterson, 1996; Van Dam et al., 2008). While the unique variance explained by organization and by sample corroborated the assumptions of the extant research, the positive relationship between fit and readiness for change found for the long tenure group was incongruous with some of the findings obtained in the literature. Results of the present study showed

that, although the short tenure group exhibited greater readiness for change, the positive and significant relationships between person-environment fit and readiness for change dimensions were stronger and more prevalent in the long tenure group. These findings suggest that tenure might have a direct impact on readiness for change that differs from its impact on the relationship between a number of predictor variables, including person-environment fit, and readiness for change. Regarding the direct impact, individuals that had been affiliated with the organization for a shorter period of time exhibited greater readiness for change than the long tenure group. Previous research on the influence of tenure on causal attributions regarding organizational transformations suggests that the greater readiness for change exhibited by individuals that have been affiliated to the organization for a shorter period of time is likely the upshot of their attributions of need for change to controllable, stable factors inherent in the firm (Barker & Patterson, 1996). Hence, tenure appears to have a direct effect on causal attributions during organizational transformations that affect different degrees of readiness for change. With respect to the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change, it is possible that this positive attitude toward change might become increasingly contingent upon fit with the organization, job, and primary workgroup as the length of affiliation increases. While this assumption requires further examination, it raises interesting questions regarding the different meanings of fit and of readiness for change for individuals in different tenure groups, particularly considering the causal attribution perspective aforementioned and the impact of organizational climate and change implementation strategy on these attributions. Given that the role of organizational climate on attitude toward change and

sense making regarding organizational transformations has been widely suggested in the existing literature (Armenakis et al., 1993; Kumari & Dwivedi, 1988; Stensaker & Falkenberg, 2007; Van Dam et al., 2008), future research is needed to further explore the concurrent impact of change-related attributions and of change implementation strategies and climate on individual responses to change and subsequent change behaviors.

Limitations

This study exhibited several limitations. First, an examination of the workforce composition showed that a considerable proportion of the respondents had been affiliated to the participating organizations for over 15 years, and that an equally substantial percentage of individuals held a managerial position. While all potential respondents were provided with a survey link and a personal access code, these individuals were able to anonymously disregard the survey, allowing for self-selection. The overall results, especially the significant correlation obtained between tenure and sample, were probably influenced by the discrepant distributions within participating organizations, in particular the predominance of individuals with tenure greater than 15 years in the second organization. These tenure distributions do not accurately depict any of the participating organizations' workforce composition, which approximate a normal distribution.

A second limitation concerns the exclusive examination of the effect of individual-level variables on perceptions of person-environment fit and readiness for change. Organization-level variables that were not included in the present study - namely influence of previous change initiatives, organizational climate for change, and change management strategy - could have elucidated some of the findings pertaining to the

differential impact of tenure on readiness for change, and on the relationship between readiness for change and its predictors (Armenakis et al., 1993; Stensaker & Falkenberg, 2007). In addition, the sample differences that were found add further evidence that an examination of this study's variables considering organization-level factors is needed.

The person-environment fit measures used in this study represent a third limitation. While these measures were well-established and displayed coefficient alphas consistent with those found in the extant literature, they failed to capture essential functional elements pertaining to each of the person-environment fit facets, including complementary person-organization and person-group fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In particular, it appears that the attempts made in the last several decades to create shorter measures of the person-environment fit construct have accomplished as much at the expense of a comprehensive assessment of fit. More comprehensive measures of person-environment fit would have likely provided greater discrimination among facets of this construct, and between these facets and other measures that reflect affect toward the organization, namely job satisfaction, affective commitment, and perceived organizational support, providing more meaningful results.

A final limitation may have produced substantial impact on this study's results and interpretations. While the extant literature proposes that tenure has a significant impact on change attitudes, both direct (Barker & Patterson, 1996) and as a moderator of its relationship with several predictor variables (Cheng & Chan, 2008; Van Dam et al., 2008), these relationships were not postulated in the main study and a few of the effects were only assessed post hoc. Additionally, the results obtained may have been influenced

by the manner in which tenure information was collected. Although tenure intervals were presented to survey respondents in order to further preserve their anonymity and to ensure an adequate response rate, continuous tenure information would have allowed for an easier detection of existing moderating effects in regression results, and potentially provide more interpretable results (Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 2005).

Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

Despite its limitations, this study made a number of interesting contributions research and practice alike.

First, the present study provided a test of competing hypotheses regarding the relationship between four facets of person-environment fit and several dimensions of readiness for change in organizational settings. Although none of the competing hypotheses were supported – negative main effects and moderated effects – a number of significant main effects surfaced in the results. Concretely, facets of person-environment fit were positively associated with perceptions of change as appropriate to the organization, and with perceptions of managerial support for change. Moreover, as suggested in the extant literature, leader-member exchange and perceived organizational support were also positively related to readiness for change (Erdogan et al., 2004; Self, et al., 2007). This all-inclusive approach to the examination of readiness for change has clarified some of the relationships proposed in the extant literature, and has brought forth a number of new research questions and considerations for change management practice. In particular, this study clarified the individual relationships between different types of person-environment fit and readiness for change dimensions. Although only a modest

percentage of the main effects between types of fit and readiness for change dimensions were revealed as positive and significant, organizational and supervisory support appear to be pivotal in eliciting a greater number of positive and sound relationships. As suggested in previous studies, high levels of engagement with organization, job and primary workgroup, coupled with good communication systems and functional support from managers allows that the organization can provide the optimal level of motivation and positive attitude necessary to facilitate change and take advantage of its benefits (Cole et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2005; Pierro et al., 2002; Rafferty & Simons, 2006; Wanberg & Banas, 2000; Woodward & Hendry, 2004). Further research is needed to explore the differential impact of fit facets on specific dimensions of readiness for change.

Second, this study uncovered measurement issues that have received little attention in the current person-environment fit literature. While many researchers have extensively argued for the use of comprehensive measures of fit entailing the simultaneous examination of different facets of the construct (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Verquer et al., 2003), and the integration of subjective and objective methods of assessment (Choi & Price, 2005; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), the operational definition of some of the most widely used measures of person-environment fit has been less debated. Findings from the present study revealed that survey items pertaining to different facets of fit elicited global and affective assessments of congruence between the respondent and the organization and workgroup, and failed to provide information regarding specific supplementary and complementary components within

each of the facets, which in turn limited the interpretation of results. In view of this, a potential area for future research should entail the expansion of existing fit measures to provide more descriptive assessments that consider both affect and functional components of the construct.

A third contribution of this study concerns the investigation of the role of tenure and sample organization on individual readiness for change and on the relationship between this variable and person-environment fit. While these variables were not proposed in the main portion of this study, the relationships identified and the multiple references to the impact of tenure and climate on readiness for change (Armenakis et al., 1993; Barker & Patterson, 1996; Stensaker & Falkenberg, 2007; Van Dam et al., 2008) led to a series of post hoc examinations. The findings obtained confirmed the unique effects of tenure and organization on readiness for change and suggest that the relationship between tenure and readiness for change may be a product of the interaction of tenure with a number of individual- and organization-level variables, namely person-environment fit, organizational climate for change, and change strategy. Considering that climate variables were not included in the present study, and that factors related to the participating organizations had a greater impact on readiness for change than tenure, the nature of these relationships should be further explored.

Finally, this study used a recently developed measure of readiness for change that captured different components of attitude toward organizational transformations (Holt et al., 2007). Interestingly, the pattern of relationships found between readiness for change dimensions and a number of variables assessed in this study (e.g., fit, leader-member

exchange, perceived organizational support, tenure, and sample) suggested the existence of two distinct readiness groups. The first group was comprised of perceptions of appropriateness of change to the organization and perceptions of managerial support for change. This group appeared to reflect dimensions of readiness for change relative to which the individual had less control over. Conversely, a second group comprised of change self-efficacy and perceptions of change valence seemed to represent dimensions of readiness for change relative to which individuals were more involved. The findings show that relationship patterns obtained between readiness for change and perceptions of fit, support from the organization, quality of relationship with the supervisor, and even tenure conformed to this grouping of readiness for change dimensions. In practice, facets of person-environment fit and perceived organizational support were significantly and more strongly related to the first group of readiness for change dimensions, whereas quality of relationship with the supervisor was more strongly related to proximal, ability-based dimensions of readiness for change. Future research is needed to investigate these relationships and clarify the conceptual structure of the readiness for change instrument.

Conclusion

The main objective of this study was to provide a test of competing hypotheses regarding the relationship between person-environment fit types and readiness for change dimensions, considering main effects and interaction effects with leader-member exchange and perceived organizational support. Although none of the competing hypotheses found support, the main effects encountered clarified some of the relationships advanced in the extant literature. Moreover, post hoc analyses exploring the

effects of tenure and organization group on readiness for change and its relationships with the predictors of interest brought forth alternative explanations for the findings obtained and provided avenues for future research. Considering the discrepancies found in the extant literature with regard to the exact nature of the impact of fit on readiness for change, a further exploration of the moderating role of tenure and of organization-level variables might elucidate the disparate directions of the relationships encountered in previous studies. In addition, the findings obtained regarding the comprehensive measure of person-environment fit used pointed to the need to expand the content of existing measures in order to draw out meaningful interpretations.

Limitations concerning the restricted levels of analysis and measurement issues require cautious interpretation of results, both for the main study and for post hoc analyses. Nonetheless, this study's findings hold interesting implications regarding the impact of individual- and organization-level variables on the relationship between person-environment fit and readiness for change. Personality variables, workforce composition, nature of relationships with supervisors and with peers, previous experience with organizational change, organizational climate for change, organizational strategy, and business environment likely represent some of the most critical factors to consider in the course change management processes and organizational change research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

Informed Consent

My name is Joana Pimentel and I am a PhD candidate at the University of Tennessee.

Companies frequently undergo structural and functional changes across business units and functions as a result of its strategic direction. In order to fulfill dissertation requirements, I am currently conducting a research study that examines the relationship between readiness for organizational change and organizational climate.

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to answer 80 questions from an online survey. It should take you no longer 30 minutes to fill out the survey. Your participation is entirely voluntary.

The information will be anonymously collected and examined only by the researcher. A final report containing statistical information will be presented to your company's Human Resources and Organizational Development teams. The results will hopefully clarify existing gaps and issues, and be used to improve communication and training needed during periods of transition. No personal information collected will link you to your responses.

If you have any questions pertaining to this study you may contact Joana Pimentel at joanap@utk.edu or (865) 437 7758.

If you understand the information stated above and agree to participate, please access the link below. If do not wish to participate, please disregard this message.

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION

Age _____

Gender

M F

Do you currently occupy a managerial position?

Yes No

Tenure

< 1 Year

1 Year – 3 Years

3 Years – 5 Years

5 Years – 10 Years

10 Years – 15 Years

> 15 Years

Department

Admin/HR/Legal

Finance/Accounting

IT

Sourcing

Logistics

Sales/Marketing

Other (Specify) _____

Readiness for Change

We would like to know how you feel about the specific changes that you are currently undergoing or will be facing as a result of your company's structural and operational changes. Please answer the following items to the best of your capacity.

1. I think that the organization will benefit from this change.
2. It doesn't make much sense for us to initiate this change. (r)
3. There are legitimate reasons for us to make this change.
4. This change will improve our organization's overall efficiency.
5. There are a number of rational reasons for this change to be made.
6. In the long run, I think it will be worthwhile for me if the organization adopts this change.
7. This change makes my job easier.
8. When this change is implemented, I don't believe there is anything for me to gain. (r)
9. The time we are spending on this change should be spent on something else. (r)
10. This change matches the priorities of our organization.
11. Our senior leaders have encouraged all of us to embrace this change.
12. Our organization's top decision makers have put all their support behind this change effort.
13. Every senior manager has stressed the importance of this change.
14. This organization's most senior leader is committed to this change.
15. I think we are spending a lot of time on this change when the senior leaders don't even want it implemented. (r)
16. Management has sent a clear signal this organization is going to change.
17. I do not anticipate any problems adjusting to the work I will have when this change is adopted.
18. There are some tasks that will be required when we change that I don't think I can do well. (r)
19. When we implement this change, I feel I can handle it with ease.
20. I have the skills that are needed to make this change work.
21. When I set my mind to it, I can learn everything that will be required when this change is adopted.
22. My past experiences make me confident that I will be able to perform successfully after this change is made.
23. I am worried I will lose some of my status in the organization when this change is implemented. (r)
24. This change will disrupt many of the personal relationships I have developed. (r)
25. My future in this job will be limited because of this change. (r)

Subjective Person-Job fit (Demands-Abilities and Needs-Supplies)

1. To what extent do your knowledge, skills, and abilities match the requirements of the job?
2. To what extent does the job fulfill your needs?
3. To what extent is the job a good match for you?
4. To what extent does the job enable you to do the kind of work you want to do?

Subjective Person-Job Fit (Self-Concept/Job Fit)

1. The performance of my job tasks makes me feel satisfied with myself.
2. The performance of my job tasks makes me feel good about the person that I am.
3. The performance of my job tasks makes me realize that I have several good qualities.
4. I cannot see myself in any other type of job than the one I am currently performing.
5. I can easily see myself performing a job different from the one I am currently performing.

Subjective Person-Organization fit

1. To what extent are the values of the organization similar to your values?
2. To what extent does your personality match the "personality" or image of the organization?
3. To what extent does the organization fulfill your needs?
4. To what extent is the organization a good match for you?

Person-Group fit

1. My personal values match my team's values.
2. My team is a good match for me.
3. My personality matches the "personality" or image of my team.

LMX 5

1. How flexible is your supervisor about evolving changes in your job? 4 = Supervisor is enthused about change; 3 = Supervisor is lukewarm to change; 2 = Supervisor sees little need to change; 1 = Supervisor sees no need for change.
2. Regardless of how much formal authority your supervisor has built into his/her position, what are the chances s/he would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work? 4 = He certainly would; 3 = Probably would; 2 = Might or might not; 1 = No
3. How often do you take your suggestions regarding your work to your supervisor? 4 = Almost Always; 3 = Often; 2 = Seldom; 1 = Never.
4. Regardless of the amount of formal authority your supervisor has, what are the chances that s/he would "bail you out" at his/her expense? 4 = Certainly would; 3 = Probably would; 2 = Might or might not; 1 = No.
5. How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor? 4 = Extremely effective; 3 = Better than average; 2 = About average; 1 = Less than average

Perceived Organizational Support

1. The organization really cares about my well-being
2. The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability
3. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice (r)
4. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work
5. The organization shows very little concern for me (r)
6. The organization cares about my opinions
7. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work
8. The organization strongly considers my goals and values.
9. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.

Affective Commitment Scale

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization (R)
5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (R)

Job Satisfaction

1. I am often bored with my job (R)
2. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
3. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.
4. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
5. I like my job better than the average worker does.
6. I find real enjoyment in my work.

Resistance to Change

Routine Seeking

1. I generally consider changes to be a negative thing.
2. I'll take a routine day over a day full of unexpected events any time.

3. I like to do the same old things rather than try new and different ones.
4. Whenever my life forms a stable routine, I look for ways to change it.
5. I'd rather be bored than surprised.

Emotional Reaction

6. If I were to be informed that there's going to be a significant change regarding the way things are done at work, I would probably feel stressed.
7. When I am informed of a change of plans, I tense up a bit.
8. When things don't go according to plans, it stresses me out.
9. If my boss changed the criteria for evaluating employees, it would probably make me feel uncomfortable even if I thought I'd do just as well without having to do any extra work.

Short-Term Thinking

10. Changing plans seems like a real hassle to me.
11. Often, I feel a bit uncomfortable even about changes that may potentially improve my life.
12. When someone pressures me to change something, I tend to resist it even if I think the change may ultimately benefit me.
13. I sometimes find myself avoiding changes that I know will be good for me.
14. Once I've made plans, I'm not likely to change them.

Cognitive Rigidity

15. I often change my mind.
16. Once I've come to a conclusion, I'm not likely to change my mind.
17. I don't change my mind easily
18. My views are very consistent over time.

Affected by Change:

To what extent will the structural and operational changes currently taking place in your company affect you?

APPENDIX 2

POWER ANALYSIS

	Multiple Regression		
Analysis:	A priori: Compute required sample size		
Input:	Effect size f^2	=	0.15
	α err prob	=	0.05
	Power ($1-\beta$ err prob)	=	0.95
	Numerator df	=	1
	Number of predictors	=	2
Output:	Noncentrality parameter λ	=	16.0500
	Critical F	=	3.0840
	Denominator df	=	104
	Total sample size	=	107
	Actual power	=	0.9518

APPENDIX 3

Table 1: Frequencies for Demographic Variables.

Variable	Group	N	Freq.	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age		162			
	1. < 24 Years		2	1.2	1.2
	2. [25,30[		15	8.8	10.5
	3. [30,40[		41	24.1	35.8
	4. [40,50[		47	27.6	64.8
	5. [50,60[		45	26.5	92.6
	6. > 60 Years		12	7.1	100.0
Gender		163			
	Male		114	69.7	69.1
	Female		49	30.3	100.0
Tenure		164			
	1. < 1 Year		13	7.9	7.9
	2. [1,3[		23	14.0	22.0
	3. [3,5[		31	18.9	40.9
	4. [5,10[		35	21.3	62.2
	5. [10,15[		13	7.9	70.1
	6. > 15 Years		49	29.9	100.0

Table 1: Continued

Variable	Group	N	Freq.	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Managerial Position		166			
	1. No		101	60.8	60.8
	2. Yes		65	39.2	100.0
Department		165			
	1. Admin/HR/Legal		18	10.9	10.9
	2. Finance/Accounting		22	13.3	24.2
	3. IT		40	24.2	48.5
	4. Sourcing		16	9.7	58.2
	5. Logistics		12	7.3	65.5
	6. Marketing		26	15.8	81.2
	7. Other		31	18.8	100.0

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations.

Variable	M	SD	Skew.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. POFit	3.25	.82	-.22	(*.90*)									
2. PJFit	3.75	.82	-.55	.59**	(*.87*)								
3. PJFitSC	3.46	.68	-.04	.47**	.56**	(*.71*)							
4. PGFit	3.52	.98	-.81	.61**	.41**	.28**	(*.94*)						
5. POS	4.43	1.36	-.40	.67**	.51**	.40**	.61**	(*.95*)					
6. LMX	3.09	.56	-.42	.43**	.38**	.28**	.53**	.60**	(*.77*)				
7. RCAppr	5.04	1.13	-.62	.42**	.19*	.13	.34**	.50**	.41**	(*.92*)			
8. RCMgtSup	5.11	1.24	-.62	.42**	.21*	.23*	.34**	.56**		.41**	(*.89*)		
9. RCChgEffic	5.55	.91	-.74	.11	-.05	.12	.13	.08	.19*	.48**	.18*	(*.80*)	
10. RCPersBene	4.30	1.60	-.14	.07	.03	-.09	.07	.08	.13	.27**	.02	.14	(*.84*)
11. RTCRoutine	2.50	.68	.26	-.07	.01	-.14	.02	-.06	-.10	-.15	-.09	-.29**	-.03
12. RTCEmotion	2.91	.89	.02	-.11	-.07	-.24*	-.16	-.09	-.15	-.15	-.10	-.30**	-.05
13. RTCShtTrm	2.41	.64	-.03	-.13	-.07	-.18*	-.11	-.09	-.14	-.05	-.14	-.32**	.06
14. RTCCogRig	3.58	.66	.31	-.05	.05	.16*	.02	-.03	-.06	-.01	.01	.00	.03
15. JobSatisf	3.53	.80	-.62	.62**	.68**	.60**	.38**	.60**	.48**	.38**	.41**	.18*	.10
16. AffCommit	4.73	1.36	-.36	.65**	.48**	.42**	.50**	.72**	.52**	.47**	.55**	.21*	.02
17. Age				.06	.05	.21**	-.07	-.06	-.04	-.15	-.03	-.15	-.10
18. Tenure				-.06	.04	.14	-.14	-.04	-.08	-.20*	-.00	-.18*	-.21*
19. Sample				-.11	.04	.00	-17*	-.21**	-.20**	-.36**	-.05	-.36**	-.66**

Note: n = 169; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 2: Continued

Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. POFit									
2. PJFit									
3. PJFitSC									
4. PG									
5. POS									
6. LMX									
7. RCAppr									
8. RCMgtSup									
9. RCChgEffic									
10. RCPersBene									
11. RTCRoutine	(*.70*)								
12. RTCEmotion	.46**	(*.82*)							
13. RTCShtTrm	.58**	.62**	(*.73*)						
14. RTCCogRig	.22**	-.03	.22**	(*.57*)					
15. JobSatisf	-.10	-.17*	-.13	.09	(*.88*)				
16. AffCommit	-.15	-.15	-.23**	-.10	.59**	(*.90*)			
17. Age	.07	-.01	-.03	.05	.10	.07			
18. Tenure	.10	.23**	.11	.02	-.03	.04	.50**		
19. Sample	-.06	-.07	-.11	-.44*	-.07	-.07	.29**	.40**	

Note: n = 169; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 3: Summary of EFA Results Using Principal Components Analysis.

Factor	Eigenvalues	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.585	28.654	28.654
2	2.314	14.465	43.119
3	2.054	12.836	55.955
4	1.816	11.350	67.305

Table 4: Rotated Factor Matrix.

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
POFit	.838			
PJFit	.726			
PJFitSC	.558			
PGFit	.704			
POS	.871			
LMX	.675			
RCMgtSup	.599			
JobSatisf	.786			
AffCommit	.830			
RTCRoutine		.765		
RTCEmotion		.799		
RTCShrtTrm		.866		
RCAppr			.701	
RCChgEffic			.676	
RCPersBene			.617	
RTCCogRig				.834

Note: *n* = 169; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment.

Table 5: Effects of Leader-Member Exchange on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Appropriateness of Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.415	.074	.417**	31.368**	.174	.174**
Model 2	POFit	.290	.079	.292**			
	LMX	.290	.080	.287**	23.469**	.241	.067**
Interaction	POFit	.273	.081	.274**			
	LMX	.310	.082	.307**			
	POFit*LMX	.084	.073	.085	16.126**	.248	.007
Model 1	PJFit	.203	.083	.196*	6.010*	.039	.039*
Model 2	PJFit	.056	.083	.054			
	LMX	.395	.081	.389**	15.253**	.170	.131**
Interaction	PJFit	.058	.083	.054			
	LMX	.404	.083	.398**			
	PJFit*LMX	.050	.075	.051	10.281**	.172	.003
Model1	PJFitSC	.143	.087	.134	2.739	.018	.018
Model2	PJFitSC	.028	.083	.026			
	LMX	.408	.079	.402**	15.046**	.168	.150**
Interaction	PJFitSC	.026	.083	.025			
	LMX	.421	.081	.415**			
	PJFitSC*LMX	.054	.076	.055	10.167**	.171	.003

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perception of appropriateness of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 5: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.335	.076	.338**	19.216**	.114	.114**
Model2	PGFit	.166	.086	.168			
	LMX	.330	.087	.328**	17.644**	.193	.078**
Interaction	PGFit	.172	.087	.174*			
	LMX	.339	.089	.336**			
	PGFit*LMX	.038	.078	.038	11.184**	.194	.001

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perception of appropriateness of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 6: Effects of Leader-Member Exchange on Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Managerial Support for Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.421	.074	.422**	31.977**	.178	.178**
Model 2	POFit	.312	.080	.312**			
	LMX	.257	.081	.253**	21.933**	.230	.052**
Interaction	POFit	.323	.082	.323**			
	LMX	.245	.083	.241**			
	POFit*LMX	-.053	.074	-.053	14.293**	.232	.003
Model 1	PJFit	.212	.082	.206**	6.621**	.043	.043**
Model 2	PJFit	.078	.083	.076			
	LMX	.366	.082	.361**	13.643**	.156	.113**
Interaction	PJFit	.074	.083	.072			
	LMX	.350	.083	.345**			
	PJFit*LMX	-.091	.075	-.093	9.618**	.164	.008
Model1	PJFitSC	.249	.085	.234**	8.959**	.055	.055**
Model2	PJFitSC	.151	.083	.142			
	LMX	.356	.079	.351**	15.090**	.169	.115**
Interaction	PJFitSC	.152	.083	.143			
	LMX	.347	.081	.342**			
	PJFitSC*LMX	-.038	.076	-.038	10.090**	.171	.001

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 6: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.341	.077	.344**	19.844**	.118	.118**
Model2	PGFit	.193	.087	.195*			
	LMX	.291	.089	.286**	15.921**	.178	.060**
Interaction	PGFit	.191	.088	.193*			
	LMX	.288	.091	.284**			
	PGFit*LMX	-.012	.079	-.012	10.018**	.178	.000

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 7: Effects of Leader-Member Exchange on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Self-Efficacy.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.106	.081	.107	1.705	.012	.012
Model 2	POFit	.022	.090	.023			
	LMX	.189	.091	.188*	3.012	.040	.028*
Interaction	POFit	.012	.091	.012			
	LMX	.201	.094	.200*			
	POFit*LMX	.052	.082	.053	2.133	.043	.003
Model 1	PJFit	-.048	.084	-.047	.327	.002	.002
Model 2	PJFit	-.141	.089	-.138			
	LMX	.248	.087	.246**	4.190*	.054	.052**
Interaction	PJFit	-.143	.089	-.139			
	LMX	.242	.089	.240**			
	PJFit*LMX	-.031	.080	-.032	2.828*	.055	.001
Model1	PJFitSC	.125	.088	.117	2.051	.014	.014
Model2	PJFitSC	.071	.090	.066			
	LMX	.177	.085	.175*	3.190*	.042	.028*
Interaction	PJFitSC	.071	.091	.067			
	LMX	.169	.088	.167			
	PJFitSC*LMX	-.035	.082	-.055	2.177	.043	.001

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 7: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.126	.081	.127	2.388	.016	.016
Model2	PGFit	.028	.096	.028			
	LMX	.184	.097	.184	3.023*	.040	.024
Interaction	PGFit	.042	.097	.042			
	LMX	.201	.099	.201*			
	PGFit*LMX	.079	.085	.080	2.297	.046	.006

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 8: Effects of Leader-Member Exchange on Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Perceived as Beneficial.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.070	.081	.070	.741	.005	.005
Model 2	POFit	.013	.090	.013			
	LMX	.133	.092	.131	1.424	.019	.014
Interaction	POFit	.005	.092	.005			
	LMX	.142	.094	.140			
	POFit*LMX	.042	.083	.042	1.028	.020	.002
Model 1	PJFit	.034	.084	.033	.161	.001	.001
Model 2	PJFit	-.019	.091	-.019			
	LMX	.142	.090	.138	1.337	.018	.016
Interaction	PJFit	-.015	.091	-.015			
	LMX	.157	.091	.153			
	PJFit*LMX	.085	.082	.085	1.249	.025	.007
Model1	PJFitSC	-.094	.088	-.087	1.153	.008	.008
Model2	PJFitSC	-.144	.091	-.133			
	LMX	.172	.086	.168*	2.606	.034	.026*
Interaction	PJFitSC	-.143	.091	-.132			
	LMX	.161	.088	.157			
	PJFitSC*LMX	-.045	.083	-.045	1.829	.036	.002

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 8: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.074	.082	.074	.819	.005	.005
Model2	PGFit	.001	.097	.001			
	LMX	.138	.098	.136	1.414	.019	.013
Interaction	PGFit	.009	.098	.009			
	LMX	.146	.099	.144			
	PGFit*LMX	.040	.087	.040	1.007	.020	.001

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange. *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 9: Effects of Organizational Support on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Appropriateness of Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.415	.074	.408**	29.607**	.167	.167**
Model 2	POFit	.110	.094	.111			
	POS	.429	.092	.442**	19.966**	.274	.107**
Interaction	POFit	.110	.094	.111			
	POS	.430	.092	.443**			
	POFit*POS	.035	.070	.036	13.373**	.275	.001
Model 1	PJFit	.224	.082	.217**	7.426**	.047	.047**
Model 2	PJFit	-.051	.084	-.049			
	POS	.514	.080	.528**	25.526**	.255	.208**
Interaction	PJFit	-.055	.087	-.053			
	POS	.514	.080	.528**			
	PJFit*POS	-.014	.071	-.014	12.592**	.255	.000
Model1	PJFitSC	.164	.086	.154	3.629	.024	.024
Model2	PJFitSC	-.054	.082	-.051			
	POS	.510	.075	.523**	25.576**	.256	.232**
Interaction	PJFitSC	-.071	.086	-.066			
	POS	.515	.075	.529**			
	PJFitSC*POS	-.047	.071	-.050	17.138**	.258	.002

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perception of appropriateness of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 9: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.320	.078	.321**	17.002**	.103	.107**
Model2	PGFit	.008	.089	.008			
	POS	.496	.087	.512**	26.762**	.267	.164**
Interaction	PGFit	.036	.095	.036			
	POS	.494	.087	.509**			
	PGFit*POS	.063	.076	.064	18.029**	.270	.003

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perception of appropriateness of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 10: Effects of Organizational Support on Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Managerial Support for Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.428	.075	.426	32.598**	.182	.182**
Model 2	POFit	.089	.093	.089			
	POS	.491	.091	.501**	34.105**	.318	.137**
Interaction	POFit	.089	.093	.089			
	POS	.492	.091	.502**			
	POFit*POS	.039	.068	.039	22.743**	.320	.002
Model 1	PJFit	.213	.083	.206**	6.533**	.042	.042**
Model 2	PJFit	-.106	.081	-.102			
	POS	.599	.077	.612**	34.907**	.322	.280**
Interaction	PJFit	-.117	.084	-.113			
	POS	.598	.076	.611**			
	PJFit*POS	-.039	.068	-.040	23.270**	.323	.001
Model1	PJFitSC	.251	.086	.233**	8.499**	.054	.054**
Model2	PJFitSC	.018	.080	.017			
	POS	.542	.073	.554**	33.712**	.314	.305**
Interaction	PJFitSC	-.016	.083	-.015			
	POS	.555	.073	.567**			
	PJFitSC*POS	-.100	.068	-.104	16.110**	.324	.010

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 10: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.355	.078	.353**	20.875**	.124	.124**
Model2	PGFit	.016	.087	.016			
	POS	.540	.085	.551**	33.454**	.314	.190**
Interaction	PGFit	.017	.094	.017			
	POS	.540	.085	.550**			
	PGFit*POS	.002	.075	.002	22.150**	.314	.000

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 11: Effects of Organizational Support on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Self-Efficacy.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.114	.081	.115	1.958	.013	.013
Model 2	POFit	.111	.112	.113			
	POS	.003	.110	.004	.973	.013	.000
Interaction	POFit	.108	.112	.109			
	POS	.012	.110	.013			
	POFit*POS	.107	.082	.108	1.225	.025	.012
Model 1	PJFit	-.059	.085	-.057	.473	.003	.003
Model 2	PJFit	-.135	.099	-.131			
	POS	.138	.093	.143	1.337	.018	.015
Interaction	PJFit	-.121	.102	-.118			
	POS	.141	.093	.146			
	PJFit*POS	.053	.082	.055	1.028	.021	.003
Model1	PJFitSC	.118	.088	.110	1.784	.012	.012
Model2	PJFitSC	.102	.097	.095			
	POS	.035	.087	.037	.969	.013	.001
Interaction	PJFitSC	.125	.101	.116			
	POS	.028	.088	.029			
	PJFitSC*POS	.068	.082	.071	.874	.018	.005

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 11: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.142	.082	.141	2.954	.020	.020
Model2	PGFit	.148	.105	.147			
	POS	-.009	.101	-.010	1.449	.020	.000
Interaction	PGFit	.222	.111	.221*			
	POS	-.015	.100	-.015			
	PGFit*POS	.171	.088	.174	2.192	.045	.025

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 12: Effects of Organizational Support on Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Perceived as Beneficial.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.069	.082	.068	.696	.005	.005
Model 2	POFit	.013	.111	.013			
	POS	.080	.109	.081	.618	.008	.004
Interaction	POFit	.014	.111	.014			
	POS	.085	.108	.086			
	POFit*POS	.114	.082	.114	1.063	.021	.013
Model 1	PJFit	.037	.085	.036	.192	.001	.001
Model 2	PJFit	-.008	.099	-.007			
	POS	.085	.094	.085	.504	.007	.005
Interaction	PJFit	.024	.101	.023			
	POS	.089	.093	.090			
	PJFit*POS	.117	.083	.120	1.004	.020	.013
Model1	PJFitSC	-.093	.089	-.085	1.095	.007	.007
Model2	PJFitSC	-.150	.096	-.138			
	POS	.134	.087	.135	1.736	.023	.016
Interaction	PJFitSC	-.156	.100	-.143			
	POS	.136	.088	.137			
	PJFitSC*POS	-.017	.083	-.017	1.164	.023	.000

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 12: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.073	.084	.071	.735	.005	.005
Model2	PGFit	.026	.105	.025			
	POS	.074	.101	.075	.641	.009	.004
Interaction	PGFit	.059	.113	.058			
	POS	.070	.101	.071			
	PGFit*POS	.074	.090	.075	.657	.013	.005

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support. *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 13a: Independent t-test Results for the Relationship Between Tenure Groups and Readiness for Change.

Variable	F	t
RCAppr	1.168	3.563**
RCMgtSup	1.025	-.988
RCChgEffic	1.044	2.682**
RCPersBene	.902	3.618**

Note: *n* = 164; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Perceptions of change as personally beneficial. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 13b: Independent t-test Results for the Relationship Between Sample Groups and Readiness for Change.

Variable	F	t
RCAppr	10.023	4.427**
RCMgtSup	.137	.578
RCChgEffic	10.858	4.297**
RCPersBene	1.601	11.147**

Note: *n* = 169; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Perceptions of change as personally beneficial. * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 14: Frequencies for Demographic Variables (Sample A).

Variable	Group	N	Freq.	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age		91			
	1. < 24 Years		1	1.1	1.1
	2. [25,30[		13	14.3	15.4
	3. [30,40[		30	33.0	48.4
	4. [40,50[		23	25.3	73.6
	5. [50,60[		20	22.9	95.6
	6. > 60 Years		4	4.4	100.0
Gender		90			
	Male		56	62.2	62.2
	Female		34	37.8	100.0
Tenure		92			
	1. < 1 Year		11	12.0	12.0
	2. [1,3[		20	21.7	33.7
	3. [3,5[		18	19.6	53.3
	4. [5,10[		21	22.8	76.1
	5. [10,15[		10	10.9	87.0
	6. > 15 Years		12	13.0	100.0

Table 14: Continued

Variable	Group	N	Freq.	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Managerial Position		94			
	1. No		65	69.1	30.9
	2. Yes		29	30.9	100.0
Department		94			
	1. Admin/HR/Legal		10	10.6	10.6
	2. Finance/Accounting		19	20.2	30.9
	3. IT		34	36.2	67.0
	4. Sourcing		16	17.0	84.0
	5. Logistics		12	12.8	96.8
	6. Marketing		1	1.1	97.9
	7. Other		2	2.1	100.0

Table 15: Frequencies for Demographic Variables (Sample B).

Variable	Group	N	Freq.	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Age		71			
	1. < 24 Years		1	1.4	1.4
	2. [25,30[		2	2.8	4.2
	3. [30,40[		11	15.5	19.7
	4. [40,50[		24	33.8	53.5
	5. [50,60[		25	35.2	88.7
	6. > 60 Years		8	11.3	100.0
Gender		74			
	Male		59	78.6	78.6
	Female		15	21.4	100.0
Tenure		72			
	1. < 1 Year		2	2.7	2.7
	2. [1,3[		3	4.0	6.7
	3. [3,5[		13	17.3	24.0
	4. [5,10[		14	18.7	50.7
	5. [10,15[		3	4.0	54.7
	6. > 15 Years		37	49.3	100.0

Table 15: Continued

Variable	Group	N	Freq.	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Managerial Position		72			
	1. No		36	50.0	50.0
	2. Yes		36	50.0	100.0
Department		71			
	1. Admin/HR/Legal		8	11.7	11.7
	2. Sales/Commercial		25	34.5	45.2
	3. Ingot		6	9.0	54.2
	4. Maintenance/Ops		19	26.4	80.6
	5. Finance/Account.		3	4.0	84.6
	6. Environmental		2	2.7	87.3
	7. IT/Engineering		6	9.0	96.3
	8. Procurement		2	2.7	100.0

Table 16: Means, Standard Deviations, Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations (Tenure < 10 Years).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. POFit	3.28	.90	*(.91)*									
2. PJFit	3.67	.91	.64**	*(.89)*								
3. PJFitSC	3.33	.63	.57**	.50**	*(.66)*							
4. PGFit	3.63	1.03	.53**	.35**	.19	*(.94)*						
5. POS	4.46	1.35	.63**	.54**	.37**	.62**	*(.95)*					
6. LMX	3.13	.66	.39**	.30*	.09	.61**	.62**	*(.82)*				
7. RCAppr	5.42	1.01	.30*	.24	.15	.16	.42**	.35**	*(.91)*			
8. RCMgtSup	5.02	1.27	.48*	.25	.18	.45**	.55**	.47**	.33**	*(.87)*		
9. RCChgEffic	5.79	.87	.05	-.19	-.09	.17	-.02	.16	.46**	.13	*(.80)*	
10. RCPersBene	4.83	1.46	.19	.14	-.04	.20	.19	.25*	.39**	.15	.31*	*(.81)*
11. RTCRoutine	2.51	.67	-.01	.12	-.14	.03	-.06	-.13	-.11	-.02	-.32*	-.02
12. RTCEmotion	2.72	.80	-.01	-.06	-.27*	-.03	-.04	-.14	-.14	-.07	-.36**	.06
13. RTCShrtTrm	2.44	.65	-.24	-.06	-.11	-.13	-.19	-.19	-.05	-.13	-.23	.06
14. RTCCogRig	3.73	.65	-.18	-.06	.01	-.09	-.23	-.18	.00	-.09	.05	.23
15. JobSatisf	3.51	.83	.70**	.82**	.60**	.39**	.64**	.46**	.41**	.44**	.04	.28*
16. AffCommit	4.65	1.32	.74**	.53**	.46**	.49**	.76**	.54**	.34**	.46**	.08	.08

Note: n = 102; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 16: Continued

Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. POFit						
2. PJFit						
3. PJFitSC						
4. PG						
5. POS						
6. LMX						
7. RCAppr						
8. RCMgtSup						
9. RCChgEffic						
10. RCPersBene						
11. RTCRoutine	(*.63*)					
12. RTCEmotion	.40**	(*.79*)				
13. RTCShrtTrm	.58**	.47**	(*.78*)			
14. RTCCogRig	.25*	.00	.32**	(*.53*)		
15. JobSatisf	-.09	-.23	-.20	-.16	(*.90*)	
16. AffCommit	-.06	-.07	-.29*	-.37**	.64**	(*.89*)

Note: *n* = 102; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 17: Means, Standard Deviations, Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations (Tenure > 10 Years).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. POFit	3.21	.72	(*.88)*									
2. PJFit	3.77	.67	.47**	(*.82)*								
3. PJFitSC	3.50	.62	.28*	.55**	(*.67)*							
4. PGFit	3.40	.95	.74**	.44**	.28*	(*.95)*						
5. POS	4.43	1.37	.70**	.41**	.32**	.67**	(*.95)*					
6. LMX	3.08	.54	.49**	.41**	.38**	.48**	.62**					
7. RCAppr	4.78	1.14	.54**	.10	.02	.52**	.64**	.56**	*(.93)*			
8. RCMgtSup	5.22	1.16	.28*	.07	.25*	.25**	.54**		.47**	(*.89)*		
9. RCChgEffic	5.39	.95	.26*	.05	.16	.15	.26*		.50**	.23**	(*.79)*	
10. RCPersBene	4.04	1.58	.18	-.04	-.22	.19		.28*	.43**	.15	-.22	*(.83)*
11. RTCRoutine	2.47	.67	-.03	-.05	-.13	.07	.03	-.00	-.07	-.03	-.26*	-.04
12. RTCEmotion	3.04	.90	-.00	-.02	-.29**	-.13	-.01	-.08	.03	-.02	-.25*	-.03
13. RTCShrtTrm	2.37	.63	.08	-.03	-.25*	-.01	.11	-.04	.07	-.03	-	.06
14. RTCCogRig	3.49	.64	.23*	.20	.12	.22*		.24*	.18	.22	.17	.29*
15. JobSatisf	3.53	.79	.59**	.64**	.53**	.54**	.63**	.52**	.36**	.44**	.22*	.09
16. AffCommit	4.79	1.38	.55**	.38**	.33**	.54**	.65**	.50**	.57**	.57**		.15

Note: *n* = 62; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 17: *Continued*

Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. POFit						
2. PJFit						
3. PJFitSC						
4. PG						
5. POS						
6. LMX						
7. RCAppr						
8. RCMgtSup						
9. RCChgEffic						
10. RCPersBene						
11. RTCRoutine	(*.73*)					
12. RTCEmotion	.44**	(*.81*)				
13. RTCShrtTrm	.53**	.70**	(*.71*)			
14. RTCCogRig	.20	.04	.17	(*.56*)		
15. JobSatisf	-.06	-.02	.03	.34**	(*.87*)	
16. AffCommit	-.18	-.16	-.14	.22*	.57**	(*.91*)

Note: $n = 62$; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 18: Means, Standard Deviations, Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations (Sample A).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. POFit	3.32	.76	*(.90)*									
2. PJFit	3.69	.84	.63**	*(.88)*								
3. PJFitSC	3.07	.66	.47**	.61**	*(.78)*							
4. PGFit	3.65	.88	.48**	.33**	.22*	*(.92)*						
5. POS	4.69	1.26	.63**	.51**	.40**	.57**	*(.95)*					
6. LMX	3.17	.55	.34**	.37**	.22**	.48**	.60**	*(.77)*				
7. RCAppr	5.36	.92	.35**	.29*	.13	.30**	.48**	.44**	*(.91)*			
8. RCMgtSup	5.16	1.22	.46**	.18	.11	.34**	.55**	.37**	.47**	*(.89)*		
9. RCChgEffic	5.81	.72	.09	.02	-.02	.24*	.06	.22*	.56**	.25**	*(.80)*	
10. RCPersBene	5.18	1.25	.08	.01	-.02	.11	.16	.25*	.54**	.16	.37**	*(.81)*
11. RTCRoutine	2.35	.69	-.02	.02	.02	.09	.00	-.10	-.13	-.00	-.29**	-.19
12. RTCEmotion	2.97	.91	-.11	-.15	-.09	-.19	-.13	-.20	-.18	-.05	-.31**	-.18
13. RTCShrtTrm	2.47	.67	-.24*	-.20	-.16	-.19	-.20	-.26*	-.19	-.22*	-.31**	-.09
14. RTCCogRig	3.58	.64	-.64	-.01	.15	.01	-.10	-.17	.06	-.06	.08	-.06
15. JobSatisf	3.56	.75	.64**	.70**	.65**	.32**	.56**	.44**	.47**	.41**	.20	.13
16. AffCommit	4.80	1.34	.62**	.52**	.42**	.45**	.74**	.50**	.50**	.54**	.21	.08

Note: n = 94; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 18: Continued

Variable	M	SD	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. POFit								
2. PJFit								
3. PJFitSC								
4. PG								
5. POS								
6. LMX								
7. RCAppr								
8. RCMgtSup								
9. RCChgEffic								
10. RCPersBene								
11. RTCRoutine			*(.65)*					
12. RTCEmotion			.40**	*(.82)*				
13. RTCShrtTrm			.52**	.58**	*(.78)*			
14. RTCCogRig			.20	.12	.32**	*(.50)*		
15. JobSatisf			-.05	-.12	-.18	.06	*(.88)*	
16. AffCommit			-.08	-.12	-.28**	-.16	.61**	*(.92)*

Note: *n* = 94; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 19: Means, Standard Deviations, Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities, and Intercorrelations (Sample B).

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. POFit	3.14	.89	*(.89)*									
2. PJFit	3.82	.79	.52**	*(.85)*								
3. PJFitSC	3.28	.77	.37**	.73**	*(.84)*							
4. PGFit	3.32	1.09	.78**	.52**	.32**	*(.97)*						
5. POS	4.12	1.43	.74**	.51**	.48**	.67**	*(.95)*					
6. LMX	2.96	.57	.56**	.38**	.41**	.59**	.60**	*(.74)*				
7. RCAppr	4.55	1.23	.52**	.04	.10	.40**	.54**	.37**	*(.92)*			
8. RCMgtSup	5.04	1.28	.36**	.27*	.27*	.35**	.57**	.40*	.31**	*(.89)*		
9. RCChgEffic	5.15	1.03	.13	-.16	.19	-.05	.10	.16	.35**	.08	*(.77)*	
10. RCPersBene	3.01	1.13	.05	.06	-.13	.03	-.05	-.04	-.11	-.19	-.19	*(.57)*
11. RTCRoutine	2.45	.66	-.11	.01	-.14	-.05	-.12	-.07	-.12	-.25	-.30*	.25
12. RTCEmotion	2.85	.87	-.11	.06	-.18	-.11	-.03	-.07	-.10	-.18	-.29*	.17
13. RTCShrtTrm	2.33	.59	.02	.11	-.20	.01	.04	.00	.14	-.02	-.35**	.27*
14. RTCCogRig	3.22	.57	.01	.17	.20	.02	.04	-.00	-.10	.15	-.15	.12
15. JobSatisf	3.46	.84	.64**	.76**	.68**	.54**	.69**	.54**	.22	.46**	.02	-.06
16. AffCommit	4.62	1.38	.69**	.40**	.48**	.58**	.69**	.53**	.42**	.56**	.21	-.07

Note: n = 75; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 19: Continued

Variable	M	SD	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. POFit								
2. PJFit								
3. PJFitSC								
4. PG								
5. POS								
6. LMX								
7. RCAppr								
8. RCMgtSup								
9. RCChgEffic								
10. RCPersBene								
11. RTCRoutine			(*.72*)					
12. RTCEmotion			.50**	(*.84*)				
13. RTCShrtTrm			.62**	.68**	(*.66*)			
14. RTCCogRig			.21	-.16	.07	(*.54*)		
15. JobSatisf			-.10	-.09	.02	.11	(*.90*)	
16. AffCommit			-.24	-.19	-.15	.01	.60**	(*.88*)

Note: *n* = 75; All alphas are in diagonal; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; RTCRoutine = Routine seeking behaviors in resistance to change; RTCEmotion = Negative emotional response to change; RTCShrtTrm = Short term thinking with regard to change; RTCCogRig = Cognitive rigidity in relation to change; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment; * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 20: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Person-Environment Fit, Tenure, and Sample as predictors of Readiness for Change (Appropriateness of Change)

Predictors	b	SEb	β	F Change	R^2	ΔR^2
Sample	-.801	.176	-.351**	20.722**	.124	.124**
Sample, Tenure	-.317	.188	-.138	2.849	.140	.017
Sample, Tenure, POFit	.448	.078	.401**	32.869**	.299	.159**
Sample, Tenure, PJFit	.168	.084	.150*	4.001*	.173	.023*
Sample, PGFit	.362	.082	.325**	19.372**	.226	.103**

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 21: Effect of Tenure on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Appropriateness of Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.483	.086	.386**	25.125**	.149	.149**
Model 2	POFit	.428	.083	.382**			
	Tenure	-.557	.171	-.241**	18.977**	.207	.058**
Interaction	POFit	.050	.179	.045			
	Tenure	-.576	.168	-.250**			
	POFit*Tenure	.071	.045	.379*	14.929**	.237	.030*
Model 1	PJFit	.185	.096	.157	3.743	.025	.025
Model 2	PJFit	.182	.093	.154			
	Tenure	-.588	.183	-.253*	7.154**	.089	.064**
Interaction	PJFit	.172	.233	.146			
	Tenure	-.588	.184	-.253*			
	PJFit*Tenure	.003	.062	.009	4.738**	.089	.000
Model1	PJFitSC	.029	.099	.024	.083	.001	.001
Model2	PJFitSC	.055	.096	.046			
	Tenure	-.602	.186	-.259**	5.282**	.067	.066**
Interaction	PJFitSC	.219	.223	.181*			
	Tenure	-.598	.186	-.257**			
	PJFitSC*Tenure	-.044	.054	-.150*	3.733*	.071	.004

Note: n = 164; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of appropriateness of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 21: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.343	.089	.305**	15.020**	.093	.093**
Model2	PGFit	.325	.087	.289**			
	Tenure	-.525	.178	-.228**	12.275**	.145	.052**
Interaction	PGFit	-.152	.204	-.135			
	Tenure	-.553	.175	-.239**			
	PGFit*Tenure	.130	.051	.466*	10.709**	.182	.038*

Note: *n* = 164; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of appropriateness of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 22: Effects of Tenure on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Managerial Support for Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.493	.092	.407**	28.734**	.165	.165**
Model 2	POFit	.494	.092	.407**			
	Tenure	.127	.190	.051	14.533**	.168	.003
Interaction	POFit	.626	.202	.516**			
	Tenure	.135	.191	.054			
	POFit*Tenure	-.038	.051	-.123	9.838**	.171	.003
Model 1	PJFit	.218	.102	.174*	4.541*	.030	.030*
Model 2	PJFit	.218	.103	.174*			
	Tenure	.119	.203	.048	2.433	.032	.002
Interaction	PJFit	.338	.257	.270			
	Tenure	.118	.204	.047			
	PJFit*Tenure	-.035	.068	-.104	1.700	.034	.002
Model1	PJFitSC	.288	.104	.224**	7.735**	.050	.050**
Model2	PJFitSC	.285	.104	.222**			
	Tenure	.065	.202	.026	3.895*	.051	.001
Interaction	PJFitSC	.028	.240	.022			
	Tenure	.056	.202	.023			
	PJFitSC*Tenure	.070	.059	.222	3.071*	.060	.009

Note: n = 164; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 22: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.397	.095	.328**	17.458**	.107	.107**
Model2	PGFit	.403	.095	.333**			
	Tenure	.174	.197	.070	9.108**	.112	.005
Interaction	PGFit	.646	.228	.533**			
	Tenure	.189	.197	.076			
	PGFit*Tenure	-.066	.057	-.220	6.544**	.121	.008

Note: *n* = 164; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit *= *p* <.05. **= *p* <.01.

Table 23: Effects of Tenure on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Self-Efficacy.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.088	.075	.098	1.374	.010	.010
Model 2	POFit	.085	.073	.094			
	Tenure	-.458	.153	-.243**	5.228**	.069	.059**
Interaction	POFit	.027	.161	.030			
	Tenure	-.461	.153	-.245**			
	POFit*Tenure	.017	.041	.073	3.520*	.070	.001
Model 1	PJFit	-.044	.079	-.047	.317	.002	.002
Model 2	PJFit	-.046	.077	-.048			
	Tenure	-.487	.153	-.257**	5.239**	.068	.066**
Interaction	PJFit	-.262	.191	-.276			
	Tenure	-.481	.153	-.254**			
	PJFit*Tenure	.063	.051	.249	4.014**	.078	.010
Model1	PJFitSC	.024	.081	.025	.090	.001	.001
Model2	PJFitSC	.050	.079	.051			
	Tenure	-.497	.154	-.262**	5.261**	.069	.068**
Interaction	PJFitSC	-.216	.180	-.221			
	Tenure	-.504	.153	-.266**			
	PJFitSC*Tenure	.073	.044	.303	4.449**	.086	.017

Note: n = 164; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit $^{*}= p <.05$. $^{**} = p <.01$.

Table 23: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.075	.076	.083	.988	.007	.007
Model2	PGFit	.061	.074	.067			
	Tenure	-.452	.153	-.240	4.868**	.064	.057**
Interaction	PGFit	.261	.176	.286			
	Tenure	-.441	.153	-.234			
	PGFit*Tenure	-.055	.044	-.241	3.777*	.074	.010

Note: *n* = 164; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 24: Effects of Tenure on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Perceived as Beneficial.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.091	.131	.057	.481	.003	.003
Model 2	POFit	.087	.128	.055			
	Tenure	-.807	.265	-.244**	4.900**	.063	.060**
Interaction	POFit	.302	.282	.190			
	Tenure	-.794	.265	-.240**			
	POFit*Tenure	-.061	.072	-.151	3.504**	.068	.005
Model 1	PJFit	.101	.137	.061	.545	.004	.004
Model 2	PJFit	.104	.133	.062			
	Tenure	-.854	.264	-.257**	5.504**	.070	.066**
Interaction	PJFit	.189	.335	.113			
	Tenure	-.856	.265	-.257**			
	PJFit*Tenure	-.025	.089	-.056	3.672**	.070	.000
Model1	PJFitSC	-.343	.139	-.199	6.126*	.040	.040*
Model2	PJFitSC	-.303	.135	-.176			
	Tenure	-.796	.262	-.239*	7.851**	.097	.057**
Interaction	PJFitSC	.116	.311	.067			
	Tenure	-.785	.261	-.236*			
	PJFitSC*Tenure	-.114	.076	-.270*	6.020**	.110	.014

Note: n = 164; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 24: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.093	.133	.057	.482	.003	.003
Model2	PGFit	.071	.130	.044			
	Tenure	-.801	.265	-.242**	4.807**	.062	.059**
Interaction	PGFit	.252	.310	.158			
	Tenure	-.789	.267	-.239**			
	PGFit*Tenure	-.050	.078	-.123	3.330*	.064	.003

Note: *n* = 164; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit *= *p* <.05. ** = *p* <.01.

Table 25: Effect of Sample on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Appropriateness of Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.491	.082	.440**	35.725**	.193	.193**
Model 2	POFit	.459	.078	.411**			
	Sample	-.689	.159	-.302**	29.345**	.284	.091**
Interaction	POFit	.114	.243	.102			
	Sample	-.687	.159	-.301**			
	POFit*Sample	.233	.156	.326	20.478**	.295	.011
Model 1	PJFit	.162	.089	.146	3.279	.021	.021
Model 2	PJFit	.184	.083	.166*			
	Sample	-.834	.172	-.364**	13.616**	.154	.132**
Interaction	PJFit	.443	.250	.400			
	Sample	-.828	.172	-.362**			
	PJFit*Sample	-.197	.179	-.248	9.492**	.160	.007
Model1	PJFitSC	.121	.092	.107	1.741	.011	.011
Model2	PJFitSC	.128	.086	.113			
	Sample	-.818	.173	-.357**	12.104**	.139	.128**
Interaction	PJFitSC	.146	.264	.129			
	Sample	-.817	.174	-.357**			
	PJFitSC*Sample	-.012	.174	-.017	8.018**	.139	.000

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of appropriateness of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 25: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.420	.084	.377**	24.700**	.142	.142**
Model2	PGFit	.370	.082	.333**			
	Sample	-.662	.167	-.291**	21.454**	.225	.083**
Interaction	PGFit	.174	.259	.156			
	Sample	-.661	.167	-.290**			
	PGFit*Sample	.131	.163	.186	14.482**	.228	.003

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 26: Effects of Sample on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Managerial Support for Change.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.520	.093	.418**	31.290**	.175	.175**
Model 2	POFit	.519	.094	.417**			
	Sample	-.033	.191	-.013	15.558**	.175	.000
Interaction	POFit	.804	.292	.646**			
	Sample	-.033	.191	-.013			
	POFit*Sample	-.193	.188	-.242	10.731**	.181	.006
Model 1	PJFit	.245	.098	.201*	6.299**	.041	.041*
Model 2	PJFit	.249	.098	.205*			
	Sample	-.148	.203	-.059	3.404*	.044	.003
Interaction	PJFit	.014	.294	.012			
	Sample	-.154	.204	-.061			
	PJFit*Sample	.179	.211	.205	2.504	.049	.005
Model1	PJFitSC	.188	.102	.150	3.412	.022	.022
Model2	PJFitSC	.189	.102	.151			
	Sample	-.126	.205	-.050	1.889	.025	.002
Interaction	PJFitSC	-.169	.310	-.135			
	Sample	-.135	.205	-.053			
	PJFitSC*Sample	.252	.206	.302	1.762	.035	.010

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit $^{*}= p <.05$. $^{**} = p <.01$.

Table 26: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.428	.095	.346**	20.143**	.120	.120**
Model2	PGFit	.428	.097	.347**			
	Sample	.007	.199	.003	10.004**	.120	.000
Interaction	PGFit	.527	.307	.426			
	Sample	.006	.199	.002			
	PGFit*Sample	-.066	.194	-.084	6.668**	.120	.000

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit *= *p* <.05. **= *p* <.01.

Table 27: Effects of Sample on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Self-Efficacy.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.073	.073	.142	3.012	.020	.020
Model 2	POFit	.094	.069	.106			
	Sample	-.618	.144	-.335**	10.949**	.131	.111**
Interaction	POFit	.024	.218	.026			
	Sample	-.017	.144	-.335**			
	POFit*Sample	.048	.139	.084	7.294**	.132	.001
Model 1	PJFit	-.058	.073	-.065	.628	.004	.004
Model 2	PJFit	-.048	.069	-.054			
	Sample	-.659	.143	-.355	10.905**	.130	.126**
Interaction	PJFit	.211	.206	.237			
	Sample	-.659	.143	-.355			
	PJFit*Sample	-.198	.149	-.308	7.900**	.140	.011
Model1	PJFitSC	.078	.075	.086	1.087	.007	.007
Model2	PJFitSC	.075	.071	.082			
	Sample	-.661	.143	-.356**	11.274**	.134	.126**
Interaction	PJFitSC	-.215	.214	-.235			
	Sample	-.661	.143	-.356**			
	PJFitSC*Sample	.204	.142	-.335	8.255**	.146	.012

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit *= p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 27: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.120	.074	.133	2.626	.018	.018
Model2	PGFit	.074	.071	.082			
	Sample	-.616	.145	-.334**	10.523**	.127	.109**
Interaction	PGFit	.412	.221	.456			
	Sample	-.620	.144	-.336**			
	PGFit*Sample	-.227	.141	-.395**	7.955**	.142	.015

Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of efficacy in relation to change; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 28: Effects of Sample on the Relationship between Person-Environment Fit and Change Perceived as Beneficial.

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	POFit	.185	.128	.197	2.079	.014	.014
Model 2	POFit	.087	.098	.055			
	Sample	-2.121	.199	-.656**	58.472**	.440	.426**
Interaction	POFit	.181	.307	.114			
	Sample	-2.121	.200	-.656**			
	POFit*Sample	-.063	.196	-.063	38.782**	.440	.000
Model 1	PJFit	-.014	.128	-.009	.012	.000	.000
Model 2	PJFit	.025	.096	.016			
	Sample	-2.167	.199	-.666**	59.512**	.442	.442**
Interaction	PJFit	-.073	.288	-.046			
	Sample	-2.167	.199	-.666**			
	PJFit*Sample	-.074	.205	-.066	39.488**	.443	.001
Model1	PJFitSC	-.083	.131	-.052	.404	.003	.003
Model2	PJFitSC	-.085	.098	-.052			
	Sample	-2.165	.198	-.665**	60.114**	.445	.442**
Interaction	PJFitSC	.061	.301	.038			
	Sample	-2.164	.199	-.665**			
	PJFitSC*Sample	-.102	.199	-.096	39.966**	.446	.001

Note: n = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit * = p <.05. ** = p <.01.

Table 28: Continued

		b	SEb	β	F	R^2	ΔR^2
Model1	PGFit	.247	.129	.154	3.638	.024	.024
Model2	PGFit	.093	.099	.058			
	Sample	-2.110	.200	-.652	58.543**	.440	.416**
Interaction	PGFit	.269	.314	.168			
	Sample	-2.110	.201	-.653			
	PGFit*Sample	-.118	.199	-.116	38.975**	.441	.001

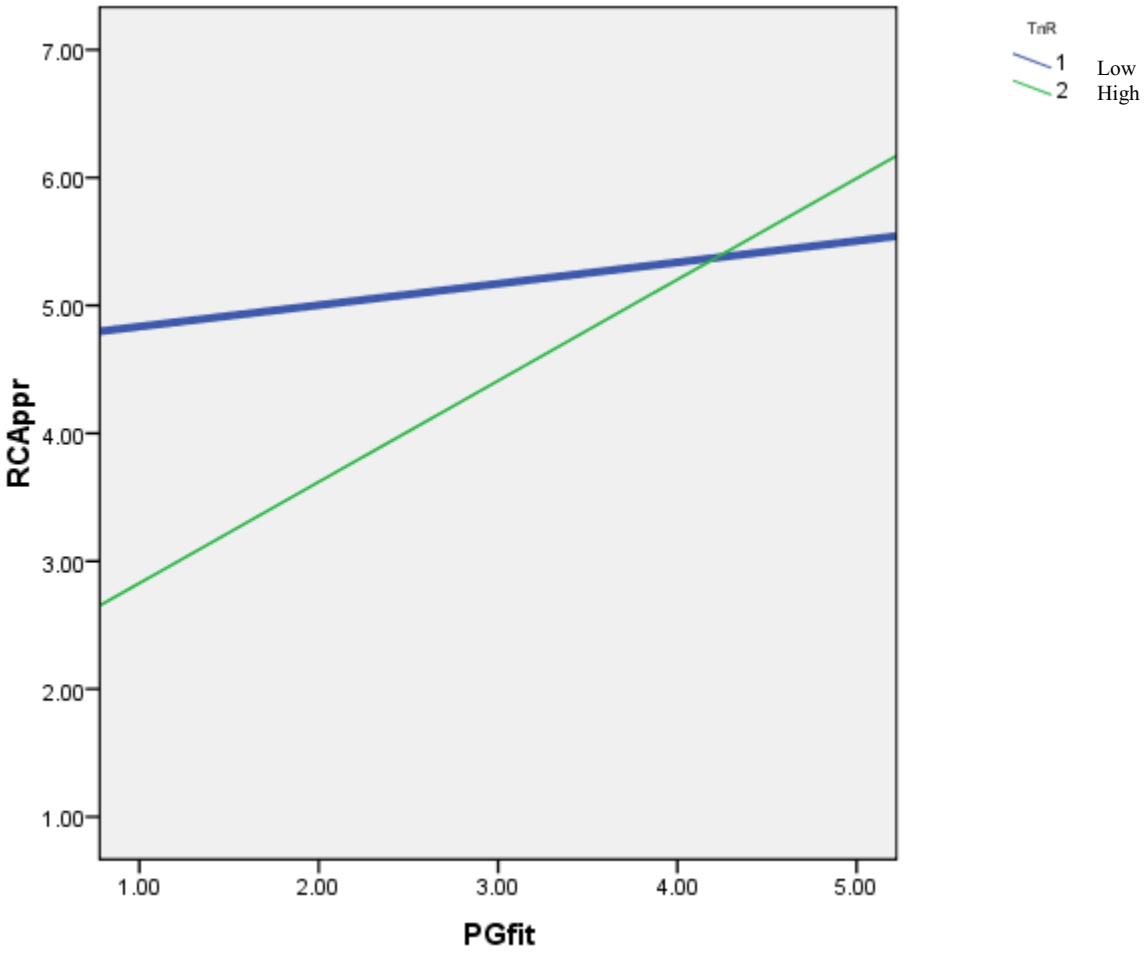
Note: *n* = 169; Dependent Variable: Perceptions of change as personally beneficial; POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit *= *p* <.05. ** = *p* <.01.

Table 29: Intervals of Intercorrelations between Variables in the Study – Summary of Extant Literature.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. POFit	*1.00*											
2. PJFit	[.18;.49]	*1.00*										
3. PJFitSC	.36	[.19;.52]	*1.00*									
4. PGFit		.60		*1.00*								
5. POS	.53	[.34;.40]			*1.00*							
6. LMX	.12				[.24;.62]	*1.00*						
7. RCAppr					.38		*1.00*					
8. RCMgtSup					.34			*1.00*				
9. RCChgEffic					.48				*1.00*			
10. RCPersBene					.43					*1.00*		
11. JobSatisf	[.47;60]	[.33;.67]	.51		[.33;.69]	.29	[.33;.57]			.24	*1.00*	
12. AffCommit	[.29;.67]	[.39;.52]	.56	.37	[.39;.67]						[.51;.59]	*1.00*

Note: POFit = Person-organization fit; PJFit = Person-Job Fit; PJFitSC = Self-Concept Job Fit; PGFit = Person-Group Fit; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; LMX = Leader-Member Exchange; RCAppr = Change perceived as appropriate to the organization; RCMgtSup = Supervisor perceived as supportive of change; RCChgEffic = Perceptions of efficacy regarding change; RCPersBene = Change perceived as personally beneficial; JobSatisf = Job satisfaction; AffCommit = Affective Commitment. All correlations are significant at $p < .05$.

Figure 1: *Effect of the Interaction between Person-Group Fit and Tenure on Appropriateness of Change.*



VITA

Joana R.C. Pimentel has received her degree in Social and Organizational Psychology from Instituto Superior the Psicologia Aplicada (ISPA) in 2002. She has since then been affiliated to several companies as a Human Resources and Organizational Development Consultant. Joana's Doctor of Philosophy degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology from The University of Tennessee was conferred in December of 2008. In addition to her consulting work, she has been actively involved in research in the areas of innovation, leadership, multiple intelligences, change management, and business ethics. Joana's work has been published in a number of peer reviewed journals and edited books, and she has authored several professional presentations for international conferences. She is continuing her consulting career and research projects in the UK.