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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Shawn Michael Bergman entitled “Person-Organization Fit Perceptions and the Job Choice Process: The Impact of Supplementary and Complementary Fit on Attitudes, Intentions, and Job Search Behaviors.” I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Industrial and Organizational Psychology.

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PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT PERCEPTIONS AND THE JOB CHOICE PROCESS:
THE IMPACT OF SUPPLEMENTARY AND COMPLEMENTARY FIT ON
ATTITUDES, INTENTIONS, AND JOB SEARCH BEHAVIORS

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ABSTRACT

Although there has been a growing interest in studying the effects that Person-Organization fit perceptions have on the job choice process, at least two gaps exist in this literature. First, despite evidence suggesting that both the supplementary and complementary fit traditions should be used together, previous research efforts have focused almost exclusively on supplementary fit. Second, research in the job choice domain has focused mainly on global assessments of Person-Organization fit and has not examined if the different characteristics individuals consider when evaluating their fit with an organization impacts the job choice process. The current study helps to fill these voids by examining how both the conceptualization of fit (supplementary vs. complementary) and the characteristics on which fit perceptions are based (content dimensions) impact the relationship between perceived Person-Organization fit and organizational attraction, intentions to join the organization, and engagement in job search behaviors. Results show that both perceptions of supplementary fit (value congruence) and complementary fit (psychological need fulfillment) significantly contributed to the prediction of job choice outcomes. Results also provided weak support for the notion that the fit-outcome relationship was dependent upon the content of the dimension on which fit was assessed. Together, these results suggest that the current view of how perceptions of Person-Organization fit impact the job choice process is incomplete.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Organizations are increasingly recognizing that in the current economic and work environment their success, in large part, is contingent on the quality of their employees (Breaugh & Starke, 2000). However, recruiting qualified applicants may become more difficult over the next 15 years as demographic and economic factors create a “war for talent” (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001). Thus, organizations that understand their applicant pool and adjust their recruiting practices to successfully attract the best candidates increase their odds of winning the recruiting war and remaining successful, viable organizations (Barber, 1998; Breaugh & Starke, 2000; Martinez, 2000). One way to accomplish this objective is for organizational recruiters to enhance their understanding of the factors that impact the job choice process. Developing a better understanding of these factors will provide recruiters with information that will allow them to create recruiting messages and strategies that resonate with job seekers and influence applicants’ job choice decisions.

One concept that has been shown to be a critical determinant of job seekers’ attitudes, intentions, and behavior is the “fit” that exists between individuals and the potential employing organization (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990; Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991). That is, job seekers are more likely to consider joining an organization and accept a job offer if they believe the organization is a good “fit” for them, rather than simply choosing a job that would allow them to maximize benefits, as suggested by many economic theories (Popovich & Wanous, 1982). However, despite the acknowledgement that “fit” plays an important role in job choice decisions,

organizational recruiters, consultants, and job seekers often struggle to explain what exactly is meant by the term “fit” (Bretz, Ash, & Dreher, 1989; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). The current study addresses this ambiguity by applying the Person-Organization (P-O) fit paradigm to define and articulate this elusive concept.

The P-O fit paradigm is grounded in interactionist theory (e.g., Lewin, 1951) and maintains that attitudes and behaviors are a consequence of the interplay between attributes of the person (P) and characteristics of the organization (O; Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Pervin, 1989; Schneider, 1987). Person characteristics may include individuals’ physiological and psychological needs, values, goals, abilities, or personality. Organizational characteristics may refer to intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, physical or psychological demands, cultural values, or environmental conditions. P-O fit is generally defined as the compatibility or match between individuals and broader organizational attributes (Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof, 1996; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). The P-O fit paradigm offers two distinct conceptualizations that describe *how* job seekers evaluate their “fit” with an organization.

The first conceptualization is based on the notion of supplementary fit, which exists when a person and an organization possess similar or matching characteristics (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). In the P-O fit paradigm, supplementary fit is most typically represented by research examining value congruence between individuals and organizations (e.g., Chatman, 1991; Van Vianen, 2000). That is, job seekers perceive good “fit” with an organization if they believe their values are similar to those held by the organization. For example, a high degree of supplementary fit would be said to exist

when a job seeker and an organization both consider the ideas of autonomy, achievement, and job security important (Kristof, 1996).

The second conceptualization is based on the idea of complementary fit, which focuses on the mutually offsetting pattern of relevant characteristics between the person and an organization (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). In the P-O fit domain, complementary fit is exemplified by research on psychological need fulfillment (Edwards, 1991). This conceptualization of complementary fit is referred to as needs-supplies (N-S) fit, which examines how people's attitudes, intentions, and behaviors are affected by the fit between their needs and the supplies available in the work environment to meet those needs. In this context, job seekers would perceive that an organization is a good "fit" for them if they believe the organization can provide them with those things that they need. For example, complementary N-S fit would occur in a situation where an organization offered the amount of autonomy that is needed by a potential employee.

Value congruence and psychological need fulfillment thus offer two different descriptions of *how* job seekers evaluate their "fit" with an organization. These two conceptualizations also offer different theoretical explanations for *why* perceived "fit" with an organization impacts the job choice process. For instance, social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), which centers on the role that one's identity plays in behavior and decision-making, explains the mechanism by which supplementary fit affects job choice variables. Social identity theory suggests that job seekers will be more likely to join an organization that possesses characteristics similar to their own because joining an organization with congruent values reinforces their self-identity. In contrast, complementary N-S fit is rooted in the rich tradition of psychological need fulfillment

theories that center on peoples' natural inclination to seek out environments and situations that will assist them in fulfilling their psychological needs (e.g., French & Kahn, 1962; Harrison, 1985; Murray, 1938; Porter, 1961; Wanous & Lawler, 1972). These need fulfillment theories suggest that people will be attracted to and more likely to join an organization that they believe will provide them with the things they desire.

Despite recommendations by researchers and empirical evidence suggesting that both supplementary and complementary fit should be used together to best understand how P-O fit impacts individual-level outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005), previous research efforts have focused almost exclusively on how supplementary fit impacts job choice variables (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Dineen, Ash, & Noe, 2002; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) with results indicating that supplementary P-O fit has a positive impact on the job choice process. However, no published research has examined the impact that complementary N-S fit has on the job choice process. As a result, there is an incomplete understanding of how perceptions of "fit" with an organization impact job seekers' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors, as "fit" is currently viewed solely as similarity. Since researchers suggest that the "fit" between a job seeker and an organization will be maximized when both the person and an organization share similar values *and* an individual's needs are filled by the organizational (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), organizational recruiters could be neglecting a critical component of *how* job seekers evaluate potential employers and choose which organizations to join.

In addition to offering two conceptualizations that describe *how* job seekers evaluate their “fit” with a potential employer, the P-O fit paradigm also offers a framework to help describe *what* characteristics job seekers use to evaluate their “fit” with an organization. These characteristics are known as content dimensions and represent the various attributes that job seekers consider when comparing themselves with an organization (see Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Van Vianen, 2000). Content dimensions used to operationalize P-O fit include needs, preferences, values, personality traits, goals, attitudes, social norms, and organizational culture (Kristof, 1996). Content dimensions direct people’s attention to certain aspects of an organization and allow job seekers to compare the degree to which certain organizational characteristics “fit” with their personal attributes. For instance, when job seekers perceive similarity between the degree to which an organization values achievement or job security and their own values, the attributes of achievement and job security that are used to operationalize supplementary fit are considered content dimensions.

Although researchers have acknowledged that the content of the dimensions individuals use when evaluating their “fit” with an organization affects the degree to which individuals believe they are a good match with that organization (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Cable & Judge, 1994; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Van Vianen, 2000), research in the job choice domain focuses mainly on global assessments of P-O fit. These lines of research have ignored the moderating impact that content dimensions may have on the relationship between P-O fit and job choice variables (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Dineen et al., 2002; Saks & Ashforth, 1997, 2002). While these

findings suggest that the overall “fit” between job seekers and organizations positively impacts the job choice process, no published research has investigated the effects that supplementary and complementary N-S fit have on job choice variables across the same content dimensions. As a result, it is unknown if focusing on different organizational attributes leads job seekers to reach different conclusions about how well they “fit” with an organization, or if certain organizational characteristics have their strongest impact on the job choice process when operationalized as supplementary versus complementary N-S fit. Thus, recruiters could be missing essential information about *what* characteristics job seekers use to evaluate potential employers and *how* those characteristics impact their attitudes, intentions, and behaviors.

The current study helped to fill these voids by first using value congruence and psychological need fulfillment as dominant prototypes of supplementary and complementary N-S fit and examining the unique and combined effects that these two conceptualizations of P-O fit have on job choice variables. Next, this study helped to address gaps in the literature by exploring how different content dimensions moderate the relationship between supplementary and complementary N-S fit and job choice variables.

The results from the current study provide additional information about how job seekers’ perceptions of “fit” affect the job choice process. Specifically, these results provide insight into the comparisons that job seekers make between themselves and a potential employer and how those comparisons influence job choice attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. Developing a better understanding of these comparisons may provide organizational recruiters with information that will allow for the creation of recruiting messages and strategies intended to appeal to applicants by making salient those

attributes that are consistent with how applicants perceive their “fit” with a potential employing organization. These insights may also supply organizational recruiters and consultants with information to help develop more effective recruiting campaigns and position these companies to win the “war for talent.”

The follow chapters present the study. First, an overview of the job choice process will be briefly summarized. Second, the relevant P-O fit research literature will be reviewed and a more comprehensive overview of the P-O fit paradigm will be presented. Third, the study’s research model will be presented along with the study’s hypotheses. Next, the study’s methodology and analytic strategy will be introduced. Finally, the study’s results will be presented and discussed.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Given the importance of recruiting and retaining high quality employees in the current economic and work environment (Barber, 1998; Breaugh & Starke, 2000; Martinez, 2000), research has focused on developing a better understanding of the factors that significantly impact the job choice process to help inform organizational recruiters where and how they can impact the job choice process. To help address these issues, the following sections will briefly summarize the literature pertaining to job choice, present a comprehensive overview of the P-O fit paradigm, and review the relevant literature that has used the P-O fit paradigm to examine job choice variables. After the applicable research has been reviewed, the study's research model will be presented, along with its hypotheses.

Summary of the Job Choice Literature

The increased importance and focus on organizational recruiting has led researchers to begin investigating and identifying antecedents of applicant job choice in an effort to better understand how and why individuals choose to join an organization. The vast majority of these research initiatives have concentrated on the concepts of organizational attraction and intentions to accept a job as key determinants of individual job choice (e.g., Aiman-Smith, Bauer, & Cable, 2001; Highhouse, Lievens, & Sinar, 2003; Judge & Cable, 1997; Lievens, Decaesteker, Coetsier, & Geinaert, 2001; Ralston, 1993; Turban, Forret, & Hendrickson, 1998). These attitudes and intentions have been targeted as important antecedents of individual job choice largely based on behavioral prediction models, such as the theories of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977;

Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980) and planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991, 2001), which suggest that attitudes toward and intentions to join an organization are among the best predictors of whether an individual will choose to join that organization.

A meta-analysis by Chapman and colleagues (2005) summarized the impact that attitudes and intentions have on the job choice process. Their findings demonstrated that organizational attraction and intentions to accept a job offer significantly predicted whether an individual chose to join an organization. Specifically, their meta-analysis revealed that job seekers' attitudes and intentions mediated the relationship between various predictor variables (e.g., organizational and job characteristics, perceptions of the recruiting process, perceived fit, and hiring expectations) and job choice decisions. These results provided strong empirical support for the contention that attitudes and intentions (e.g., organizational attraction and acceptance intentions) are important determinants of job seekers' decisions to join an organization.

Other research initiatives have focused on the construct of job search behaviors as antecedents of job choice (e.g., Barber, Daly, Giannantonio, & Philips, 1994; Lee & Mitchell, 1994; Schwab, Rynes, & Aldag, 1987; Wanberg, Watt, & Rumsey, 1996). Job search behaviors are activities that focus on gathering information about potential employers and generating alternatives. Models of job search suggest that these behaviors are a critical part of the job choice process because job seekers must first invest time, effort, and energy into gathering information about the organizations they are interested in joining before making job choice decisions (Barber et al., 1994; Blau, 1993, 1994; Bretz, Boudreau, & Judge, 1994; Schwab et al., 1987; Soelberg, 1967). Therefore, job

search behaviors are an integral part of the job choice process and are considered to be a prerequisite of job choice decisions.

Given the impact that attitudes, intentions, and job search behaviors have on applicants' job choice decisions, researchers have begun to examine the major antecedents of these constructs. Developing a better understanding of these job choice antecedents will help organizations win the recruiting "war for talent" (Michaels et al., 2001) by providing recruiters with information that will allow them to create recruiting messages and strategies that resonate with job seekers and potentially influence applicants' job choices.

One concept that has been shown to have a strong influence on the job choice process is the "fit" that is perceived between job seekers and potential employing organizations (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990; Rynes et al., 1991; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). That is, beyond the objective, verifiable organizational characteristics that individuals evaluate when applying for a position with a company (e.g., benefits, job location, work responsibilities), job seekers are more likely to consider joining an organization and accept a job offer if they believe the organization is a good "fit" for them. Anecdotal evidence supporting the importance of "fit" between a job seeker and an organization has been bolstered by qualitative and quantitative research demonstrating that "fit" plays a significant role in job choice and is often considered a necessary precursor to job seekers' attitudes toward an organization as an employer, intentions to join an organization, and ultimate acceptance of a position within a company (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994, 1996; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990; Rynes, Bretz et al., 1991; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). In fact, the results of Chapman and colleagues' (2005) meta-analysis

showed that perceptions of fit “proved to be one of the strongest predictors of the attitudinal applicant attraction outcomes” (p. 938).

While previous studies have helped to establish the important role that “fit” has on the job choice process, researchers, consultants, and job seekers are often unable to articulate precisely what is meant by the term “fit” (e.g., Bretz et al., 1989; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). Researchers have proposed that the person-organization (P-O) fit paradigm can help to better articulate, define, and understand what is meant by the term “fit” (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994, 1996; Chatman, 1989, 1991; Kristof, 1996).

Specifically, applying the P-O fit paradigm to the job choice process can help to examine the comparisons that individuals use to evaluate their “fit” with a potential employer and determine how those “fit” perceptions impact the job choice process.

P-O Fit and Job Choice

P-O fit is broadly defined as the compatibility between people and organizations (Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Kristof, 1996; Pervin, 1989; Schneider, 1987). Coming out of interactionist theory (e.g., Lewin, 1951), the P-O fit paradigm assumes that attitudes and behaviors are consequences of the interplay between personal (P) and organizational (O) characteristics (Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Pervin, 1989; Schneider, 1987). Personal characteristics may include individuals’ biological or psychological needs, values, goals, or personality, while organizational characteristics may include intrinsic or extrinsic rewards, physical or psychological demands, or an organization’s cultural values. In the recruiting literature, P-O fit is generally conceptualized as the compatibility between a job seeker and broader organizational attributes (Judge & Ferris, 1992; Rynes & Gerhart, 1990). The P-O fit paradigm describes two mechanisms that job seekers use to determine

their compatibility with potential employing organizations: supplementary and complementary fit. These two conceptualizations illustrate the cognitive comparisons in which individuals engage when evaluating a potential employer and describe *how* job seekers determine their “fit” with an organization. These conceptualizations are collectively referred to as the conceptual dimensions of P-O fit, and offer distinct explanations as to why “fit” perceptions impact the job choice process.

Supplementary fit. The first conceptualization, known as supplementary fit, is said to occur when a person “supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals” in an environment (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 269). According to this conceptualization of P-O fit, good “fit” between individuals and an organization occurs when job seekers believe that an organization has values, goals, and a culture that are consistent or similar to their own values, goals, and personality.

Research on supplementary fit typically examines value congruence within the P-O fit paradigm (Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). Examining the congruence between individual and organizational values is thought to be the most appropriate way of assessing supplementary fit due to the strong conceptual similarities between personal and organizational values (Chatman, 1989, 1991). That is, values: (a) are beliefs that transcend specific situations, (b) pertain to desirable end states or behaviors, (c) guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (d) vary in terms of relative strength (Schwartz, 1992, 1994). Individual values are thought to be the primary driver of human decisions and behavior and are relatively stable entities throughout an individual’s lifetime (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). Similarly,

organizational value systems are viewed as stable, fundamental elements of most organizations that define organizational culture, provide social norms for its employees, and play a critical role in determining the organization's structure, decisions, policies, and allocation of organizational rewards (e.g., Barley, Meyer, & Gash, 1988; Boxx, Odom & Dunn, 1991; Schein, 1992). Together these similarities provide support for the contention that value-based measures in P-O fit research is the most appropriate way to assess the interaction between a person and an organization. That is, because values are relatively enduring fundamental determinants of attitudes and behavior for both individuals and organizations, they provide a commensurate system of measurement to assess perceptions of P-O fit (Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Van Vianen, 2000).

While value congruence most typifies the supplementary fit tradition, social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), which focuses on the role of identity in the workplace, explains why supplementary fit (i.e., value congruence) affects job seekers' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. According to social identity theory, individual self-concept is comprised of a personal identity that includes idiosyncratic characteristics (e.g., specific knowledge, skills, abilities, values, and other attributes) and a social identity defined by the groups of which an individual is a member (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). This theory posits that people classify themselves into social categories on the basis of this group membership, such as the organizations in which they work, in order to help answer the question "Who am I?" (Stryker & Serpe, 1982; Turner, 1982). That is, individuals identify with the organizations to which they belong to help create a self-concept and establish their own unique identity within society (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

Although job seekers undoubtedly seek financial returns for their investments of time and talent, joining a particular organization is also a concrete, public expression of who an individual is and what values an individual holds (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Popovich & Wanous, 1982). Thus, the values of an organization to which an individual belongs send a signal to society about a person's self and has implications for self-definition (Dutton & Dukerich, 1991; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). From a social identity perspective, value congruence transcends a particular job in the organization by referring to employees' relationships with the organization as a whole. Thus, social identity theory posits that job seekers are more likely to consider joining an organization that possesses similar or matching characteristics (i.e., congruent values) because belonging to such an organization will reinforce their self-concept and help align individuals' social identity with their personal identity.

Complementary fit. The second conceptualization of P-O fit is known as complementary fit. In the complementary fit tradition "the basis for a good fit is the mutually offsetting pattern of relevant characteristics between the person and the environment" (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 272). Thus, complementary fit refers to occasions when organizational characteristics "make whole" or supply what an individual is missing, and vice-versa. Complementary fit in the P-O fit paradigm is typically exemplified by research on need fulfillment, which examines how people's attitudes, intentions, and behaviors are affected by the fit between their psychological needs and desires and what is supplied by the work environment (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards, 1991, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). This conceptualization of P-O fit is known as complementary needs-supplies (N-S) fit (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al.,

2005).

Complementary N-S fit is rooted in the rich need fulfillment literature, which states that environmental “pressures” facilitate or hinder people’s ability to meet their physical and psychological needs (e.g., French & Kahn, 1962; Harrison, 1978, 1985; Maslow, 1954; Murray, 1938; Porter, 1961, 1962; Wanous & Lawler, 1972). These theories focus on the discrepancy between the amount of an organizational resource or reward desired by an individual and the amount that is perceived to be supplied by the organization (Endler & Magnusson, 1976; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982). In this context, individual needs refer to those acquired through learning and socialization rather than innate biological needs, and include goals (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981), psychological needs (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), interests (Campbell & Hansen, 1981), and values (Locke, 1976). Organizational supplies refer to both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards and include financial, physical, and psychological resources, as well as task related, interpersonal, and growth opportunities that are sought by individuals.

Need fulfillment theories provide an explanation for why complementary N-S fit will impact the job choice process. These theories suggest that people will be attracted to and satisfied with environments that they believe meet their personal needs. Conversely, individuals will be dissatisfied, and consequently not attracted to organizations, when they believe the supplies provided by the environment will fall short of those needs (see Edwards, 1996; Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998; French et al., 1982; Harrison, 1978; Locke, 1976; Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985). From the psychological need fulfillment perspective, the perceived ability of an environment to meet a job seeker’s

needs goes beyond a particular job or position within an organization and extends to an organization's entire system and structure. Thus, using the complementary N-S fit conceptualization of P-O fit, job seekers determine how well they "fit" with an organization by comparing their psychological needs to what could be provided by a potential employing organization's environment.

Supplementary Fit, Complementary N-S Fit, and Job Choice

It should be obvious from the previous review of the P-O fit paradigm that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment represent two distinct conceptualizations of "fit," and that these conceptualizations offer different theoretical explanations for why the "fit" job seekers perceive with an organization affects their attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. Unfortunately, because the supplementary and complementary N-S fit traditions originated from relatively independent literatures, they have rarely been integrated within the P-O fit literature to predict and explain individual-level outcomes (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). That is, while previous research using P-O fit to examine job choice has generally found that greater perceived "fit" between a person and an organization are positively associated with organizational attraction and intentions to join, these research initiatives have not investigated the unique and combined effects that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment have on the job choice process.

For example, Rynes and colleagues (1990, 1991), whose studies helped reenergize interest in the concept of fit in the recruiting literature, used open-ended interviews with organizational recruiters and undergraduate job seekers to better understand the job search, job choice, and recruitment processes. Their interviews

revealed that perceptions of “fit” between a job seeker and an organization substantially impacted job choice decisions, such that job seekers were more likely to consider joining an organization if they believed the organization was a good “fit” or “match.” Their findings suggested that “fit” perceptions were often based on general organizational characteristics such as company reputation, attitudes toward the product or industry, and perceived training or advancement opportunities. These studies helped to firmly establish the role that general P-O fit perceptions play in the job choice process, but did not explore *how* job seekers evaluate their fit with a potential employer.

Subsequent empirical research further demonstrated the impact that P-O fit has on job seekers’ attitudes, intentions, and behaviors, but failed to investigate the independent and combined affects that supplementary and complementary N-S fit have on the job choice process. For instance, Judge and Bretz (1992) used a sample of professional degree students and a policy-capturing design to examine the influence of organizational work values on job choice. Their findings suggested that individuals were more likely to be attracted to organizations whose values were similar to their own. Likewise, Cable and Judge (1994) used an experimental policy-capturing design with college students and found that positive attitudes about the organization as an employer may be heightened by greater levels of fit between personality traits and organizational compensation system characteristics. Turban and colleagues (1993, 2001) also employed a policy-capturing design and found that the fit between college students’ personality characteristics (e.g., self-esteem and need for achievement) and various organizational characteristics (e.g., reward structure, centralization of authority, organization size, and geographical location) had a positive impact on individuals’ attitudes about the company as an employer. More

recently, Dineen and colleagues (2002) used undergraduate participants in an experimental Web-based design and found that supplementary P-O fit was positively related to organizational attraction.

The results from these laboratory experiments have been supported by three longitudinal studies and a meta-analysis. Cable and Judge (1996) conducted a longitudinal examination of undergraduate job seekers and found that congruence between individual and organizational values predicted both job choice intentions and post-entry job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Saks and Ashforth (1997, 2002) surveyed graduating university students using a longitudinal design and found that pre-entry P-O fit perceptions significantly predicted job choice intentions, were positively related to employment quality two years after entry, and were negatively related to intentions to quit. A meta-analysis conducted by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) also found that supplementary P-O fit perceptions were key predictors of organizational attraction, job choice intentions, and several post-entry work variables, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to quit.

While these findings helped to establish the key role that P-O fit perceptions play in a job seeker's decision making process, they did not clearly identify the cognitive comparisons or specific individual and organizational characteristics that job seekers' use to determine if they "fit" with a potential employer. That is, despite the recommendation by researchers that measures of both supplementary and complementary fit should be used to best understand how P-O fit perceptions impact individual-level outcomes (e.g., Kristof, 1996), these previous research efforts have focused almost exclusively on how supplementary fit impacts job choice variables and ignored how perceptions of

complementary N-S fit might influence the job choice process. For instance, Judge and Bretz (1992) used generalized least-squares interaction terms to examine the effect that individual and organizational value congruence had on job choice decisions. Cable and Judge (1994) used a correlation coefficient to assess the similarity between personality traits and the characteristics of an organization's compensation system. Cable and Judge (1996) and Dineen and colleagues (2002) assessed supplementary P-O fit by using both a correlation coefficient and directly asking participants how well they thought the values of an organization "fit" and "reflected" their own values. Saks and Ashforth (1997, 2002) measured both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment; however, they combined these two measures into a single index of P-O fit. As a result, Saks and Ashforth were not able to examine the unique and combined effects of supplementary and complementary N-S fit. The meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005), which summarized P-O fit research in the job choice domain, reported no studies that had examined the impact that complementary N-S fit had on job choice variables.

Because previous research examining the job choice process did not include measures of complementary N-S fit, there is an incomplete understanding of how perceptions of "fit" with an organization impact job seekers' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. Not only has this failure to integrate the supplementary and complementary fit traditions slowed the advancement of the P-O fit paradigm, it has possibly lead organizational recruiters to neglect a critical component of *how* job seekers evaluate potential employers and choose which organizations to join. That is, because research examining the impact that P-O fit has on job choice variables has almost exclusively focused on supplementary fit, the relative and incremental validity and utility of

supplementary and complementary N-S fit is unknown (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Westerman & Cyr, 2004).

While no research has examined the simultaneous effects that both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment have on job choice variables, research using both supplementary and complementary N-S fit to examine post-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors provides indirect support for the use of both of these conceptualizations to help describe the “fit” that job seekers perceive with a potential employer. Specifically, a study by Cable and Edwards (2004) used a sample of adult employees ranging from laborers to executives to test three alternative conceptual models of the relationship between the supplementary and complementary N-S fit traditions. Their results showed that an integrative, simultaneous effects model dominated the other two proposed models. This simultaneous effects model demonstrated that supplementary and complementary N-S fit each uniquely and equally contributed to the prediction of post-entry attitudes and intentions (e.g., intent to stay, job satisfaction, and organizational identification). Likewise, the meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) revealed that both supplementary and complementary N-S fit significantly predicted the post-entry variables of job satisfaction (.34 supplementary fit versus .37 complementary N-S fit), organizational commitment (.44 supplementary fit versus .32 complementary N-S fit), and intent to quit (-.29 supplementary fit versus -.28 complementary N-S fit). While Kristof-Brown and colleagues did not compute the incremental validity and relative importance of supplementary and complementary N-S fit, their results did suggest that both conceptualizations can significantly predict individual-level outcomes.

Based on the findings from these two studies, it is reasonable to expect that supplementary and complementary N-S fit can be used together to predict job seekers' attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. These expectations are consistent with the P-O fit framework offered by Kristof (1996), which depicts both supplementary and complementary fit as separate cognitive processes that can work in parallel with one another. According to Kristof (1996, p. 6), "Optimum P-O fit may be achieved when each entity's needs are fulfilled by the other and they share similar fundamental characteristics." Thus, job seekers should have more positive attitudes toward and stronger intentions to join an organization when they perceive congruence between themselves and the organization *and* believe that the organization can fulfill their needs and desires. Additionally, using both measures of value congruence and psychological need fulfillment to examine job choice variables will help improve the understanding of the cognitive comparisons in which individual engage when determining *how* they "fit" with a potential employer.

Content Dimensions of P-O Fit

In addition to offering two conceptualizations that describe *how* job seekers evaluate their "fit" with a potential employer, the P-O fit paradigm also offers a framework to help describe *what* characteristics job seekers use to evaluate their "fit" with an organization. These characteristics are known as content dimensions and represent the various attributes job seekers consider when comparing themselves with an organization (see Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Van Vianen, 2000). Content dimensions used to operationalize P-O fit include needs, preferences,

values, personality traits, goals, attitudes, social norms, and organizational culture (Kristof, 1996).

As previously discussed, theoretical support for the use of value-based measures in P-O fit research is derived from the strong similarities between individual and organizational values. In addition to this theoretical support, three recent meta-analyses provided empirical support for the use of value-based measures to operationalize P-O fit. Verquer and colleagues (2003) found that value congruence consistently had stronger relations with individual-level outcomes than did other types of congruence, which included measures of personality and goals. Additionally, the previously mentioned meta-analysis conducted by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) found that value-only measures were virtually equal, and often times stronger, predictors of several individual outcomes compared to multidimensional measures. This meta-analysis also found that value-based fit had a stronger relationship with job satisfaction (.51) than either goal-based P-O fit (.31) or personality-based fit (.08). Finally, the meta-analytic work by Hoffman and Woehr (2006) indicated that the relationship between value congruence and outcomes was larger than that of other forms of fit collapsed. Together, these results suggest that value-based P-O fit is one of the strongest predictors of individual-level outcome variables. These empirical findings, in combination with the theoretical position, lend credence to the notion that values are the primary characteristic by which individuals judge their “fit” with an organization and the most desirable manner in which to assess P-O fit (Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Schneider et al., 1995).

While these studies have helped to establish the role that individual and organizational values play in P-O fit, they did not examine how focusing on different

aspects of an organization can change job seekers' perceptions of "fit" with that organization. Researchers are becoming more interested in the organizational attributes that individuals consider when determining the degree to which they "fit" with an organization. Indeed, Van Vianen (2000) stated that the "relationship between the person, the organization and individual outcomes depends on a variety of factors, such as the content of the dimension upon which fit is assessed and the content of the components of the fit measure" (p. 121). Although other researchers have also acknowledged that the content dimensions individuals use to evaluate their "fit" with an organization affects the degree to which individuals believe they are a good match with an organization (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), research in the job choice domain has mainly focused on global assessments of P-O fit.

For example, one popular method of assessing P-O fit involves directly asking the participants the extent to which their values "fit" or "match" a particular organization. This direct measurement approach can be thought of as a "content free" manner of assessing P-O fit because it does not instruct participants as to the content of the values they should consider when comparing themselves to an organization. Assessing P-O fit in this manner leaves participants to base their perceptions of "fit" on overall, global impressions of the organizations. This method for assessing supplementary and complementary N-S fit does not take into account the specific organizational attributes that individuals consider when evaluating a potential employer. This measurement approach was used in the studies conducted by Cable and Judge (1996), Saks and Ashforth (1997, 2002), and Dineen and colleagues (2002). While these studies have helped to establish the link between P-O fit and job choice attitudes and intentions, these

initiatives failed to provide insight into *what* organizational characteristics individuals use when evaluating their “fit” with an organization.

Another popular method for assessing perceptions of P-O fit is the use of the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP; Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). The OCP utilizes a comprehensive value-framework and contains value statements (e.g., respect for people, innovation, team orientation, employment stability, outcome orientation) derived from a review of academic and practitioner-oriented writings on organizational values and culture (cf. Davis, 1984; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Schein, 1992). The OCP presents an individual with a list of individual and organizational characteristics and asks them to rank how important each of these characteristics are to both themselves and an organization. While the OCP does address some of the shortcomings of the global, direct measurement approach by providing individuals with a comprehensive list of organizational characteristics, an implicit assumption of the OCP is that the “fit” between individual and organizational value systems can be represented by a single profile score. That is, the OCP is primarily used to assess supplementary fit (i.e., value congruence) and provides a holistic assessment of “fit” by calculating the correlation between individual and organizational value profiles. While this manner of assessing P-O fit has been valuable in helping to examine the effect that overall P-O fit has on various job choice and post-entry attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Dineen et al., 2002), this method suffers from the same conceptual deficiencies as the global, direct measurement approach. Namely, the CPO does not allow for differences in fit perceptions across core values to be investigated. This leaves organizational recruiters to wonder if *what* organizational characteristics they are

presenting to potential applicants impact *how* applicants evaluate their “fit” with the organization.

Cable and Edwards (2004) utilized another comprehensive value framework to assess how P-O fit perceptions impact post-entry attitudes and intentions. The Work Values Survey (WVS; Cable & Edwards, 2002) is based on a circumplex model of human values (see Schwartz, 1992, 1994), and identified eight core work values representing altruism, relationships, pay, security, authority, prestige, variety, and autonomy. Unlike direct, global P-O fit measures and the OCP, the WVS allows researchers to investigate how perceptions of supplementary and complementary N-S fit vary across core personal and organizational values. That is, using the WVS to measure P-O fit allows researchers to examine if the content of the dimension upon which fit is assessed impacts *how* individuals evaluate their “fit” with an organization.

While not the main focus of their study, Cable and Edwards (2004) found that the effects that supplementary and complementary N-S fit had on post-entry outcomes did vary across the eight content dimensions assessed. Despite this finding, no published research has examined the potential moderating effects that the content of the dimension upon which fit is assessed has on the relationship between supplementary and complementary N-S fit and job choice outcomes. As a result, it is unknown if focusing on different organizational attributes leads job seekers to reach different conclusions about how well they “fit” with an organization, or if certain organizational characteristics have their strongest impact on the job choice process when operationalized as supplementary versus complementary N-S fit. Thus, recruiters could be missing essential information

about *what* characteristics job seekers use to evaluate potential employers and *how* those characteristics impact their attitudes, intentions, and behaviors.

The Present Study

In summary, the P-O fit paradigm suggests that both the supplementary and complementary fit traditions should be used to describe the comparisons that job seekers make when evaluating the extent to which they “fit” with a potential employer. However, these two lines of research have not been integrated. As a result, there is an incomplete understanding of *how* job seekers determine if they “fit” with an organization. Research in the P-O fit domain has also failed to explore if the content of the dimension upon which fit is assessed impacts if job seekers perceive supplementary or complementary N-S fit with an organization. Thus, little is known about *what* characteristics job seekers use to determine their “fit” with potential employers and *how* those characteristics affect job seekers’ attitudes, intentions, and behaviors.

The main purpose of the current study was to examine the nature of the relationships presented in Figure A-1¹. Briefly stated, the model posits that both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment will have a significant impact on organizational attraction, intentions to join an organization, and the engagement in job search behaviors. The model further suggests that these relationships will be moderated by the content of the dimensions on which fit is assessed (i.e., content dimensions).

Hypotheses and Research Question

Researchers have suggested that work values are the primary characteristic by which individuals judge their P-O fit (Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1992;

¹ All figures and tables are located in the Appendix.

Kristof, 1996; Schneider et al., 1995). As such, supplementary P-O fit is best represented by the value congruence between individuals and organizations (e.g., Chatman, 1991; Van Vianen, 2000). The expected outcomes of value congruence are described by numerous theories including social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), which suggests that individuals are more likely to join organizations that reinforce their self-identities. The theory suggests that individuals are attracted to and seek employment with organizations that exhibit characteristics similar to their own. Previous research has consistently demonstrated a positive relationship between supplementary P-O fit and outcomes such as attraction, commitment, and decreased turnover (e.g., Dineen et al., 2002; Judge & Cable, 1997; O'Reilly et al., 1991). It is expected that a similar relationship will hold between value congruence and job choice attitudes and intentions and job search behaviors. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: Value congruence will be positively related to organizational attraction.

Hypothesis 1b: Value congruence will be positively related to intentions to join the organization.

Hypothesis 1c: Value congruence will be positively related to job search behaviors.

As previously noted, psychological need fulfillment is the most common way researchers have conceptualized and operationalized complementary N-S fit in the P-O fit paradigm (Edwards, 1991). As a result, complementary N-S fit is built on the need fulfillment literature (French & Kahn, 1962; Harrison, 1978; Murray, 1938; Porter, 1961, 1962), which focuses on psychological needs acquired through learning and socialization

rather than innate biological needs (e.g., food, shelter). This literature predicts that individuals will be more satisfied and more committed to organizations that they believe meet their personal and professional needs (Edwards, 1996; Edwards et al., 1998; Locke, 1976; Rice et al., 1985). These theories also suggest that individuals will seek out situations and environments that they believe will meet their psychological needs. While previous research has not investigated the impact that psychological need fulfillment has on the job choice process, a recent meta-analysis found that complementary N-S fit had a positive impact on post-entry organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and reduced intentions to quit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In the current study, it was expected that the nature of these relationships would hold for job choice attitudes and intentions and job search behaviors. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: Psychological need fulfillment will be positively related to organizational attraction.

Hypothesis 2b: Psychological need fulfillment will be positively related to intentions to join the organization.

Hypothesis 2c: Psychological need fulfillment will be positively related to job search behaviors.

Researchers have suggested that both supplementary and complementary N-S fit work in tandem to influence individual-level outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Specifically, Kristof (1996) stated that fit between a person and an organization can be maximized if both supplementary and complementary fit is achieved. Findings by Cable and Edwards (2004) empirically supported this contention and demonstrated that both supplementary and complementary N-S fit equally contributed to

the prediction of the post-entry job satisfaction, organizational identification, and intentions to stay. It was expected that the nature of these relationships would hold for the job choice variables. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3a: Value congruence and psychological need fulfillment will both significantly contribute to the prediction of an individual's organizational attraction.

Hypothesis 3b: Value congruence and psychological need fulfillment will both significantly contribute to the prediction of an individual's intentions to join the organization.

Hypothesis 3c: Value congruence and psychological need fulfillment will both significantly contribute to the prediction of job search behaviors.

Researchers have suggested that the relationship between fit and individual outcomes depends on the content of the dimension (e.g., job security, autonomy, variety) upon which fit is assessed (Edwards, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Van Vianen, 2000). Findings from previous studies have generally supported this contention and have demonstrated that the influence that fit has on individual-level outcomes can vary across content dimensions (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994; French et al., 1982; Turban & Keon, 1993). However, only the study by Cable and Edwards (2004) examined differences in supplementary and complementary N-S fit across the same taxonomic domain (i.e., work values). While not the primary focus of their study, their findings revealed that the strength of the relationships between both conceptualizations of P-O fit and post-entry outcomes varied across work value content dimensions. It was expected that the nature of these relationships would hold for the job choice outcomes in the current study.

Given the limited conceptual or empirical literature available to provide direction as to how the different content dimensions will interact with both conceptualizations of P-O fit, this analysis is exploratory in nature. As such, no a priori hypotheses will be made about which content dimensions will interact with supplementary and complementary N-S fit. Instead, the current study explored if the relationship between value congruence and job choice attitudes and intentions and job search behaviors is moderated by the content of the dimensions on which fit is assessed. Likewise, the current study investigated if the relationship between psychological need fulfillment and job choice variables is impacted by the content dimensions job seekers use to evaluate their “fit” with an organization.

The Military as a Context to Examine P-O Fit Perceptions

The current study examined how perceptions of supplementary and complementary N-S fit affect job choice attitudes and intentions and job search behaviors with respect to a specific type of work organization, the United States Military. The Military context is relevant for a number of important reasons.

First, the Military is a large employer in the United States, employing more than one million service men and women since 2000. The need for such an enormous workforce puts understandable pressure on the Military’s recruiting efforts, as they are required to recruit over 180,000 individuals annually. As a result, the U.S. Military has a tremendous impact on the U.S. labor market.

Second, many of the recruiting and human resource practices used by the United States Military have direct parallels to the theories and practices used in other public and private sectors (Gatewood & Field, 2001). In fact, many of the human resource and

recruiting practices used by the U.S. Military have filtered down to private and other public sectors.

Finally, antecedents of job choice decisions have been examined in many industries across a variety of organizations ranging from well-known organizations to fictional companies. However, no published research has examined the role that perceptions of P-O fit play on job choice as it pertains to the United States Military. Thus, the results of this study can help to advance theory and practice in both the P-O fit and organizational recruiting literatures.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

Participants were individuals, ages 14 to 21, who had no previous military experience. Data were collected as part of an internet survey with the cooperation of an internet research company who ensured that the participants were informed of the purpose of the study and consented to participate. This company also ensured that participants under the age of 18 had their parents' consent to participate in the study.

The data collection fielding period ran from June 22, 2006, to August 13, 2006. During the fielding period 3,758 individuals, who were randomly selected from the company's research panel to participate in the study, received an e-mail on June 22, 2006, inviting them to log on to a secure website and complete the study's survey. Several e-mail reminders were sent to non-respondents throughout the fielding period. The fielding period closed on August 13, 2006.

A total of 1,803 individuals responded to the survey, resulting in a response rate of 48%. Of those individuals who responded, 98 indicated that they were currently in the Military or had already applied for Military service. Given that the purpose of the current study was to examine job choice for individuals who were not already members of an organization, those individuals who were already members or had already chosen to join the Military were excluded from the analyses.

Excluding these 98 individuals resulted in a sample of 1,705 individuals. The sample was 51.5% male and 78.8% White, 6.5% Black, and 7.3% Hispanic. The average age of the sample was 16.8 years old.

Measures

Guided by a consideration of the relevant constructs, a review of the measures used in prior research, and input from subject matter experts, the measures described below were developed to assess the variables of interest in the current study.

Perceived P-O Fit. To meaningfully compare results for value congruence and psychological need fulfillment, it was necessary to measure all individual and organizational constructs on the same content dimensions (otherwise, differences between supplementary and complementary N-S fit would be confounded with differences in the content dimensions on which they were assessed). It was desirable that the content dimensions were comprehensive, such that they captured variation in person and organization constructs across all organizational positions and job types. Care was also taken to select items that represent constructs pertinent to military recruiting. To meet these requirements, Schwartz's circumplex (1992, 1994) of human values was used as an overarching framework to organize the content of the study's items.

Schwartz used data from over 40 samples in 20 countries to develop a comprehensive set of value dimensions and specified the dynamic structure of relations among them (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Boehnk, 2004). These studies were used to investigate "how universal the value contents and structure are, and hence about how basic they are to the nature of the human condition" (Schwartz, 1994, p. 42). These studies identified ten motivationally distinct types of values. As demonstrated in Figure A-2, the circular structure of the model portrays the total pattern of relations among values and represents a motivational continuum. The closer any two values are in either direction around the circle, the more similar their underlying

motivations; and the more distant any two values are, the more dissimilar their underlying motivations.

Relationships among the values can also be summarized in terms of a two-dimensional structure composed of four higher-order value types: Openness to Change (including Self-Direction and Stimulation) versus Conservation (Security, Conformity, and Tradition) and Self-Enhancement (Power and Achievement) versus Self-Transcendence (Universalism and Benevolence). Hedonism is related both to Openness to Change and to Self-Enhancement. The first dimension, Openness to Change versus Conservation, opposes values emphasizing independent thought and action and favoring change against those emphasizing submissive self-restraint, preservation of traditional practices, and protection of stability. The second dimension, Self-Enhancement versus Self-Transcendence, opposes values emphasizing the pursuit of one's own relative success and dominance over others against those emphasizing those promoting the welfare of others. Using this model as an organizing framework, the current study adapted items from three sources to provide a comprehensive set of content dimensions to assess value congruence and psychological need fulfillment.

The first source was the WVS (Edwards & Cable, 2002), which is based on the circumplex model of human values developed by Schwartz (1992, 1994). Although Schwartz's scale identifies basic human values, it deals with many dimensions that are not applicable to the work setting (e.g., "a spiritual life," "mature love," and "honoring parents and elders"). To help remedy this problem, Edwards and Cable (2002) used Schwartz's results to identify conceptual dimensions and create a multi-item scale for each of Schwartz's values that can be applied to values, needs, and supplies. Drawing

from Schwartz's model, Edwards and Cable (2002) identified eight core work values (Altruism, Relationships, Pay, Job Security, Authority, Prestige, Variety, and Autonomy) and developed 24 items that measured these eight work values, see Table A-1. The current study drew on these 24 items to help create measures of values, needs, and supplies.

The current study also adapted items from the Department of Defense's (DoD) Youth Poll (Emanuel et al., 2005) to represent constructs specific to military recruiting. The Youth Poll is a bi-annual survey intended to track youth attitudes, impressions, and behavioral intentions as they relate to military enlistment. Specifically, the current study borrowed a set of items used to evaluate the future plans that youth make by assessing how important certain objectives are when making decisions about their futures. These items are generally considered central to the Military's recruiting efforts and were adapted to assess aspects of the job choice process that are specific to military enlistment. As such, 12 items were included in the pool of potential items to assess value congruence and psychological need fulfillment, see Table A-2.

Finally, the current study included items that represent the values that are explicitly espoused by the Military. These core values were included in the current study to help capture additional aspects of the job choice process that are specific to military enlistment. While each Service has its own set of core values, a great deal of consistency exists between the values of each Service. Examining the overlap of the core values revealed that three core values could represent the core values from all of the Services, see Table A-3.

The items from these three sources were compared with the values identified in Schwartz's (1992, 1994) circumplex model to ensure that the items were comprehensive in nature. An examination of the 39 items revealed conceptual overlap between three items from the Youth Poll and three items from the WVS. The three WVS items were retained for the study due to the fact that these items were previously used to assess P-O fit perceptions. Eliminating these conceptually redundant items reduced the total number of items to 36 (24 based on the WVS survey, nine adapted from the DoD Youth Poll, and three items that represented the Services core values).

Consistent with the methodology used in previous research, the current study measured the constructs underlying value congruence and psychological need fulfillment by asking respondents to evaluate all of the study's items in four different ways. To assess individual values, respondents were asked to indicate how much they valued each item with responses ranging from 1 (*do not value at all*) to 5 (*value strongly*). For organizational values, the goal was to assess respondents' personal beliefs about the Military's values. Respondents thus were asked to indicate how much they believed the Military values its members doing each item. Again, responses ranged from 1 (*does not value at all*) to 5 (*values strongly*). The questions used to assess individual and organizational values followed from value congruence research (e.g., Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996; Schwartz, 1992, 1994).

For psychological needs, respondents were asked to indicate the amount they needed each of the items on a scale of 1 (*none*) to 5 (*a very great amount*). For organizational supplies, respondents were asked to indicate the amount that they believe the Military provides the opportunity to do each of the items. Responses ranged from 1

(*none*) to 5 (*a very great amount*). The questions that measure psychological needs and organizational supplies are consistent with prior research, which frames these concepts as needed and perceived amounts of job attributes (e.g., French et al., 1982; Locke, 1976).

To ensure that respondents were able to distinguish between individual values and needs and organizational values and supplies, the 36 items were pilot tested using a sample of undergraduate students. However, prior to conducting the analyses on the pilot data, a measurement expert from the internet research company indicated that a 36-item instrument would require an excessive amount of time to complete and was concerned that an instrument of this length would result in poor, unreliable data. Therefore, prior to conducting analyses on the pilot data, Military recruiting subject matter experts eliminated seven items via consensus. Four items from the DoD Youth Poll were eliminated due to conceptual redundancy and the three core Service value items were eliminated due to the fact that they have not been the primary focus of previous DoD research efforts.

Before conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the pilot data, the remaining 29 items (24 items based on the WVS and five items based on the DoD Youth Poll) were again compared with the values identified in Schwartz's (1992, 1994) circumplex model to ensure that the items were comprehensive in nature. As can be seen in Table A-4, two of the five Youth Poll items, "Receiving a job benefits package that includes money for college" and "Having the opportunity to travel," were easily incorporated into Cable and Edwards (2002) WVS dimensions. However, three of the items from the Youth Poll did not conceptually fit into the WVS framework. These items represented the professional developmental opportunities offered by the Military and

included items such as “Learning a trade or skill” and “Developing career or job skills.” Since professional development is one of the Military’s main recruiting messages, it was essential to include these items in the study’s measure of values, needs, and supplies. In an effort to remain consistent with the WVS dimensions, the definitions of Schwartz’s original ten universal values were consulted, see Table A-5, to determine if these three developmental items could be conceptually integrated into the study’s measure.

Reviewing these definitions revealed that a conceptual overlap existed between the three items in question and Schwartz’s Achievement value. Since the WVS dimension of Pay encompassed the highly related Hedonism and Achievement values, Schwartz’s definition of Hedonism was also reviewed to determine if a conceptual distinction could be made between the Hedonism and Achievement values. After examining both definitions, it was decided that given the study’s focus on military recruiting and job choice, Schwartz’s conceptualization of Hedonism was best represented by the items pertaining to pay and organizational benefits, while the essence of the Achievement value was best captured by the three professional development items. Separating the WVS Pay dimension into Pay and Professional Development dimensions, gave the current study nine core work value dimensions with which to measure values, needs, and supplies, see Table A-4.

The final 29-item measure was subjected to CFAs using the nine dimensions listed in Table A-4. These analyses used data collected from 360 undergraduate students and examined the factor structure of the study’s measures of individual values, organizational values, psychological needs, and organizational supplies.

For all CFAs in the current study, maximum likelihood estimation methods were used and the input for each analysis was the correlation matrix of the items. The goodness-of-fit of the models was evaluated using the following goodness-of-fit indices (cf. Bentler, 1990; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2005; Steiger, 1990): (1) the χ^2 goodness-of-fit statistic; (2) root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990); and (3) comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler, 1990). Values smaller than 0.08 for RMSEA are indicative of an acceptable fit; while values greater than 0.1 should lead to model rejection (Bentler, 1990; Cudeck & Browne, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999). CFI values greater than 0.90 indicate acceptable model fit (Hoyle, 1995; Steiger, 1990), while values less than 0.90 indicate that model had an unsatisfactory fit to the data.

The results of the CFAs indicated good fit with the nine content dimensions across individual values, organizational values, psychological needs, and organizational supplies, as evidenced by RMSEA values of .06, .06, .06, and .07, and CFI values of .94, .95, .95, and .95, respectively.

Because the current study measured individual values-needs and organizational values-supplies from participants using the same content dimensions, it is possible that these measures actually just measured the same constructs twice. To test this possibility, CFAs were conducted on the individual value-need and the organizational value-supply items in two separate 18-factor models. The 18-factor individual model represented a factor structure where individual value and need items loaded separately on the study's nine dimensions. Similarly, the 18-factor organizational model represented a factor structure where organizational value and supply items loaded separately on the study's nine dimensions. These 18-factor models were then compared against two nine-factor

models that collapsed across individual values-needs and organizational values-supplies. That is, the nine-factor individual model represented a factor structure where the individual value and need items loaded on the same nine dimensions and did not provide a distinction between values-needs. Likewise, the nine-factor organizational model represented a factor structure where the organizational value and supply items loaded on the same nine dimensions and did not provide a distinction between values-supplies.

First, the individual value-need and the organizational value-supply items were fit to the two separate 18-factor models. The 18-factor individual and organizational models provide adequate fit to the pilot data, individual values-needs $\chi^2(1,442)= 4,134.30$, CFI =.94, RMSEA =.07; organizational values-supplies $\chi^2(1,442)= 3,78.95$, CFI=.95, RMSEA=.06. Next, the individual value-need and the organizational value-supply items were fit to the two separate nine-factor models. The nine-factor individual and organizational models did not provide adequate fit to the pilot data, individual values-needs $\chi^2(1,559)= 8,869.49$, CFI =.82, RMSEA =.11; organizational value-supplies $\chi^2(1,559)= 6,798.33$, CFI=.91, RMSEA=.10.

The results of these analyses provided initial empirical support that the study's measures could be used to calculate measures of value congruence and psychological need fulfillment. That is, the results of pilot study analyses indicated that the participants could generally distinguish between individual values and needs and organizational values and supplies.

Organizational attraction. Organizational attraction was measured using items that are consistent with previous studies of organizational choice (e.g., Chapman et al.,

2005; Fisher, Ilgen, & Hoyer, 1979; Turban & Keon, 1993), while retaining a focus on the attitude of attraction to enlistment rather than explicit intentions toward joining. Specifically, five items were adopted from previous research on organizational attraction (e.g., Highhouse et al., 2003). These items utilized a five-point Likert-type scale, and were scored (or reverse scored when necessary) such that higher scores represented more favorable responses. Example items from this scale include: “The Military would be a good organization to join” and “Joining the Military is very appealing.” The full version of this scale can be found in Table A-6.

Intentions to join. Intentions to join were measured with thirteen items adapted from previous academic and DoD research efforts for the purposes of this study (Chapman et al., 2005; Emanuel et al., 2005). These items assessed intentions to join the Military using a 4-point scale. The items were scored such that higher scores represented more favorable intentions to join. An example item from this scale included: “How likely is it that you will be serving in the Military in the next few years?” The full scale can be found in Table A-7.

Job search behaviors. Job search behaviors were measured using ten behavioral items based on previous measures of job search behavior (e.g., Dyer, 1972; Kanfer & Hulin, 1985; Sheppard & Belitsky, 1966; Vinokur & Caplan, 1987) and previous DoD research that highlighted common pre-enlistment behaviors (e.g., Emanuel et al., 2005; Griepentrog, 2006). The pre-enlistment behavioral items were designed to represent the job search behavior dichotomy presented by Blau (1993, 1994), which suggested that job search behaviors fall in two distinct behavioral phases: preparatory and active (Bowen, 1982; Soelberg, 1967).

Of the ten behavioral items, four items assessed preparatory job choice behaviors that represent the job search phase in which individuals gather potential job leads through various sources and gather information about a potential job or organization (Steffy, Shaw, & Noe, 1989). Example items from this behavioral scale included “Visited a military website to learn about military service” and “Spoke with friends and relatives about military service.” The six items that assessed active job choice behaviors represented the job search phase in which individuals publicly communicate their interest in joining an organization (Blau, 1993, 1994). Example items from this behavioral scale included “Contacted a military recruiter” and “Taken the military qualifying exam.”

Participants were asked to indicate if they had performed each behavioral item by responding to the question, “In the past six months, have you engaged in any of the following behaviors?” The six month interval was used based on the recommendations of Blau (1993, 1994) and was thought to increase variance in the recall of job search behaviors between subjects, while minimizing retrospective bias in recall. Blau suggested that a shorter time interval (e.g., three months) would reduce the variance in job search behaviors, while a longer time interval (e.g., one year) would increase retrospective bias. The full version of this scale can be found in Table A-8.

Analytic Strategy

A brief critique of selected analytic techniques. Testing the relationships presented in current study would be simple and straightforward if each of the supplementary and complementary N-S fit terms were single variables. However, since value congruence and psychological need fulfillment are comprised of two variables (i.e., individual values and organizational values and psychological needs and organizational

supplies, respectively), estimating the effects that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment have on job choice variables requires techniques that can appropriately examine the simultaneous effect that individual and organizational characteristics have on job choice outcomes.

Researchers have proposed a number of techniques and alternatives for assessing the fit between a person and an organization. Edwards (1991) described several ways that fit can be measured. The first technique was the calculation of a product term that reflects the moderating effects of one of the entities (person or organization) on the relationship between the other entity and an outcome variable.

The second set of methods for assessing fit reduces person and organization measures into a single index that reflects the relationship between the two. Typically this reduction involves using a bivariate congruence index such as an algebraic ($X - Y$), absolute ($|X - Y|$), or squared difference $(X - Y)^2$. In these examples, X represents organizational characteristics and Y represents individual characteristics. In cases where multiple predictors are used, profile similarity indices (PSIs) such as the sum of algebraic differences (D^1), the sum of absolute differences ($|D|$), the sum of the squared differences (D^2), the Euclidean distance (D), or the correlation between the individual and organizational profiles (Q) are used (Edwards, 1993; Edwards & Parry, 1993).

Despite their widespread use in the literature, a number of researchers have criticized the use of these methods for a variety of reasons (e.g., Cronbach, 1958; Edwards, 1993; Edwards & Parry, 1993; Johns, 1981; Nunnally, 1962). One concern is the conceptual ambiguity that results from the use of these traditional methods. When individual and organizational measures are combined into a single index, the unique

contribution that the individual and organizational measures make to the reduced index is concealed. A second concern is the discarded information that results when two measures are combined into a single score. That is, when individual and organizational variables are reduced to a single index, such as by an algebraic difference (D^1), the absolute level of the person and organizational variables are lost. This problem is compounded by a loss of information when so called “symmetric” indices (i.e., $|D|$, D^2 , D , and Q) are used. A final concern is the constraints that are placed on the sign and magnitude of coefficients in difference score equations. These constraints are seldom substantiated by the data that are used to examine fit relationships (e.g., Edwards & Harrison, 1993; Edwards & Parry, 1993).

In the case of multiple predictors, PSIs share many of the same criticisms. For example, PSIs are insensitive to the sources of differences in the profiles between individuals and organizations (Edwards, 1991, 1993, 1994). That is, PSIs do not reflect that a variety of factors may lead to differences between the two entities being compared, even though these factors may represent very different psychological experiences. Concerns have also been raised about the use of profile correlations. Because profile correlations are typically ordinal and ipsative, Edwards (1991, 1993, 1994) strongly warned against their use because they cannot provide information regarding the magnitude of differences between the individual and the organization. This criticism is particularly relevant to research that has investigated value congruence (e.g., Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991), which often used forced-choice rankings.

As a result of these criticisms, Edwards (1991, 1993, 1994) suggested that polynomial regression is the most appropriate manner to assess the fit that exists between

a person and an organization. This procedure does not collapse individual and organizational variables into a single index. Rather, it assumes that the relationship between two entities and an outcome should be considered in three dimensions. As a result, polynomial regression also employs three-dimensional surface response graphing to depict the joint relationship of the two entities (i.e., person and organization) with an outcome.

Overview of the polynomial regression procedure. An equation that captures the basic elements of the polynomial regression procedure (PRP) is presented below (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993):

$$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2$$

For value congruence, X and Y signify organizational and individual values, respectively. For psychological need fulfillment, X and Y represent organizational supplies and individual needs, respectively. In both cases, Z is the expected outcome of value congruence and psychological need fulfillment.

The PRP is based on three principles (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993). First, fit should not be viewed as a single score, but instead as the association between the organizational and individual measures in a two-dimensional space. From this perspective, perfect fit is not represented by a point, but instead is represented by a line along which the organizational and individual measures are equal. This line of perfect fit can be a simple linear function or a more complex non-linear combination. Perfect incompatibility (i.e., no fit) is represented by the furthest distance of the organizational and individual scores from the line of perfect fit. Viewing fit in this manner captures the

magnitude and direction of the fit relationship between the organizational and individual measures as well as the absolute levels of both measures.

Second, the constraints associated with difference scores should not be imposed on the data, but instead should be treated as hypotheses to be tested empirically. For example, when a simple difference score is computed ($X - Y$) and correlated with an outcome (Z), the resulting regression equation assumes that both the organizational (X) and individual (Y) variables have an equal impact on the outcome. This assumption is represented by the equation:

$$Z = b_0 + b_1(X - Y)$$

This assumption limits the impact that organizational and individual variables can have on the outcome by constraining organizational and individual components to have equal, but opposite, effects on the outcome. This assumption can be illustrated by distributing the regression weight from the constrained regression equation (CRE) across the organizational and individual variables:

$$Z = b_0 + b_1X - b_1Y$$

The PRP does not make this assumption and instead employs a regression equation that does not place constraints on the impact that both organizational and individual variables have on the outcome. Instead, the PRP allows the unique impact of both entities to be estimated. This assumption is illustrated by the unconstrained regression equation (URE):

$$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y$$

Third, the effect of fit on an outcome should be treated not as a two-dimensional function, but instead as a three-dimensional surface relating the organizational and individual measures to the outcome. These surfaces may be used to test simple

compatibility hypotheses associated with difference scores, as well as, complex fit relationships that difference scores cannot represent. To determine the appropriate form of the fit relationship, simple compatibility along with more complex fit-outcome relationships should be examined.

Using the PRP to test fit relationships is based on a number of assumptions (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993). First, the organizational and individual measures are commensurate, meaning that they express the organizational and individual components in terms of the same content dimensions. Commensurate measurement is required to ensure the conceptual relevance of the component measures to one another and is necessary to meaningfully interpret results in terms of fit. It is also assumed that the organizational and individual measures use the same numeric scale. Scale equivalence is required to determine the degree of correspondence between the organizational and individual measures and compare coefficient estimates.

Employing PRP to examine the impact that fit between organizational and individual variables has on an outcome involves three stages. First, the constraints associated with traditional difference scores are empirically tested. Second, the appropriate form of the fit relationship is established by comparing a simple linear fit relationship to more complex non-linear fit relationships to determine which fit relationship provides the strongest prediction of an outcome. Finally, a three-dimensional surface response methodology is utilized to examine the joint impact that organizational and individual measures have on an outcome.

Overview of the surface response methodology. Three-dimensional surface response methodology can help to interpret the form of the fit relationship using the

results from an URE. Edwards suggested considering three theoretical types of fit relationships (Edwards, 1993, 1996; Edwards et al., 1998; Edwards & Perry, 1993). First, the relationship between the organization, the person, and the outcome may be monotonic, such that the outcome increases as the person increases to the organization and then continues to increase as the person exceeds the organization. In two-dimensional space, this relationship is analogous to a simple linear relationship. An example of a three-dimensional monotonic relationship is presented in Figure A-3. This figure represents a supplementary fit relationship where organizational values are positioned on the x-axis, individual values are positioned on the y-axis, and job satisfaction is positioned on the z-axis. The functional form of this value congruence relationship is monotonic, such that job satisfaction increases as the person's values increase to the organizational values (moving along the three-dimensional surface from Line 1 to Line 2 in Figure A-3), and continues to increase as the individual values exceed the organizational values (moving along the three-dimensional surface from Line 2 to Line 3 in Figure A-3). Table A-9 presents the components of the CRE and URE that represent the functional form of the monotonic relationship.

Second, the functional form of the fit relationship may be parabolic, such that the outcome is maximized when the organization matches the person, and the outcome declines in either direction from optimal match. In two-dimensional space, this relationship is analogous to a squared, non-linear relationship. An example of a parabolic relationship is presented in Figure A-4. This figure represents a complementary N-S fit relationship where organizational supplies are positioned on the x-axis, individual needs are positioned on the y-axis, and intentions to quit are positioned on the z-axis. The

functional form of this psychological need fulfillment relationship is parabolic, indicating that intentions to quit were the lowest when needs and supplies matched (represented in Figure A-4 by Line 1), but become stronger as the amount supplied by the organization becomes greater than the amount needed by the individual represented in Figure A-4 by Line 2). Similarly, intentions to quit are stronger as the amount needed by the individual becomes greater than the amount being supplied by the organization (represented in Figure A-4 by Line 3). Table A-9 presents the components of the CRE and URE that represent the functional form of the parabolic relationship.

Finally, the functional form of the fit relationship may be asymptotic, such that the outcome increases as the organization increases to the person, but then levels off as the organization exceeds the person. In two-dimensional space, this relationship is analogous to a cubed, non-linear relationship. An example of an asymptotic relationship is presented in Figure A-5. This figure represents a complementary N-S fit relationship where organizational supplies are positioned on the x-axis, individual needs are positioned on the y-axis, and psychological strain is positioned on the z-axis. The functional form of this psychological need fulfillment relationship is asymptotic, such that psychological strain is the strongest when individual needs exceed organizational supplies (represented in Figure A-5 by Line 1). Psychological strain becomes weaker as organizational supplies approach individual needs (moving along the three-dimensional graph from Line 1 to Line 2 in Figure A-5), but levels off and does not continue to diminish as organization supplies become more than is needed by the individual (moving along the three-dimensional graph from Line 2 to Line 3 in Figure A-5). Table A-9

presents the components of the CRE and URE that represent the asymptotic fit relationship.

Testing the study's hypotheses and research question. To test Hypotheses 1a-c, the current study used the previously discussed PRP (Edwards, 1994; Edwards & Parry, 1993) to determine if value congruence significantly predicted each job choice outcome. To test if value congruence was a significant predictor of an outcome, the R^2 values of the CRE and URE were first compared against one another to determine if the CRE or URE provided better prediction of a job choice outcome. Next, the form of the fit-outcome relationship that maximized the prediction of an outcome was determined by examining the R^2 values from the regression equations representing monotonic, parabolic, and asymptotic relationships.

Since organizational and individual values were represented by nine distinct content dimensions, Hypotheses 1a-c were each tested by comparing the R^2 values from nine regression equations, thereby risking inflated type I error rates. To control for this possibility, the sequential Bonferroni procedure was used (Holm, 1979). This procedure is an effective method for controlling "familywise" alpha while striking a balance between type I and type II error (Edwards, 1996).

Once the appropriate form of the fit relationship was established, the overall R^2 value from each regression equation was used to determine if value congruence significantly predicted the outcome variable for that dimension.

In addition to using the PRP to test Hypotheses 1a-c, the surface response methodology was used to examine the effects that supplementary fit had on organizational attraction, intentions to join, and job search behaviors.

To test Hypotheses 2a-c, the study used the same PRP, sequential Bonferroni procedure, and surface response methodology outline for Hypotheses 1a-c to determine if psychological need fulfillment significantly predicted each of the study's outcomes.

In order to test Hypothesis 3, it was necessary to create block variables for supplementary and complementary N-S fit to determine if both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment simultaneously predicted each of the study's outcomes (see Figure A-1). Block variables have been used in path analysis to summarize the effects of a set of conceptually related variables (Marsden, 1982) and to depict nonlinear and interactive effects in terms of a single path coefficient (Jagodzinski & Weede, 1981). A block variable was constructed by regressing a dependent variable on a set of independent variables and using the predicted value of the dependent variable in place of the independent variables (Heise, 1972; Marsden, 1982).

For each of the nine content dimensions and each job choice outcome, the regression equation that captured the appropriate form of the fit relationship was used to create two block variables, one by regressing the outcomes on the value congruence terms and the other by regressing the outcomes on the psychological need fulfillment terms. The correlations among the two block variables for each content dimension and the outcome variables were used to derive estimates of Paths A and B in Figure A-1 (Igra, 1979; Pedhazur, 1997).

Since the estimates of these paths were themselves non-linear combinations of individual and organizational characteristics, conventional procedures to test for the significance of these path weights were not used. Instead, the bootstrap was applied to derive confidence intervals (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993; Stine, 1989). For each of the

content dimensions and job choice outcomes, block variables were calculated for value congruence and psychological need fulfillment using regression weights from the full sample and 2,000 bootstrap samples were drawn. The path coefficients for each bootstrap sample were calculated and then used to construct 95% confidence intervals (CIs) based on the bias-corrected percentile method (Stine, 1989). Value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were represented by nine content dimensions; therefore, Hypotheses 3a-c were each tested by comparing the significance of the estimated weights from Paths A and B in Figure A-1 for nine models. Testing Hypotheses 3a-c in this manner required using a number of models, thereby risking inflated type I error rates. As with Hypotheses 1 and 2, the sequential Bonferroni procedure was used to control for "familywise" alpha while balancing type I and type II error (Edwards, 1996; Holm, 1979).

To explore the study's research question, the regression equations and path models used to test Hypotheses 1 through 3 were re-examined to determine if the relationships between supplementary and complementary N-S fit and the study's outcomes were moderated by the content of the dimensions on which fit was assessed. First, the multiple *R* values from the regression equations used to test Hypotheses 1a-c were compared to determine which content dimensions had the strongest impact on each of the study's outcomes when operationalized as value congruence. Significantly higher multiple *R* values indicated that a content dimension had a stronger independent relationship with an outcome. Next, the nine block variables that represented the appropriate form of the supplementary fit relationship for each content dimension were simultaneously entered into a prediction model to determine, when considered together,

which dimensions significantly contributed to the prediction of each job choice outcome. To help interpret these results, a dominance analysis (DA) was conducted to determine the relative importance of each block variable in predicting the study's job choice outcomes. The DA procedure is based on an examination of the R^2 values for all possible regression model subsets (Azen & Budescu, 2003; Bedescu, 1993) and involves computing the mean of each predictor's squared semipartial correlation (i.e., ΔR^2) across all possible subset regression models. Because dominance weights sum to the model R^2 , the results can be interpreted as estimates of effect size. That is, one predictor can be said to be relatively more important than the others if it accounts for a larger proportion of the predicted variance. This allowance also makes the results of a DA easy to interpret since the relative importance indices of a DA are presented as a percentage. For example, a predictor that has a relative importance coefficient of .50 accounts for 50% of the predicted variance in the dependent variable.

The nine block variables were entered as predictors in a series of ordinary least squared (OLS) multiple regression analyses to determine the relative impact that each predictor had on the job choice outcomes. Together, these analyses were examined to determine which content dimension had the strongest impact on each job choice outcome when operationalized as value congruence.

This process was repeated for the regression equations used to test Hypotheses 2a-c to determine which content dimensions had the strongest impact on each of the study's outcomes when operationalized as psychological need fulfillment.

Finally, the block path models that were created to test Hypotheses 3a-c were compared to determine if specific content dimensions had a larger impact on the study's

outcomes when operationalized as value congruence or as psychological need fulfillment. A DA using OLS multiple regression was also conducted on each set of content dimensions to determine the relative importance of each content dimension when operationalized as value congruence and psychological need fulfillment. The results from all of these comparisons were then considered together when determining if the relationship between supplementary and complementary N-S fit and the study's outcomes was moderated by the content of the dimensions on which fit was assessed.

Statistical Power Analysis

A power analysis was conducted to determine the statistical power of the PRP to detect true differences for the relationships hypothesized in the current study. For the PRP, determining statistical power is accomplished by examining the difference in R^2 between the CRE and the URE (see Edwards, 1996; Edwards & Perry, 1993).

The power analysis used the formulas and conventional standards set forth by Cohen and Cohen (1983) and Cohen (1988). This analysis revealed that testing all nine content dimensions simultaneously, with alpha at .01, and a sample size of 1,700, the power was .81 for detecting differences in R^2 of .020 between a CRE and an URE. Edwards (1996) indicates that a change in R^2 of .020 between CRE and URE is considered small as actual differences in R^2 are generally much larger, averaging between .06 and .09 depending on the form of the fit relationship and the outcome.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Table A-10 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and reliability estimates (Cronbach's alpha) for all measures used to test the study's hypotheses.

Correlations among the nine dimensions of individual values, organizational values, psychological needs, and organizational supplies were strong, with higher correlations between dimensions representing conceptually similar dimensions (e.g., dimensions representing job characteristics such as Pay, Development, and Job Security). As expected, higher correlations were found for personal values and psychological needs and for organizational values and supplies. Organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors were all positively correlated. Reliability estimates were generally high, averaging .81 for individual values, .88 for organizational values, .89 for psychological needs, and .92 for organizational supplies. Reliability estimates for the outcome measures averaged .87.

Evidence of Discriminate Validity for P-O Fit Measures

The 29-item measure used to assess values, needs, and supplies was subjected to a series of CFAs using the proposed nine dimensions and data from the study's 1,705 participants to examine the factor structure of the study's P-O fit measures. The results of these CFAs indicated good fit with the nine content dimensions. Goodness-of-fit indices for these analyses are presented in Table A-11.

However, because the study measured individual values-needs and organizational value-supplies from participants using the same content dimensions, it was possible that

these measures actually measured the same constructs twice. In order to demonstrate that the measures distinguished between measures of personal values and psychological needs and organizational values and supplies, several measurement models were compared. First, a CFA was conducted on the individual value-need and the organizational value-supply items in two separate 18-factor models. The 18-factor individual model represented a factor structure where individual value and need items loaded separately on the study's nine dimensions. Similarly, the 18-factor organizational model represented a factor structure where organizational value and supply items loaded separately on the nine dimensions. The 18-factor individual and organizational models provided good fit to the data, individual values-needs $\chi^2(1,442)= 7,726.4$, CFI =.98, RMSEA =.05 and organizational value-supplies $\chi^2(1,442)= 5,898.3$, CFI=.99, RMSEA=.05.

These 18-factor models were then compared against two nine-factor models that collapsed across the individual value and need items and the organizational value and supply items. These nine-factor models did not provide a distinction between values-needs or values-supplies. That is, the nine-factor individual model represented a factor structure where the individual value and need items loaded on the same nine dimensions. Likewise, the nine-factor organizational model represented a factor structure where the organizational value and supply items loaded on the same the nine dimensions. These nine-factor individual and organizational models failed to provide good fit the data, individual values-needs $\chi^2(1,442)= 39,095.8$, CFI =.95, RMSEA =.13 and organizational value-supplies $\chi^2(1,442)= 107,270.7$, CFI=.95, RMSEA=.22.

These results provided empirical support that the study's measures could be used to calculate measures of value congruence and psychological need fulfillment that were not redundant. That is, the results of these analyses indicated that the participants did generally distinguish between individual values and needs and organizational values and supplies. This evidence indicated that the measures were suitable for the purposes of the study.

Factor Structure of Job Search Behaviors

Several models were examined to determine if the items in the job search measure distinguished between the preparatory and active behavioral phases of the job search process proposed by Blau (1993, 1994). A CFA was conducted on the ten behavioral items to determine if the four items proposed to assess the preparatory phase of the job search process loaded on a separate factor from the six items proposed to assess activities carried out in the active phase of the job search process. This two-factor model was compared against a one-factor model in which all ten behavioral items loaded on a single job search factor.

The two-factor model provided good fit to the data, $\chi^2(34) = 96.0$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .03, suggesting that participants did generally distinguish between the two proposed phases of the job search process. However, fitting the one-factor model to the data was found to have equally good fit, $\chi^2(35) = 109.4$, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .04. This one-factor model suggests that participants did not generally distinguish between the two phases of the job search process, but instead engaged in a job search process that consists of both preparatory and active behaviors. Since both the two- and one-factor models

provided equivalent fit to the data, the more parsimonious one-factor model was used to test the study's hypotheses.

Tests of Hypotheses 1a-c and 2a-c

Tests of Hypotheses 1a-c and Hypotheses 2a-c involved multiple steps to determine if supplementary and complementary N-S fit independently predicted job choice outcomes. The first step was to test the constraints placed on the data by the CREs. This was accomplished by comparing the R^2 values of the CREs against the R^2 values of the UREs for all forms of fit relationships across all nine content dimensions to establish which regression equations explained the largest amount of variance for that content dimension.

Second, a sequential Bonferroni procedure was used to assign a corrected "familywise" alpha for all of the content dimensions for each hypothesis. Pairing a dimension with a corrected alpha involved a series of stages. First, the CRE and URE that represented the monotonic relationship for each content dimension were compared against one another. The CRE or URE with the largest R^2 value was then chosen. The p -values associated with the nine selected regression equations were then ordered from lowest to highest. The content dimension with the lowest p -value was then paired with the lowest sequentially corrected Bonferroni alpha. That is, since testing the impact that supplementary or complementary N-S fit had on a job choice outcome involved the use of nine separate content dimensions, the lowest corrected alpha was .0056 (a traditional alpha of .05 divided by nine). This corrected alpha was then paired with the content dimension with the smallest p -value. The content dimension with the next lowest p -value was then paired with a sequentially corrected alpha of .0063 (a traditional alpha of .05

divided by eight). This procedure continued until the dimension with the largest p -value for each hypothesis was assigned with a sequentially corrected alpha of .05 (a traditional alpha of .05 divided by one).

The third step in determining if supplementary or complementary N-S fit independently predicted a job choice outcome was to determine the appropriate functional form of the fit relationship for each dimension. This was accomplished by examining the ΔR^2 as the form of the fit relationship moved from monotonic to asymptotic. The form of the relationship that had a significant ΔR^2 value was identified as the appropriate functional form. The functional form of the fit relationship was determined by using the sequentially corrected alphas that were paired with each dimension in the previous step to conclude if a more complex form of the fit relationship significantly improved the prediction of a job choice outcome.

Once the appropriate functional forms of the fit relationships were established, the overall R^2 value from the appropriate regression model for each dimension was examined to determine if value congruence or psychological need fulfillment independently predicted a job choice outcome. Again, the sequentially corrected alphas that were paired with each content dimension were used to determine significance.

Finally, three-dimensional surface response graphs were produced to help illustrate the appropriate functional form of the fit relationship.

Hypothesis 1a. Hypothesis 1a, which was based on social identity theory, proposed that supplementary fit, represented by value congruence, would be positively related to organizational attraction. As can be seen from Table A-12, the R^2 values of the UREs were significantly higher than the R^2 values of the CREs for all forms of the fit

relationship across all nine content dimensions with the exception of the asymptotic form of the Autonomy dimension.

Next, the appropriate forms of the fit relationships were determined by examining changes in R^2 . The results of these analyses are presented in Table A-13. As shown in the table, value congruence had the greatest impact on organizational attraction for the dimensions of Pay, Prestige, Authority, and Variety when the form of the fit relationship was asymptotic. The impact that value congruence had on organizational attraction for the Altruism, Relationship, Professional Development, and Job Security dimensions was maximized when the form of the fit relationship was parabolic. Finally, the monotonic form of value congruence had the greatest impact on organizational attraction for the Autonomy dimension.

Once the appropriate forms of the fit relationships were established, the R^2 values from the corresponding URE, all of which were significantly larger in magnitude than the corresponding CREs, were examined. The results presented in Table A-14 show that all content dimensions significantly predicted organizational attraction. These findings provided support for Hypothesis 1a and demonstrated that value congruence was positively related to organizational attraction.

The three-dimensional surface plots for these fit-outcome relationships are presented in Figures A-6 thru A-14 in Appendix A.

Hypothesis 1b. Hypothesis 1b proposed that supplementary fit would be positively related to intentions to join. As can be seen from Table A-15, the R^2 values of the UREs were significantly higher than the R^2 values of the CREs for all forms of the fit

relationships across all nine content dimensions with the exception of the parabolic and asymptotic forms of the Autonomy dimension.

Next, the appropriate forms of the fit relationships were determined by examining the changes in R^2 . As shown in Table A-16, value congruence had the greatest impact on intentions to join for the dimensions of Altruism, Pay, Job Security, Authority, and Variety when the form of the fit relationship was parabolic. The impact that value congruence had on intentions to join for the Relationship, Professional Development, Prestige, and Autonomy dimensions was maximized when the form of the fit relationship was monotonic.

Once the appropriate forms of the fit relationships for Hypothesis 1b were established, the R^2 values from the corresponding UREs, all of which were significantly larger in magnitude than the CREs, were examined. The results presented in Table A-14 show that all content dimensions significantly predicted intentions to join. These findings provided support for Hypothesis 1b and demonstrated that value congruence was positively related to intentions to join.

The three-dimensional surface plots of these fit relationships are presented in Figures A-15 thru A-23 in Appendix A.

Hypothesis 1c. Hypothesis 1c proposed that supplementary fit would be positively related to engagement in job search behaviors. As can be seen from Table A-17, the R^2 values of the UREs were significantly higher than the R^2 values of the CREs for all forms of the fit relationships across all nine content dimensions.

The appropriate forms of the fit relationships were determined by examining the change in R^2 . As presented in Table A-18, value congruence had the greatest impact on

job search behaviors for the dimensions of Relationship and Job Security when the form of the fit relationship was parabolic. The impact that value congruence had on job search behaviors was maximized when the form of the fit relationship was monotonic for the Altruism, Professional Development, Pay, Prestige, Authority, Variety, and Autonomy dimensions.

After the appropriate forms of the fit relationships were established, the R^2 values from the corresponding UREs, all of which were significantly larger in magnitude than the CREs, were examined. The results presented in Table A-14 show that all content dimensions significantly predicted engagement in job search behaviors. These findings provided support for Hypothesis 1c and demonstrated that value congruence was positively related to engaging in job search behaviors.

The three-dimensional surface plots of these fit relationships are presented in Figures A-24 thru A-32 in Appendix A.

Hypothesis 2a. Hypothesis 2a, which was based on need fulfillment theories, proposed that complementary N-S fit, represented by psychological need fulfillment, would be positively related to organizational attraction. As seen in Table A-19, the R^2 values of the UREs were significantly higher than the R^2 values of the CREs for all forms of the fit relationships across all nine content dimensions.

Next, the forms of the fit relationships were determined. As presented in Table A-20, psychological need fulfillment had the greatest impact on organizational attraction for the dimensions of Altruism, Prestige, Job Security, and Variety when the form of the fit relationship was asymptotic. The impact that psychological need fulfillment had on organizational attraction was maximized for Relationship, Professional Development,

Authority, and Autonomy dimensions when the form of the fit relationship was parabolic. Finally, the monotonic form of psychological need fulfillment had the greatest impact on organizational attraction for the Pay dimension.

After the appropriate forms of the fit relationships were established, the R^2 values from the corresponding UREs, all of which were significantly larger in magnitude than the CREs, were examined. The results presented in Table A-21 show that all content dimensions significantly predicted organizational attraction. These findings provided support for Hypothesis 2a and demonstrated that psychological need fulfillment was positively related to organizational attraction.

The three-dimensional surface plots of these fit relationships are presented in Figures A-33 thru A-41 in Appendix A.

Hypothesis 2b. Hypothesis 2b proposed that complementary N-S fit would be positively related to intentions to join. As seen in Table A-22, the R^2 values of the UREs were significantly higher than the R^2 values of the CREs for all forms of the fit relationships across all nine content dimensions.

Table A-23 shows that psychological need fulfillment had the greatest impact on intentions to join for the dimensions of Altruism, Relationship, Job Security, Authority, and Variety when the form of the relationship was parabolic. The impact that psychological need fulfillment had on intentions to join was maximized for the Professional Development, Pay, Prestige, and Autonomy dimensions when the form of the fit relationship was monotonic.

Once the appropriate forms of the fit relationships were established, the R^2 values from the corresponding UREs, all of which were significantly larger in magnitude the

CREs, were examined. The results presented in Table A-21 show that all content dimensions significantly predicted intentions to join. These findings provided support for Hypothesis 2b and demonstrated that psychological need fulfillment was positively related to intentions to join.

The three-dimensional surface plots of these fit relationships are presented in Figures A-42 thru A-50 in Appendix A.

Hypothesis 2c. Hypothesis 2c proposed that complementary N-S fit would be positively related to engagement in job search behaviors. As seen in Table A-24, the R^2 values of the UREs were significantly higher than the R^2 values of the CREs for all forms of the fit relationships across all nine content dimensions.

Table A-25 shows that psychological need fulfillment had the greatest impact on engagement in job search behaviors for the Altruism dimension when the form of the relationship was asymptotic. The impact that psychological need fulfillment had on engagement in job search behaviors was maximized for the Relationship, Professional Development, Job Security, Authority, Variety, and Autonomy dimensions when the form of the fit relationship was parabolic. Finally, the monotonic form of psychological need fulfillment had the greatest impact on engagement in job search behaviors for the Pay and Prestige dimensions.

Once the appropriate forms of the fit relationships were established, the R^2 values from the corresponding UREs, all of which were significantly larger in magnitude than the CREs, were examined. The results presented in Table A-21 show that all content dimensions significantly predicted engagement in job search behaviors. These findings

provided support for Hypothesis 2c and demonstrated that psychological need fulfillment was positively related to engaging in job search behaviors.

The three-dimensional surface plots of these fit relationships are presented in Figures A-51 thru A-59 in Appendix A.

Tests of Hypotheses 3a-c

Tests of Hypotheses 3a-c involved multiple steps to determine if value congruence and psychological need fulfillment, when considered together, significantly predicted job choice outcomes. First, for each of the nine content dimensions and each job choice outcome, the URE that captured the appropriate form of the fit relationship was used to create a block variable. These block variables were used to derive estimates of Paths A and B in Figure A-1 for each content dimension. A resampling procedure involving 2,000 bootstrap samples was used to create CIs for each path weight. Finally, a sequential Bonferroni procedure was used to determine if value congruence and psychological need fulfillment both significantly contributed to the prediction of organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors.

Assigning a corrected sequential Bonferroni alpha to each block variable involved several stages. First, the eighteen path coefficients used to test Hypothesis 3a-c were separately examined and the path coefficient with the lowest associated p -value was paired with the lowest sequentially corrected Bonferroni alpha. That is, since testing the joint impact of value congruence and psychological need fulfillment on a job choice outcome involved using eighteen content dimensions, nine for supplementary fit and nine for complementary N-S fit, the lowest Bonferroni alpha was .0028 (a traditional alpha of .05 divided by eighteen) and was paired with the path weight with the lowest p -value.

The path weight with the next lowest p -value was paired with a sequentially corrected alpha of .0029 (a traditional alpha of .05 divided by seventeen). This procedure continued until the path coefficient with the largest p -value was assigned with sequentially corrected alpha of .05 (a traditional alpha of .05 divided by one) for each hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3a. To test if the value congruence and psychological need fulfillment traditions both significantly contributed to the prediction of organizational attraction, the standardized path weights created by the supplementary and complementary N-S block variables were examined. As presented in Table A-26, value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were both positively related to organizational attraction for the content dimensions of Pay, Job Security, Authority, and Variety. These results provided support for Hypothesis 3a, as supplementary and complementary N-S fit were both significant predictors for four of the nine content dimensions.

Hypothesis 3b. To test if the value congruence and psychological need fulfillment traditions both significantly contributed to the prediction of intentions to join, the standardized path weights created by the supplementary and complementary N-S block variables were examined. As presented in Table A-27, value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were both positively related to intentions to join for the dimensions of Pay and Authority. These results provided moderate support for Hypothesis 3b, as supplementary and complementary N-S fit were both significant predictors for two of the nine content dimensions.

Hypothesis 3c. To test if the value congruence and psychological need fulfillment traditions both significantly contributed to engaging in job search behaviors, the standardized path weights created by the supplementary and complementary N-S block

variables were examined. As presented in Table A-28, value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were both positively related to engaging in job search behaviors for the content dimensions of Relationship, Professional Development, Job Security, and Authority. These results provided support for Hypothesis 3c, as supplementary and complementary N-S fit were both significant predictors for four of the nine content dimensions.

Examining the Research Question

To determine if the relationship between fit and job choice was moderated by the content of the dimensions on which fit was assessed, multiple steps were taken. First, 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for the multiple R values of the URE that captured the appropriate forms of the fit relationships from Hypotheses 1a-c were created using 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method. The multiple R CIs from each content dimension were then compared against one another to determine which, if any, content dimensions when conceptualized as supplementary fit had a stronger independent impact on the job choice outcomes.

Second, the nine block variables that represented the appropriate supplementary fit relationships for the job choice outcomes were entered into three separate prediction models to determine which content dimensions, when considered together, significantly predicted each job choice outcome. A DA was also conducted using the results from a series of OLS multiple regression analyses that used the nine block variables as predictors to determine the relative contribution of the content dimensions for each job choice outcome. These procedures were repeated for the complementary N-S fit

relationships from Hypotheses 2a-c to determine which content dimensions had the strongest independent relationship each of the job choice outcomes.

Finally, the 95% CIs for the standardized path weights used to test Hypotheses 3a-c were examined to determine if a specific content dimension had a stronger impact on the job choice outcomes when operationalized as value congruence or psychological need fulfillment. A DA was also conducted using a series of OLS regression analyses for each of the relationships examined in Hypotheses 3a-c.

Reexamining Hypotheses 1a through 1c. Figures A-60 to A-62 graphically depict the overlap of the CIs for the multiple R values that captured the independent relationship between value congruence and organizational attraction, intentions to join, and job search behaviors. As can be seen in Figure A-60, no one single content dimension emerged as the strongest independent predictor of organizational attraction when operationalized as supplementary fit. While the independent relationships that the Pay and Authority dimensions had with organizational attraction were stronger than the independent relationships that the Relationship and Job Security dimensions had with organizational attraction, the CIs for the Pay and Authority dimensions overlapped with five other content dimensions.

The results of a DA revealed that the dimension of Authority emerged as the most dominant predictor of organizational attraction when all nine supplementary block variables were entered into a single prediction model. That is, the results from a DA demonstrated that while the dimensions of Altruism, Pay, Authority, Variety, and Autonomy were all significant predictors of organizational attraction, the Authority

dimension dominated the prediction, accounting for a larger portion of the predicted variance, 32%, than any other dimension, see Table A-29.

Similar results were found when examining the moderating effects of content dimensions on the relationship between value congruence and intentions to join. As can be seen in Figure A-61, no one single content dimension emerged as the strongest independent predictor of intentions to join when operationalized as supplementary fit. While the independent relationship that the Authority dimension had with joining intentions was stronger than the independent relationships that the Relationship and Job Security dimensions had with joining intentions, the CI for the Authority dimension overlapped with six other content dimensions.

The results of a DA, see Table A-29, demonstrated that the dimension of Authority emerged as the most dominant predictor of intentions to join when all nine supplementary block variables were entered into a single prediction model. That is, the results from a DA demonstrated that the dimensions of Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy were all significant predictors of intentions to join. However, the Authority dimension dominated the prediction, accounting for a larger portion of the predicted variance, 29%, than any other dimension.

Finally, as can be seen in Figure A-62, no one single content dimension emerged as the strongest predictor of engagement in job choice behaviors when operationalized as supplementary fit. While the independent relationship that the Authority dimension had with engagement in job search behaviors was stronger than the independent relationship that Autonomy dimension had with engagement in job search behaviors, the CI for the Authority dimension overlapped with seven other content dimensions.

The results from the DA demonstrated that, unlike with the outcomes of organizational attraction and intentions to join, none of the significant predictors emerged as dominant predictor of engagement in job search behaviors, see Table A-29. While the Relationship, Profession Development, Job Security, and Authority dimensions all significantly contributed to the prediction of engagement in job search behaviors and each accounted for a substantially larger proportion of the predicted variance compared to the five non-significant predictors, none of the four significant predictors clearly dominated the prediction. That is, the Professional Development, 19%, and Authority, 22%, dimensions accounted for a slightly larger proportion of the predicted variance compared with the Relationship, 15%, and Job Security, 14%, dimensions. However, the Professional Development and Authority dimensions each accounted for approximately the same proportion of the predicted variance.

Taken together, these findings provide weak support for the notion that the content on which supplementary fit was assessed moderated the relationship between value congruence and job choice outcomes. The CI overlap indicated that no one single content dimension emerged as the strongest predictor. However, DAs indicated that the dimensions of Altruism and Autonomy were significant predictors for organizational attraction and intentions to join. The Authority dimension was a significant predictor for engagement in job search behaviors as well.

Reexamining Hypotheses 2a through 2c. Figures A-63 to A-65 graphically depict the overlap of the CIs for the multiple *R* values that captured the relationship between psychological need fulfillment and organizational attraction, intentions to join, and job search behaviors. As can be seen in Figure A-63, no one single content dimension

emerged as the strongest independent predictor of organizational attraction when operationalized as complementary N-S fit. While the independent relationships that the Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy dimensions had with organizational attraction were stronger than the independent relationships that the Relationship and Job Security dimensions had with organizational attraction, the confidence intervals for the Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy dimensions overlapped with four other content dimensions.

The results from a DA demonstrated that no one content dimension emerged as the dominant predictor of organizational attraction when all nine complementary N-S fit block variables were entered into a single prediction model, see Table A-30. Specifically, the Altruism, 16%, Authority, 20%, and Autonomy, 18%, dimensions all emerged as significant predictors of organizational attraction and accounted for a substantially larger proportion of the predicted variance compared to the other six dimensions. However, each of the three significant predictors accounted for approximately the same proportion of the predicted variance.

Similar results were found when examining the moderating effects of content dimensions on the relationship between psychological need fulfillment and intentions to join. As can be seen in Figure A-64, no one single content dimension emerged as the strongest independent predictor of intentions to join when operationalized as complementary N-S fit. While the independent relationships that the Altruism and Authority dimensions had with joining intentions was stronger than the independent relationships that the Job Security dimension had with joining intentions, the CIs for the Altruism and Authority dimensions overlapped with six other content dimensions.

The results from a DA found that no one content dimension emerged as the dominant predictor of intentions to join when all nine complementary N-S fit block variables were entered into a single prediction model, see Table A-30. The Altruism, 17%, Authority, 20%, and Autonomy, 17%, dimensions were all significant predictors. However, when compared with one another, the dimensions of Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy accounted for approximately the same proportion of the predicted variance.

Finally, as can be seen in Figure A-65, no one single content dimension emerged as the strongest independent predictor of engagement in job search behaviors when operationalized as complementary N-S fit. All of the nine content dimension CIs overlapped, indicating none of the content dimensions had a moderating effect on the relationship between psychological need fulfillment and engagement in job search behaviors.

The results of a DA, see Table A-30, demonstrated that the Altruism dimension emerged as the most dominant predictor of engagement in job search behaviors when all nine complementary N-S fit block variables were entered into a single prediction model. That is, the results from a DA demonstrated that while the dimensions of Altruism, 26%, and Authority, 14%, were both significant predictors of engagement in job search behaviors, the Altruism dimension dominated the prediction, accounting for a larger portion of the predicted variance than any other dimension.

Taken together, these results provided weak support for the notion that the content on which complementary N-S fit was assessed moderated the relationship between psychological need fulfillment and job choice outcomes. The CI overlap indicated that no one single content dimension emerged as the strongest predictor. However, DAs

indicated that the Autonomy dimension was a significant predictor for organizational attraction and intentions to join. The Altruism and Authority dimensions were significant predictors for all three job choice outcomes.

Reexamining Hypotheses 3a through 3c. Figures A-66 to A-68 graphically depict overlap of the CIs for the standardized path weights that captured the joint impact that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment had on organizational attraction, intentions to join, and job search behaviors. As can be seen in Figure A-66, all of the content dimensions were stronger predictors of organizational attraction when operationalized as complementary N-S fit. The results from a series of DAs, see Table A-31, supported this conclusion and found that when value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were considered together, the operationalizations of complementary N-S fit accounted for substantially larger proportions of the predicted variance.

Similar results were found when examining the joint impact that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment had on intentions to join. As can be seen in Figure A-67, all of the content dimensions were stronger predictors of intentions to join when operationalized as complementary N-S fit. The results from a series of DAs, see Table A-32, also supported this conclusion and found that when value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were considered together, the operationalizations of complementary N-S fit accounted for substantially larger proportions of predicted variance.

A slightly different pattern of results emerged when examining the joint impact that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment had on job search behaviors. As can be seen in Figure A-68, four of the content dimensions, Altruism, Prestige, Variety,

and Autonomy, were stronger predictors of engaging in job choice behaviors when operationalized as complementary N-S fit. However, for the remaining content dimensions, the CIs around the standardized path weights for supplementary and complementary N-S fit overlapped, suggesting that, when considered together, psychological need fulfillment did not have a stronger impact on engagement in job search behaviors compared to value congruence for the Relationship, Professional Development, Pay, Job Security, and Authority dimensions.

The results from a series of DAs clearly demonstrated that for the dimensions of Altruism, Prestige, Variety, and Autonomy, complementary N-S fit dominated the prediction of engagement in job search behaviors, see Table A-33. For the Relationship and Job Security dimensions, DAs revealed that while the CIs around the standardized path weights for supplementary and complementary N-S fit overlapped, operationalizations of complementary N-S fit dominated the prediction of engagement in job search behaviors. The results from DAs for the Professional Development and Authority dimensions revealed that, while operationalizations of complementary N-S fit did account for larger proportions of predicted variance, the discrepancy between operationalizations of supplementary and complementary N-S fit were smaller than for any other content dimension.

Taken together, these results provided evidence that suggests that psychological need fulfillment had a stronger impact on job choice variables compared to value congruence for organizational attraction and intentions to join. These results also suggested that psychological need fulfillment had a stronger impact compared to value congruence for engagement in job search behaviors.

Functional Form of Fit Relationships

Functional form of supplementary fit relationships. As seen in Tables A-13, A-16, and A-18, the functional form of the value congruence relationships were found to be monotonic in 44% of the cases, 12 of 27, parabolic in 41% of the cases, 11 of 27, and asymptotic in 15% of the cases, four of 27. However, examining only the change in R^2 of the URE does not provide a complete picture of how the congruence between individual and perceived organization values impacted the job choice outcomes. To fully understand how value congruence influences individual outcomes, the three-dimensional surface plots need to be examined. An interpretation of the three-dimensional surface plots for the supplementary fit relationships is presented in the following paragraphs.

Two of the twelve supplementary fit relationships that were monotonic conformed to the traditional conceptualization of a monotonic relationship discussed in Chapter 3. Specifically, the supplementary fit relationships for the Autonomy dimension and the outcomes of organizational attraction and intentions to join were consistent with a traditional monotonic relationship, Figures A-14 and A-23. For these two monotonic relationships, when individual values were perceived to exceed those of the organization, the outcomes (i.e., organizational attraction and intentions to join) were the lowest or minimized (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface around Line 1 in Figure A-14). As perceived organizational values increase to match those of the individual (e.g., moving along the three-dimensional surface from Line 1 to Line 2 in Figure A-14), organizational attraction and intentions to join increased. These job choice outcomes continued to increase as perceived organizational values exceeded individual values (e.g., moving from Line 2 to Line 3 in Figure A-14). Organizational attraction and intentions to

join were highest when the organization was perceived to maximally over-value a concept (i.e., a rating of one for individual values and a rating of five for perceived organizational values).

Ten of the twelve monotonic supplementary fit relationships did not conform to the traditional conceptualization of a monotonic relationship. As can be seen in Figures A-16, A-17, A-19, A-24, A-26, A-27, A-28, A-30, A-31, and A-32, the supplementary fit relationships for intentions to join and engagement in job search behaviors across multiple content dimensions diverged from the pattern of the monotonic relationships previously discussed. In these ten monotonic relationships, the outcomes of intentions to join and engagement in job search behaviors were minimized when perfect congruence occurred between individual values and perceived organizational values at the lowest end of the value continuum (i.e., a rating of one for both individual and perceived organizational values). That is, job seekers had the lowest intentions to join and reported engaging in the fewest job search behaviors when neither the individual nor the organization valued a particular content dimension (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-26). These job choice outcomes increased as the perfect congruence between individual and perceived organizational values occurred in the middle of the value continuum (i.e., a rating of three for both individual and perceived organizational values). Interestingly, intentions to join and reported engagement in job search behaviors were found to be approximately equivalent (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface around Line 1 in Figure A-26) in the majority of the ten monotonic relationships when either perfect congruence occurred in the middle of the value continuum, the organization was perceived to maximally over-value a concept,

or the organization was perceived to maximally under-value a concept (i.e., a rating of five for individual values and a rating of one for perceived organizational values). The job choice outcomes were maximized (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-26) in these ten monotonic fit relationships when perfect congruence occurred between individual values and perceived organizational values at the highest end of the value continuum (i.e., a rating of five for both individual and perceived organizational values).

For the eleven supplementary fit relationships that were parabolic, none perfectly conformed to the traditional conceptualization of a parabolic relationship discussed in Chapter 3. That is, the traditional conceptualization of a parabolic relationship indicates that when perfect congruence is achieved anywhere on the value continuum, the outcome should be maximized. For nine of the study's eleven parabolic supplementary fit relationships, Figures A-6, A-7, A-8, A-11, A-15, A-18, A-20, A-21, and A-22, an examination of the three-dimensional surface plots revealed that organizational attraction and intentions to join were only maximized when perfect congruence between individual and perceived organizational values occurred at the highest end of the value continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-21). Conversely, job choice outcomes were substantially lower for these nine parabolic relationships when perfect congruence occurred at the lowest end of the value continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-21). Consistent with the traditional conceptualization of a parabolic relationship, organizational attraction and intentions to join began to decrease as value congruence moved away from the line of perfect fit (e.g., moving left or right of Line 1 on the three-dimensional surface in Figure A-21). That is,

levels of organizational attraction and intentions to join generally declined as perceived organizational values moved toward to maximally over-valuing or maximally under-valuing a concept.

The two remaining parabolic supplementary fit relationships were found to be two unique forms of the parabolic relationship. First, examining the three-dimensional surface plot for engagement in job search behaviors for the dimension of Job Security revealed that engagement in job search behaviors only increased, and consequently was maximized, when value congruence occurred at the higher end of the value continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-29). Examining this same surface plot also revealed that engagement in job search behaviors was consistently low at all other points of congruence and only increased with congruence at the higher ends of the value continuum. A very different picture emerged when examining the three-dimensional surface plot for engagement in job search behaviors for the Relationship dimension, Figure A-25. This plot revealed that engagement in job search behaviors was highest when the organization was perceived to maximally over-value the Relationship dimension (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-25) and relatively low at all other points of congruence.

The remaining four supplementary fit relationships were found to be asymptotic in nature. An examination of the three-dimensional surface plots revealed that three of the asymptotic relationships shared a similar pattern, Figures A-9, A-10, and A-12. As with the majority of the previously discussed value congruence relationships, the job choice outcome, organization attraction, was maximized when perfect congruence occurred at the highest end of the value continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in

Circle 1 in Figure A-10) and significantly lower when congruence occurred at the lower end of the value continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-10). However, these three asymptotic relationships each shared a unique characteristic. Organizational attraction increased as the perceived value the organization placed on a dimension increased (e.g., moving along the three-dimensional surface from Line 1 to Line 2 in Figure A-10). However, organizational attraction sharply declined when the organization was perceived to maximally over-value the dimension (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 3 in Figure A-10), but sharply rose when both the individual and the organization strongly valued the dimension.

Finally, the relationship between supplementary fit and organizational attraction for the dimension of Variety was found to be asymptotic, see Figure A-13. Similar to the asymptotic relationships previously discussed, when the values were congruent at the highest end of the value continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-13), organizational attraction was maximized. However, counter to the asymptotic relationships previously discussed, organizational attraction remained rather static as the perceived organization value began to increase (e.g., moving along the three-dimensional surface from Line 1 to Line 2 in Figure A-13). As the organization began to over-value the Variety dimension organizational attraction began to decline and was found to be minimized when the organization was perceived to maximally over-value the dimension (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-13).

The cumulative results of the three-dimensional surface plots revealed that in 89%, 24 of the 27, of the value congruence relationships, the outcome was maximized

when congruence occurred at the highest end of the value continuum. That is, the majority of the value congruence relationships that were categorized as either monotonic, parabolic, or asymptotic demonstrated that organizational attraction, intentions to join, and the number of job search behaviors engaged in were highest when individuals believed that they and the organization strongly valued a specific characteristic. Conversely, outcomes were minimized in 67%, 18 of the 27, supplementary fit relationships when congruence occurred at the lowest end of the value continuum.

Functional form of complementary N-S fit relationships. As seen in Tables A-20, A-23, and A-25, the functional form of the psychological need fulfillment relationships were found to be monotonic in 26% of the cases, 7 of 27, parabolic in 56% of the cases, 15 of 27, and asymptotic in 19% of the cases, five of 27. As with the supplementary fit relationships, examining only the change in R^2 of the URE does not provide a complete picture of how complementary N-S fit impacted the job choice outcomes. As such, an interpretation of the three-dimensional surface plots for the complementary N-S fit relationships is presented in the following paragraphs.

None of the seven complementary N-S fit relationships that were monotonic conformed to the traditional conceptualization of a monotonic relationship. Rather, examining the three-dimensional surface plots for two of the seven monotonic complementary N-S fit relationships, see Figures A-44 and A-46, revealed that intentions to join was lowest when perfect congruence occurred between individual's needs and perceived organizational supplies at the lowest end of the continuum (i.e., a rating of one for individual needs and perceived organizational supplies). That is, job seekers had the lowest intentions to join when neither the individual needed nor the individual believed

the organization supplied a particular content dimension (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-44). Intentions to join then increased as the perfect congruence between individual needs and perceived organizational supplies occurred in the middle of the continuum (i.e., a rating of three for both individual needs and perceived organizational supplies). Intentions to join were found to be higher (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface around Line 1 in Figure A-44) when the organization was perceived to maximally over-supply a concept (i.e., a rating of one for individual needs and a rating of five for perceived organizational supplies) than when perfect congruence occurred in the middle of the continuum or when the organization was perceived to maximally under-supply a concept (i.e., a rating of five for individual needs and a rating of one for perceived organizational supplies). As with the vast majority of the other fit relationships previously examined, the job choice outcome was maximized (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-44) when perfect congruence occurred at the highest end of the continuum (i.e., a rating of five for both individual needs and perceived organizational supplies).

For the remaining five monotonic complementary N-S fit relationship, Figures A-36, A-45, A-50, A-54, and A-55, analysis of the surface plots revealed that only the environment (i.e., perceived organizational supplies) impacted job choice outcomes. In these complementary N-S fit relationships individual needs had no significant impact on the job choice outcome. Rather, there was a simple linear relationship between perceived organizational supplies and the job choice outcome. The level of individual needs did not impact the job choice outcome. An example was the relationship between complementary N-S fit and organizational attraction for the Pay dimension, Figure A-36.

Of the fifteen complementary N-S fit relationships that were parabolic, none perfectly conformed to the traditional parabolic conceptualization. For eleven of the study's fifteen parabolic complementary N-S fit relationships, Figures A-34, A-35, A-39, A-41, A-42, A-43, A-47, A-48, A-49, A-53, and A-56, an examination of the surface plots revealed that job choice outcomes were maximized when perfect congruence between individual needs and perceived organizational supplies occurred at the highest end of the continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-48). However, when perfect congruence occurred at the lowest end of the continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-48), job choice outcomes were substantially lower. In these eleven parabolic relationships, outcomes began to decrease as need-supply compatibility moved in either direction from the line of perfect fit (e.g., moving left or right of Line 1 on the three-dimensional surface in Figure A-48).

The four remaining parabolic complementary N-S fit relationships were found to be a unique form of the parabolic relationship. Examining the three-dimensional surface plots for these four relationships, Figures A-52, A-57, A-58, and A-59, revealed that engagement in job search behaviors only increased when compatibility between individual needs and perceived organizational supplies occurred at the higher ends of the continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-57). Examining this same surface plot also revealed that engagement in job search behaviors was relatively low at all other points of compatibility, but was minimized when the organization was perceived to maximally under-supply a concept (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-57).

The remaining five complementary N-S fit relationships were found to be asymptotic in nature, Figures A-33, A-37, A-38, A-40, and A-51. As with the majority of psychological need fulfillment relationships, organization attraction and engagement in job search behaviors were found to be maximized when perfect compatibility occurred at the highest end of the continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 1 in Figure A-33) and significantly lower when congruence occurred at the lowest end of the continuum (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 2 in Figure A-33). In these five asymptotic relationships, the job choice outcome increased as the perceived amount the organization supplied a dimension increased (e.g., moving along the three-dimensional surface from Line 1 to Line 2 in Figure A-33), but sharply declined when the organization was perceived to maximally over-supply the dimension (e.g., the area on the three-dimensional surface in Circle 3 in Figure A-33).

Together, the cumulative results of the three-dimensional surface plots revealed that for 81%, 22 of the 27, of the psychological need fulfillment relationships; the job choice outcome was highest when compatibility between individual needs and perceived organizational supplies occurred at the highest end of the continuum. That is, the psychological need fulfillment relationships that were categorized as monotonic, parabolic, or asymptotic revealed that organizational attraction, intentions to join, or the number of job search behaviors engaged in was the highest when individuals strongly needed a specific characteristic and they strongly believed that joining the organization could satisfy that specific need. Interestingly, job choice outcomes were minimized in 44%, 12 of the 27, complementary N-S fit relationships when perfect compatibility occurred at the lowest end of the need-supply continuum.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

While previous efforts examining the role that P-O fit plays in the job choice process have demonstrated that perceptions of “fit” with an organization impact the decisions of job seekers, these studies have focused on one conceptualization of P-O fit, supplementary fit (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Dineen et al. 2002; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and have only utilized global measures to assess perceptions of P-O fit (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Cable & Judge, 1994; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Van Vianen, 2000). Although these studies have demonstrated that global measures of supplementary P-O fit have a significant, positive relationship with job choice outcomes, they have only examined how one mechanism of the fit paradigm impacts the job choice process. No published research has examined how perceptions of complementary N-S fit impact the job choice process, or whether the characteristics that individuals use to compare themselves to an organization impact pre-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors.

As a result of this gap in the literature, an incomplete picture exists regarding how job seekers evaluate their fit with an organization and how those perceptions of P-O fit impact pre-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. This incomplete understanding of the thought processes that job seekers engage in when determining which organizations to pursue and ultimately join limits an organization’s ability to attract, recruit, and select the most-qualified individuals and remain viable.

The current study helped to address these gaps by first examining the impact that both conceptualizations of P-O fit have on job choice outcomes. Specifically, the study

examined the independent and joint effects that supplementary fit (i.e., value congruence) and complementary N-S fit (i.e., psychological need fulfillment) have on the job choice outcomes of organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors. The study also explored how the different characteristics that individuals used to compare themselves to an organization (i.e., content dimensions) differentially impact the relationship between supplementary and complementary N-S fit and job choice outcomes.

The current study examined the job choice process with regard to a specific type of work organization, the U.S. Military. The U.S. Military is one of the largest employers in the United States- recruiting, selecting, and training over 200,000 new individuals annually. Due to this extensive mission, the U.S. Military is an innovator in developing and implementing new human resource techniques, with many of these recruiting practices ultimately filtering down to the private and other public sectors (Gatewood & Field, 2001). As such, the Military provided a unique opportunity to examine how perceptions of fit with an actual organization impacted intentions, attitudes, and behaviors of individuals who are being actively recruited by the organization.

The Relationship between P-O Fit and Job Choice Outcomes

Impact of supplementary fit on job choice outcomes. The psychological underpinnings of supplementary fit are based on the social identity theory (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), which posits that individuals are more likely to be attracted to and join organizations that possess characteristics similar to their own. It was believed that individuals who perceived a similarity between themselves and the characteristics of an organization would view joining such an organization as a public expression of who they

are and joining would serve to reinforce their identities. Based on this theory, the study hypothesized that value congruence would be positively related to organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors.

Results demonstrated that value congruence had a significant, independent, positive relationship with each of the study's outcomes across all nine content dimensions. Organizational attraction had the strongest association, with an average multiple R of .29 (average R^2 of .08) across the nine content dimensions. Value congruence had more modest, but still significant, associations with both intentions to join, average multiple R of .20 (average R^2 of .04), and engagement in job search behaviors, average multiple R of .17 (average R^2 of .03). Together, these findings suggest that individuals who perceived similarity between their values and the Military's values were more likely to believe the Military was an appealing place to work, express a desire to join, and engage in the behaviors designed to gather information about joining the Military. These results were consistent with the findings from previous research in the P-O fit arena that found that supplementary fit was positively related to both pre- and post-entry individual-level outcomes (e.g., Dineen et al., 2002; Judge & Cable, 1997; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Likewise, these findings support the social identity theory proposition that individuals will be more likely to consider joining an organization that is perceived to share similar values because joining such an organization is a public expression of an individual's values and reinforces that individual's self-concept (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Popovich & Wanous, 1982).

Impact of complementary N-S fit on job choice outcomes. The theoretical foundation for the positive relationship between complementary N-S fit and the job

choice process is based in the rich need fulfillment literature (French & Kahn, 1962; Harrison, 1978; Murray, 1938; Porter, 1961, 1962). This literature suggests that individuals will be more satisfied with and ultimately more attracted to environments that they believe meet their personal and professional needs. This literature refers to psychological needs that are acquired through learning and socialization as opposed to needs that are not biological in nature. As such, it was hypothesized that psychological need fulfillment would be positively related to the study's three job choice outcomes.

Results demonstrated that psychological need fulfillment had a significant, independent, positive relationship with all of the study's job choice outcomes across all nine content dimensions. The study found that organizational attraction had the strongest association with psychological need fulfillment, with an average multiple R of .39 (average R^2 of .15). The association between intentions to join and complementary N-S fit was moderate, with an average multiple R of .28 (average R^2 of .08). Finally, psychological need fulfillment had a weaker, but still significant, association with engagement in job search behaviors, average multiple R of .21 (average R^2 of .05). These results demonstrated that individuals who believed that the Military offered opportunities that would satisfy their personal needs were more likely to report that the Military would be an attractive place to work, express an intention to join, and engage in activities to learn more about the organization.

These findings were consistent with both the need fulfillment theories and findings of previous research on post-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. That is, the study's findings supported the contention that people are attracted to organizations they believe can meet their psychological needs. Specifically, the study found that the

stronger the compatibility between individuals' psychological needs and perceived organizational supplies, the more likely individuals were to be attracted to the organization, express an intention to join, and engage in job search behaviors. The study's findings were also consistent with previous research demonstrating that complementary N-S fit had a positive relationship with a number of post-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors (e.g., Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Joint impact on job choice outcomes. Researchers have long suggested that the impact that P-O fit has on individual-level outcomes will be maximized when an organization both reinforces the self-identity of an individual *and* has the ability to satisfy that individual's needs (Kristof, 1996, Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Despite this recommendation, only one published study has examined the joint impact of supplementary and complementary N-S fit on post-entry outcomes (Cable & Edwards, 2004), finding that each uniquely and equally contributed to these outcomes. Therefore, the current study hypothesized that, when considered together, both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment would significantly predict each of the job search outcomes.

Results from the current study supported this hypothesis, suggesting that both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment significantly contributed to the prediction of each of the study's job choice outcome measures across multiple content dimensions. Specifically, value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were both found to significantly predict organizational attraction for the Pay, Job Security, Authority, and Variety dimensions. The two P-O fit traditions significantly contributed to the prediction of intentions to join for the Pay and Authority dimensions. Finally, value

congruence and psychological need fulfillment were significant predictors of engagement in job search behaviors for the Relationship, Development, Job Security, and Authority dimensions. These findings suggest that individuals who believed they shared specific values with members of the Military *and* believed that the Military's environment offered them opportunities to satisfy specific personal needs were more likely to believe the Military was an attractive place to work, express a desire to join, and engage in activities to learn more about the organization. Thus, there appears to be two different processes underlying the perceived compatibility between a job seeker and a potential employing organization with each process uniquely contributing to the job choice process.

While the results were generally consistent with the only published study that directly compared the impact that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment had on individual-level outcomes, one key difference emerged. Previous research has found that value congruence and psychological need fulfillment each equally and uniquely contributed to the prediction of post-entry attitudes and intentions (Cable & Edwards, 2004). However, the current study found that while both supplementary and complementary N-S fit significantly contributed to the job choice process, the two P-O fit traditions were not equal predictors of pre-entry job outcomes. Instead results showed that, when considered together, measures of psychological need fulfillment dominated the prediction of pre-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. Specifically, the study found that across the nine content dimensions psychological need fulfillment accounted for an average of 73% of the predicted variance in both organizational attraction (ranging from 64% to 80%) and intentions to join (ranging from 62% to 82%) and accounted for an average of 69% of the predicted variance in engagement in job search behaviors (ranging

from 57% to 81%). These findings suggest that individuals early in the job choice process placed more weight on the perceived ability of the Military to satisfy their personal needs, rather than the perceived ability of the Military to reinforce their self-identities.

Impact of Content Dimensions on P-O Fit Outcomes

Due to the fact that the current study did not rely on overall, global measures of supplementary and complementary N-S fit, it was possible to examine the joint impact that specific individual attributes and perceived organizational characteristics had on the job choice process. That is, rather than simply assessing the overall degree to which an individual and the Military shared similar values, the study's methodology allowed an assessment of the perceived congruence on specific shared values and determine which of those shared values had the strongest impact on individual-level pre-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. This same methodology allowed for an investigation of the impact that the perceived ability of the Military to satisfy specific individual needs had on the job choice process. Finally, the study explored which content dimensions significantly predicted job choice outcomes for both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment.

Impact of content dimensions on supplementary fit. As previously discussed, the study generally indicated that value congruence was positively related to job choice outcomes. This conclusion was based on the findings that, when considered individually, all nine content dimensions demonstrated a significant, positive relationship with each job choice outcome. The study also explored if the content of the dimension on which value congruence was assessed had differential impact on the relationship between supplementary fit and the outcomes.

The results showed that, when considered together, only a subset of the nine content dimensions when conceptualized as supplementary fit significantly contributed to the prediction of each job choice outcome. Specifically, five of the nine content dimensions, Altruism, Pay, Authority, Variety, and Autonomy, were found to significantly contribute to the prediction of organizational attraction. Three of the nine dimensions, Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy, were significant predictors of intentions to join. Finally, four of the nine content dimensions, Relationships, Development, Security, and Authority, significantly contributed to the prediction of engagement in job search behaviors. Collectively, the study's results suggested that while general value congruence was positively associated with each outcome, sharing specific values with an organization had a stronger impact on organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors.

While there were subtle differences amongst which content dimensions were most important in the prediction of each job choice outcome, a few noteworthy findings emerged. First, when considered together, only the Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy dimensions were found to be significant predictors across multiple outcomes. Specifically, the Authority dimension was found to significantly contribute to the prediction of all three outcomes, while Altruism and Autonomy were significant predictors for both organizational attraction and intentions to join. That is, when assessing the impact that supplementary fit had on pre-entry outcomes, sharing the value of having a work environment with clearly defined rules (Authority) was found to be the strongest predictor of all three job choice variables. For the organizational attraction and intention to join outcomes, sharing the values of helping others (Altruism) and allowing

individuals to be self-directed in their work (Autonomy) were also found to be significant predictors.

Generally speaking, these findings indicate that perceptions of sharing the values of Altruism, Autonomy, and Authority were the key predictors of job seekers' likelihood of reporting that the Military was an attractive place to work, expressing an intention to join, and engaging in activities to learn more about the Military. It appears that if job seekers believe that joining the Military can bolster these specific aspects of their identities, then they will be more likely to express an interest in joining.

Impact of content dimensions on complementary N-S fit. The study also generally concluded that psychological need fulfillment was positively related to job choice outcomes. This conclusion was based on the finding that, when considered individually, all nine content dimensions demonstrated a significant, positive relationship with each job choice outcome. The study also sought to determine if the content of the dimension on which complementary N-S fit was assessed had differential impact on the relationship between psychological need fulfillment and the job choice outcomes.

The study's results showed that, when considered together, only a subset of the nine content dimensions were important to the prediction of each job choice outcome. In particular, the results revealed that three of the nine content dimensions, Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy, contributed to the prediction of both organizational attraction and intentions to join. However, only two of the nine dimensions, Altruism and Authority, were significant predictors of engagement job search behaviors. Together, these results suggest that while general psychological need fulfillment was positively associated with the job choice outcomes, the belief that certain psychological needs

would be satisfied by joining the Military had the strongest impact on the job choice process.

Thus, the content dimensions of Altruism, Authority, and Autonomy clearly emerged as the key predictors of the job choice process when conceptualized as psychological need fulfillment. These results indicate that if individuals believed that joining the Military would help satisfy their need to be of service to others (Altruism) and work in an environment with clearly defined rules (Authority), they were more likely to report that the Military was an appealing place to work, express an intention to join, and take active steps toward learning about joining the Military. While only the dimensions of Altruism and Authority significantly contributed to the prediction of all three job choice outcomes, the perception that the Military would satisfy the need to be self-directed at work (Autonomy) also had a significant impact on organizational attraction and intentions to join.

Together, these findings indicate that perceptions that joining the Military will fulfill the need to be altruistic, have autonomy, and work in a structured environment were key determinants in predicting if job seekers were more likely to report the Military was an attractive place to work, express an intention to join, and engage in activities to learn more about joining the Military. It appears that if job seekers believe that joining the Military can satisfy these specific needs, then they will be more likely to express an interest in joining.

Impact of content dimensions on both supplementary and complementary N-S fit.

As presented previously, the current study generally concluded that both the supplementary and complementary N-S fit traditions significantly impacted the job

choice process, but found that only certain content dimensions had a significant impact on the job choice process when operationalized as both supplementary and complementary N-S fit. As with the findings for value congruence and psychological need fulfillment, differences existed across the three job choice outcomes and a few of these differences are worth noting.

Value congruence and psychological need fulfillment were found to significantly predict multiple job choice outcomes for only the Pay, Job Security, and Authority dimensions. Specifically, both fit traditions predicted organization attraction and intentions to join for the Pay dimension. Similarly, supplementary and complementary N-S fit both significantly predicted organizational attraction and engagement in job search behaviors for the Job Security dimension. The Authority dimension, however, was found to significantly predict all three job choice outcomes. That is, organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors were highest, or maximized, when individuals believed that joining the Military would satisfy their need to have a structured work environment *and* when the value of having a structured environment was shared.

Interestingly, measures of value congruence for the Altruism, Prestige, and Autonomy dimensions failed to significantly contribute to any job choice outcomes when considered along with measures of psychological need fulfillment. These findings were unexpected due to the fact that two of these dimensions, Altruism and Autonomy, had a strong influence on the job choice process when operationalized as value congruence. The failure of these dimensions to significantly impact the job choice process when considered with psychological need fulfillment measures suggests that individuals in the

early stages of the job search process placed more weight on the Military's ability to satisfy their specific needs to help others (Altruism) and be self-directed in their work (Autonomy) and little, to no, weight on the ability of the Military to reinforce these aspects of their self-identities.

In sum, tests of the study's hypotheses support three general conclusions. First, early in the job choice process, job seekers appear to determine their fit or compatibility with an organization using two different methods. The first is by assessing the extent to which job seekers and the organization are perceived to share similar values. The second is by determining the extent to which joining an organization would afford the job seeker the opportunity to satisfy his or her psychological needs. Second, while both value congruence and psychological need fulfillment significantly impacted the job choice process, early in the employment cycle the perceived ability of an organization to satisfy individuals' psychological needs is a stronger determinant of organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors. Third, the characteristics that job seekers use to compare themselves with a potential employer are important. For example, this study found that when the Military was perceived to be able to satisfy the specific needs to be altruistic, autonomous, and work in a structured environment, job seekers were most likely to report being attracted to the organization, intending to join, and engaging in behaviors to learn more about joining the Military.

Functional Form of Fit Relationships

Conventional thinking in fit research is that individual-level outcomes are always maximized when individual and organizational attributes are in perfect symmetry (Edwards, 1996; Edwards & Parry, 1993). That is, the predominate thought in P-O fit

research is that an outcome (e.g., job satisfaction) will always be highest when perfect fit between the person and the organization is achieved (e.g., either a rating of a one on both the individual and organizational characteristics *or* a rating of three for both the individual and organizational characteristics *or* a rating of five for both the individual and organizational characteristics). This conventional view of a fit relationship also posits that as the compatibility between the individual and the organization moves away from perfect symmetry, the individual-level outcome will decline accordingly and will be minimized, or the lowest, in situations of perfect mis-fit (e.g., either a rating of a one on the individual characteristic and a rating of five on the organizational characteristic *or* a rating of a five on the individual characteristic and a rating of one on the organizational characteristic). This traditional view of a P-O fit relationship is illustrated by a squared difference score and by the pure form of a parabolic relationship, which is illustrated in Figure A-4.

In an effort to examine the extent to which these views of the traditional fit relationship were applicable to the early stages of the job choice process, the current study utilized the PRP and three-dimensional surface plots. This methodology allowed for a more detailed examination of the relationship between P-O fit and each of the study's outcomes. The results revealed that none of the functional forms relating value congruence and psychological need fulfillment to the job choice outcomes followed the traditional view of how a fit relationship should impact an individual-level outcome. That is, the functional forms examined in the current study did not find that organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors were always highest when individual and organizational characteristics were perfectly matched. Instead, an

analysis of the functional forms for the supplementary and complementary N-S fit relationships revealed that in 89% of the value congruence and 81% of the psychological need fulfillment relationships outcomes were highest only when the perceived match between individual and organizational attributes occurred at the highest end of the continuum (e.g., a rating of a five for both the individual and organizational characteristics). Conversely, the job choice outcome was actually the lowest when perfect fit occurred at the lowest end of the individual and organizational scales (e.g., a rating of a one for both the individual and organizational characteristics) in 48% of the value congruence and 44% of the psychological need fulfillment relationships.

Additionally, an examination of the three-dimensional surface plots revealed that 19% of the complementary N-S fit relationships should not be technically classified as “fit” relationships. In these relationships, the compatibility between individuals and the organization had little to no impact. That is, measures of individual needs failed to significantly contribute to the prediction of the job choice outcomes. These relationships showed only a main effect for perceived organizational supplies on job choice outcomes. The best examples of these “main effect” complementary N-S fit relationships were for the content dimension of Pay. In these relationships, the more the organization was perceived to provide the opportunity to receive good pay, regardless of the reported level of individual need, the more job seekers reported being attracted to the organization, intend to join, and engaging in job search behaviors.

Together, these results have several of implications. First, they suggest that individuals only see “fit” in the positive. For example, it appears that perceived supplementary fit tends to have a positive impact on job seekers decisions to pursue

employment with an organization if job seekers strongly value a particular concept *and* believe the organization does the same. Likewise, complementary N-S fit will only have a positive impact on the job choice process when individuals have a strong specific need *and* strongly believe the organization can satisfy that need. Thus, it appears that if individuals do not strongly value or do not strongly need a particular concept, the concept loses its salience. In cases such as these, perfect fit on a concept that is not valued or needed has no, and possibly a detrimental, effect on job choice decisions.

Second, the compatibility between individual needs and perceived organizational supplies appeared to have no impact on the job choice process for certain dimensions. That is, the study's findings suggest that the notion of "fit" might not be equally applicable to all content dimensions. Specifically, the study found that only the main effect for certain perceived organizational supplies had an impact on the study's job choice outcomes. This runs counter to the notion that the fit or compatibility between an individual and an organization always improves an individual-level outcome. For certain characteristics, it appears that simply the more an organization offers, the more job seekers will be interested and willing to pursue employment.

Third, these findings highlight the need to employ both the PRP and three-dimensional surface response methodology to deconstruct the complexities of the fit-outcome relationship. As the study demonstrates, the sole use of a robust methodology such as polynomial regression analysis is incomplete and can hide the complexities of a fit-outcome relationship. Examining a fit-outcome relationship in three-dimensional space can help unravel the differential impact that perfect fit and perfect mis-fit can have on an outcome.

Finally, these findings continue to highlight the problems with the use of traditional difference scores when assessing the impact that fit has on individual-level outcomes. As the results of the study show, perfect fit at the highest end of the continuum does not have the same impact as perfect fit at the lowest end of the continuum. The use of traditional difference scores, and squared difference scores in particular, masks these effects and assumes that the impact that perfect fit has on an outcome is static regardless of where in the scale the symmetry occurs. Simply using the more traditional techniques to assess the impact that P-O fit has on outcomes may lead researchers to draw incorrect or inaccurate conclusions.

Strengths and Limitations

This study extended the findings of previous P-O fit research by exploring the independent and joint effects that the supplementary and complementary N-S fit traditions have on the job choice process. Results suggest that the findings from previous studies, which demonstrated that individuals were more attracted to and interested in joining organizations that shared similar characteristics, only partially capture the impact that P-O fit has on the job choice process. Rather, job seekers are concerned with *both* reinforcing their self-identities through joining an organization with similar values *and* looking for opportunities to satisfy psychological needs when making job choice decisions. These findings imply that future research should separately assess the concepts of supplementary and complementary N-S fit to more accurately capture the impact that “fit” with an organization has on individual-level outcomes.

The study utilized an indirect measurement strategy to assess the impact that perceived P-O fit had on individual-level outcomes. Employing this measurement

strategy offered several key advantages. First, the use of an indirect measurement methodology allowed for a more precise examination of how specific content dimensions impacted the relationship between P-O fit and job choice outcomes. It was found that some specific content dimensions were more important than others in the prediction of the job choice outcomes. These results imply that both researchers and practitioners should consider more than global value congruence and overall psychological need fulfillment when examining the impact that supplementary and complementary N-S fit has on individual-level outcomes. Second, the use of the PRP and accompanying three-dimensional surface plots permitted an investigation of the functional form of the study's relationships that illustrated the complex manner in which supplementary and complementary N-S fit impacted job choice outcomes. Conducting this type of detailed examination helped to enhance the collective understanding of how the compatibility between organizational attributes and perceived organizational characteristics influence job choice decisions. Third, the use of indirect measures and the PRP helped to reduce the common method bias that plagues traditional P-O fit research. Since all of the measures in the study used self-report data, it was possible that common method variance inflated the correlations among the individual, organizational, and outcome measures (Edwards, 1993; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, researchers have suggested that this inflation is greatly reduced through the use of indirect measures and the PRP (see Edwards, 1996). Specifically, common method variance is reported to be less likely to inflate the correlations among nonlinear and interactive relationships (Evans, 1985). Despite this, the exclusive use of self-report measures warrants attention. Future research should consider replicating and validating

the study's findings using objective measures of organizational characteristics. That is, future research in this area should not rely on individuals' perceptions of organizational values and supplies but should assess these organizational attributes by asking members of the organization to describe these characteristics of the organization.

An additional strength of the current study was the use of survey data from a field study. The participants in the study, individuals ages 14 to 21, are the U.S. Military's primary recruiting market and are all potential applicants. That is, all individuals in the United States between the ages of 14 and 21 have an extremely high probability of being recruited by the Military through direct mail, personal contact, or messaging in popular media. As a result, participants in the current study are actually in the early stages of the job choice process because they have the potential to decide to whether or not to pursue employment with the Military. Thus, the relationships found between supplementary and complementary N-S fit and outcomes represent the association between actual potential applicants and an actual organization.

Despite these strengths and contributions, this study has some important limitations that should be noted. First, while this study represented a first step in showing the importance of assessing both supplementary and complementary N-S fit, the outcome measures were self-reported attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. Given that the ultimate goal of an organization's recruiting efforts is to increase the size of the applicant pool, using attitudinal and self-reported behaviors represents a limitation. While previous research has demonstrated that bolstering organizational attraction and intentions to join early in the job choice process has a positive impact on job choice behaviors (e.g., Chapman et al., 2005; Orvis, Gahart, Ludwig, 1992; Orvis, Sastry, & McDonald, 1996;

Stone, Turner, & Wiggins, 1993), further research needs to be conducted to help establish a direct link between P-O fit, both perceived and objective, and actual job choice behaviors.

Second, while the use of field data is generally considered to have greater external validity, a degree of internal validity was sacrificed. Specifically, survey research often lacks the control that is available in laboratory settings. As a result, it was not possible to insulate participants from outside influences that could impact the directional causality of the study's relationship. For example, due to the fact that all of the study's data were collected at a single point in time, it was not possible to track the formation of participants' attitudes and intentions. It was also not possible to determine if individuals perceived a "fit" between themselves and the Military before or after engaging in any pre-entry behaviors. Thus, the results of the study cannot definitively specify the causal direction of the relationships found. Although findings from previous research and job choice theories suggest that individuals are more attracted to and will take active steps to learn more about joining an organization that they perceive to be a good "fit" or "match" for them, the results of the current study cannot prove this directional causality. Despite these limitations, the finding that both perceived supplementary and complementary N-S fit are positively associated with job choice outcomes represents an important step in understanding how and why individuals choose to pursue employment with an organization.

Third, the use of the U.S. Military as a context for examining how perceptions of P-O fit affected job choice outcomes had several implications for the generalizability of the study's results and conclusions. First, it is expected that the finding that both

supplementary and complementary N-S fit were significantly related to the study's three job choice outcomes will generalize to other recruiting contexts. It is also expected that, for all individuals early in the job choice process, perceptions of complementary N-S fit will be a stronger determinant of organizational attraction, intentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors than value congruence. These findings are expected to generalize given the strong similarities between the recruiting activities of the U.S. Military and most major U.S. companies and the use of individuals who are actually in the early stages of the job choice process. Additionally, it appears reasonable to assume that job seekers would want to first determine the ability of a potential employer to satisfy their psychological needs and then determine if joining that organization would serve to reinforce their self-identities.

It is not expected, however, that the specific content dimensions that were found to dominate the prediction of the job choice outcomes will do so in all recruiting situations. While it is expected that some content dimensions will be more salient than others in varying job choice situations, it is believed that different content dimensions will dominate the prediction of job choice outcomes when different organizations are considered. That is, it is expected that in other recruiting situations, different content dimensions will emerge as key determinants of job choice decisions. Which dimensions emerge will most likely depend on the characteristics of the organization, including the industry and the organization's reputation (Bretz & Judge 1994; Cable & Judge, 1994; Rynes, Bretz, & Gerhart, 1991).

Finally, while the use of indirect measures offered several key advantages, one concern regarding the measurement of personal values, psychological needs,

organizational values, and organizational supplies remains unresolved. Consistent with previous research and theory (Hogan, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Schein, 1992), the study found strong relationships between measures of individual values and needs and between perceived organizational values and supplies. While it was expected that there would be a significant relationship between these concepts (see Cable & Edwards, 2004), the magnitude of the relationships was stronger than anticipated. While the results of this study supported the contention that supplementary and complementary N-S fit are not redundant concepts, with both significantly contributing to the prediction of outcomes, the strength of the correlation linking the two fit traditions complicates this distinction. That is, while the notions of supplementary and complementary N-S fit are conceptually distinct, the measurement of these two constructs is highly correlated. Even when direct measurement techniques (e.g., directly asking individuals to rate how well their characteristics fit or match with an organization's characteristics) are used to assess P-O fit perceptions, measures of supplementary and complementary N-S fit are highly related. To assist in the advancement of the P-O fit research, an integrative framework needs to be developed. Ideally, this overarching framework would provide a definitive explanation of why these two distinct fit traditions are consistently found to be strongly correlated.

Implications and Future Research

Practical Implications. Despite these limitations, the findings of the current study have several key implications for current recruiting practices. First, results suggest that organizational recruiting efforts should emphasize both the opportunities that the organization offers that can satisfy a job seeker's psychological needs *and* highlight the similarities between a job seeker and the organization. For example, recruiting messages

that let individuals know that an organization has “what they need” and that members of an organization are “just like them” will resonate with job seekers and are likely to increase interest in pursuing employment with that organization.

Next, the results suggest that, while recruiting efforts that highlight overall need fulfillment and general value congruence can be successful, recruiting programs that communicate that an organization has the ability to satisfy specific needs and shares specific values will be most successful. That is, messaging that conveys that an organization can satisfy certain needs and that members of an organization share particular values has a greater chance of motivating individuals to learn more about employment opportunities with the organization than broad general messaging.

Finally, the findings suggest that the impact that perceived fit has on job choice outcomes is maximized when the organization emphasizes that it can definitely satisfy strong needs of potential applicants *and* that job seekers and the organization highly value the same concepts. As such, recruiting outreach programs that communicate that an organization “should be able” to satisfy a need or “somewhat” shares similar values with job seekers will be relatively ineffective in persuading individuals that the organization is an appealing place to work.

Future Research. While the current study took an important first step in helping advance the understanding of how perceptions of P-O fit impact individual-level outcomes, additional research is needed that continues to investigate various aspects of the fit paradigm. Specifically, there is a need for future research that explores the moderating effects that various individual and organizational characteristics have on fit-outcome relationships.

Additional research is also needed that examines the impact that both supplementary and complementary N-S fit have on outcomes in different phases of the employment cycle. The study's findings implied that early in the job choice process supplementary fit played a significant, but small, role in the formation of organizational attraction, attentions to join, and engagement in job search behaviors. However, previous theoretical and empirical work suggests that supplementary fit plays a much larger role in predicting post-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors, such as job satisfaction, turn over intentions, and task performance (e.g., Cable & Edwards; 2004; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Schneider et al., 1995; Verquer et al., 2003). Taken together these results suggest that the degree to which supplementary fit impacts an outcome changes as an individual moves from potential applicant to job incumbent. Given the important role that both supplementary and complementary fit play in the attraction and retention of employees, future research is needed that examines how these effects change throughout the employment cycle.

Finally, additional work is needed to examine the impact that different measures of P-O fit have on individual-level outcomes. While a number of studies have examined how different measurement strategies used to assess P-O fit impact self-report and behavioral outcomes (Authur et al., 2006; Cable & Edwards; 2006; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), few studies have directly examined the relationship between measures of objective, subjective, and perceived P-O fit. As a result, little is known about the relationship between different measures of P-O fit and the differential impact they may have on various outcomes. In order to help advance the P-O fit paradigm, a better understanding of these measurement strategies needs to be developed.

Concluding Remarks

Overall, the present study helped to further the understanding of both the job choice process and how the concept of “fit” with an organization impacts individual-level outcomes. The current study’s findings were consistent with the notion that optimum P-O fit is achieved when both supplementary and complementary fit are realized. However, while both supplementary and complementary N-S fit were significant predictors of organizational attraction, intentions to join, and job search behaviors, the ability of an organization to satisfy a job seeker’s psychological needs appears to be most important in determining pre-entry attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. Given the increased importance of an organization’s ability to attract and retain quality employees, understanding how “fit” with an organization impacts outcomes throughout the employment cycle is imperative. The current study took an important step toward helping to develop that understanding.

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APPENDIX

Table A-1

Mapping Schwartz's (1992) Value Circumplex onto Cable and Edwards (2002) Work Values Survey

Schwartz's conceptual dimension	Schwartz's universal values	Work value dimensions	WVS items
Self-transcendence	Universalism	Altruism	Being of service to society Contributing to humanity Making the world a better place
	Benevolence	Relationships with others	Forming relationships with coworkers Getting to know coworkers well Developing close ties with coworkers
Self-enhancement	Achievement/hedonism	Pay	Receiving good pay and work benefits Earning a competitive salary Being well compensated at your job
	Power	Prestige	Gaining respect Obtaining status Being looked up to by others

Table A-1 (continued):

Mapping Schwartz's (1992) Value Circumplex onto Cable and Edwards (2002) Work Values Survey

Schwartz's conceptual dimension	Schwartz's universal values	Work value dimensions	WVS items
Conservation	Security	Job security	Being certain of keeping your job Being sure you will always have a job Being certain your job will last
	Conformity/tradition	Authority	Having distinct reporting relationships Having a clear chain of command Having definite lines of authority
Openness to change	Stimulation	Variety	Doing a variety of things Doing something different every day Doing many different things on the job
	Self-direction	Autonomy	Doing work in your own way Making your own decisions Determining the way your work is done

Table A-2

Youth Poll (Emanuel et al., 2005) Items Adapted to Measure Person-Organization Fit

Items Number	Item Description
1	Having a good paying job
2	Experiencing adventure
3	Having the opportunity to travel
4	Having a job that is exciting
5	Having a physically active job
6	Doing something for your country
7	Being in contact with family and friends
8	Developing career or job skills
9	Getting job training
10	Learning a trade or skill
11	Receiving a job benefits package that includes money for college
12	Getting experiences that prepare you for a future career

Table A-3

Core Service Values of the United States Military

Military Service	Core service values	Core values used in P-O fit measure
Army	Duty	Honor
	Honor	Integrity
	Integrity	Loyalty
	Loyalty	
	Personal courage	
	Respect	
	Selfless service	
Navy	Commitment	
	Courage	
	Honor	
Marine Corps	Commitment	
	Courage	
	Honor	
Air Force	Excellence in all we do	
	Integrity	
	Service before self	
Coast Guard	Devotion to duty	
	Honor	
	Respect	

Table A-4

Mapping Schwartz's Value Circumplex Onto WVS and DoD Youth Poll

Schwartz's conceptual dimension	Schwartz's universal values	Work value dimensions	WVS items	Youth Poll items
Self-transcendence	Universalism	Altruism	Being of service to society Contributing to humanity Making the world a better place	
	Benevolence	Relationships with others	Forming relationships with coworkers Getting to know coworkers well Developing close ties with coworkers	
Self-Enhancement	Hedonism	Pay	Being well compensated at your job Earning a competitive salary Receiving good pay and work benefits	Receiving a job benefits package that includes money for college
	Achievement	Professional development		Developing career or job skills Getting job training Learning a trade or skill

Table A-4 (continued)

Mapping Schwartz's Value Circumplex Onto WVS and DoD Youth Poll

Schwartz's conceptual dimension	Schwartz's universal values	Work value dimensions	WVS items	Youth Poll Items
	Power	Prestige	Gaining respect Obtaining status Being looked up to by others	
Conservation	Security	Job security	Being certain of keeping your job Being sure you will always have a job Being certain your job will last	
	Conformity/ tradition	Authority	Having distinct reporting relationships Having a clear chain of command Having definite lines of authority	
Openness to change	Stimulation	Variety	Doing a variety of things Doing something different every day Doing many different things on the job	Having the opportunity to travel
	Self-direction	Autonomy	Doing work in your own way Making your own decisions Determining the way your work is done	

Table A-5

Definitions of Schwartz's (1992) motivational types of values and examples

Motivational Type	Description
Power:	Social statue and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources (social power, wealth, authority, preserving public image).
Achievement:	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (successful, capable, ambitious)
Hedonism:	Pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life)
Stimulation:	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (daring, a varied life, and exiting life)
Self-direction:	Independent thought and action- choosing, creating, exploring (creativity, freedom, curious, independent, choosing own goals)
Universalism:	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people for nature (social justice, broadminded, world at peace, wisdom, a world of beauty, untity with nature, protecting the environment, equality)
Benevolence:	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (helpful, forgiving, honest, loyal)
Tradition:	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion impose on the self (accepting my portion in life, devout, respect for tradition, humble, moderate)
Conformity:	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (obedient, self-discipline, politeness, honoring parents and elders)
Security:	Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self (family security, national security, social order, clean, reciprocation of favors, sense of belongings)

Table A-6

Measure of Organizational Attraction adapted from Highhouse et al (2003)

Directions: Using a 5-point scale, where 1 means “*Strongly disagree*” and 5 means “*Strongly agree*”, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement below.

- 1: Strongly disagree
- 2: Disagree
- 3: Neither disagree nor agree
- 4: Agree
- 5: Strongly agree

Items

- 1. The Military would be a good organization to join
 - 2. I would not be interested in the Military except as a last resort
 - 3. The Military is attractive to me as a place for employment
 - 4. I am interested in learning more about the Military
 - 5. A job with the Military is very appealing to me
-

Table A-7

Measure of Intentions to Join the Military

Directions: Using a 4-point scale, where 1 means “*Definitely not*” and 4 means “*Definitely yes*”, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement below.

- 1: Definitely not
- 2: Probably not
- 3: Probably yes
- 4: Definitely yes

Items

- 1. How likely is it that you will be serving in the Military in the next few years?
 - 2. How likely is it that you would serve in the following?
 - A. Army
 - B. Navy
 - C. Marine Corps
 - D. Air Force
 - E. Coast Guard
 - F. Army Reserve
 - G. Army National Guard
 - H. Naval Reserve
 - I. Marine Corps Reserve
 - J. Air Force Reserve
 - K. Air National Guard
 - L. Coast Guard Reserve
-

Table A-8

Measures of Job Search Behaviors based on Blau (1993, 1994)

Directions: In the past six months, have you engaged in any of the following behaviors?

- 1: No
2: Yes

Preparatory job search behaviors items

- A. Visited a military website
- B. Spoke with a veteran about military service
- C. Spoke with friends and relatives about military service
- D. Read a military-specific publication to learn about the Military (book, magazine, brochure or journal, etc.)

Active job search behaviors items

- A. Reviewed military enlistment requirements
 - B. Visited a military recruiting station
 - C. Contacted a military recruiter
 - D. Taken the Military qualifying exam
 - E. Completed a military qualification practice test
 - F. Replied to mail you received from the Military
-

Table A-9

Components of Unconstrained and Constrained Regression Equations Used in the Polynomial Regression Procedure

Form of Fit Relationship	Diff Score	Corresponding CRE	Corresponding URE
Monotonic	$(X-Y)$	$Z = b_0 + b_1(X-Y)$	$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y$
Parabolic	$(X-Y)^2$	$Z = b_0 + b_1(X^2 - 2XY + Y^2)$	$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2$
Asymptotic	$(X-Y)^3$	$Z = b_0 + b_1(X^3 - 2X^2Y + XY^2 - X^2Y + 2XY^2 - Y^3)$	$Z = b_0 + b_1X + b_2Y + b_3X^2 + b_4XY + b_5Y^2 + b_6X^3 + b_7X^2Y + b_8XY^2 + b_9Y^3$

Note: Diff Score- Traditional difference score. CRE- constrained regression equation. URE- Unconstrained regression equation. X represents organizational variables. Y represents individual variables. Z represents the expected outcome of the fit relationship.

Table A-10

Descriptive Statistics

Measure	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Individual Values											
1. Altruism	3.77	.92		(.87)							
2. Relationships	3.57	.89	.43		(.89)						
3. Development	4.04	.78	.47	.40		(.79)					
4. Pay	4.17	.74	.30	.32	.59		(.80)				
5. Prestige	3.80	.84	.46	.54	.52	.52		(.76)			
6. Job Security	4.22	.85	.35	.38	.63	.67	.51		(.89)		
7. Authority	3.34	.92	.41	.48	.53	.45	.55	.51		(.81)	
8. Variety	3.64	.78	.44	.46	.51	.44	.50	.40	.43		(.77)
9. Autonomy	4.04	.71	.35	.31	.46	.46	.46	.41	.31	.49	(.70)
Individual Needs											
10. Altruism	3.59	1.02	.78	.35	.39	.25	.40	.30	.36	.40	.28
11. Relationships	3.36	.97	.38	.73	.33	.28	.46	.31	.42	.39	.22
12. Development	3.88	.93	.34	.29	.69	.47	.41	.49	.43	.41	.32
13. Pay	4.00	.88	.24	.20	.47	.72	.41	.50	.34	.34	.35
14. Prestige	3.52	.96	.37	.39	.43	.41	.73	.38	.45	.41	.35
15. Job Security	4.00	.99	.29	.26	.53	.55	.42	.71	.41	.33	.32
16. Authority	3.24	1.01	.34	.38	.45	.38	.47	.42	.74	.37	.23
17. Variety	3.42	.89	.35	.33	.41	.36	.43	.33	.36	.72	.39
18. Autonomy	3.80	.89	.28	.19	.33	.36	.35	.27	.20	.39	.63
Organizational Values											
19. Altruism	4.05	1.07	.26	.23	.32	.24	.28	.29	.31	.19	.14
20. Relationships	3.72	1.05	.23	.30	.23	.20	.26	.23	.31	.21	.16
21. Development	4.08	.94	.26	.25	.38	.29	.29	.34	.32	.27	.19
22. Pay	3.63	1.02	.24	.25	.30	.23	.27	.27	.32	.25	.12
23. Prestige	3.83	.96	.29	.28	.31	.22	.34	.29	.32	.27	.19
24. Job Security	3.83	1.04	.24	.21	.29	.25	.24	.31	.28	.25	.19
25. Authority	4.31	.84	.27	.19	.28	.25	.18	.22	.18	.22	.26
26. Variety	3.62	.96	.23	.27	.32	.29	.34	.31	.36	.31	.20
27. Autonomy	3.26	1.13	.19	.22	.25	.23	.29	.25	.33	.25	.14
Organizational Supplies											
28. Altruism	3.67	1.21	.26	.20	.29	.24	.26	.27	.29	.18	.10
29. Relationships	3.50	1.10	.21	.25	.22	.20	.21	.20	.27	.18	.12
30. Development	3.80	1.10	.25	.19	.33	.25	.24	.27	.28	.21	.13
31. Pay	3.40	1.11	.21	.19	.25	.22	.21	.23	.27	.19	.08
32. Prestige	3.49	1.11	.24	.23	.28	.23	.32	.27	.31	.19	.12
33. Job Security	3.54	1.17	.19	.14	.25	.22	.19	.24	.24	.20	.12
34. Authority	3.99	1.09	.23	.12	.22	.21	.13	.16	.15	.15	.18
35. Variety	3.46	1.02	.22	.21	.28	.26	.26	.26	.29	.24	.13
36. Autonomy	2.74	1.13	.14	.18	.20	.18	.23	.19	.31	.20	.05
Job Choice Outcome Variables											
37. Org. Attraction	2.34	.97	.12	.15	.18	.10	.15	.11	.32	.19	-.04
38. Intentions to Join	1.43	.52	.10	.11	.14	.09	.15	.08	.23	.14	-.03
39. Job Search	1.26	1.87	.10	.10	.16	.11	.10	.11	.18	.13	.04

Table A-10 (continued)

Measure	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Individual Values											
1. Altruism											
2. Relationships											
3. Development											
4. Pay											
5. Prestige											
6. Job Security											
7. Authority											
8. Variety											
9. Autonomy											
Individual Needs											
10. Altruism	(.92)										
11. Relationships	.50	(.93)									
12. Development	.48	.45	(.89)								
13. Pay	.38	.38	.67	(.86)							
14. Prestige	.53	.59	.55	.57	(.85)						
15. Job Security	.43	.44	.69	.74	.56	(.94)					
16. Authority	.48	.55	.58	.50	.61	.55	(.88)				
17. Variety	.52	.52	.57	.52	.60	.50	.52	(.86)			
18. Autonomy	.40	.36	.48	.53	.51	.47	.33	.59	(.86)		
Organizational Values											
19. Altruism	.25	.23	.31	.23	.27	.29	.32	.18	.11	(.92)	
20. Relationships	.22	.32	.24	.17	.25	.22	.32	.19	.13	.60	(.93)
21. Development	.28	.27	.40	.28	.29	.33	.35	.27	.18	.72	.62
22. Pay	.25	.26	.30	.21	.26	.26	.35	.24	.09	.62	.58
23. Prestige	.29	.29	.30	.20	.35	.28	.34	.27	.17	.66	.62
24. Job Security	.23	.23	.29	.24	.24	.31	.31	.24	.14	.60	.59
25. Authority	.24	.20	.29	.24	.17	.23	.19	.18	.23	.50	.51
26. Variety	.23	.27	.32	.24	.30	.29	.38	.32	.16	.61	.63
27. Autonomy	.19	.23	.24	.20	.29	.23	.35	.25	.11	.47	.47
Organizational Supplies											
28. Altruism	.33	.27	.36	.29	.31	.33	.35	.24	.15	.72	.46
29. Relationships	.28	.36	.30	.23	.29	.25	.33	.24	.19	.46	.60
30. Development	.31	.29	.43	.32	.30	.34	.36	.28	.20	.53	.44
31. Pay	.29	.27	.34	.27	.28	.29	.35	.27	.15	.51	.41
32. Prestige	.31	.31	.37	.29	.38	.33	.38	.28	.19	.58	.47
33. Job Security	.26	.23	.32	.28	.26	.32	.31	.27	.18	.44	.40
34. Authority	.27	.20	.30	.27	.19	.23	.20	.20	.27	.34	.30
35. Variety	.28	.29	.36	.31	.32	.32	.37	.34	.21	.49	.44
36. Autonomy	.21	.24	.25	.19	.30	.23	.41	.29	.12	.39	.38
Job Choice Outcome Variables											
37. Org. Attraction .18	.23	.23	.12	.19	.12	.37	.22	-.03	.26	.20	
38. Intentions to Join	.14	.15	.16	.09	.15	.09	.26	.16	.01	.21	.13
39. Job Search	.12	.11	.14	.08	.08	.11	.17	.14	.02	.15	.14

Table A-10 (continued)

Measure	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
Individual Values											
1. Altruism											
2. Relationships											
3. Development											
4. Pay											
5. Prestige											
6. Job Security											
7. Authority											
8. Variety											
9. Autonomy											
Individual Needs											
10. Altruism											
11. Relationships											
12. Development											
13. Pay											
14. Prestige											
15. Job Security											
16. Authority											
17. Variety											
18. Autonomy											
Organizational Values											
19. Altruism											
20. Relationships											
21. Development	(.90)										
22. Pay	.72	(.89)									
23. Prestige	.68	.71	(.81)								
24. Job Security	.70	.71	.67	(.92)							
25. Authority	.60	.41	.51	.50	(.84)						
26. Variety	.70	.68	.69	.65	.44	(.88)					
27. Autonomy	.52	.62	.59	.57	.30	.65	(.83)				
Organizational Supplies											
28. Altruism	.56	.47	.50	.46	.37	.43	.34	(.95)			
29. Relationships	.46	.39	.45	.42	.37	.42	.28	.70	(.95)		
30. Development	.63	.48	.47	.49	.43	.45	.33	.78	.74	(.93)	
31. Pay	.55	.64	.51	.50	.32	.46	.40	.73	.67	.78	(.93)
32. Prestige	.54	.51	.61	.47	.36	.47	.38	.82	.76	.78	.79
33. Job Security	.49	.44	.42	.61	.36	.39	.32	.66	.67	.75	.73
34. Authority	.37	.22	.30	.32	.58	.21	.11	.60	.67	.71	.56
35. Variety	.53	.48	.49	.47	.34	.59	.43	.73	.73	.80	.76
36. Autonomy	.39	.46	.43	.41	.16	.47	.56	.54	.54	.54	.64
Job Choice Outcome Variables											
37. Org. Attraction .24	.28	.20	.21	.06	.22	.27	.36	.30	.34	.38	
38. Intentions to Join	.19	.19	.15	.13	.07	.15	.19	.29	.22	.26	.27
39. Job Search	.18	.15	.12	.15	.12	.12	.10	.19	.18	.20	.21

Table A-10 (continued)

Measure	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
Individual Values									
1. Altruism									
2. Relationships									
3. Development									
4. Pay									
5. Prestige									
6. Job Security									
7. Authority									
8. Variety									
9. Autonomy									
Individual Needs									
10. Altruism									
11. Relationships									
12. Development									
13. Pay									
14. Prestige									
15. Job Security									
16. Authority									
17. Variety									
18. Autonomy									
Organizational Values									
19. Altruism									
20. Relationships									
21. Development									
22. Pay									
23. Prestige									
24. Job Security									
25. Authority									
26. Variety									
27. Autonomy									
Organizational Supplies									
28. Altruism									
29. Relationships									
30. Development									
31. Pay									
32. Prestige	(.90)								
33. Job Security	.69	(.95)							
34. Authority	.61	.62	(.89)						
35. Variety	.77	.70	.61	(.90)					
36. Autonomy	.60	.56	.33	.66	(.86)				
Job Choice Outcome Variables									
37. Org. Attraction	.36	.29	.16	.32	.40	(.95)			
38. Intentions to Join	.27	.21	.15	.25	.29	.60	(.86)		
39. Job Search	.19	.18	.14	.16	.18	.48	.34	(.80)	

Table A-11

Results of Confirmatory Factor Analyses for Values, Needs, and Supplies

Nine-Factor Model	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA
Individual Values	1,949.8	341	.99	.05
Organizational Values	1,817.4	341	.99	.05
Psychological Needs	1,673.5	341	.99	.05
Organizational Supplies	1,870.3	341	.99	.05

Table A-12

Relationship between Value Congruence and Organizational Attraction: Comparing Unconstrained against Constrained Equations

Dimension	Monotonic Relationship			Parabolic Relationship			Asymptotic Relationship		
	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value
Altruism	.019	.071	<.001	.054	.087	<.001	.056	.094	<.001
Relationship	.004	.048	<.001	.016	.055	<.001	.021	.057	<.001
Pro Development	.008	.068	<.001	.004	.081	<.001	.004	.086	<.001
Pay	.036	.078	<.001	.052	.085	<.001	.065	.100	<.001
Prestige	.005	.048	<.001	.002	.056	<.001	.003	.064	<.001
Job Security	.013	.048	<.001	.035	.060	<.001	.040	.062	<.001
Authority	.047	.104	<.001	.077	.116	<.001	.079	.127	<.001
Variety	.004	.063	<.001	.035	.083	<.001	.039	.092	<.001
Autonomy	.069	.077	<.001	.075	.082	.004	.081	.087	.069

Note: CRE- Constrained Regression Equation. URE- Unconstrained Regression Equation. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-13

Relationship between Value Congruence and Organizational Attraction: Examining R^2 Values from Unconstrained Regression Equations to Determine the Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	BFS α	Monotonic Relationship		Parabolic Relationship				Asymptotic Relationship			
		Overall Model		Overall Model		Model Change		Overall Model		Model Change	
		R^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value
Altruism	.008	.071	<.001	.087*	<.001	.016	<.001	.094	<.001	.069	.012
Relationship	.017	.048	<.001	.055*	<.001	.007	.006	.057	<.001	.003	.295
Pro Development	.010	.068	<.001	.081*	<.001	.013	<.001	.086	<.001	.005	.055
Pay	.006	.078	<.001	.085	<.001	.007	.005	.100*	<.001	.015	<.001
Prestige	.025	.048	<.001	.056	<.001	.008	.002	.064*	<.001	.008	.009
Job Security	.050	.048	<.001	.060*	<.001	.013	<.001	.062	<.001	.005	.505
Authority	.006	.104	<.001	.116	<.001	.012	<.001	.127*	<.001	.011	<.001
Variety	.013	.063	<.001	.083	<.001	.020	<.001	.092*	<.001	.009	.002
Autonomy	.007	.077*	<.001	.082	<.001	.005	.034	.087	<.001	.006	.032

Note: BFS α – Bonferroni sequential alpha; represents the corrected alpha paired with a dimension to determine significance. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension. * Denotes the form of the fit relationship that maximizes the prediction of the job choice outcome.

Table A-14

Relationship between Value Congruence and Job Choice Outcomes: Overall R^2 Values from Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	Organizational Attraction		Intentions to Join		Job Search Behaviors	
	R^2	p -value	R^2	p -value	R^2	p -value
Altruism	.087	<.001	.053	<.001	.027	<.001
Relationship	.055	<.001	.023	<.001	.031	<.001
Pro Development	.081	<.001	.041	<.001	.042	<.001
Pay	.100	<.001	.047	<.001	.029	<.001
Prestige	.064	<.001	.033	<.001	.019	<.001
Job Security	.060	<.001	.026	<.001	.033	<.001
Authority	.127	<.001	.063	<.001	.041	<.001
Variety	.092	<.001	.041	<.001	.023	<.001
Autonomy	.077	<.001	.039	<.001	.011	<.001

Note: R^2 values in the table above represent the appropriate form of value congruence-job choice outcome relationships that provided the maximize prediction of the job choice outcome.

Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-15

Relationship between Value Congruence and Intentions to Join: Comparing Unconstrained Regression Equations against Constrained Regression Equations

Dimension	Monotonic Relationship			Parabolic Relationship			Asymptotic Relationship		
	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value
Altruism	.010	.045	<.001	.031	.053	<.001	.034	.060	<.001
Relationship	.001	.023	<.001	.009	.027	<.001	.010	.028	<.001
Pro Development	.005	.041	<.001	.022	.046	<.001	.023	.049	<.001
Pay	.012	.039	<.001	.027	.047	<.001	.029	.051	<.001
Prestige	.002	.033	<.001	.013	.038	<.001	.013	.045	<.001
Job Security	.004	.019	<.001	.017	.026	<.001	.018	.031	<.001
Authority	.019	.055	<.001	.038	.063	.002	.038	.070	<.001
Variety	.001	.033	<.001	.014	.041	<.001	.016	.042	<.001
Autonomy	.036	.039	.016	.038	.042	.116	.042	.045	.404

Note: CRE- Constrained Regression Equation. URE- Unconstrained Regression Equation. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-16

Relationship between Value Congruence and Intentions to Join: Examining R^2 Values from Unconstrained Regression Equations to Determine the Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	BFS α	Monotonic Relationship		Parabolic Relationship				Asymptotic Relationship			
		Overall Model		Overall Model		Model Change		Overall Model		Model Change	
		R^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value
Altruism	.006	.045	<.001	.053*	<.001	.008	.002	.060	<.001	.007	.020
Relationship	.025	.023*	<.001	.027	<.001	.040	.072	.028	<.001	.001	.733
Pro Development	.007	.041*	<.001	.046	<.001	.006	.020	.049	<.001	.003	.254
Pay	.008	.039	<.001	.047*	<.001	.008	.004	.051	<.001	.004	.125
Prestige	.013	.033*	<.001	.038	<.001	.005	.027	.045	<.001	.007	.015
Job Security	.050	.019	<.001	.026*	<.001	.007	.009	.031	<.001	.005	.061
Authority	.006	.055	<.001	.063*	<.001	.008	.004	.070	<.001	.008	.007
Variety	.017	.033	<.001	.041*	<.001	.009	.002	.042	<.001	.001	.643
Autonomy	.010	.039*	<.001	.042	<.001	.002	.261	.045	<.001	.004	.181

Note: BFS α – Bonferroni sequential alpha: represents the corrected alpha paired with a dimension to determine significance.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

* Denotes the form of the fit relationship that maximizes the prediction of the job choice outcome.

Table A-17

Relationship between Value Congruence and Job Search Behaviors: Comparing Unconstrained Regression Equations against Constrained Regression Equations

Dimension	Monotonic Relationship			Parabolic Relationship			Asymptotic Relationship		
	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value
Altruism	.003	.027	<.001	.004	.033	<.001	.004	.036	<.001
Relationship	.002	.023	<.001	.003	.031	<.001	.003	.034	<.001
Pro Development	.002	.042	<.001	.004	.045	<.001	.006	.046	<.001
Pay	.005	.029	<.001	.007	.031	<.001	.008	.032	<.001
Prestige	.001	.019	<.001	.001	.021	<.001	.001	.023	<.001
Job Security	.003	.026	<.001	.005	.033	<.001	.007	.036	<.001
Authority	.004	.041	<.001	.006	.045	<.001	.007	.0051	<.001
Variety	.000	.023	<.001	.002	.025	<.001	.002	.027	<.001
Autonomy	.005	.011	.002	.005	.013	.005	.005	.014	.023

Note: CRE- Constrained Regression Equation. URE- Unconstrained Regression Equation.. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-18

Relationship between Value Congruence and Job Search Behaviors: Examining R^2 Values from Unconstrained Regression Equations to Determine the Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	BFS α	Monotonic Relationship		Parabolic Relationship				Asymptotic Relationship			
		Overall Model		Overall Model		Model Change		Overall Model		Model Change	
		R^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value
Altruism	.008	.027*	<.001	.033	<.001	.007	.009	.036	<.001	.003	.365
Relationship	.013	.023	<.001	.031*	<.001	.009	.003	.034	<.001	.003	.271
Pro Development	.006	.042*	<.001	.045	<.001	.003	.130	.046	<.001	.001	.716
Pay	.007	.029*	<.001	.031	<.001	.002	.297	.032	<.001	.001	.660
Prestige	.025	.019*	<.001	.021	<.001	.002	.384	.023	<.001	.002	.637
Job Security	.010	.026	<.001	.033*	<.001	.007	.007	.036	<.001	.003	.256
Authority	.006	.041*	<.001	.045	<.001	.004	.070	.0051	<.001	.007	.020
Variety	.017	.023*	<.001	.025	<.001	.002	.345	.027	<.001	.002	.569
Autonomy	.050	.011*	<.001	.013	<.001	.002	.375	.014	<.001	.002	.696

Note: BFS α – Bonferroni sequential alpha; represents the corrected alpha paired with a dimension to determine significance.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

* Denotes the form of the fit relationship that maximizes the prediction of the job choice outcome.

Table A-19

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Organizational Attraction: Comparing Unconstrained Regression Equations against Constrained Regression Equations

Dimension	Monotonic Relationship			Parabolic Relationship			Asymptotic Relationship		
	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value
Altruism	.038	.137	<.001	.087	.169	<.001	.097	.181	<.001
Relationship	.008	.106	<.001	.031	.120	<.001	.038	.123	<.001
Pro Development	.025	.125	<.001	.048	.136	<.001	.056	.141	<.001
Pay	.073	.147	<.001	.085	.152	<.001	.096	.160	<.001
Prestige	.035	.129	<.001	.054	.138	<.001	.065	.147	<.001
Job Security	.031	.087	<.001	.060	.101	<.001	.068	.110	<.001
Authority	.023	.144	<.001	.096	.180	<.001	.096	.184	<.001
Variety	.014	.118	<.001	.055	.147	<.001	.063	.157	<.001
Autonomy	.124	.165	<.001	.132	.173	<.001	.139	.179	<.001

Note: CRE- Constrained Regression Equation. URE- Unconstrained Regression Equation. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-20

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Organizational Attraction: Examining R^2 Values from Unconstrained Regression Equations to Determine the Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	BFS α	Monotonic Relationship		Parabolic Relationship				Asymptotic Relationship			
		Overall Model		Overall Model		Model Change		Overall Model		Model Change	
		R^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value
Altruism	.008	.137	<.001	.169	<.001	.031	<.001	.181*	<.001	.012	<.001
Relationship	.025	.106	<.001	.120*	<.001	.013	<.001	.123	<.001	.003	.162
Pro Development	.013	.125	<.001	.136*	<.001	.011	<.001	.141	<.001	.005	.045
Pay	.006	.147*	<.001	.152	<.001	.005	.017	.160	<.001	.007	.005
Prestige	.010	.129	<.001	.138	<.001	.009	<.001	.147*	<.001	.008	.003
Job Security	.050	.087	<.001	.101	<.001	.015	<.001	.110*	<.001	.090	.002
Authority	.007	.144	<.001	.180*	<.001	.036	<.001	.184	<.001	.003	.160
Variety	.017	.118	<.001	.147	<.001	.029	<.001	.157*	<.001	.010	<.001
Autonomy	.006	.165	<.001	.173*	<.001	.007	.002	.179	<.001	.006	.011

Note: BFS α – Bonferroni sequential alpha; represents the corrected alpha paired with a dimension to determine significance.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

* Denotes the form of the fit relationship that maximizes the prediction of the job choice outcome.

Table A-21

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Job Choice Outcomes: Overall R^2 Values from Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	Organizational Attraction		Intentions to Join		Job Search Behaviors	
	R^2	p -value	R^2	p -value	R^2	p -value
Altruism	.181	<.001	.096	<.001	.064	<.001
Relationship	.120	<.001	.064	<.001	.043	<.001
Pro Development	.136	<.001	.071	<.001	.051	<.001
Pay	.147	<.001	.074	<.001	.045	<.001
Prestige	.147	<.001	.076	<.001	.036	<.001
Job Security	.110	<.001	.051	<.001	.042	<.001
Authority	.180	<.001	.095	<.001	.051	<.001
Variety	.157	<.001	.083	<.001	.043	<.001
Autonomy	.173	<.001	.084	<.001	.036	<.001

Note: R^2 values in the table above represent the appropriate form of psychology need fulfillment-job choice outcome relationships that provided the maximize prediction of the job choice outcome.

Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-22

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Intentions to Join: Comparing Unconstrained Regression Equations against Constrained Regression Equations

Dimension	Monotonic Relationship			Parabolic Relationship			Asymptotic Relationship		
	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value
Altruism	.025	.085	<.001	.048	.096	<.001	.053	.101	<.001
Relationship	.007	.055	<.001	.021	.064	<.001	.024	.066	<.001
Pro Development	.016	.071	<.001	.029	.075	<.001	.033	.078	<.001
Pay	.034	.074	<.001	.042	.076	<.001	.044	.077	<.001
Prestige	.018	.076	<.001	.027	.080	<.001	.028	.082	<.001
Job Security	.014	.044	<.001	.027	.051	<.001	.028	.054	<.001
Authority	.005	.078	<.001	.043	.095	<.001	.043	.096	<.001
Variety	.012	.070	<.001	.030	.083	<.001	.033	.087	<.001
Autonomy	.055	.084	<.001	.057	.088	<.001	.062	.091	<.001

Note: CRE- Constrained Regression Equation. URE- Unconstrained Regression Equation. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-23

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Intentions to Join: Examining R^2 Values from Unconstrained Regression Equations to Determine the Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	BFS α	Monotonic Relationship		Parabolic Relationship				Asymptotic Relationship			
		Overall Model		Overall Model		Model Change		Overall Model		Model Change	
		R^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value
Altruism	.006	.085	<.001	.096*	<.001	.012	<.001	.101	<.001	.005	.064
Relationship	.025	.055	<.001	.064*	<.001	.009	.002	.066	<.001	.002	.448
Pro Development	.013	.071*	<.001	.075	<.001	.004	.067	.078	<.001	.003	.320
Pay	.010	.074*	<.001	.076	<.001	.002	.317	.077	<.001	.002	.627
Prestige	.008	.076*	<.001	.080	<.001	.005	.042	.082	<.001	.002	.402
Job Security	.050	.044	<.001	.051*	<.001	.007	.005	.054	<.001	.003	.351
Authority	.007	.078	<.001	.095*	<.001	.018	<.001	.096	<.001	.001	.732
Variety	.017	.070	<.001	.083*	<.001	.013	<.001	.087	<.001	.003	.195
Autonomy	.006	.084*	<.001	.088	<.001	.003	.114	.091	<.001	.004	.150

Note: BFS α – Bonferroni sequential alpha; represents the corrected alpha paired with a dimension to determine significance.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

* Denotes the form of the fit relationship that maximizes the prediction of the job choice outcome.

Table A-24

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Job Search Behaviors: Comparing Unconstrained Regression Equations against Constrained Regression Equations

Dimension	Monotonic Relationship			Parabolic Relationship			Asymptotic Relationship		
	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value	CRE R^2	URE R^2	p -value
Altruism	.006	.040	<.001	.018	.056	<.001	.019	.064	<.001
Relationship	.006	.034	<.001	.007	.043	<.001	.007	.043	<.001
Pro Development	.007	.044	<.001	.011	.051	<.001	.015	.053	<.001
Pay	.018	.045	<.001	.021	.050	<.001	.023	.05	<.001
Prestige	.013	.036	<.001	.014	.040	<.001	.017	.042	<.001
Job Security	.006	.034	<.001	.013	.042	<.001	.015	.043	<.001
Authority	.000	.041	<.001	.011	.051	<.001	.011	.054	<.001
Variety	.000	.034	<.001	.001	.043	<.001	.001	.045	<.001
Autonomy	.018	.031	<.001	.019	.036	<.001	.019	.039	<.001

Note: CRE- Constrained Regression Equation. URE- Unconstrained Regression Equation. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

Table A-25

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Job Search Behaviors: Examining R^2 Values from Unconstrained Regression Equations to Determine the Appropriate Form of the Fit Relationship

Dimension	BFS α	Monotonic Relationship		Parabolic Relationship				Asymptotic Relationship			
		Overall Model		Overall Model		Model Change		Overall Model		Model Change	
		R^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value	R^2	p - value	ΔR^2	p - value
Altruism	.006	.040	<.001	.056	<.001	.016	<.001	.064*	<.001	.008	.0060
Relationship	.006	.034	<.001	.043*	<.001	.009	.001	.043	<.001	.000	.993
Pro Development	.007	.044	<.001	.051*	<.001	.007	.005	.053	<.001	.002	.568
Pay	.008	.045*	<.001	.050	<.001	.005	.027	.050	<.001	.000	.998
Prestige	.010	.036*	<.001	.040	<.001	.004	.082	.042	<.001	.002	.374
Job Security	.013	.034	<.001	.042*	<.001	.009	.002	.043	<.001	.001	.857
Authority	.017	.041	<.001	.051*	<.001	.010	<.001	.054	<.001	.003	.343
Variety	.025	.034	<.001	.043*	<.001	.009	.001	.045	<.001	.002	.513
Autonomy	.050	.031	<.001	.036*	<.001	.006	.022	.039	<.001	.003	.256

Note: BFS α – Bonferroni sequential alpha; represents the corrected alpha paired with a dimension to determine significance.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

* Denotes the form of the fit relationship that maximizes the prediction of the job choice outcome.

Table A-26

Joint Impact of Value Congruence and Psychological Need Fulfillment on Organizational Attraction

Dimension	Value Congruence			Psychological Need Fulfillment		
	Stand PW	<i>p</i> -value	BSF α	Stand PW	<i>p</i> -value	BSF α
Altruism	.000	.903	.050	.428*	.002	.002
Relationship	.028	.294	.017	.327*	.001	.004
Pro Development	.072	.015	.010	.322*	.001	.004
Pay	.121*	.001	.005	.306*	.001	.004
Prestige	.027	.311	.025	.366*	.001	.003
Job Security	.077*	.003	.008	.286*	.001	.005
Authority	.119*	.001	.006	.343*	.001	.003
Variety	.093*	.001	.006	.339*	.001	.003
Autonomy	.060	.022	.013	.381*	.001	.003

Note: Stand PW- Standardized path weight from structural equation model which utilized supplementary and complementary N-S block variables as inputs.

P-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.

BSF α – Bonferroni sequential alpha: represents the corrected alpha paired with each standardized path weight.

Pro Development- Professional Development dimension.

* Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable.

Table A-27

Joint Impact of Value Congruence and Psychological Need Fulfillment on Intentions to Join

Dimension	Value Congruence			Psychological Need Fulfillment		
	Stand PW	<i>p</i> -value	BSF α	Stand PW	<i>p</i> -value	BSF α
Altruism	.015	.635	.017	.300*	.001	.003
Relationship	.003	.861	.025	.249*	.001	.004
Pro Development	.039	.234	.013	.240*	.001	.004
Pay	.072*	.009	.006	.226*	.001	.005
Prestige	.005	.898	.050	.271*	.001	.003
Job Security	.047	.144	.010	.198*	.001	.005
Authority	.081*	.008	.006	.255*	.001	.004
Variety	.044	.086	.008	.261*	.001	.003
Autonomy	.057	.040	.007	.258*	.001	.003

Note: Stand PW- Standardized path weight from structural equation model which utilized supplementary and complementary N-S block variables as inputs.

P-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.

BFS α – Bonferroni sequential alpha: represents the corrected alpha paired with each standardized path weight.

Pro Development- Professional Development dimension.

* Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable.

Table A-28

Joint Impact of Value Congruence and Psychological Need Fulfillment on Job Search Behaviors

Dimension	Value Congruence			Psychological Need Fulfillment		
	Stand PW	<i>p</i> -value	BSF α	Stand PW	<i>p</i> -value	BSF α
Altruism	.020	.528	.025	.241*	.001	.003
Relationship	.090*	.004	.007	.153*	.001	.005
Pro Development	.102*	.002	.006	.159*	.001	.004
Pay	.062	.065	.010	.171*	.001	.003
Prestige	.038	.169	.013	.166*	.001	.004
Job Security	.091*	.005	.008	.150*	.001	.005
Authority	.102*	.002	.006	.159*	.001	.004
Variety	.039	.200	.017	.181*	.001	.003
Autonomy	.008	.786	.050	.186*	.001	.003

Note: Stand PW- Standardized path weight from structural equation model which utilized supplementary and complementary N-S block variables as inputs.

P-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.

BSF α – Bonferroni sequential alpha: represents the corrected alpha paired with each standardized path weight.

Pro Development- Professional Development dimension.

* Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable.

Table A-29

Relationship between Value Congruence and Job Choice Outcomes: Results for Model Including All Nine Block Variables

Dimension	Organizational Attraction			Intentions to Join			Job Search Behaviors		
	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI
Altruism	.095*	.002	.104	.115*	.001	.169	.009	.802	.074
Relationship	-.021	.562	.041	-.046	.129	.035	.084*	.016	.153
Pro Development	.008	.815	.074	.026	.434	.077	.100*	.012	.188
Pay	.130*	.001	.137	.050	.169	.104	.021	.665	.082
Prestige	-.076	.014	.052	-.028	.470	.053	-.081	.059	.057
Job Security	-.030	.352	.046	-.058	.064	.042	.076*	.042	.138
Authority	.249*	.001	.319	.175*	.001	.293	.111*	.001	.219
Variety	.088*	.009	.110	.030	.392	.083	.003	.986	.058
Autonomy	.117*	.001	.116	.105*	.001	.144	-.047	.210	.031
Model R^2		.246			.131			.062	

Note: Beta- Standardized regression weight from ordinary least squared (OLS) multiple regression which utilized all supplementary block variables as inputs. *P*-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method. RI – Relative importance percentage from OLS multiple regression and dominance analysis. Model R^2 - Model R^2 from OLS multiple regression analysis that contained all nine supplementary block variables. * Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable at one-way $\alpha=.05$.

Table A-30

Relationship between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Job Choice Outcomes: Results for Model Including All Nine Block Variables

Dimension	Organizational Attraction			Intentions to Join			Job Search Behaviors		
	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI
Altruism	.181*	.001	.162	.160*	.001	.174	.152*	.001	.257
Relationship	-.004	.959	.063	-.006	.900	.069	.043	.261	.094
Pro Development	-.026	.513	.073	.010	.756	.073	.051	.184	.114
Pay	-.064	.089	.090	.038	.385	.083	.051	.230	.090
Prestige	-.019	.584	.080	-.024	.598	.080	-.075	.065	.063
Job Security	-.006	.826	.056	-.080	.018	.053	.031	.417	.085
Authority	.205*	.001	.198	.158*	.001	.199	.062*	.046	.139
Variety	.056	.116	.099	.033	.387	.101	-.011	.784	.078
Autonomy	.177*	.001	.179	.135*	.001	.168	.046	.139	.079
Model R^2		.344			.155			.111	

Note: Beta- Standardized regression weight from ordinary least squared (OLS) multiple regression which utilized all complementary N-S block variables as inputs. *P*-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method. RI – Relative importance percentage from OLS multiple regression and dominance analysis. Model R^2 - Model R^2 from OLS multiple regression analysis that contained all nine complementary N-S block variables. * Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable at a one-way $\alpha=.05$.

Table A-31

Joint Impact of Value Congruence and Psychological Need Fulfillment on Organizational Attraction

Dimension	Value Congruence			Psychological Need Fulfillment			Model R^2
	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	
Altruism	.000	.903	.240	.428*	.002	.800	.183
Relationship	.028	.294	.236	.327*	.001	.764	.121
Pro Development	.072	.015	.303	.322*	.001	.697	.142
Pay	.121*	.001	.354	.306*	.001	.646	.161
Prestige	.027	.311	.198	.366*	.001	.802	.149
Job Security	.077*	.003	.278	.286*	.001	.722	.115
Authority	.119*	.001	.358	.343*	.001	.642	.186
Variety	.093*	.001	.302	.339*	.001	.698	.167
Autonomy	.060	.022	.237	.381*	.001	.763	.175

Note: Beta- Standardized regression weight from ordinary least squared (OLS) multiple regression which utilized supplementary and complementary N-S block variables as inputs. *P*-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.

RI – Relative importance percentage from OLS multiple regression and dominance analysis. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension. Model R^2 - Model R^2 from OLS multiple regression analysis that contained one supplementary and complementary N-S block variable.

* Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable at $\alpha=.05$.

Table A-32

Joint Impact of Value Congruence and Psychological Need Fulfillment on Intentions to Join

Dimension	Value Congruence			Psychological Need Fulfillment			Model R^2
	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	
Altruism	.015	.635	.288	.300*	.001	.712	.099
Relationship	.003	.861	.183	.249*	.001	.817	.063
Pro Development	.039	.234	.292	.240*	.001	.708	.072
Pay	.072*	.009	.329	.226*	.001	.671	.079
Prestige	.005	.898	.224	.271*	.001	.776	.078
Job Security	.047	.144	.269	.198*	.001	.731	.054
Authority	.081*	.008	.381	.255*	.001	.619	.105
Variety	.044	.086	.253	.261*	.001	.747	.087
Autonomy	.057	.040	.250	.258*	.001	.750	.088

Note: Beta- Standardized regression weight from ordinary least squared (OLS) multiple regression which utilized supplementary and complementary N-S block variables as inputs. *P*-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method. RI – Relative importance percentage from OLS multiple regression and dominance analysis. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension. Model R^2 - Model R^2 from OLS multiple regression analysis that contained one supplementary and complementary N-S block variable.

* Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable at $\alpha=.05$.

Table A-33

Joint Impact of Value Congruence and Psychological Need Fulfillment on Job Search Behaviors

Dimension	Value Congruence			Psychological Need Fulfillment			Model R^2
	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	Beta	<i>p</i> -value	RI	
Altruism	.020	.528	.223	.241*	.001	.777	.065
Relationship	.090*	.004	.273	.153*	.001	.727	.044
Pro Development	.102*	.002	.433	.159*	.001	.567	.060
Pay	.062	.065	.350	.171*	.001	.650	.050
Prestige	.038	.169	.276	.166*	.001	.724	.038
Job Security	.091*	.005	.322	.150*	.001	.678	.045
Authority	.102*	.002	.424	.159*	.001	.576	.059
Variety	.039	.200	.273	.181*	.001	.727	.044
Autonomy	.008	.786	.188	.186*	.001	.813	.032

Note: Beta- Standardized regression weight from ordinary least squared (OLS) multiple regression which utilized supplementary and complementary N-S block variables as inputs. *P*-value derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method. RI – Relative importance percentage from OLS multiple regression and dominance analysis. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension. Model R^2 - Model R^2 from OLS multiple regression analysis that contained one supplementary and complementary N-S block variable.

* Denotes a significant predictor of the outcome variable at $\alpha=.05$

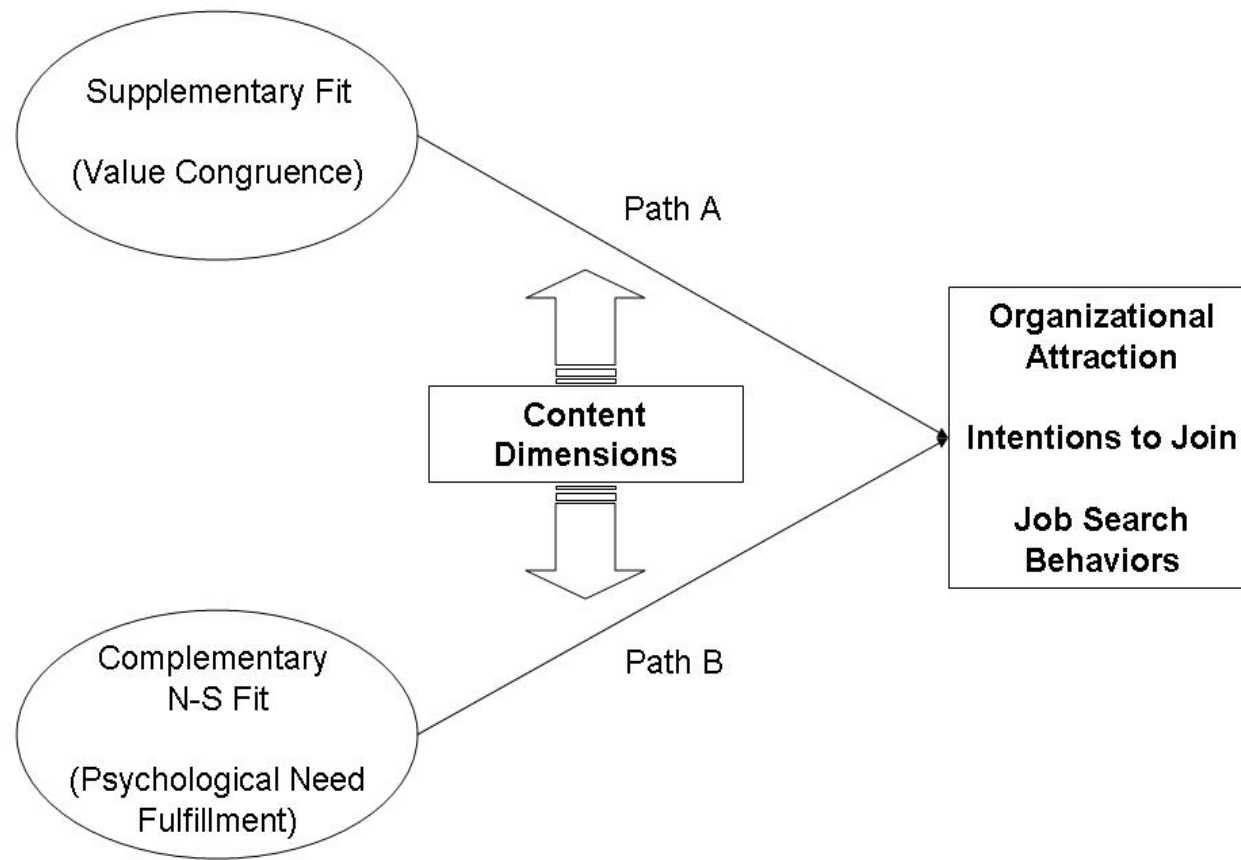


Figure A-1. Hypothesized Relationships between the Study Variables.

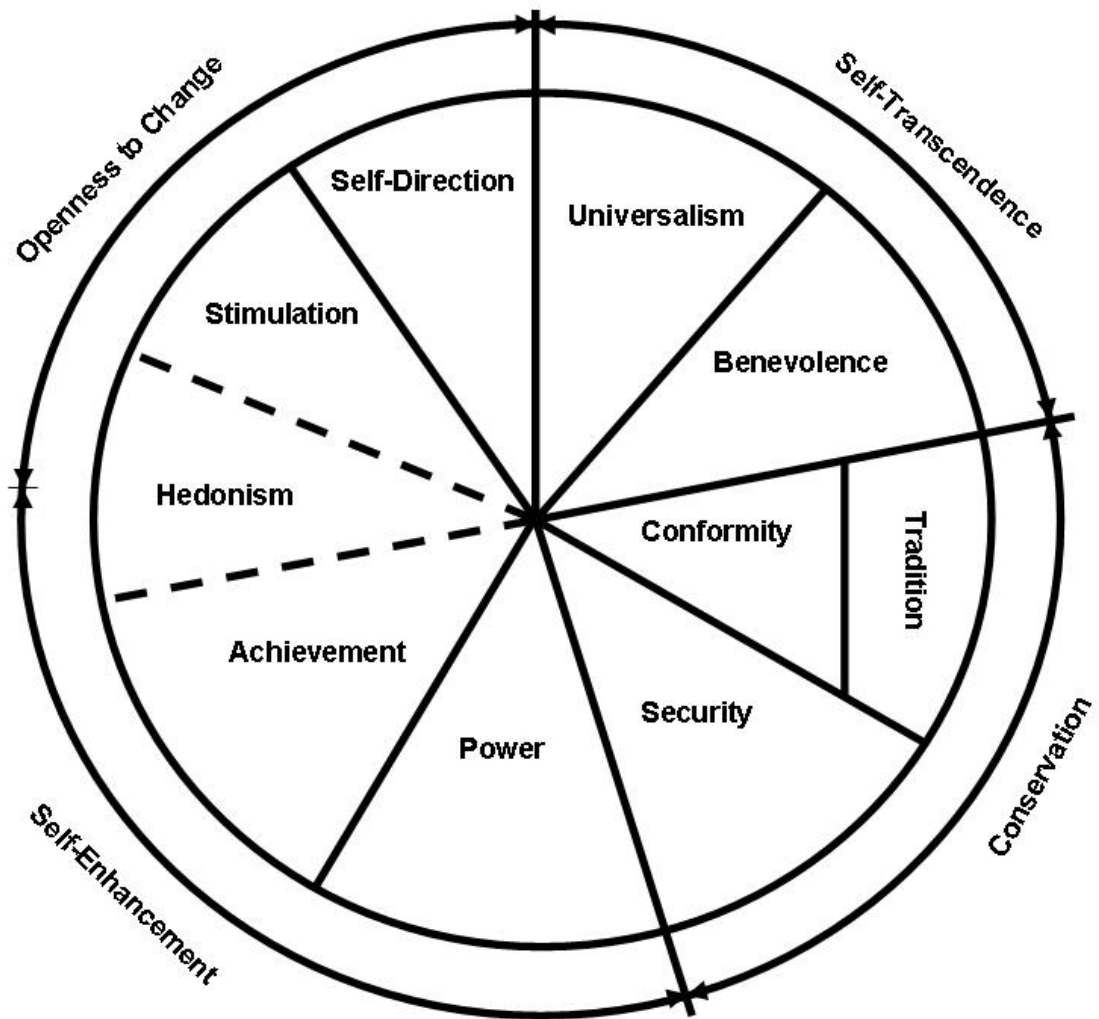


Figure A-2. Schwartz's (1992) Circumplex Model of Human Values.

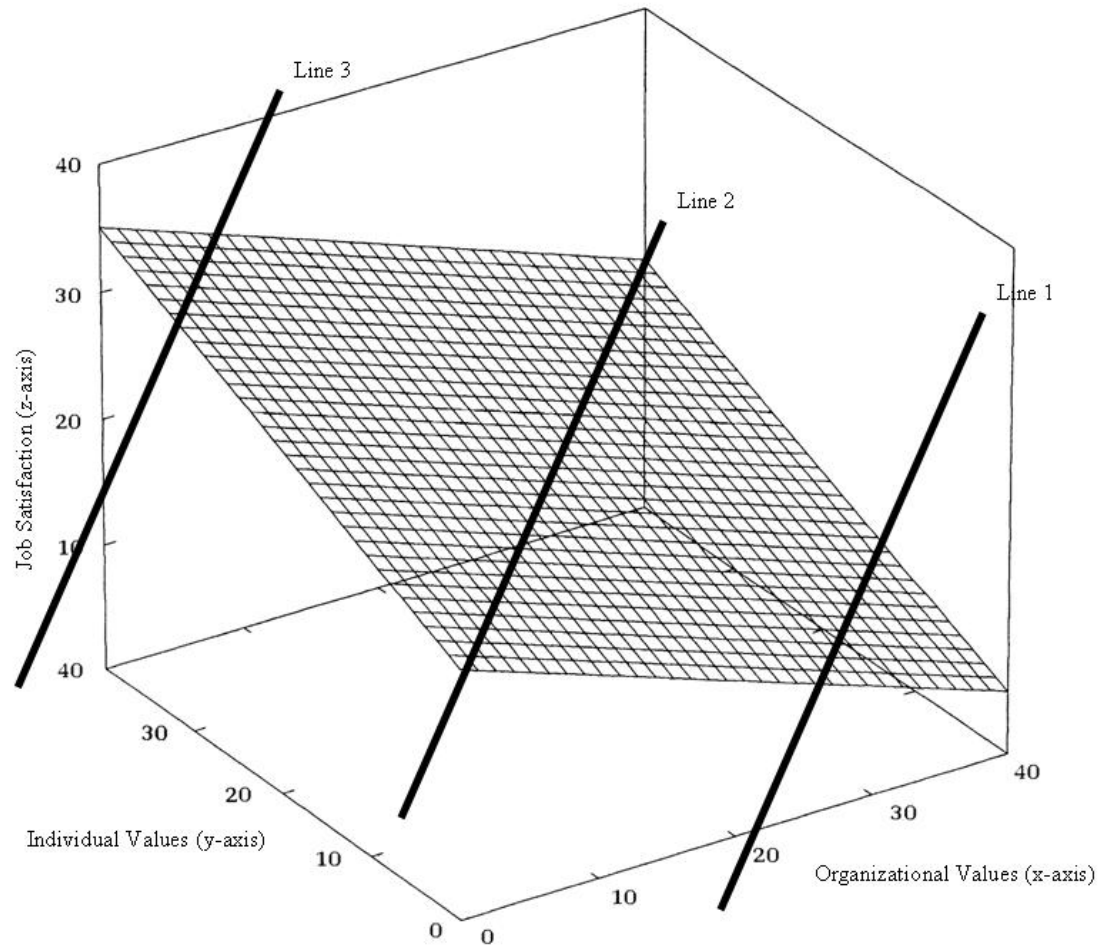


Figure A-3. Illustrative Example of a Monotonic Relationship.

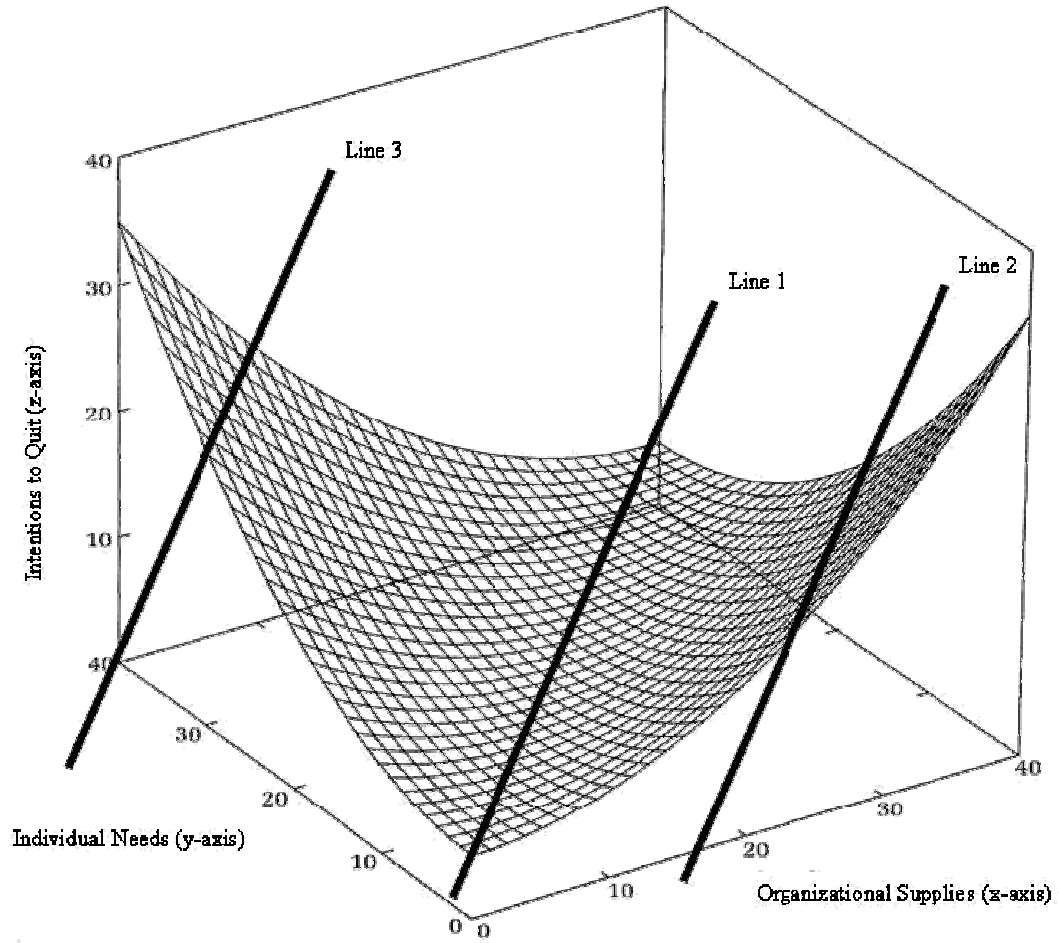


Figure A-4. Illustrative Example of a Parabolic Relationship.

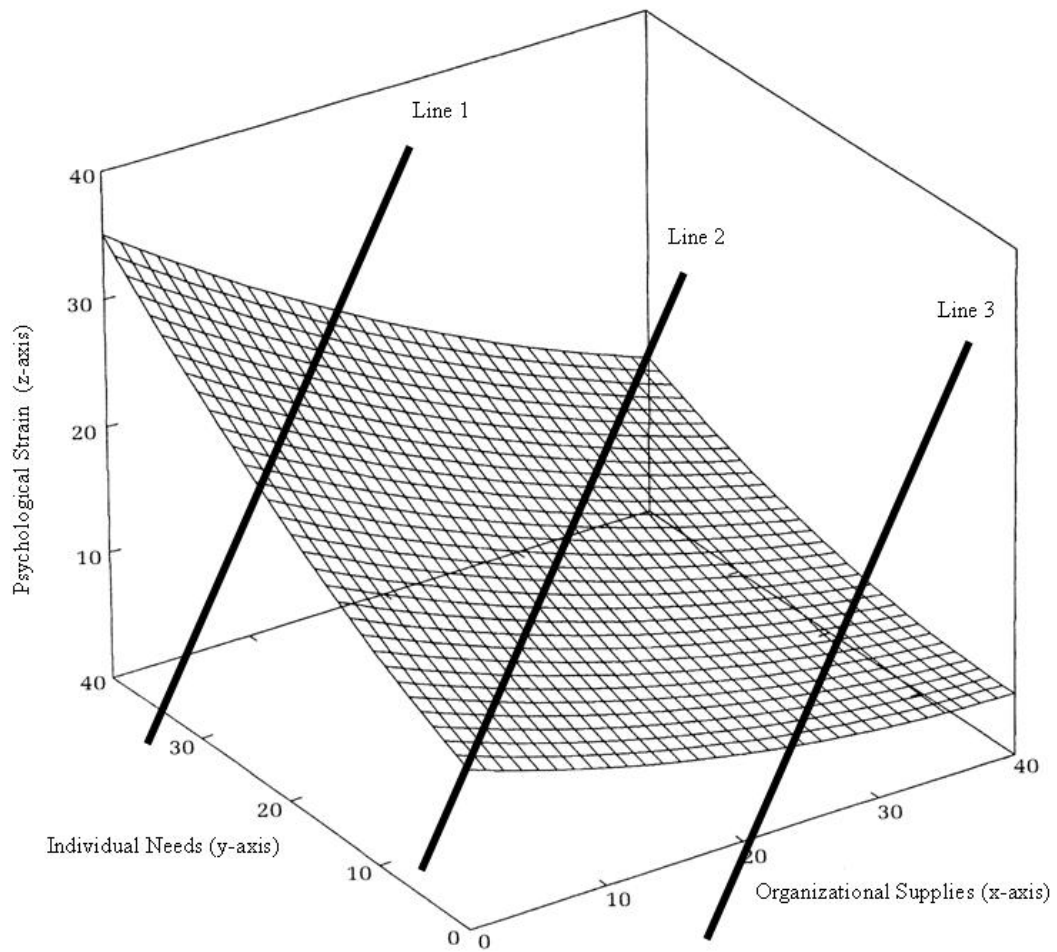


Figure A-5. Illustrative Example of an Asymptotic Relationship.

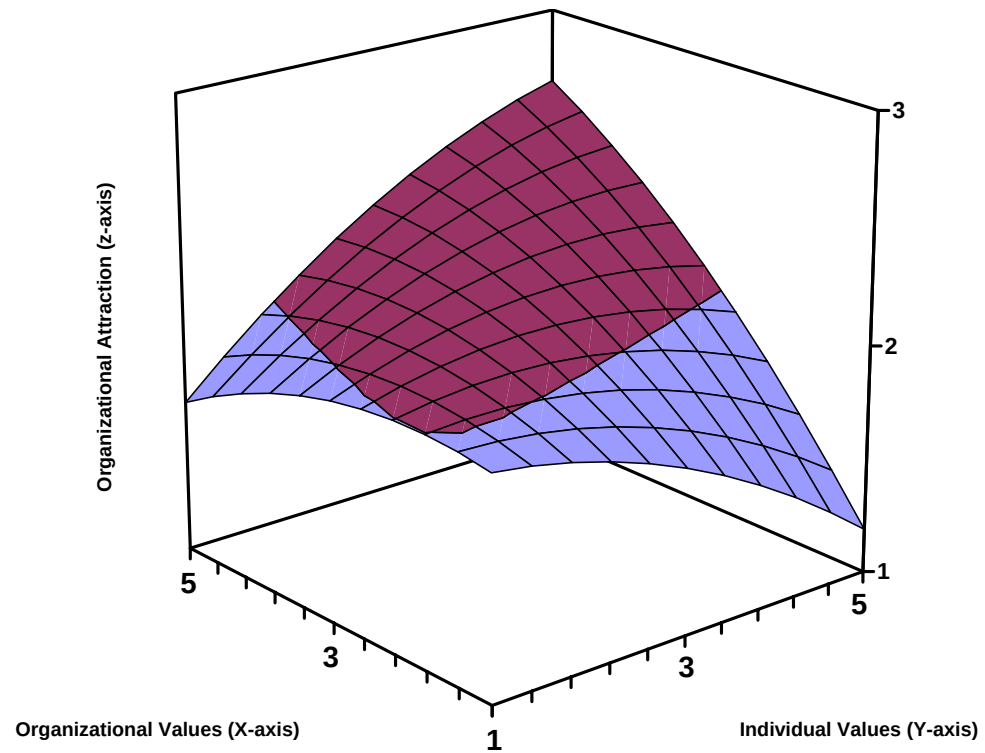


Figure A-6. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Altruism.

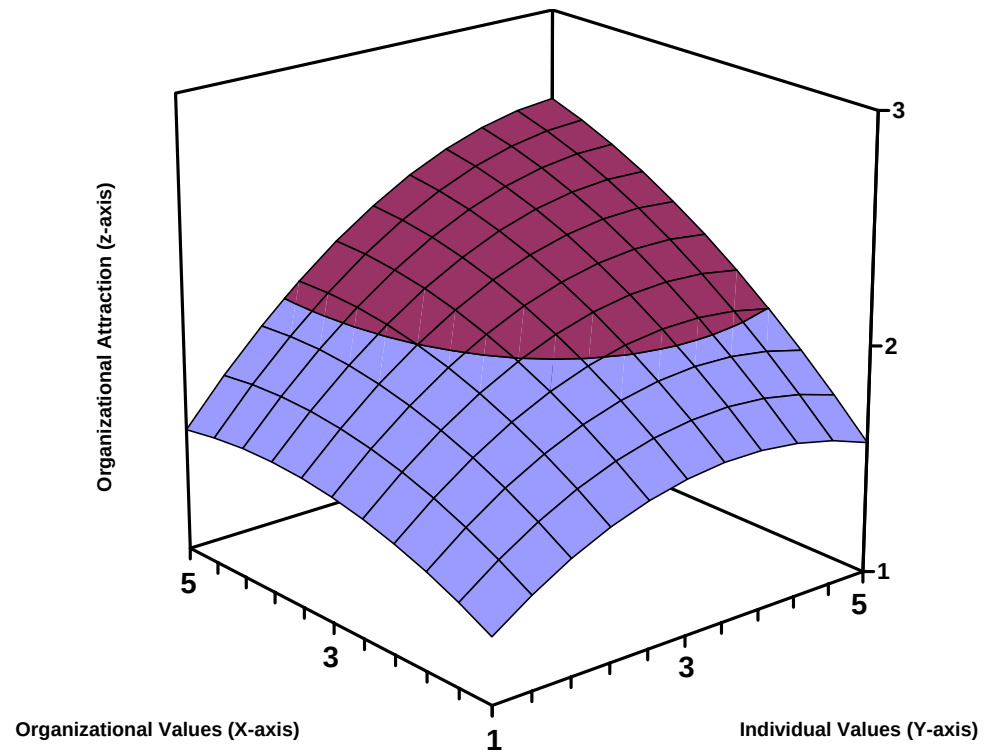


Figure A-7. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship – Dimension of Relationships.

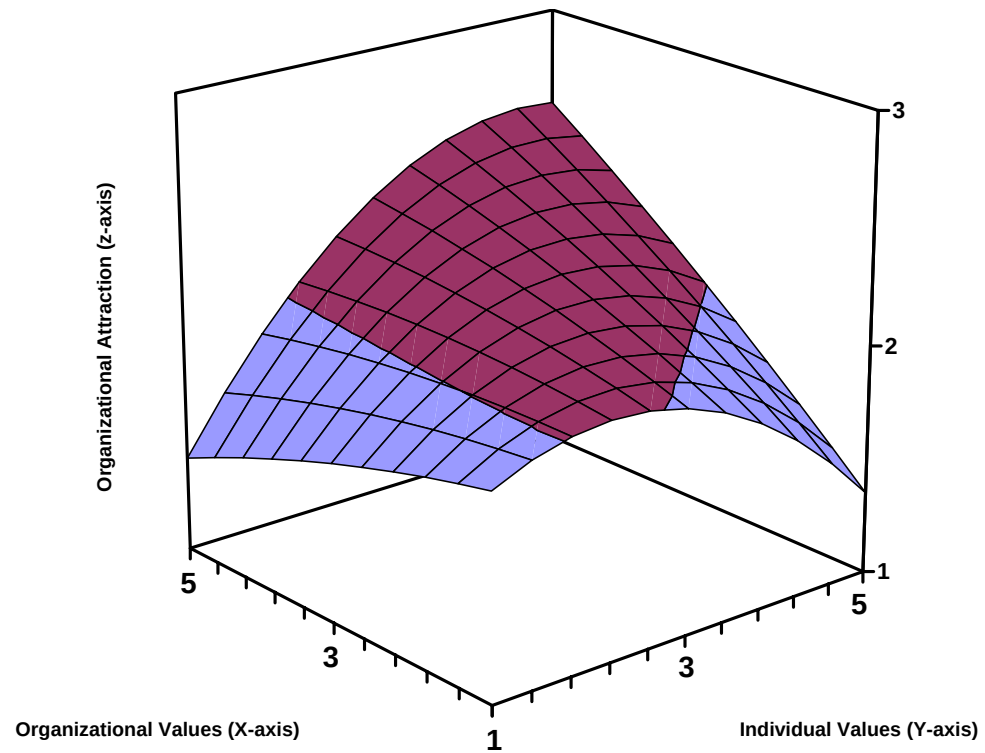


Figure A-8. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Professional Development.

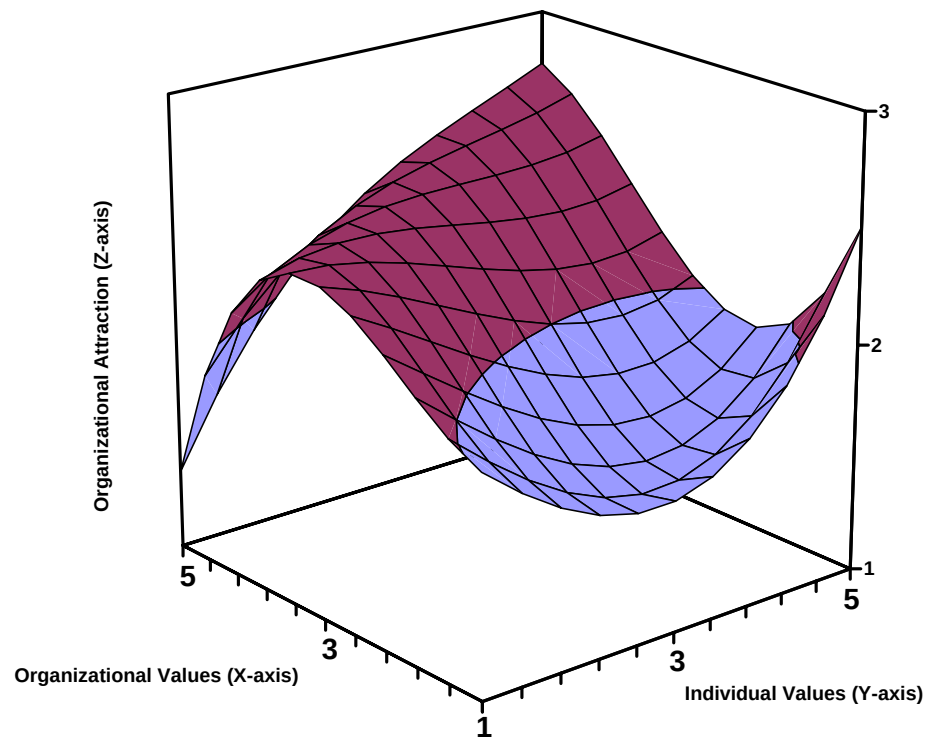


Figure A-9. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Pay.

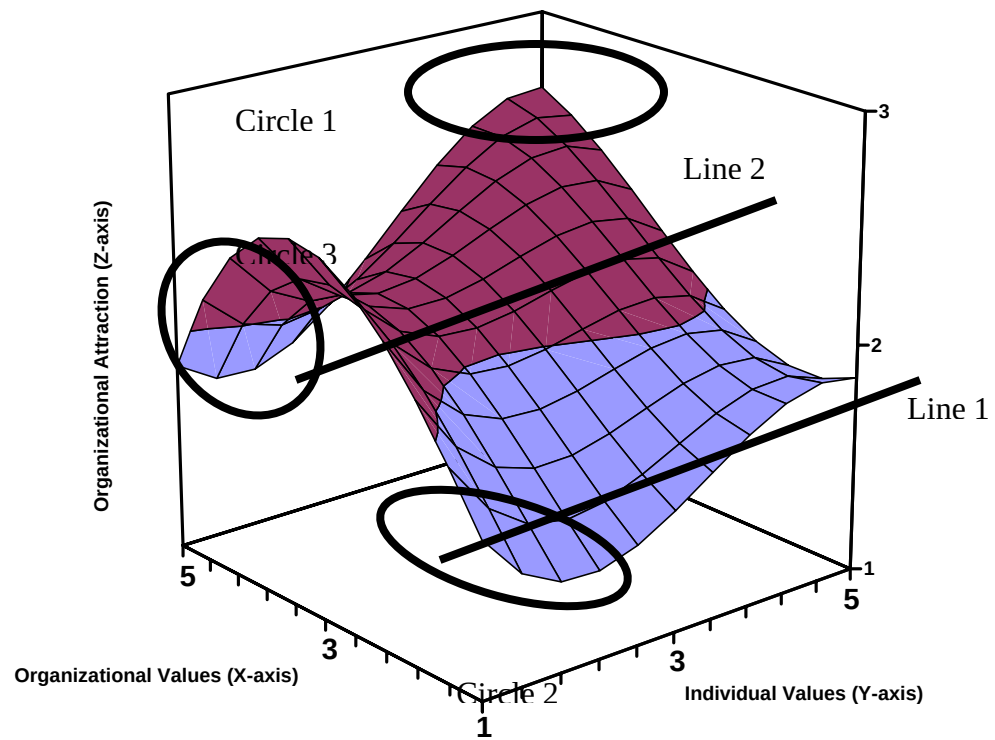


Figure A-10. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Prestige.

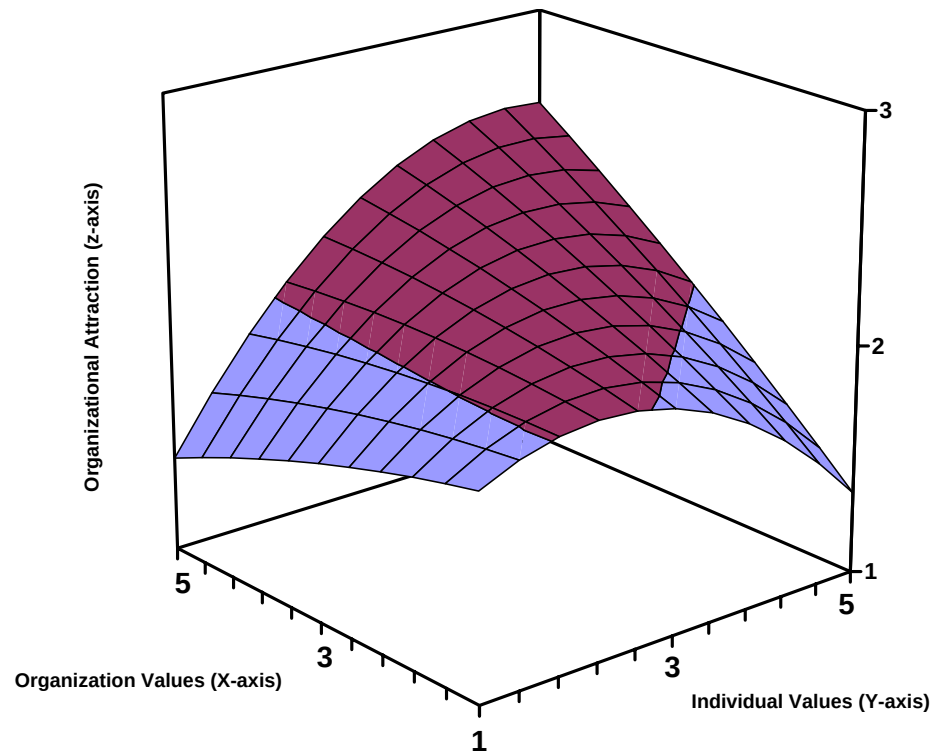


Figure A-11. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Job Security.

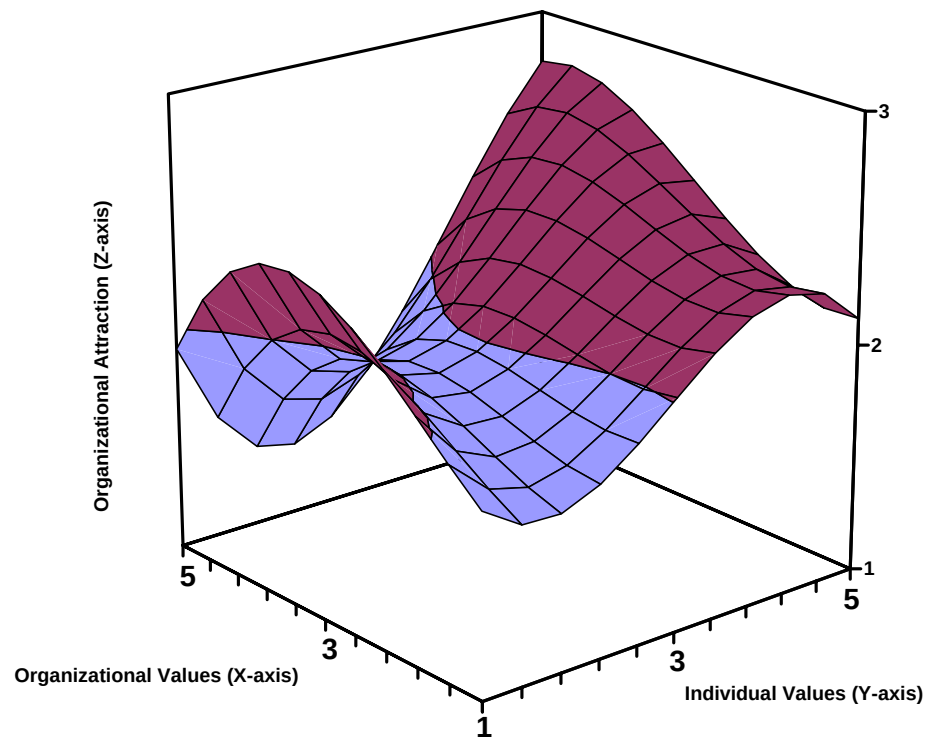


Figure A-12. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Authority.

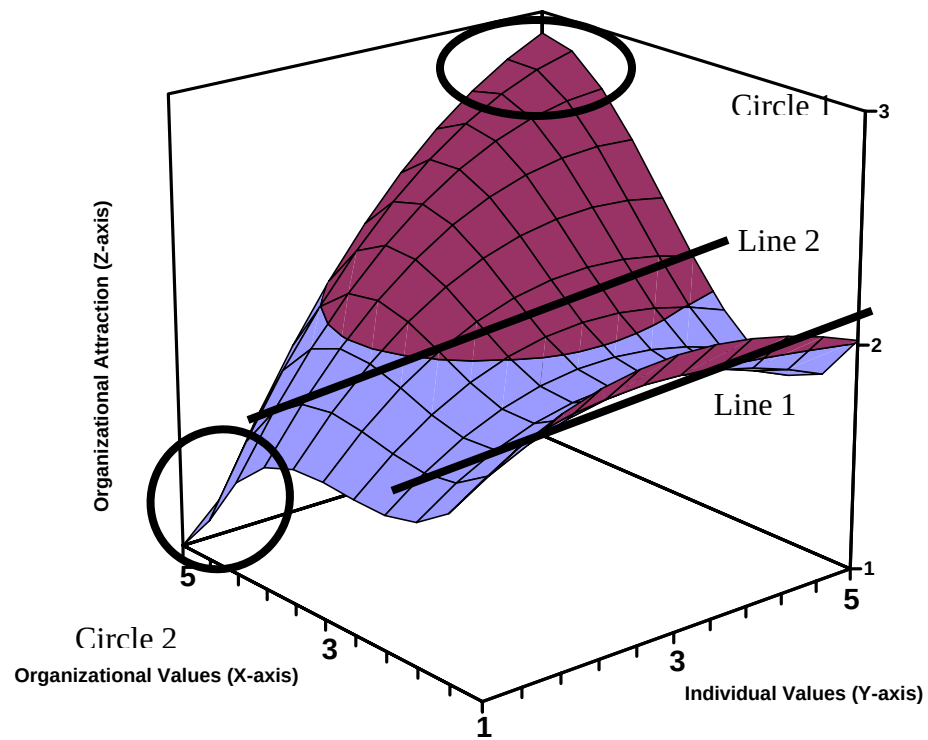


Figure A-13. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Variety.

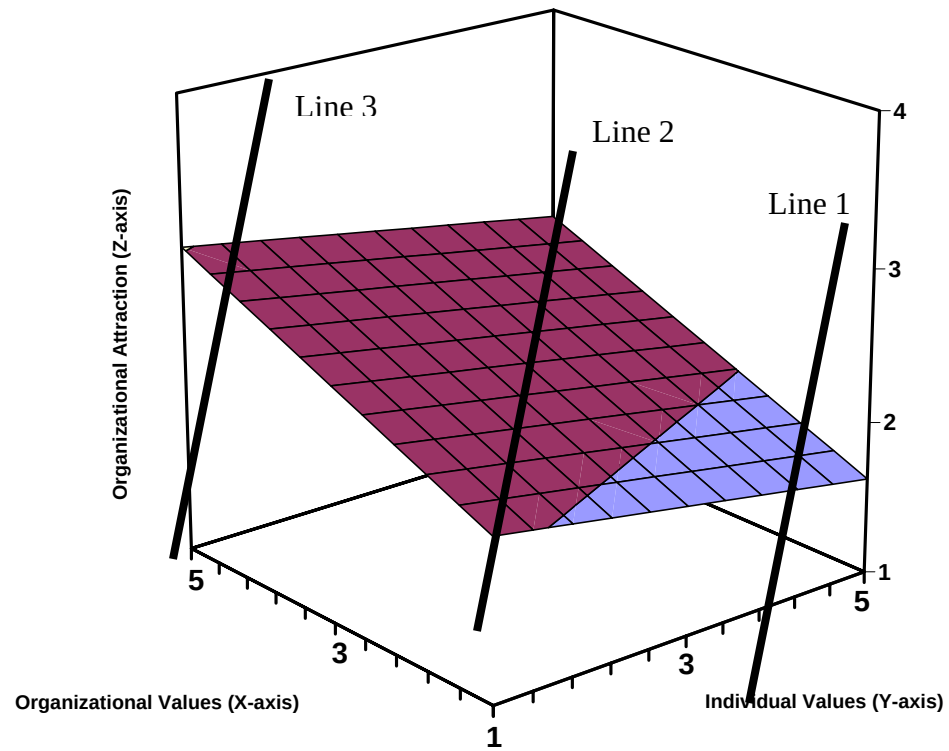


Figure A-14. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Autonomy.

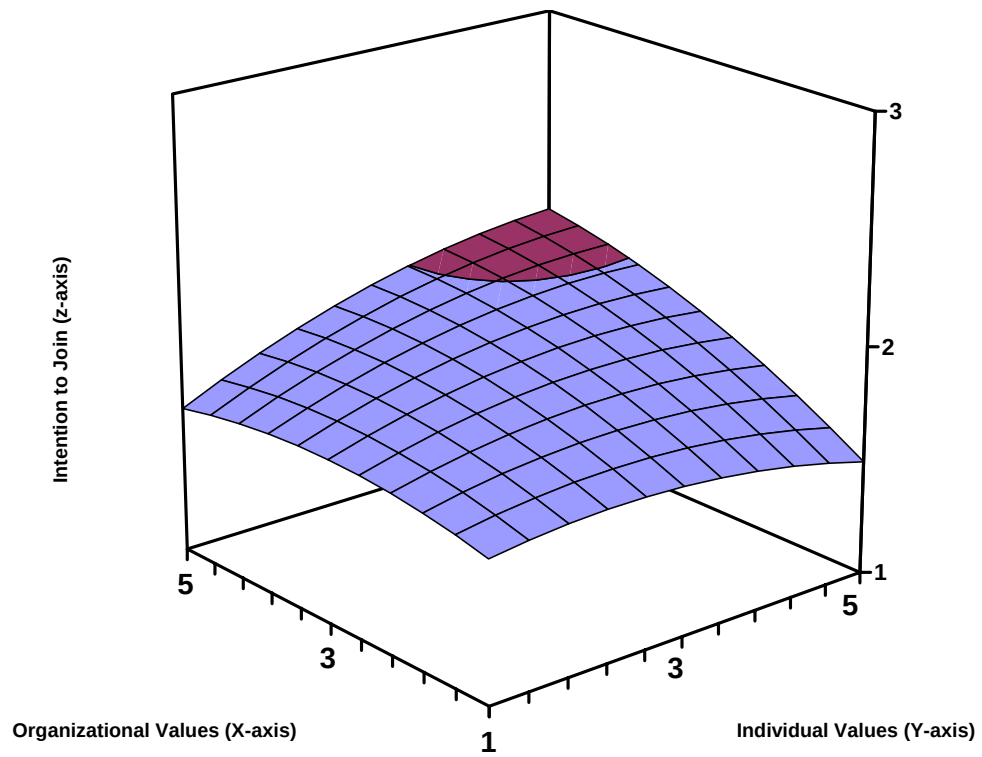


Figure A-15. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Altruism.

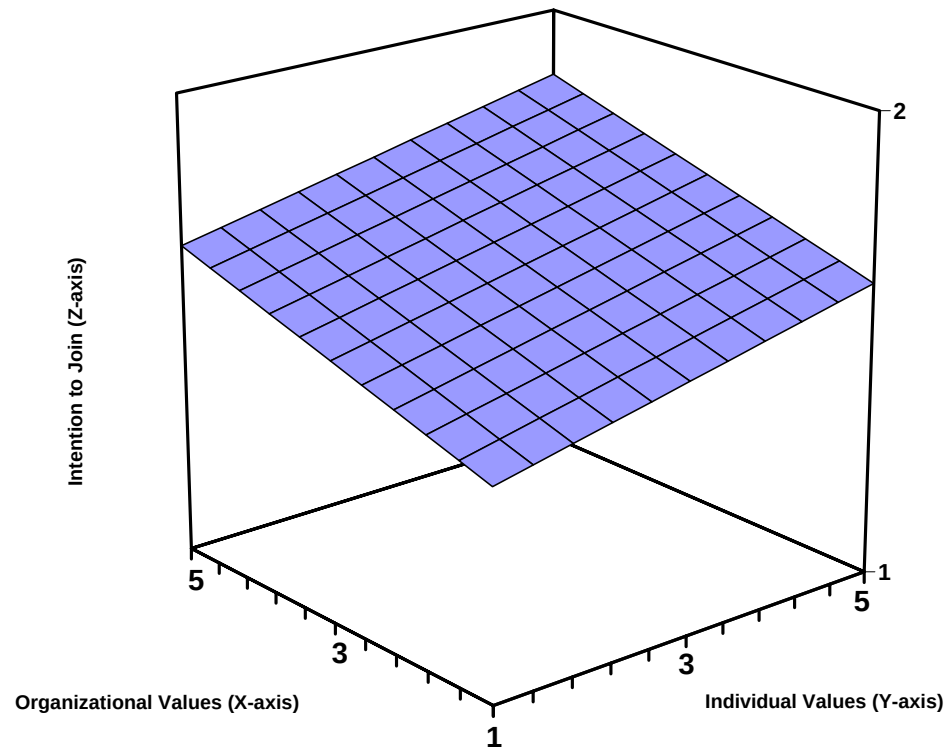


Figure A-16. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Relationships.

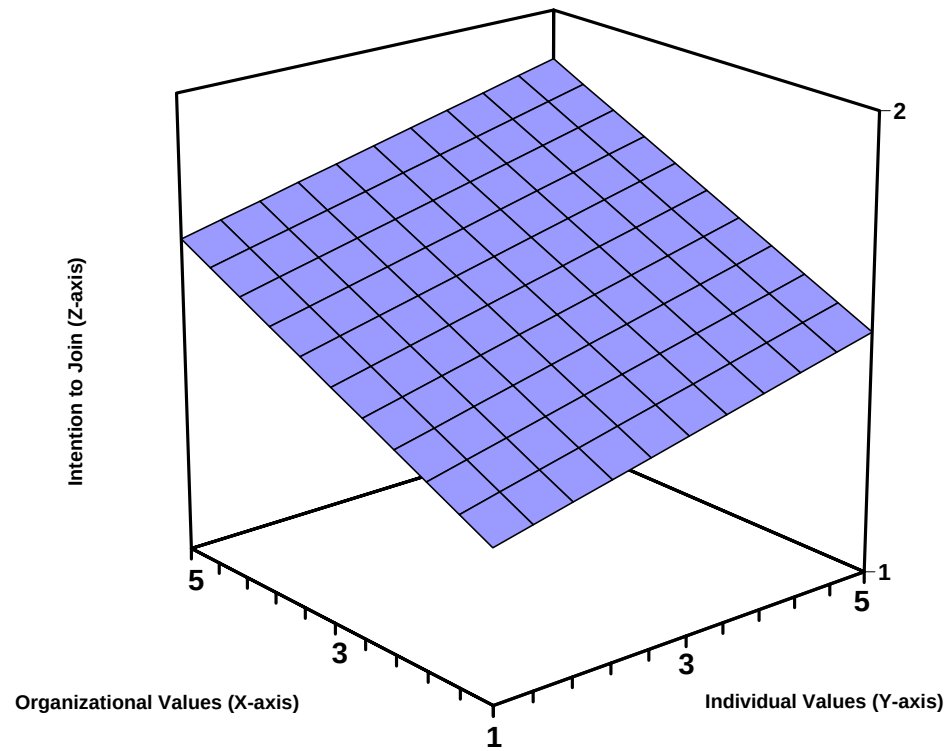


Figure A-17. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-
Dimension of Development.

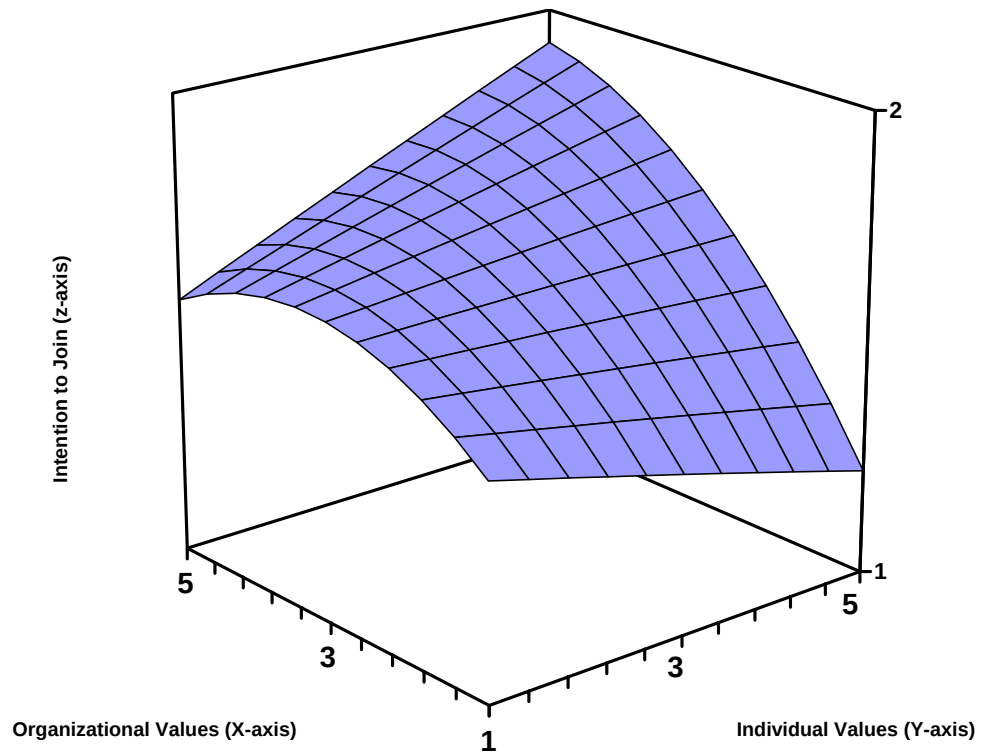


Figure A-18. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Pay.

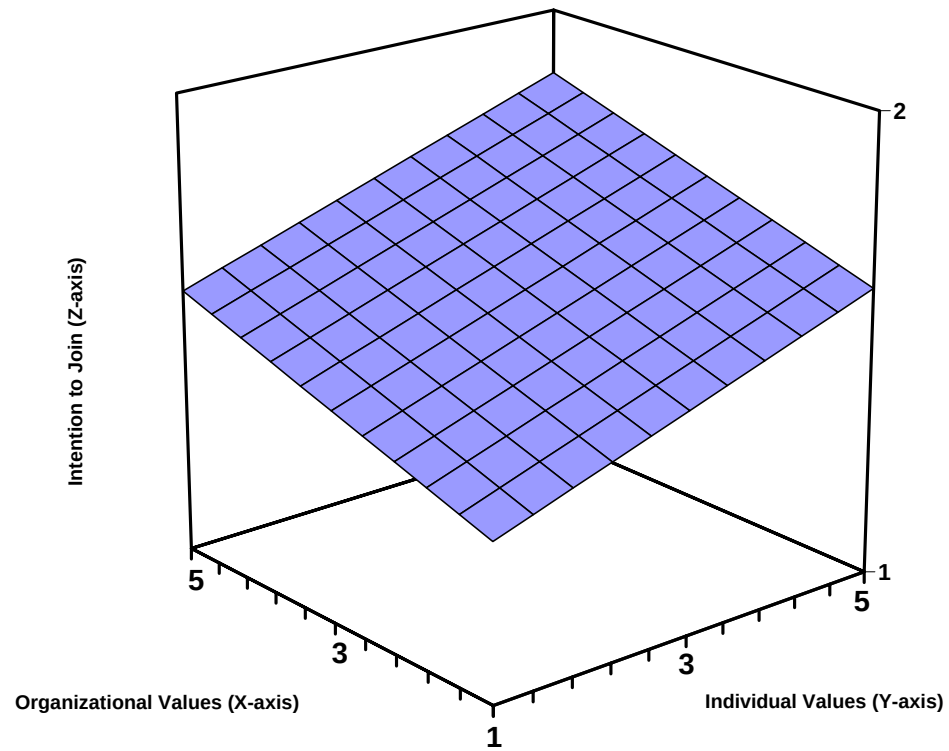


Figure A-19. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Prestige.

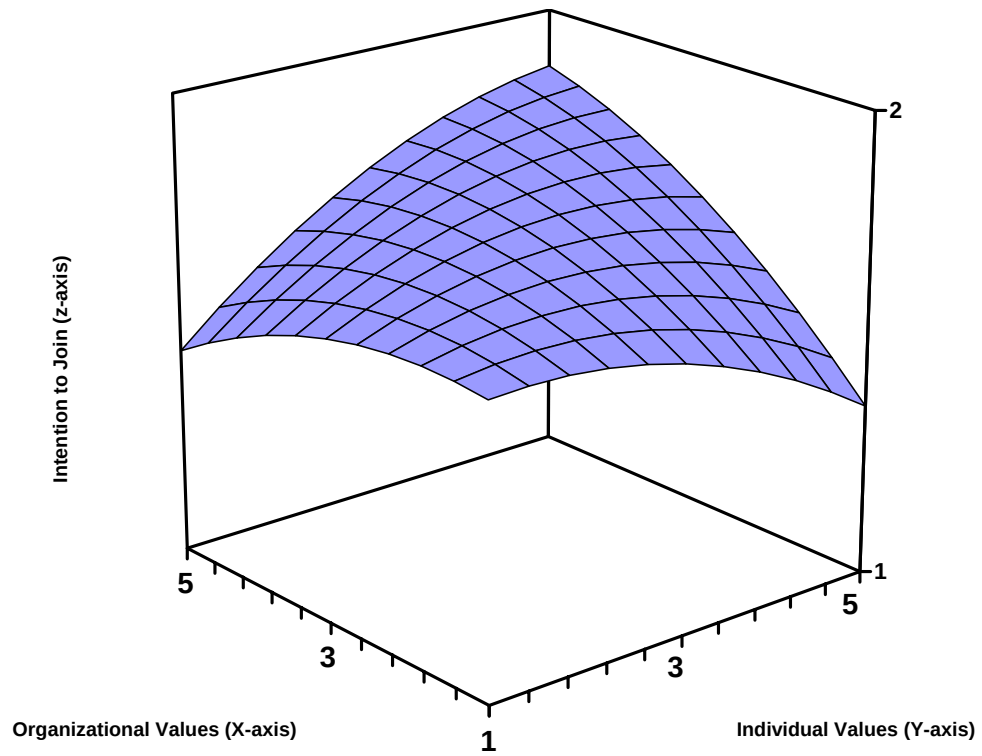


Figure A-20. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Job Security.

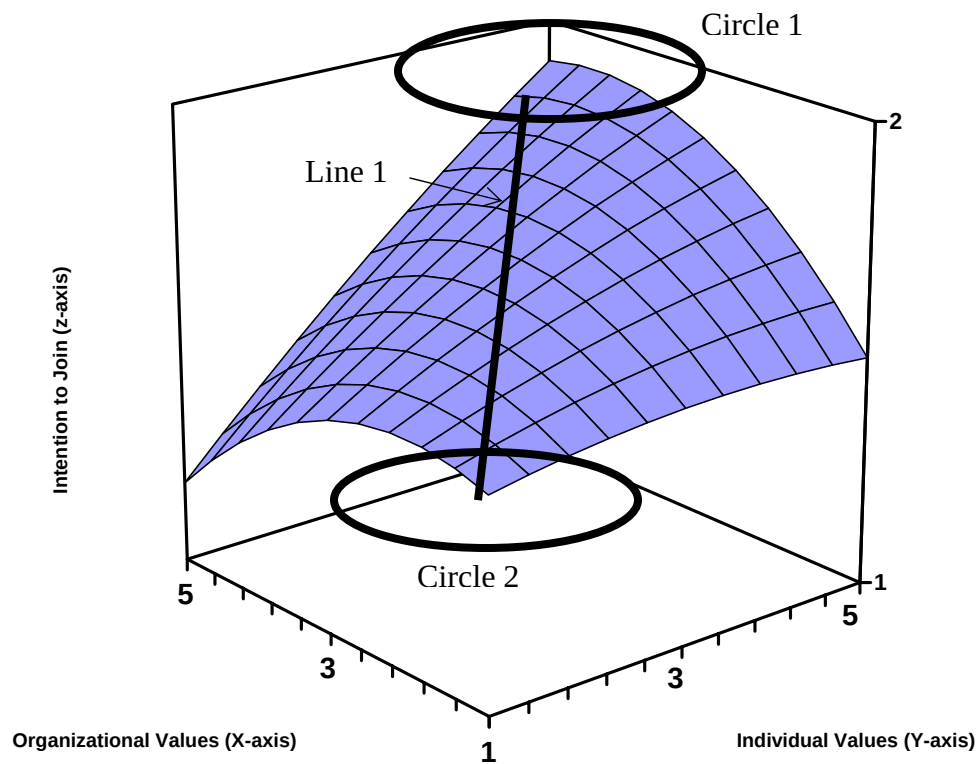


Figure A-21. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Authority.

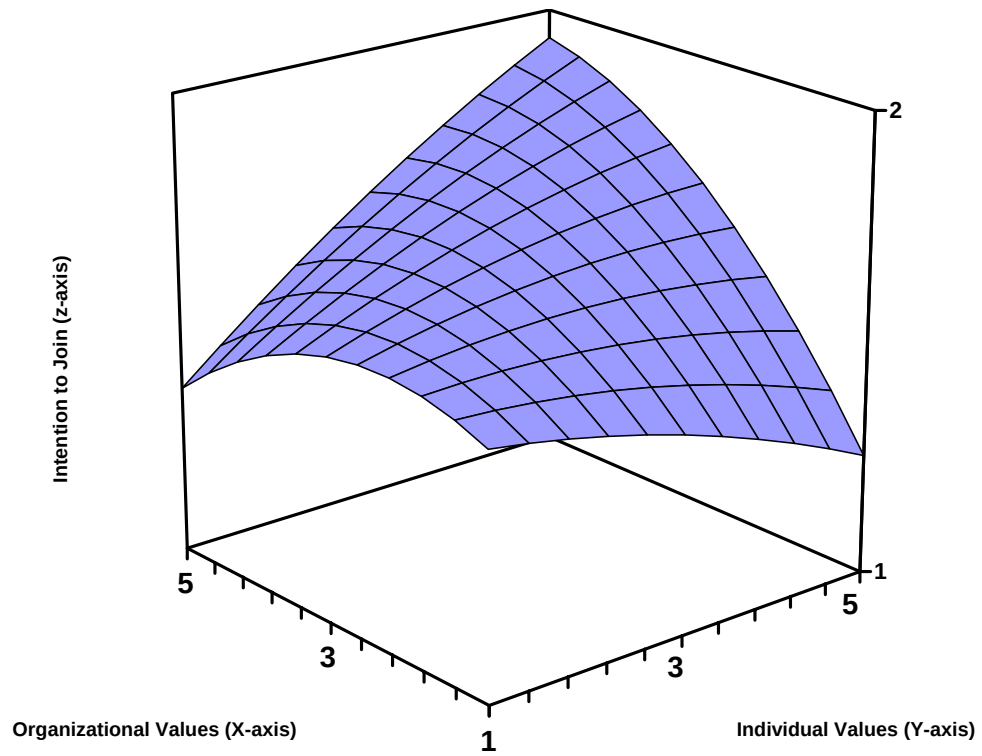


Figure A-22. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Variety.

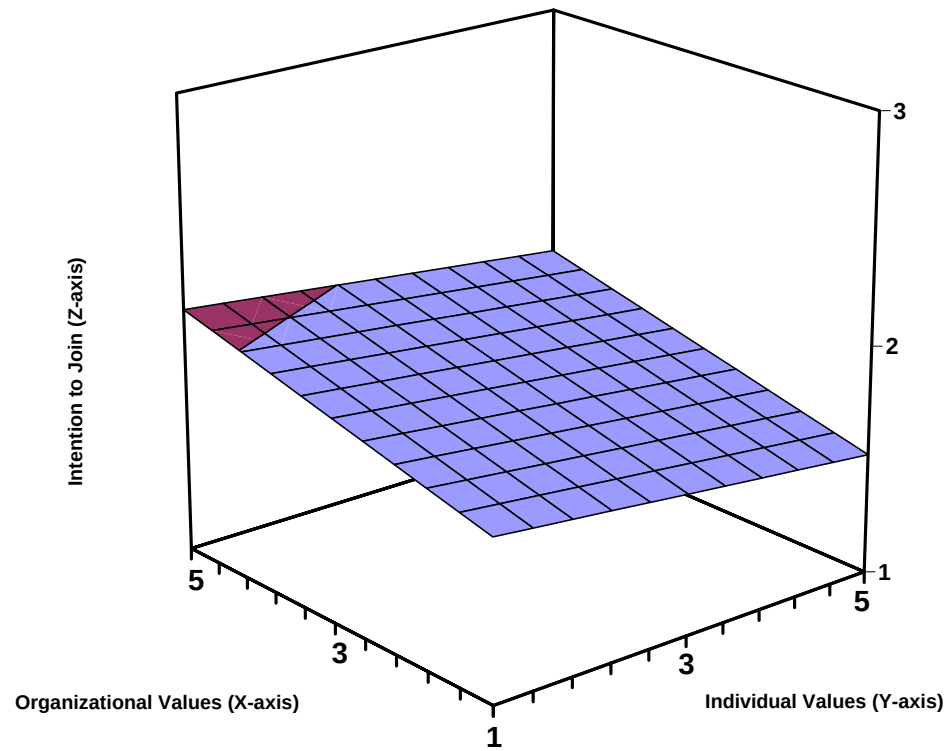


Figure A-23. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship-Dimension of Autonomy.

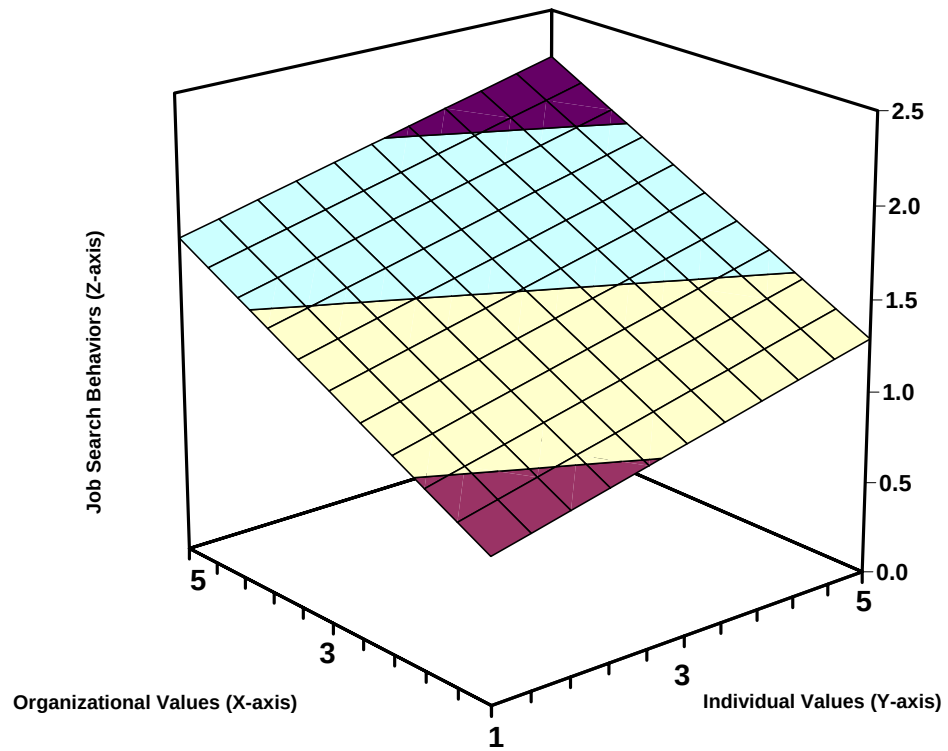


Figure A-24. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Altruism.

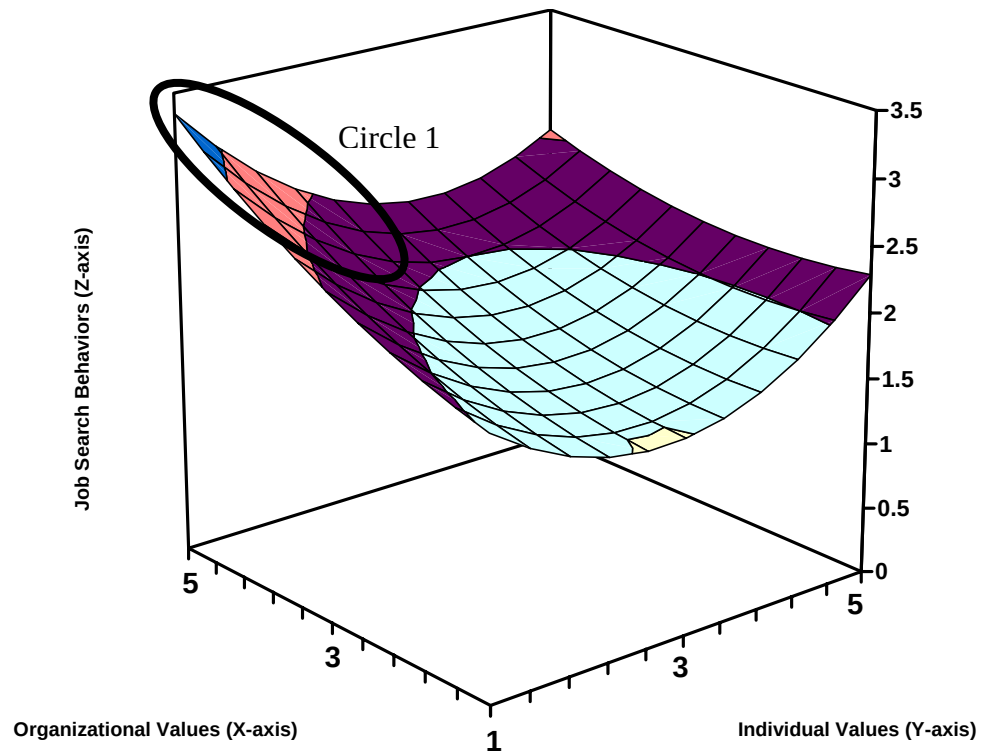


Figure A-25. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Relationships.

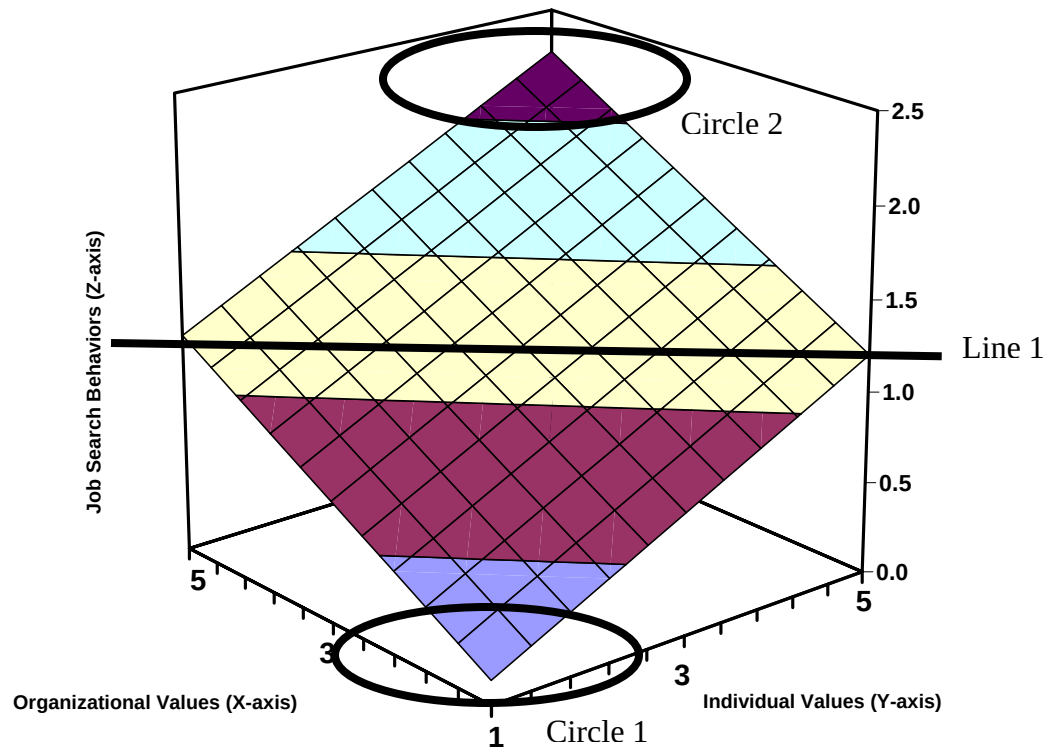


Figure A-26. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Development.

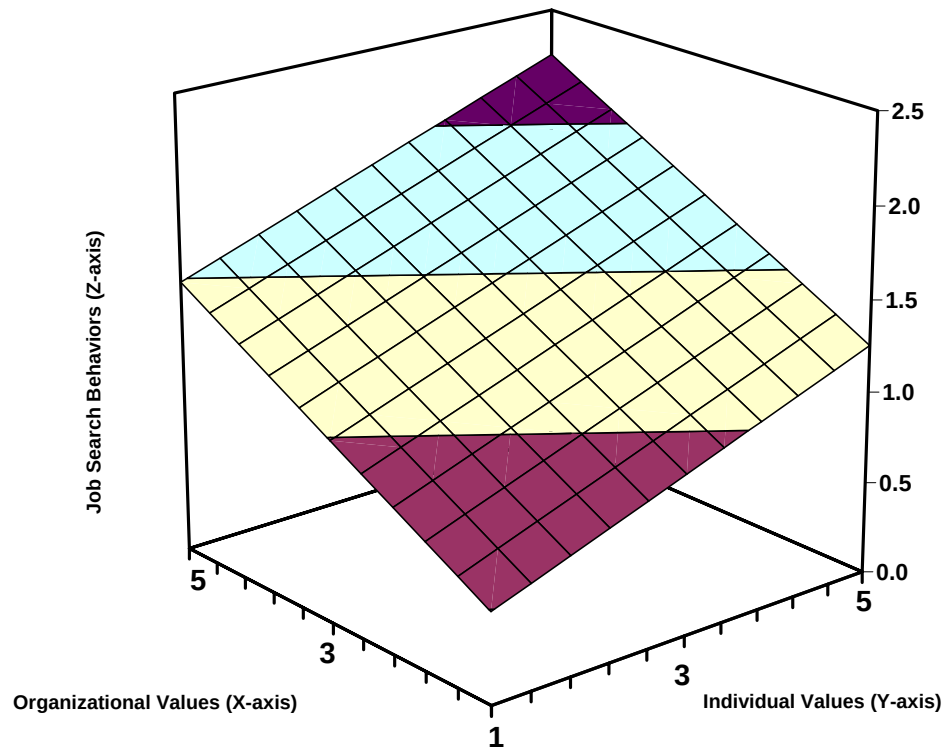


Figure A-27. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Pay.

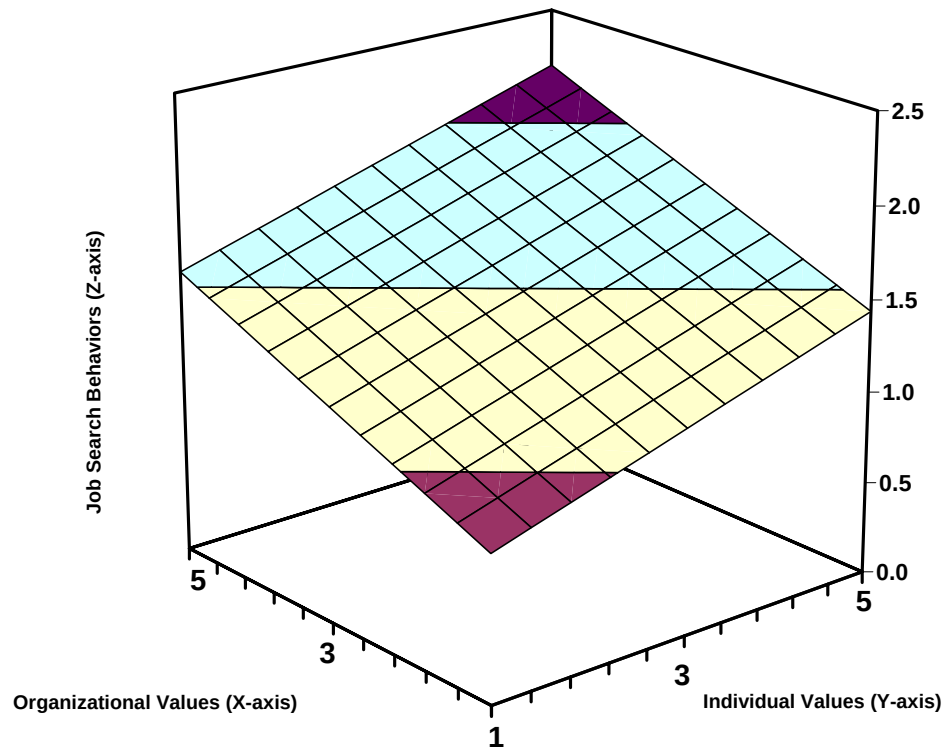


Figure A-28. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Prestige.

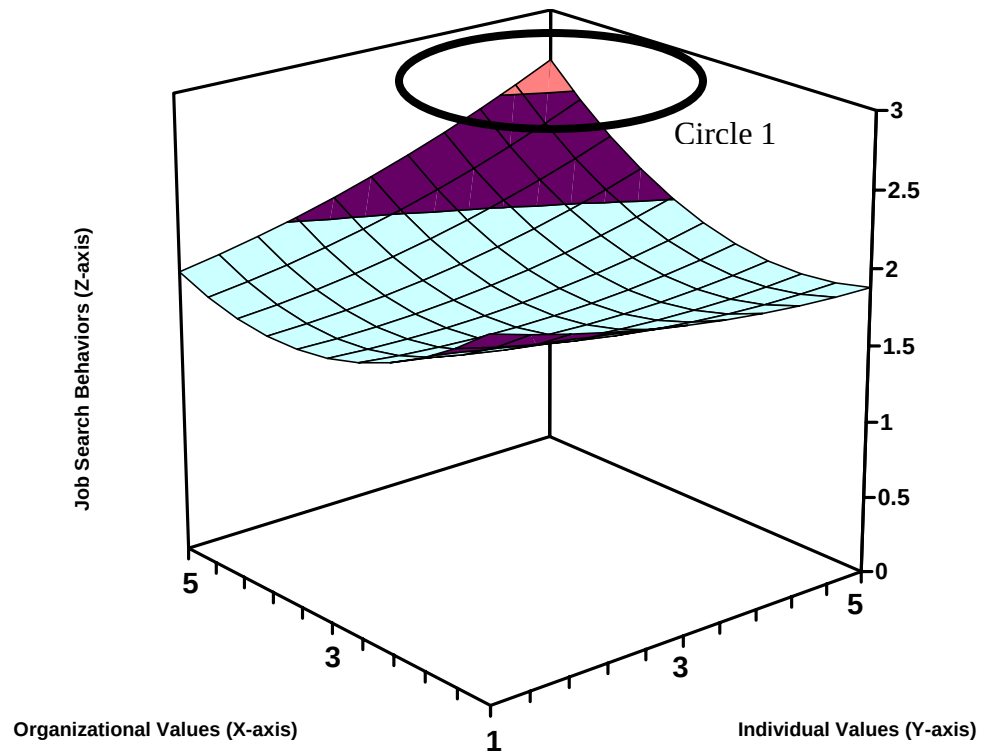


Figure A-29. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Job Security.

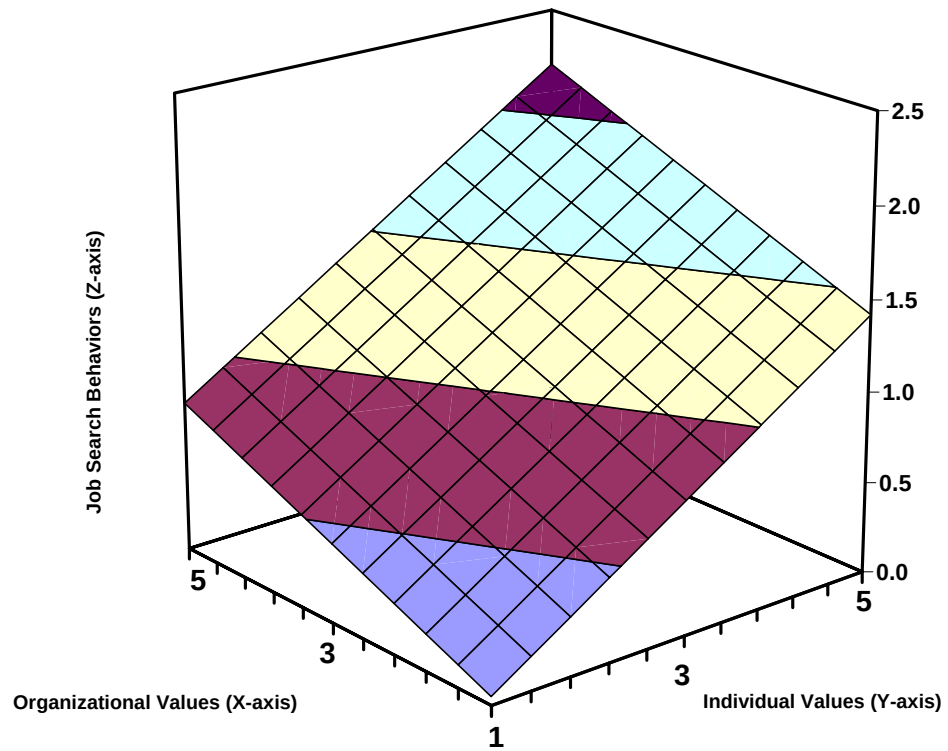


Figure A-30. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Authority.

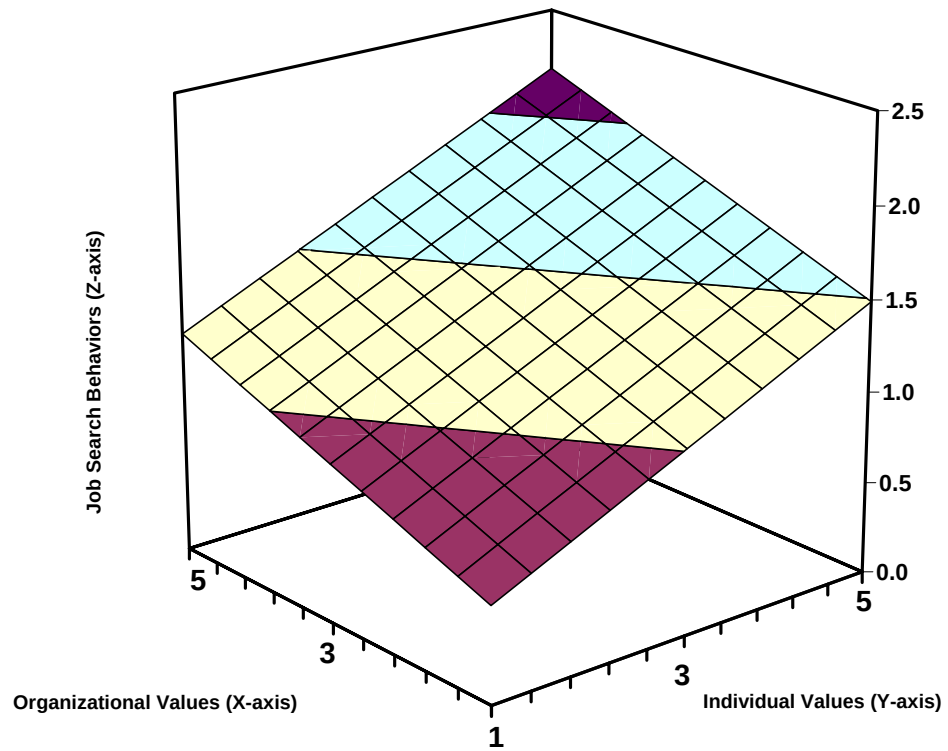


Figure A-31. Functional Form of Value Congruence- Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Variety.

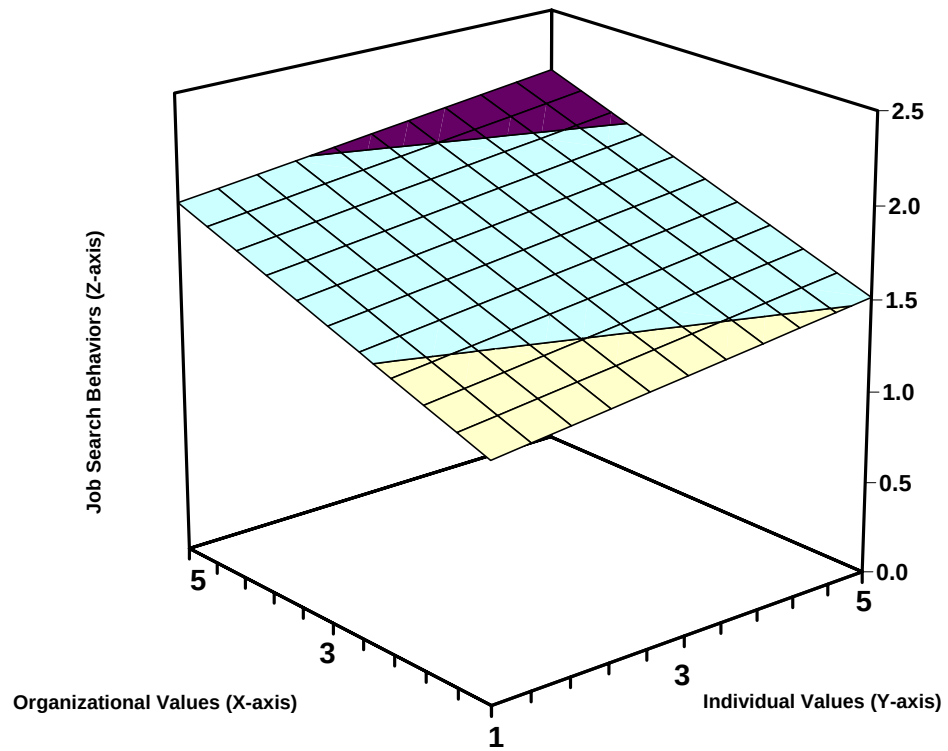


Figure A-32. Functional Form of Value Congruence-Job Search Behavior Fit Relationship- Dimension of Autonomy.

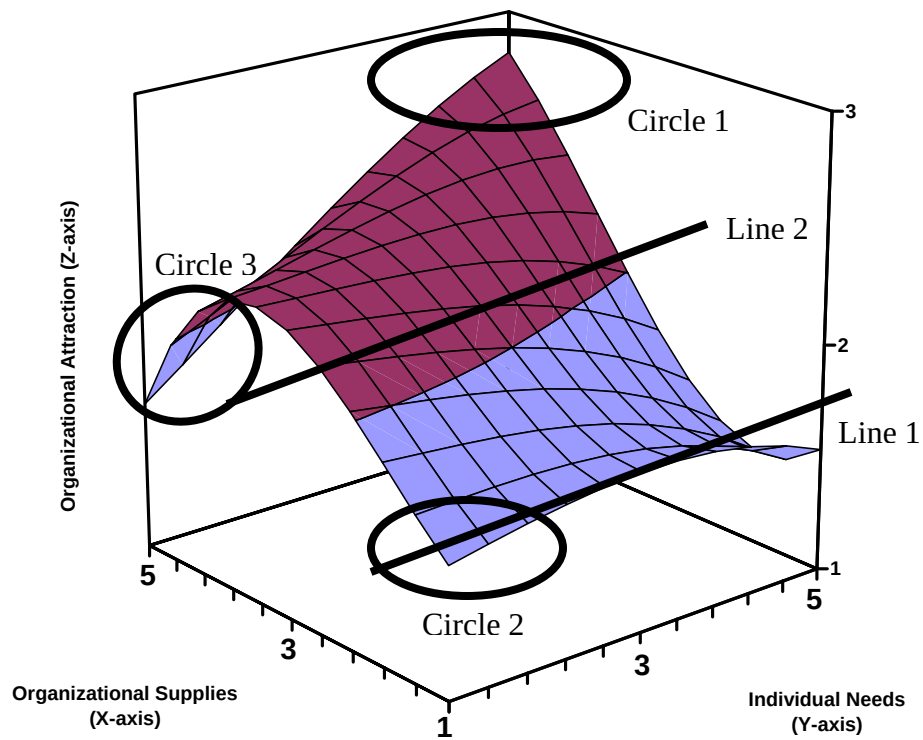


Figure A-33. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Altruism.

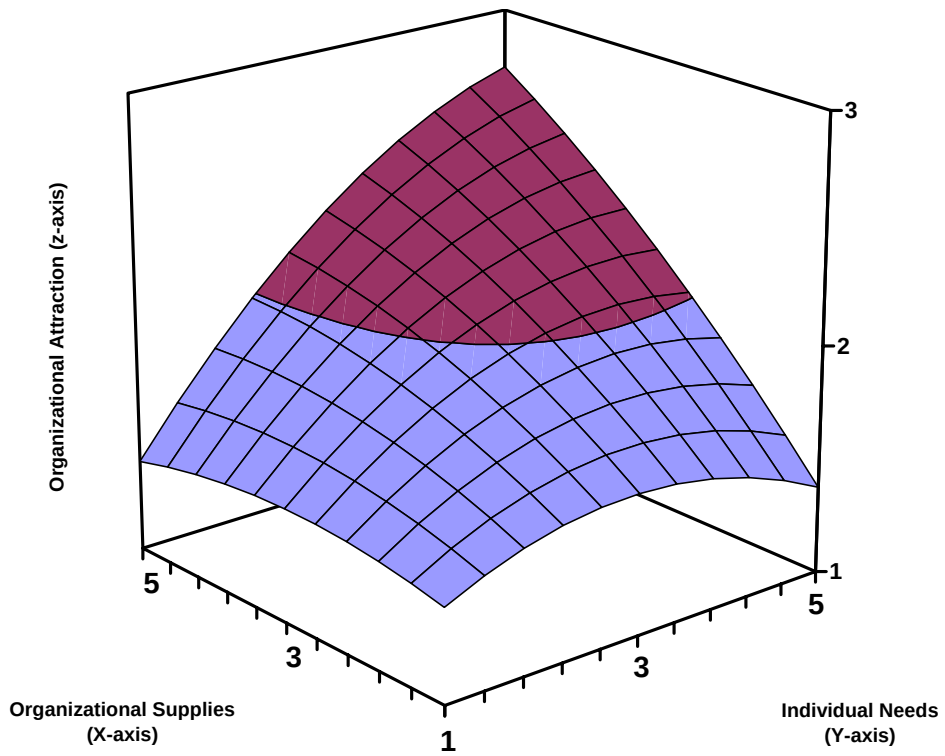


Figure A-34. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Relationships.

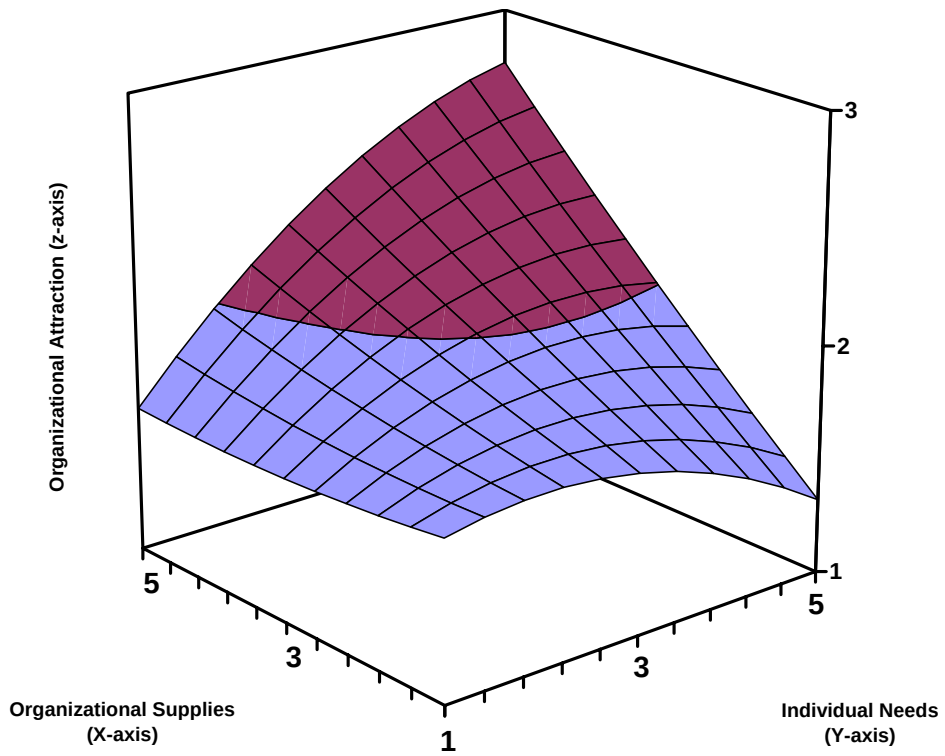


Figure A-35. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Development.

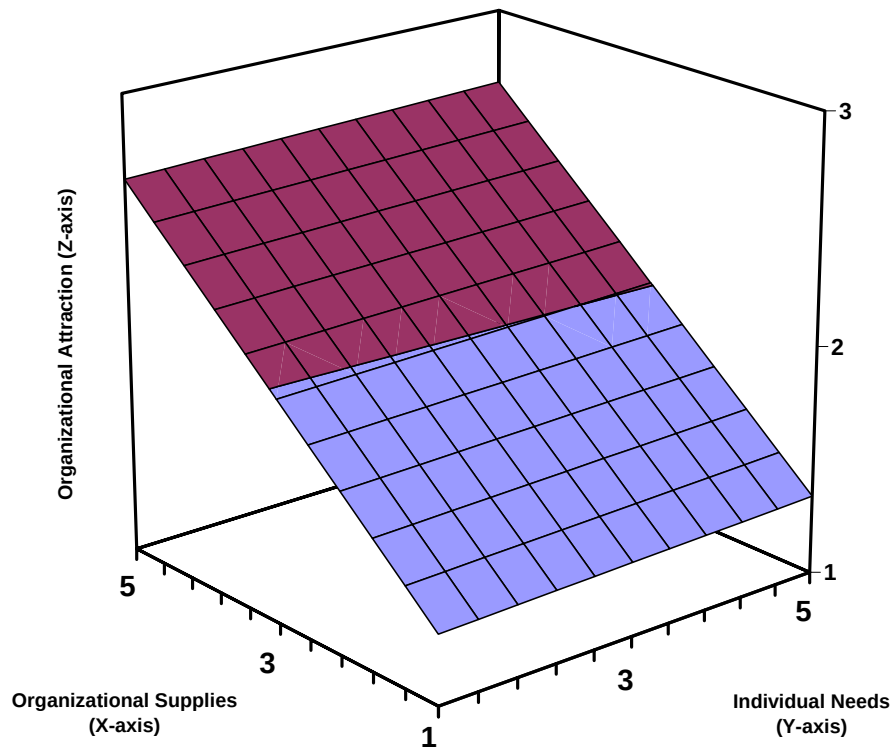


Figure A-36. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Pay.

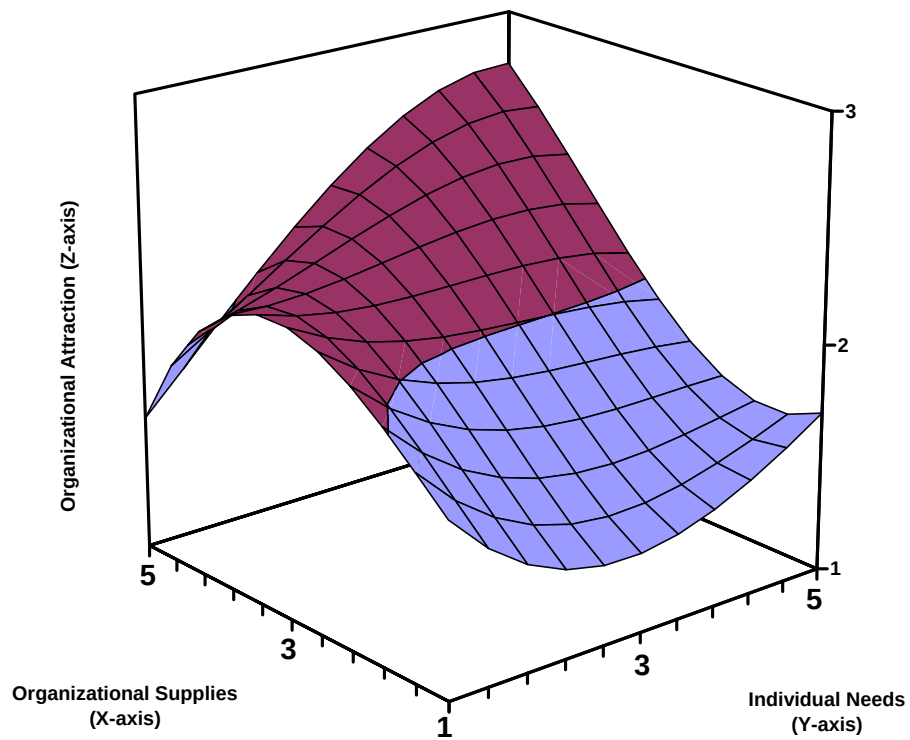


Figure A-37. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Prestige.

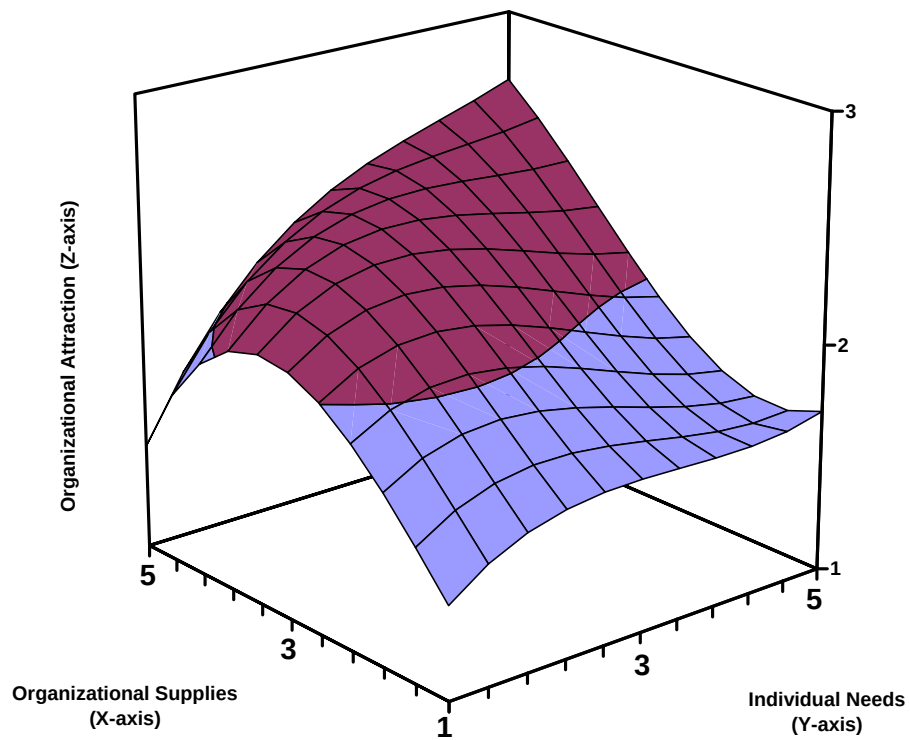


Figure A-38. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Job Security.

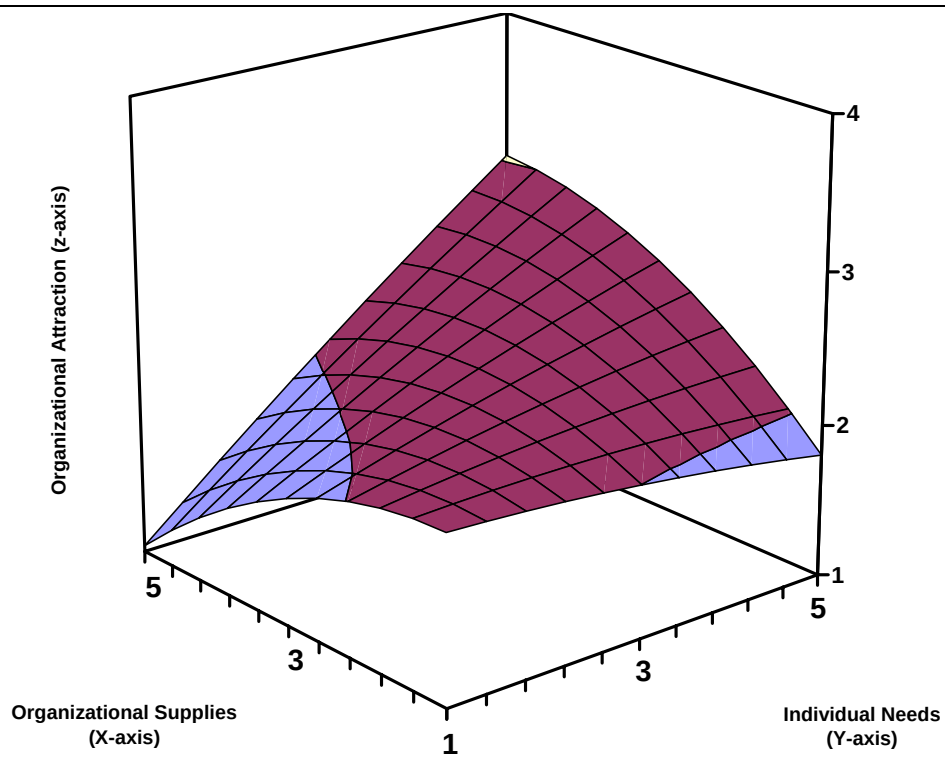


Figure A-39. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Authority.

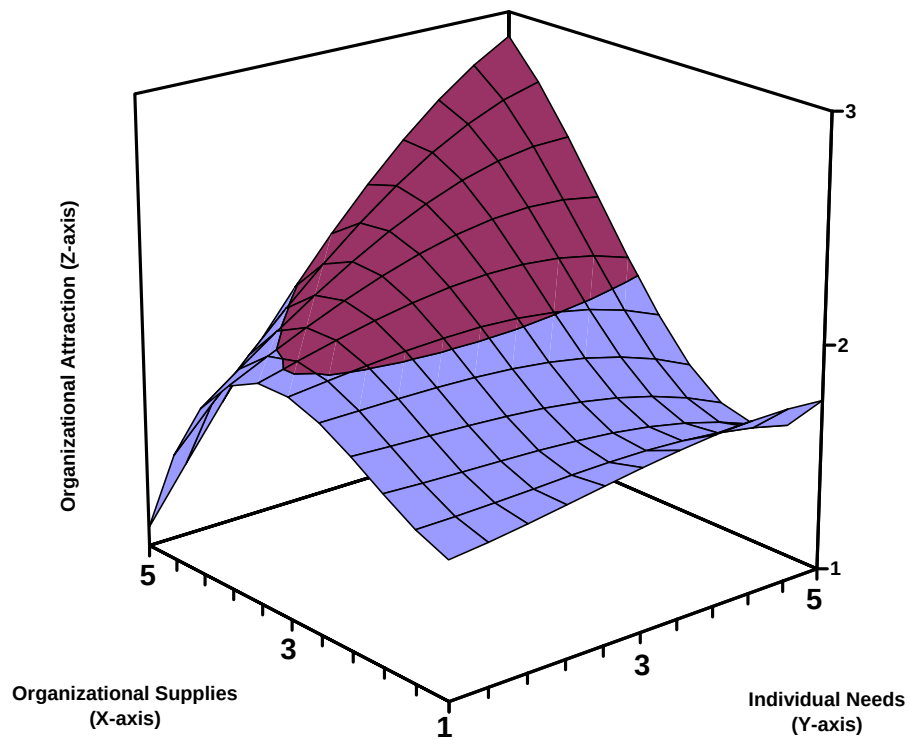


Figure A-40. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Variety.

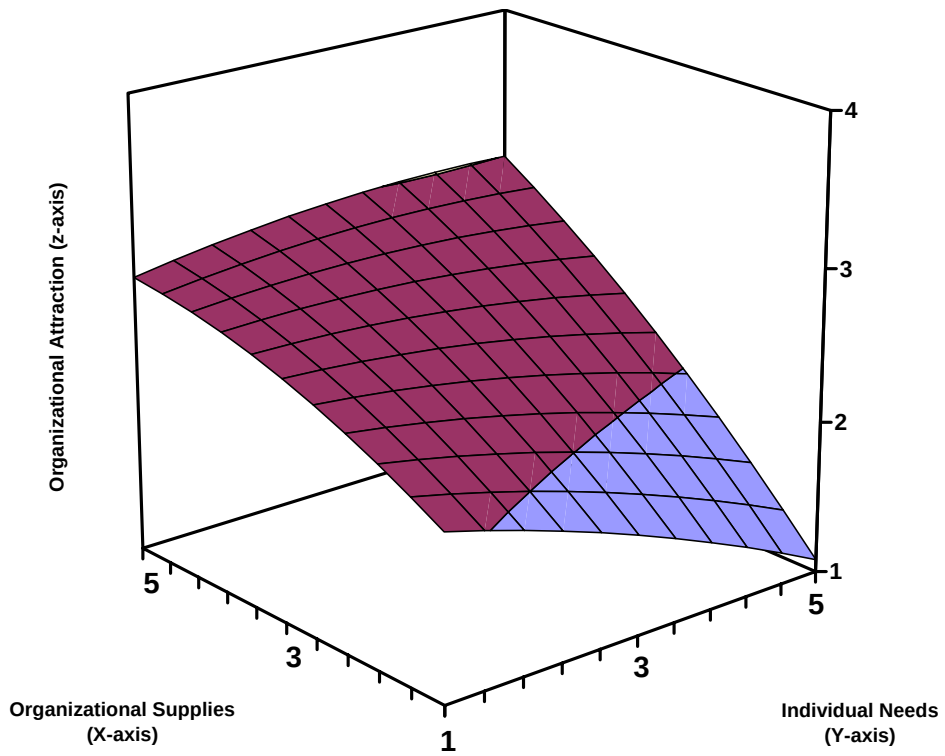


Figure A-41. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Organizational Attraction Fit Relationship- Dimension of Autonomy.

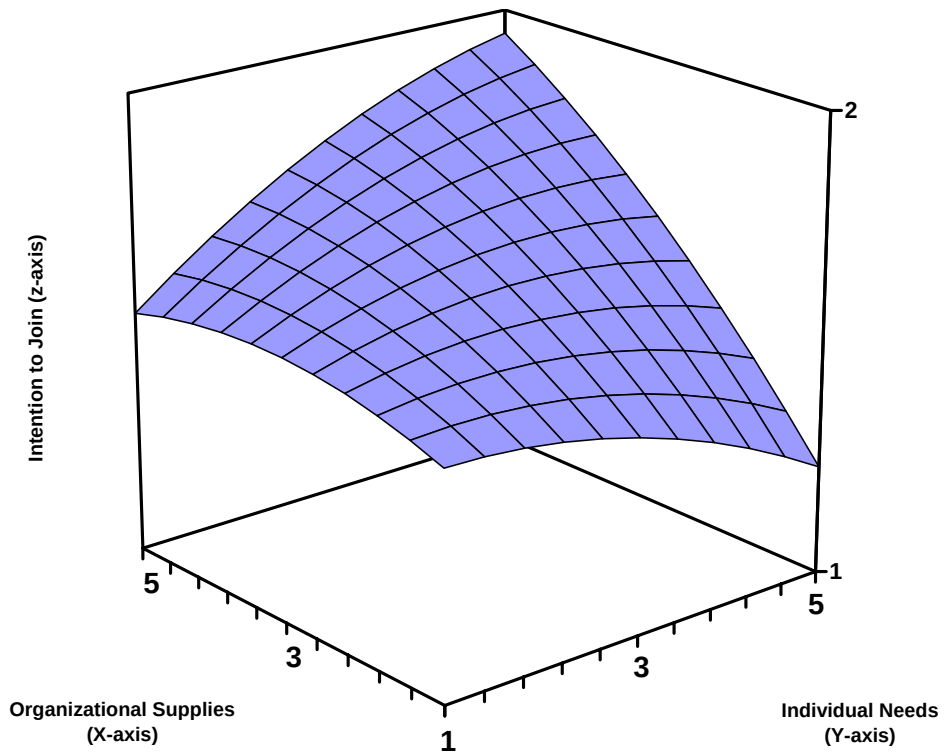


Figure A-42. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Altruism.

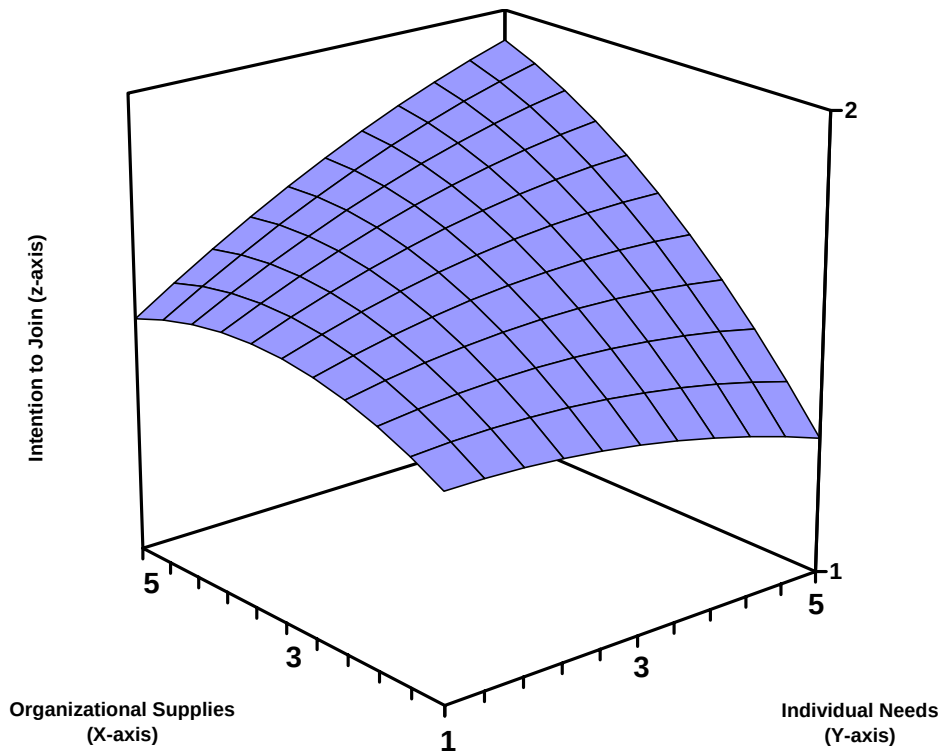


Figure A-43. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Relationships.

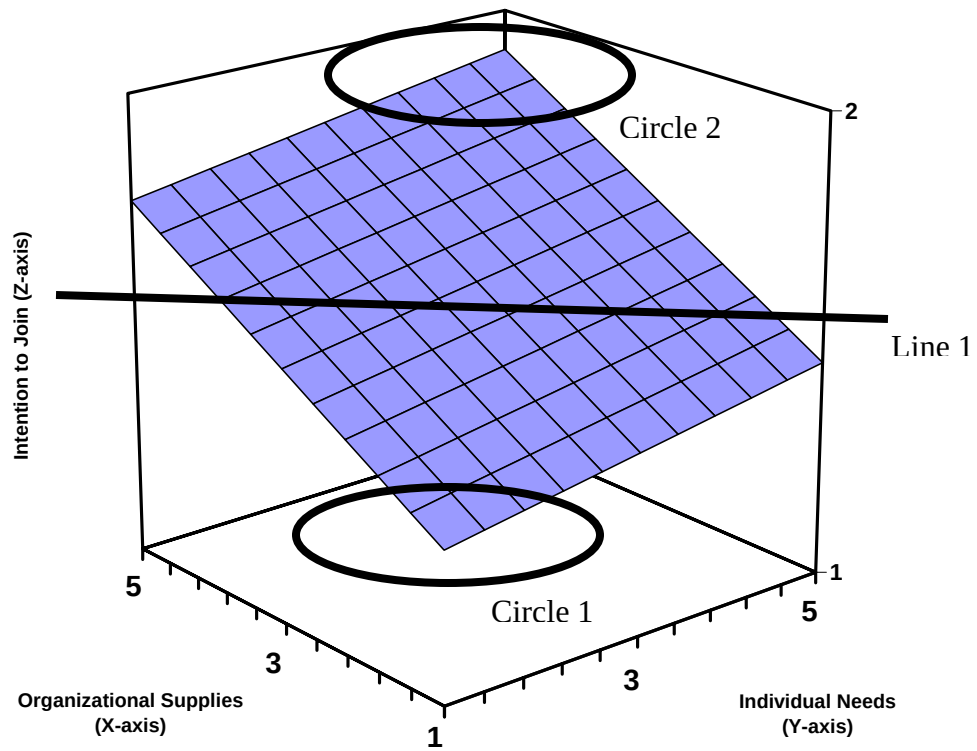


Figure A-44. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Development.

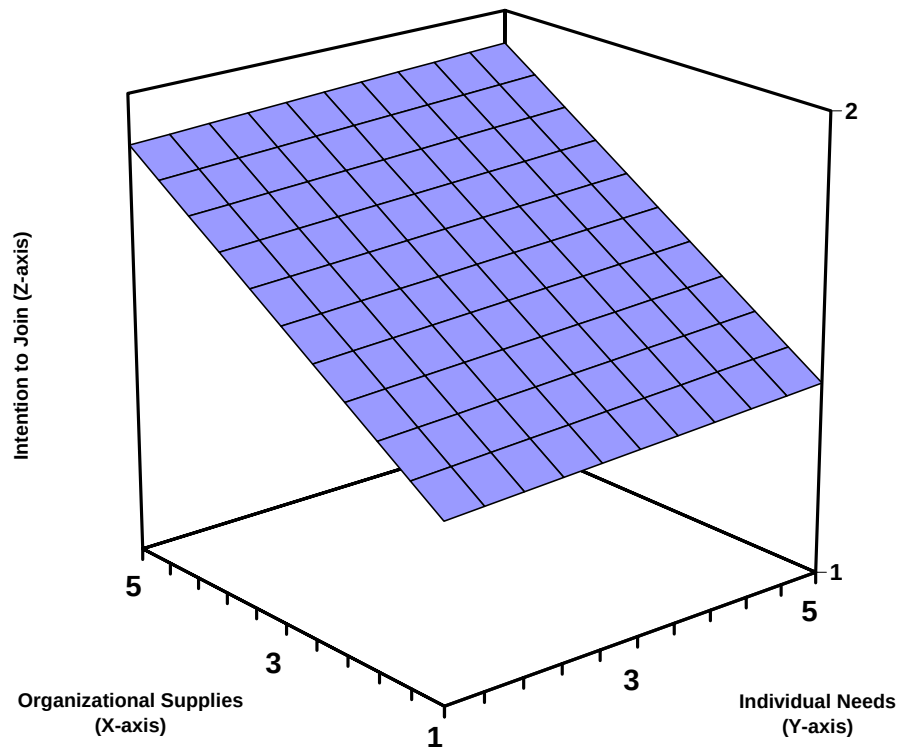


Figure A-45. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Pay.

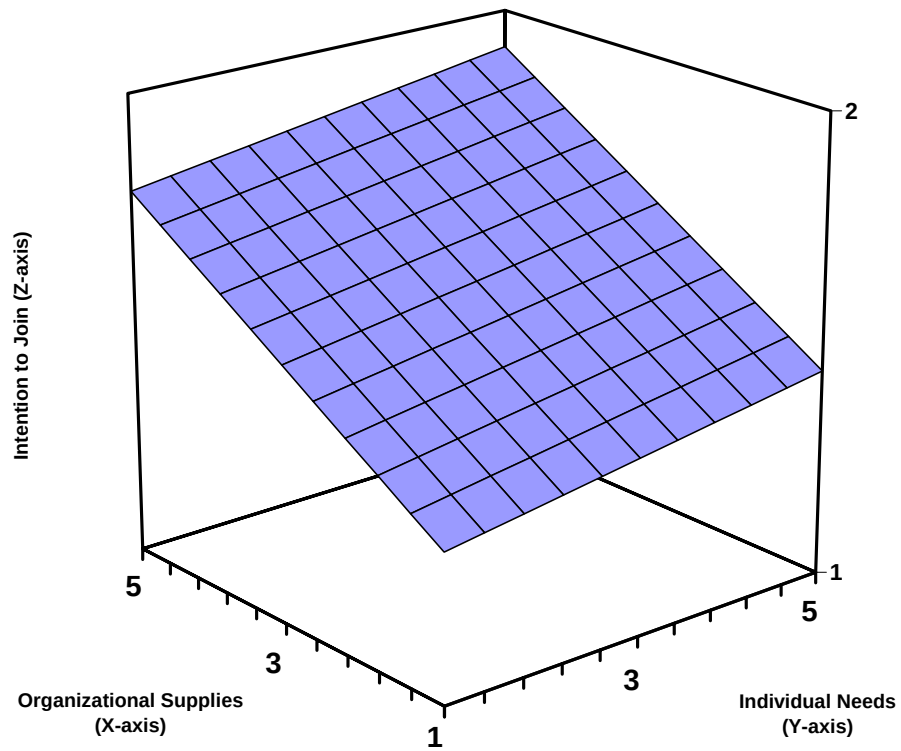


Figure A-46. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Prestige.

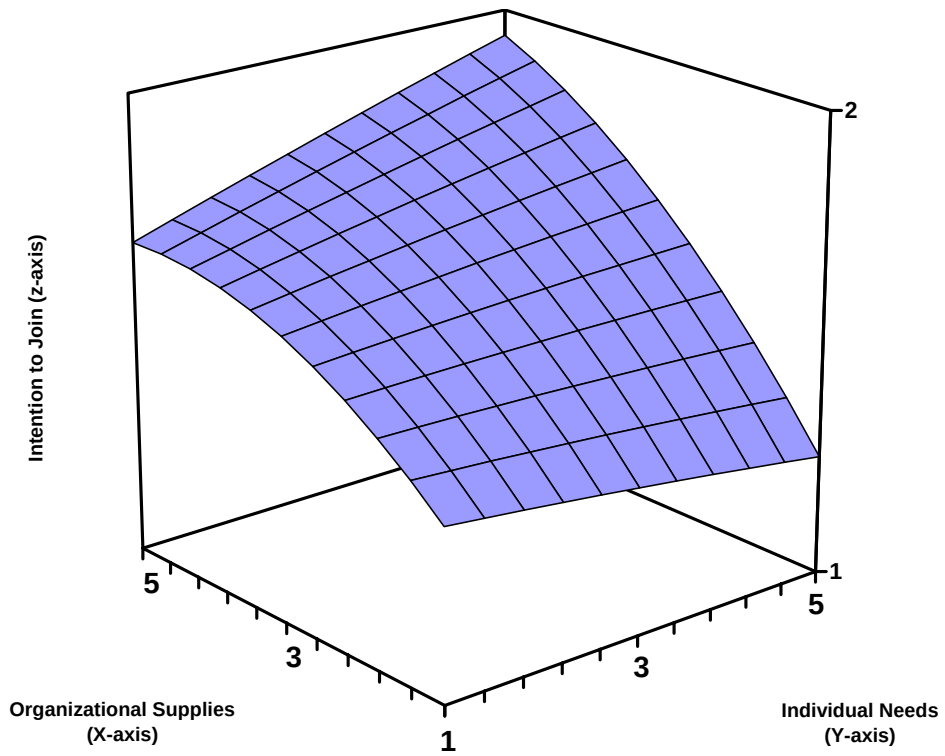


Figure A-47. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Job Security.

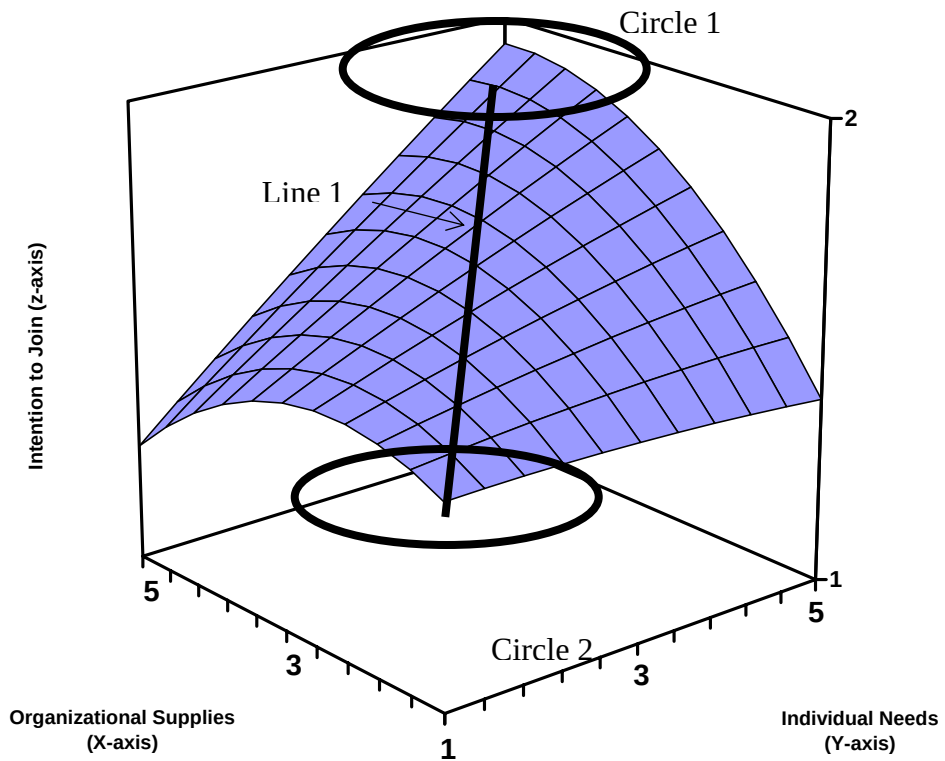


Figure A-48. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Authority.

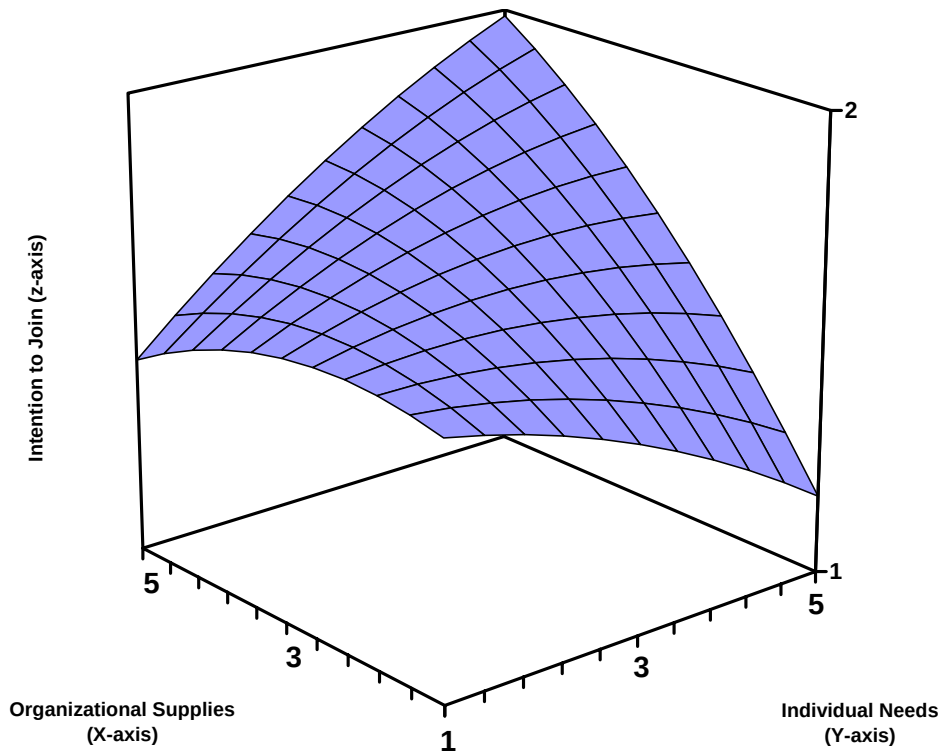


Figure A-49. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Variety.

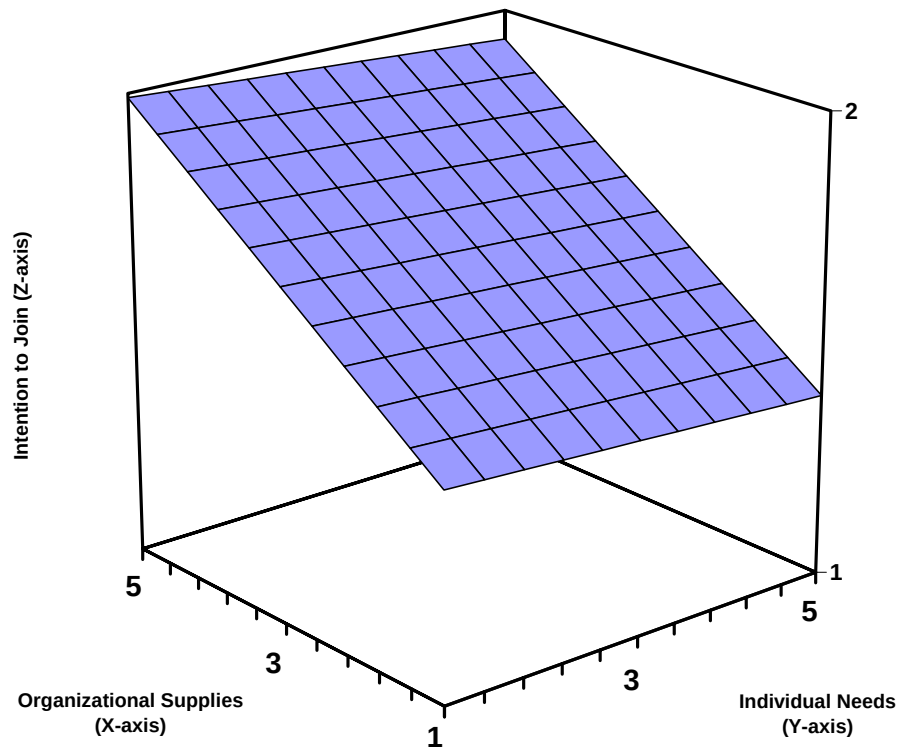


Figure A-50. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Intentions to Join Fit Relationship- Dimension of Autonomy.

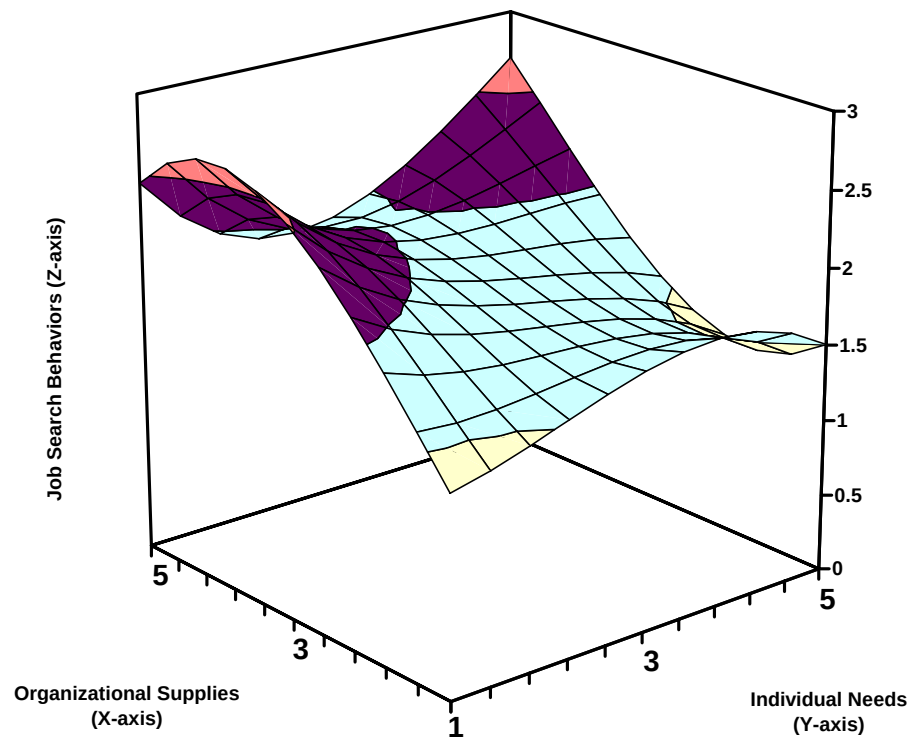


Figure A-51. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Altruism.

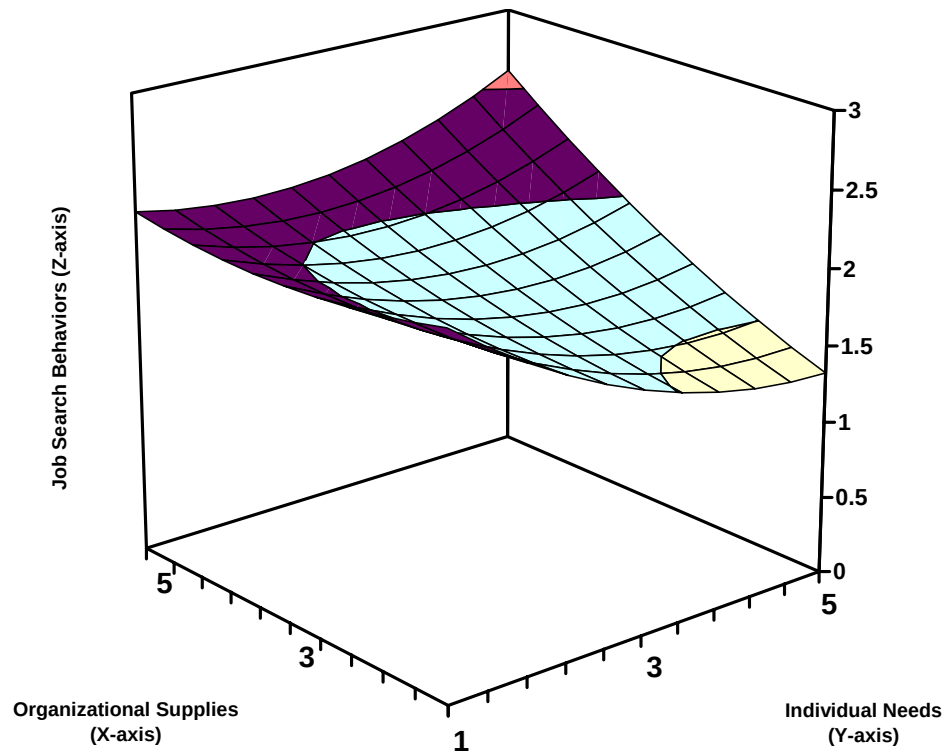


Figure A-52. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Relationships.

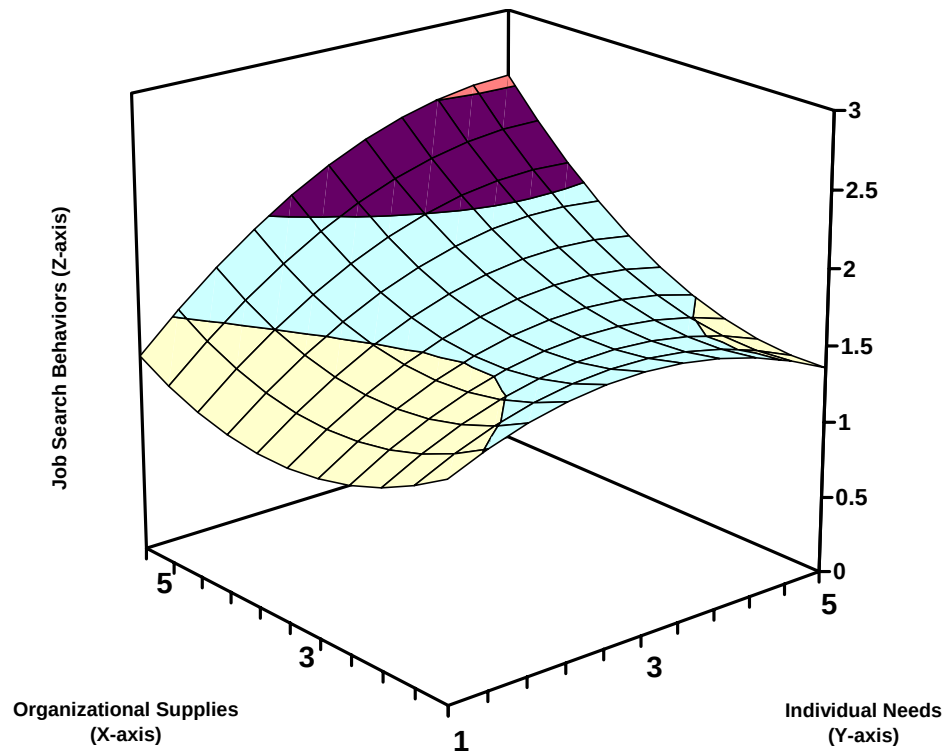


Figure A-53. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Development.

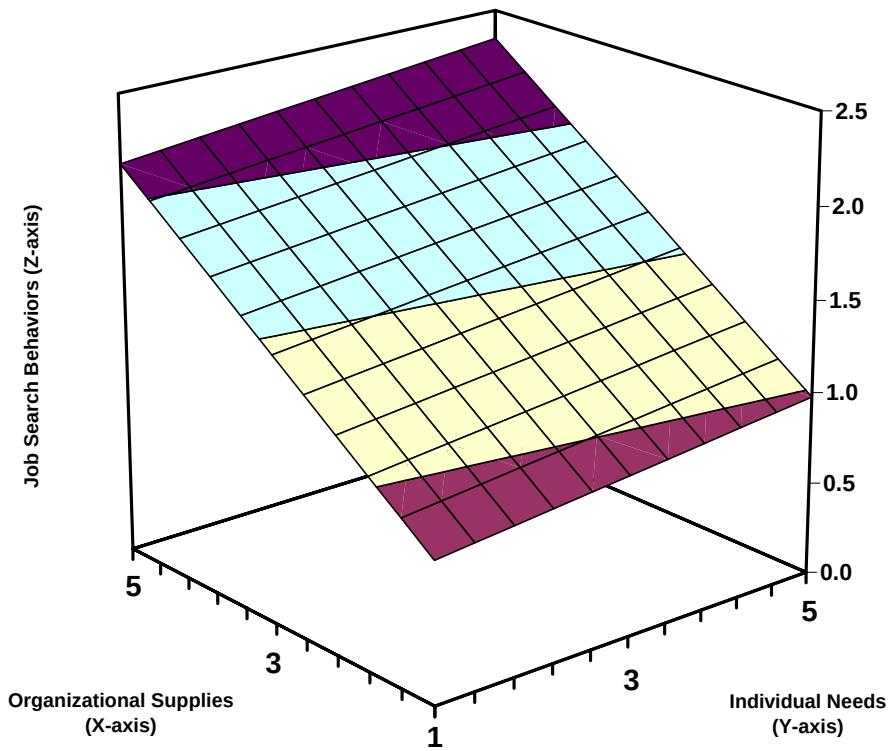


Figure A-54. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Pay.

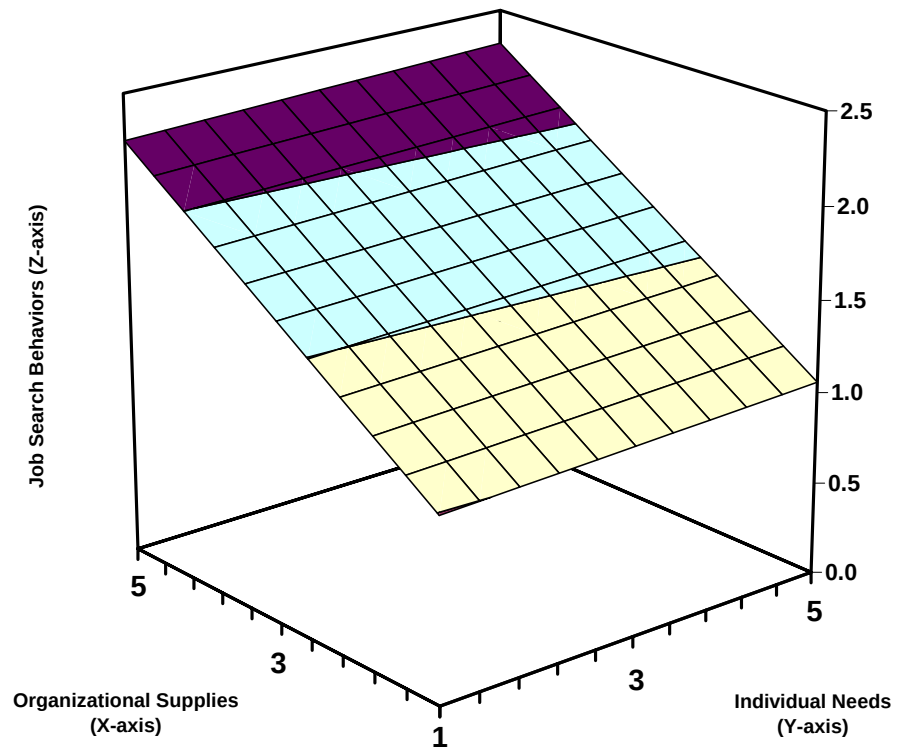


Figure A-55. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Prestige.

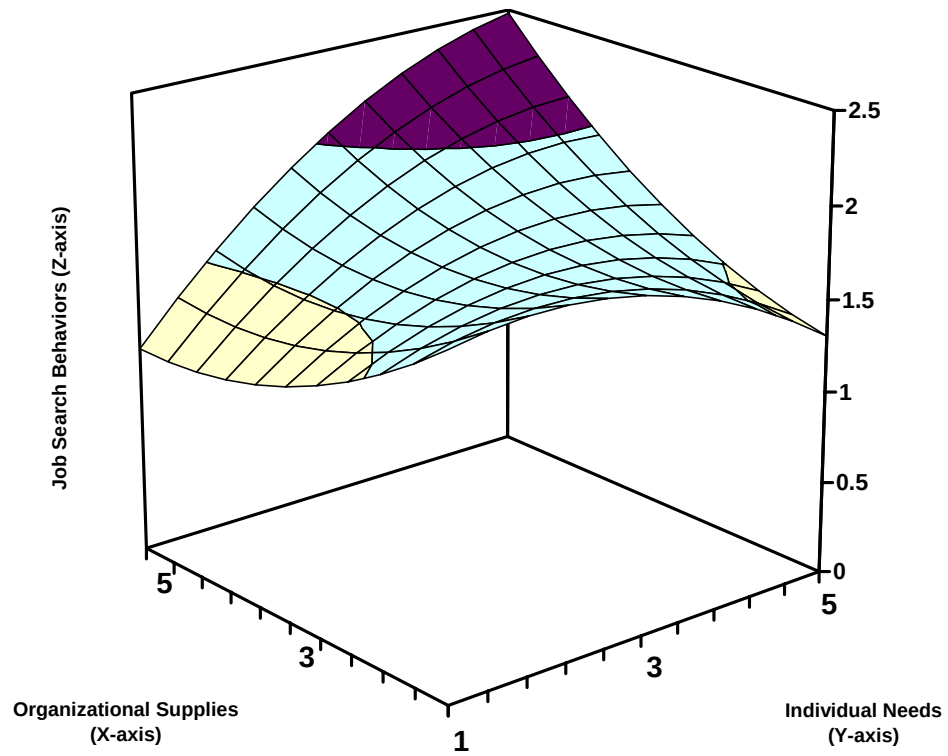


Figure A-56. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Job Security.

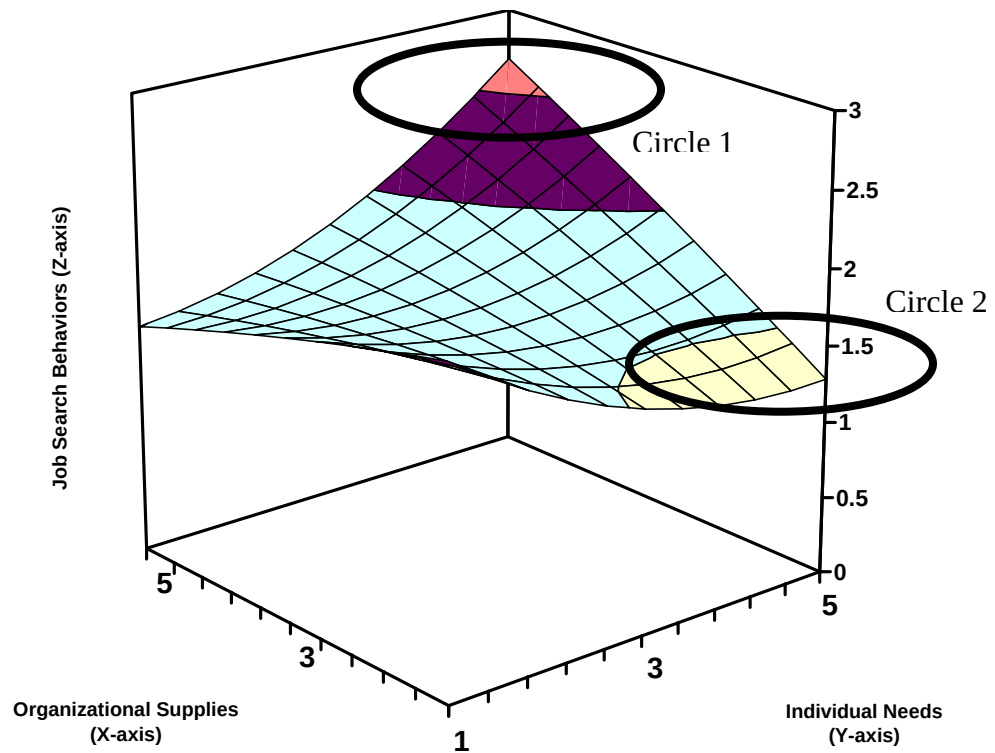


Figure A-57. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Authority.

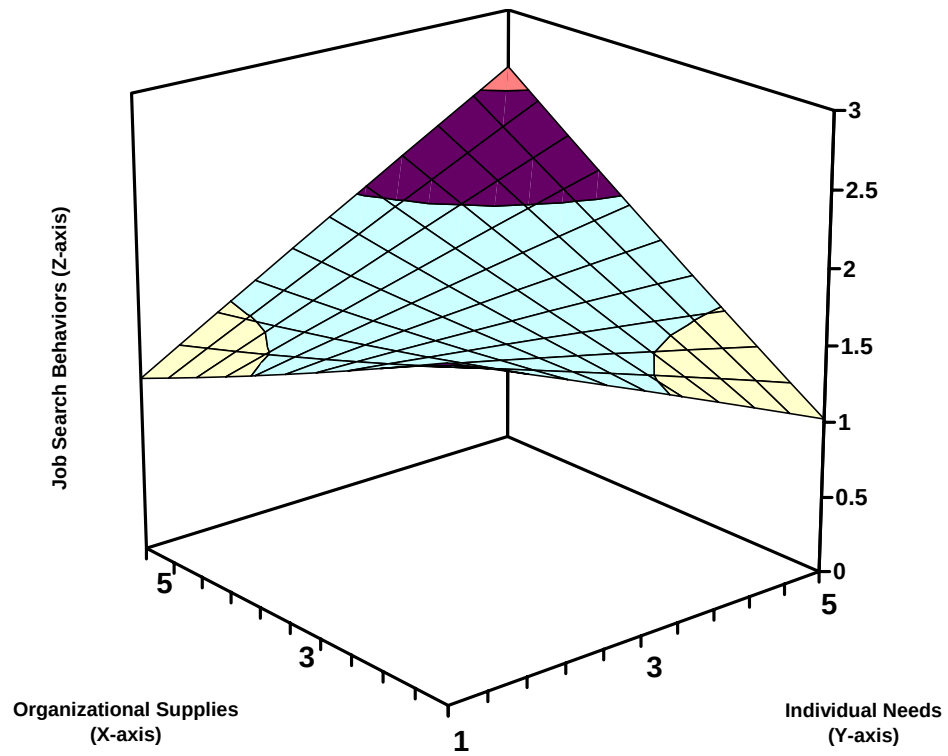


Figure A-58. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Variety.

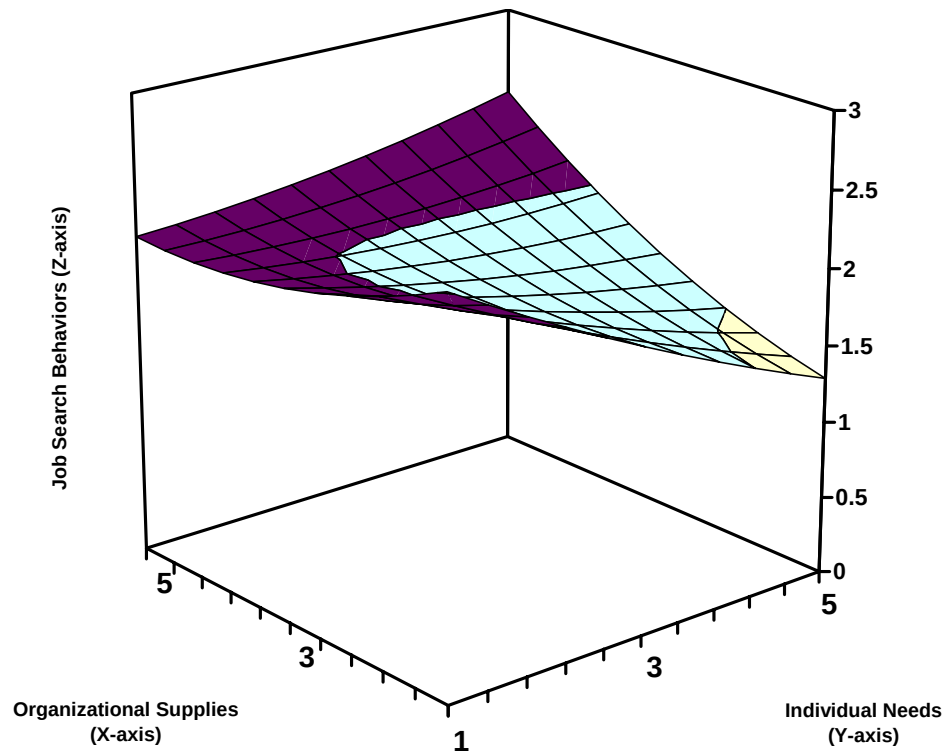


Figure A-59. Functional Form of Psychological Need Fulfillment-Job Search Behaviors Fit Relationship- Dimension of Autonomy.

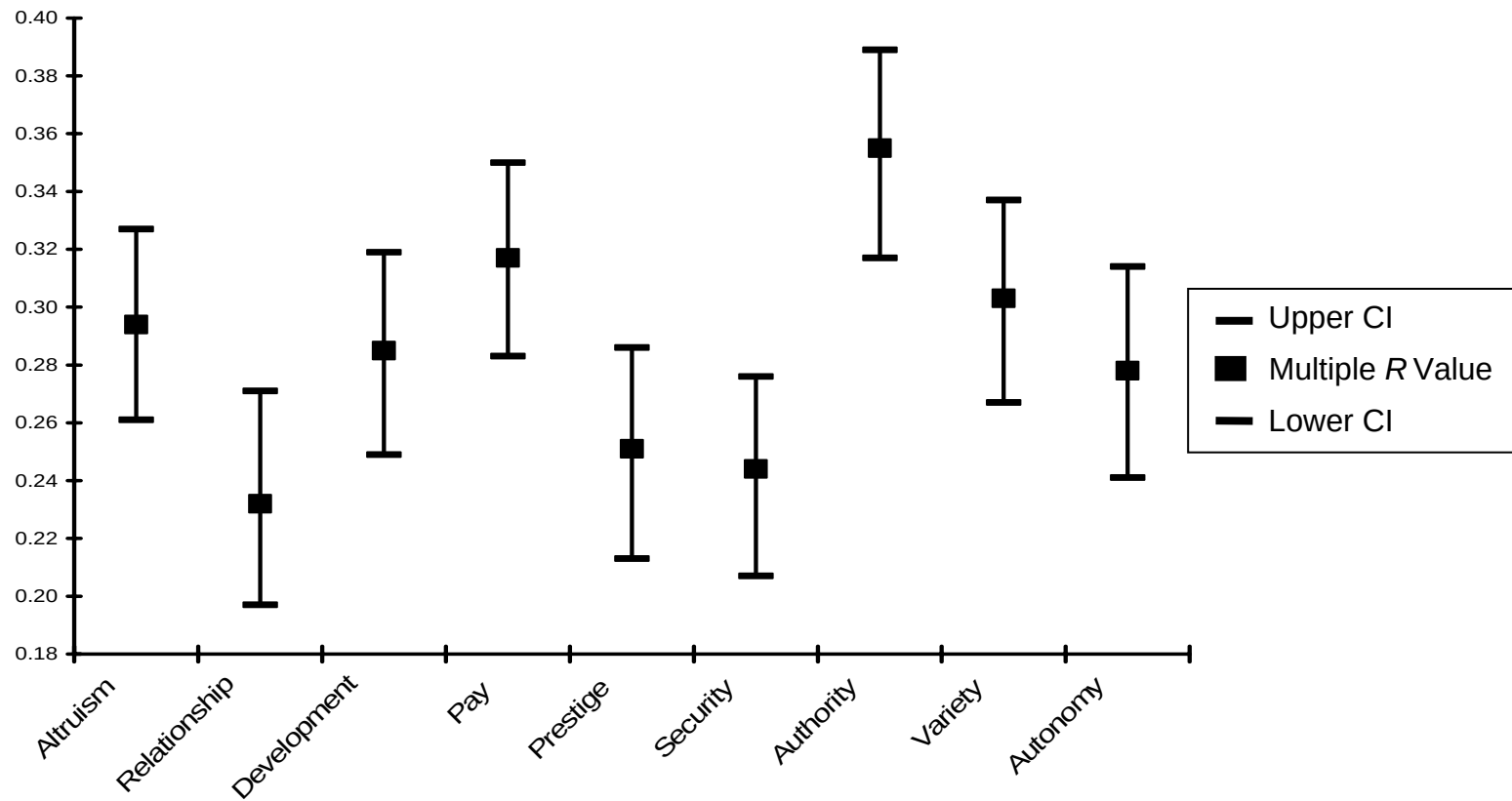


Figure A-60. Independent Relationships between Value Congruence and Organizational Attraction: Multiple R and 95% CIs.

Note: 95% confidence intervals were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

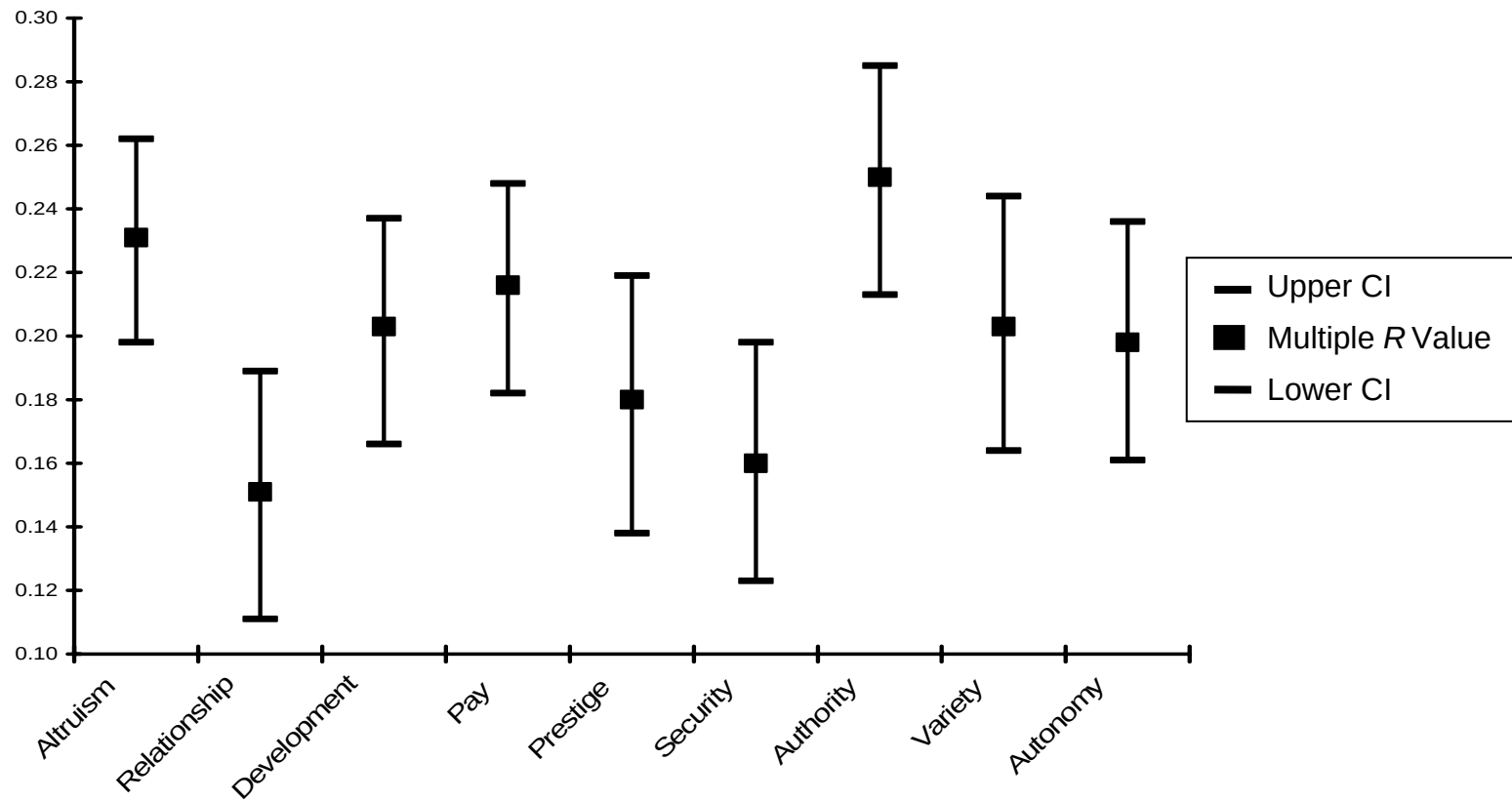


Figure A-61. Independent Relationships between Value Congruence and Intentions to Join: Multiple R and 95% Confidence Intervals.

Note: 95% confidence intervals were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

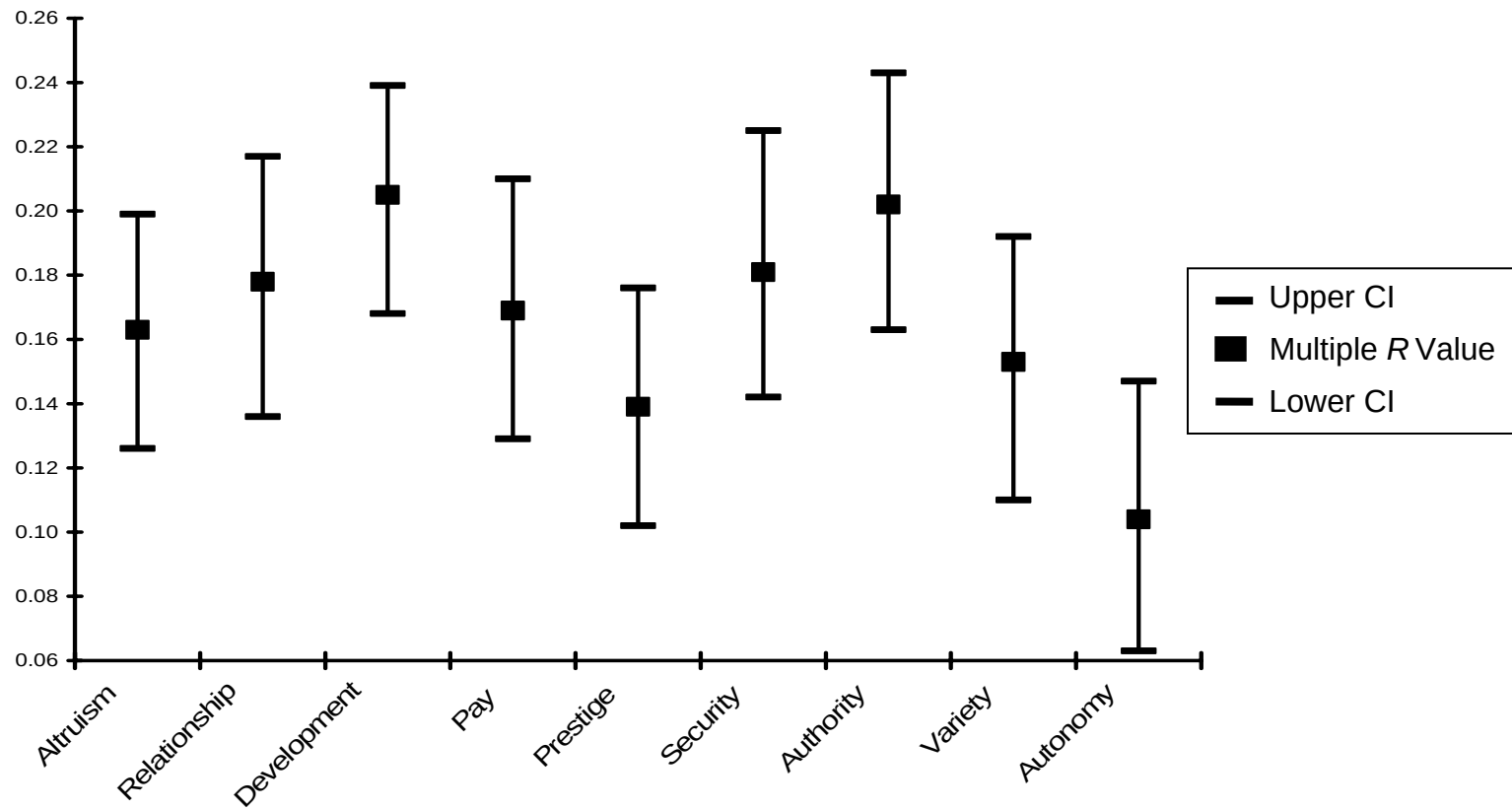


Figure A-62. Independent Relationships between Value Congruence and Job Search Behaviors: Multiple R and 95% CIs.

Note: 95% confidence intervals were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

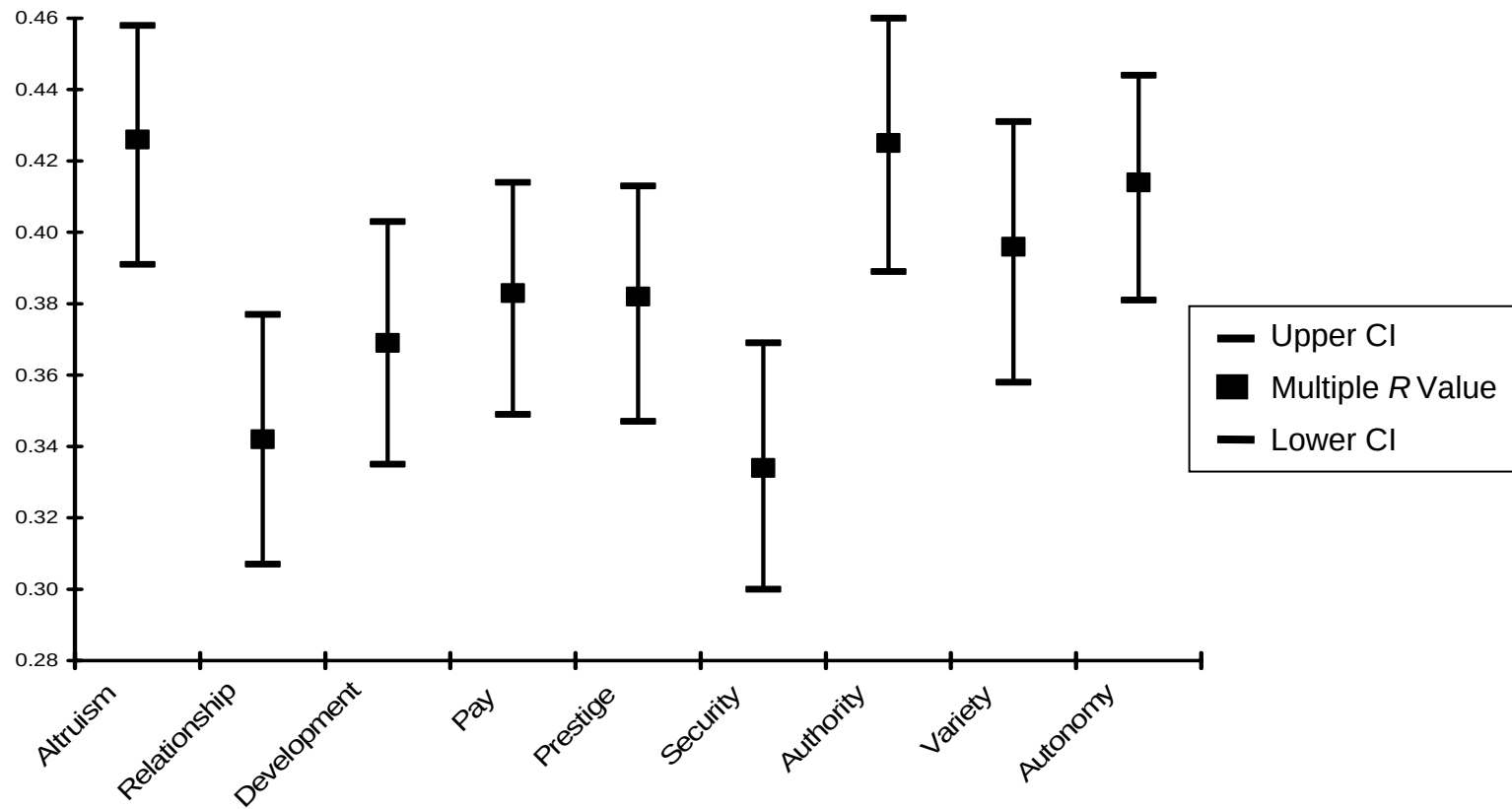


Figure A-63. Independent Relationships between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Organizational Attraction: Multiple R and 95% Confidence Intervals.

Note: 95% confidence intervals were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.
 Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

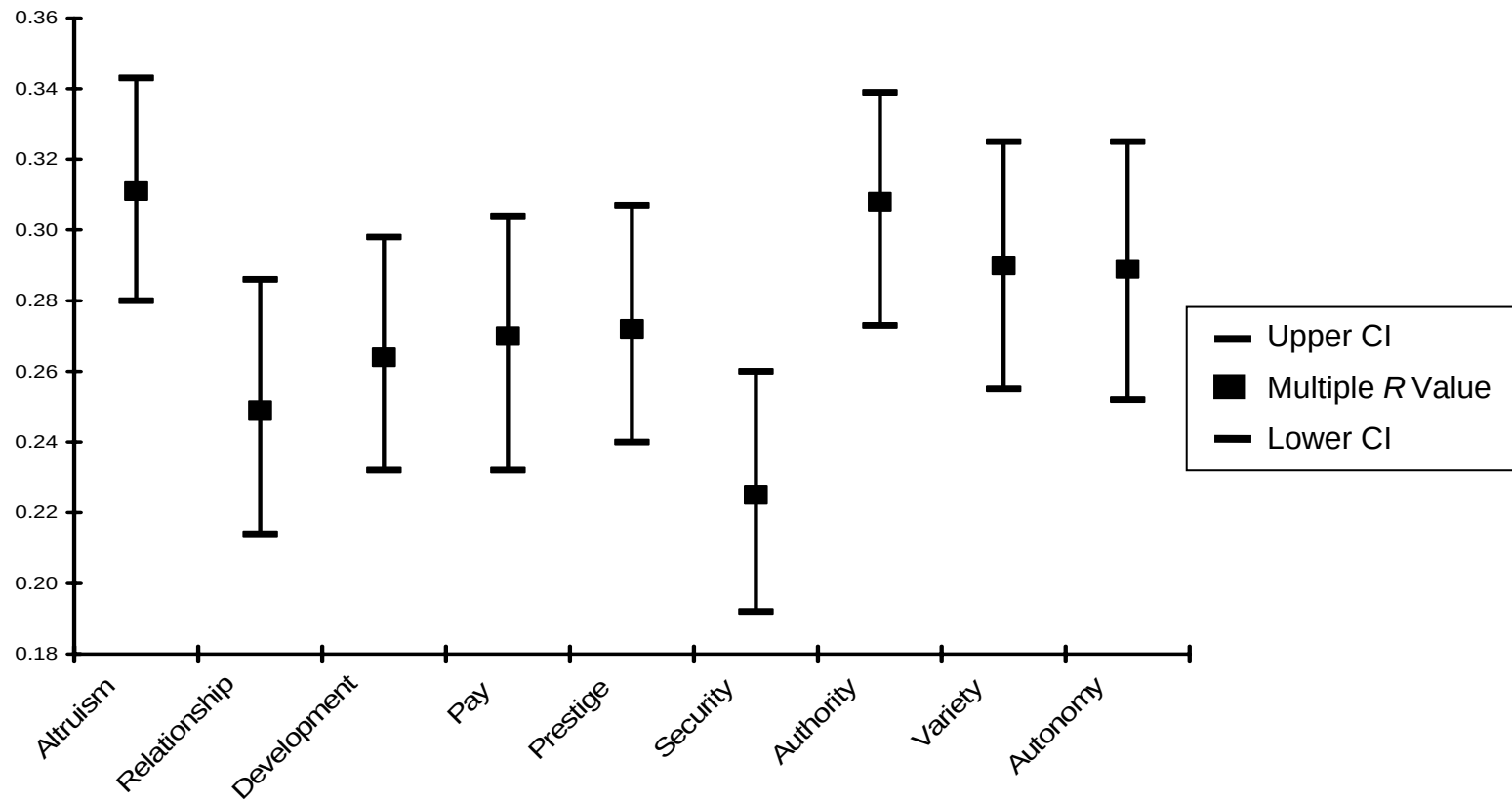


Figure A-64. Independent Relationships between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Intentions to Join: Multiple R and 95% Confidence Intervals.

Note: 95% confidence intervals were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

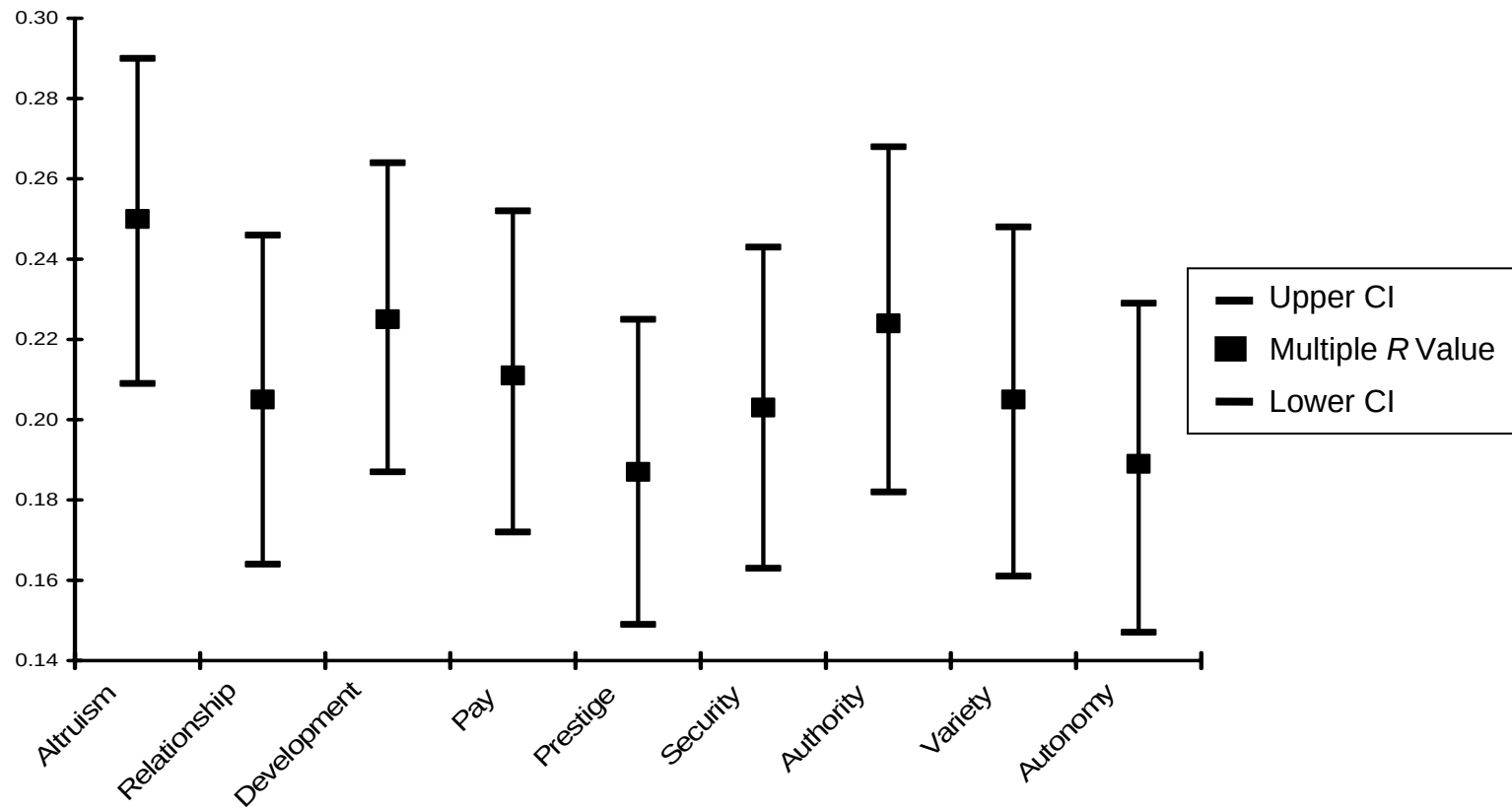


Figure A-65. Independent Relationships between Psychological Need Fulfillment and Job Search Behaviors: Multiple R and 95% Confidence Intervals.

Note: 95% confidence intervals were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.
Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

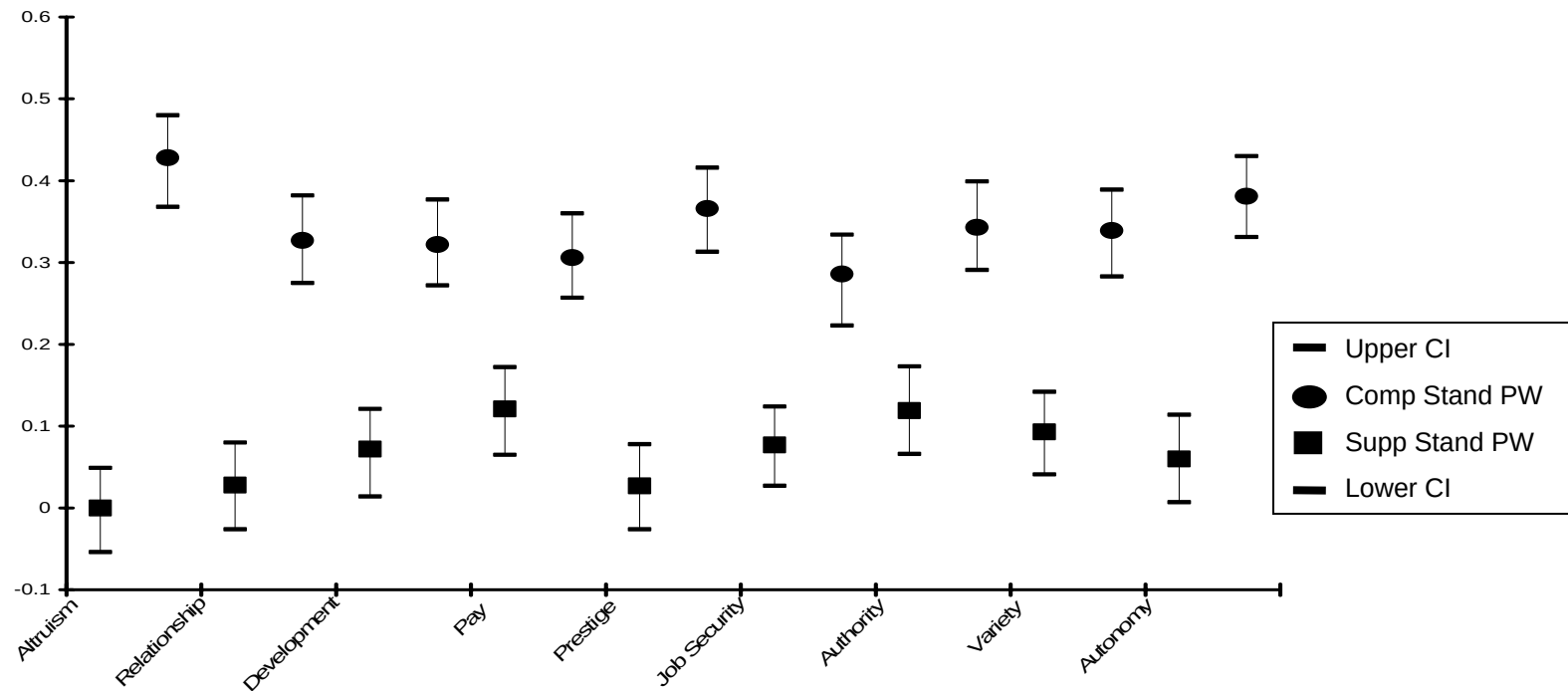


Figure A-66. Value Congruence, Psychological Need Fulfillment, and Organizational Attraction: Standardized Path Weights and 95% CIs.

Note: Supp Stand PW- Standardize path weight from supplementary block variable. Comp Stand PW- Standardize path weight from complementary N-S block variable. 95% CIs were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method. Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

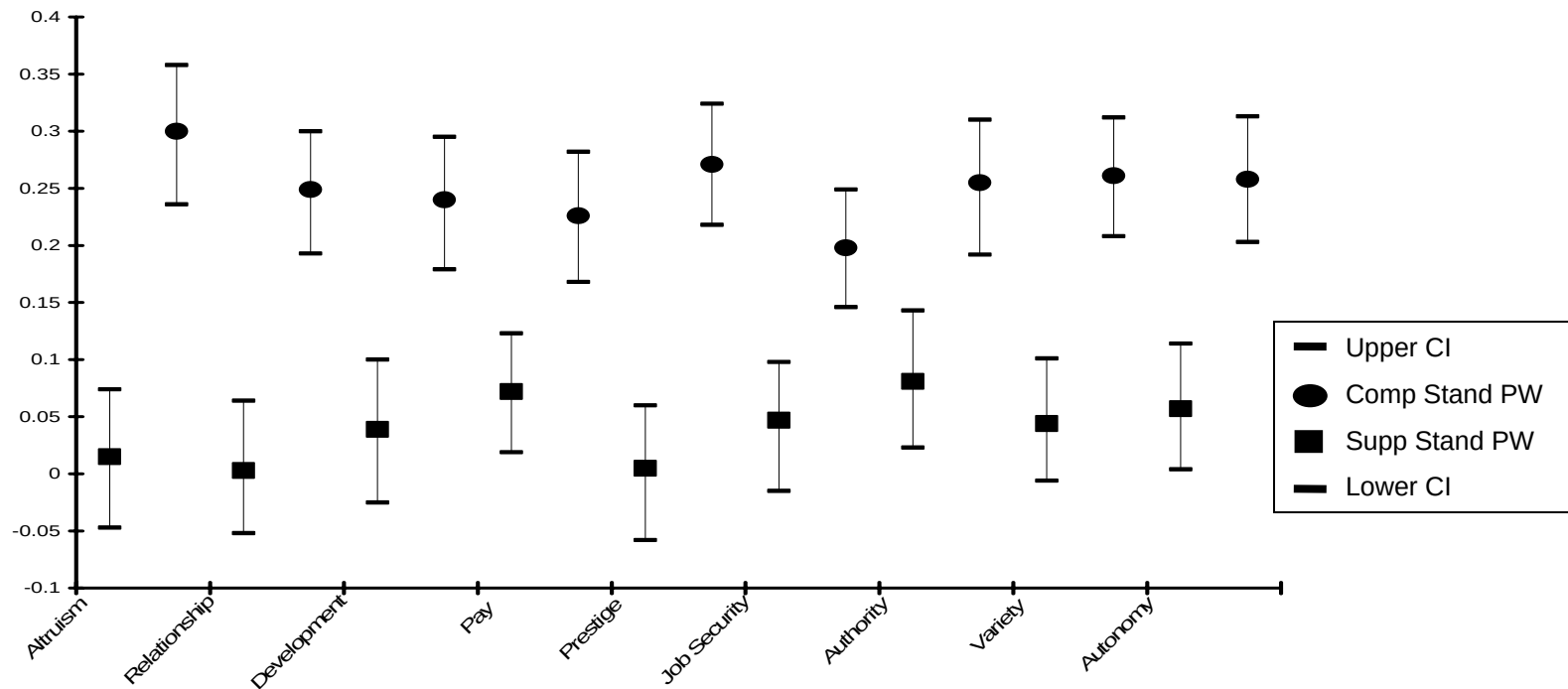


Figure A-67. Value Congruence, Psychological Need Fulfillment, and Intentions to Join: Standardized Path Weights and 95% CIs.

Note: Supp Stand PW- Standardize path weight from supplementary block variable. Comp Stand PW- Standardize path weight from complementary N-S block variable. 95% CIs were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.

Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

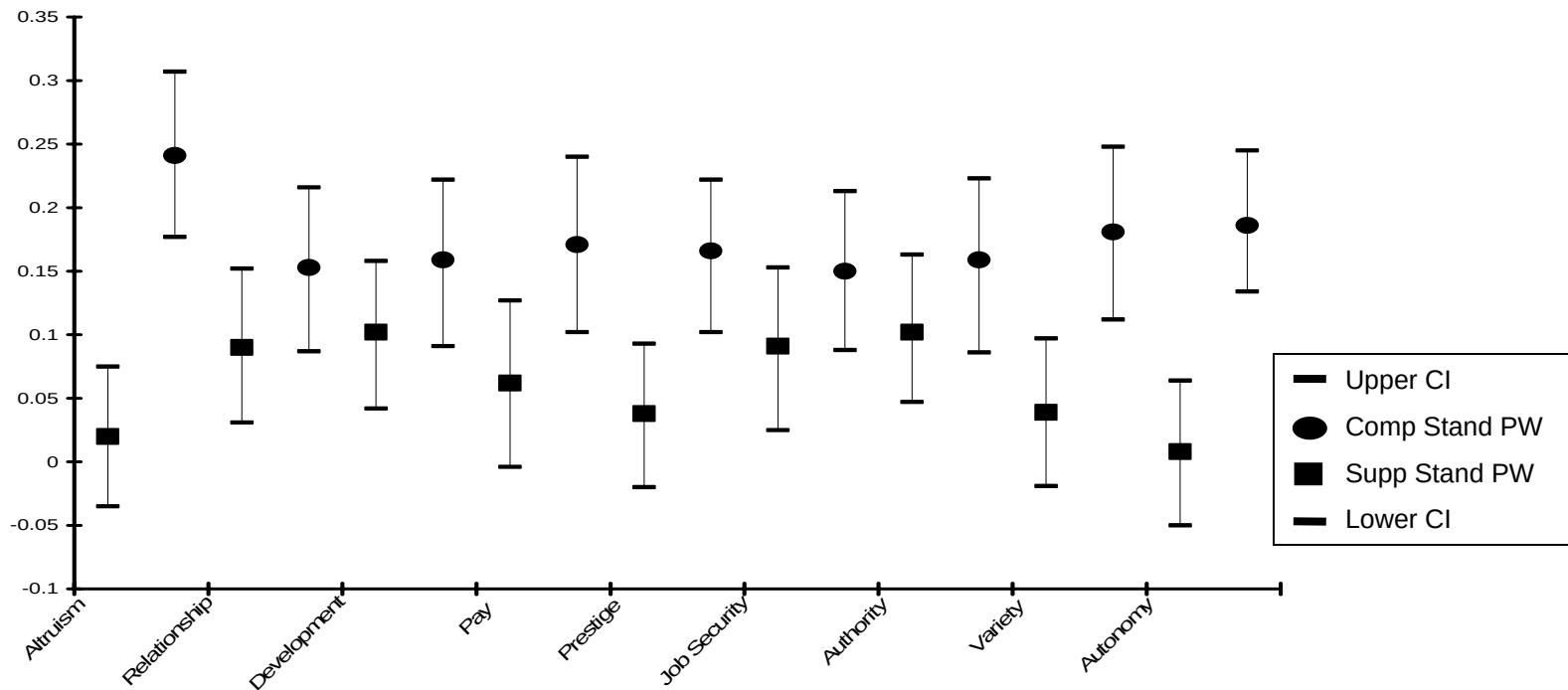


Figure A-68. Value Congruence, Psychological Need Fulfillment, and Job Search Behavior: Standardized Path Weights and 95% CIs.

Note: Supp Stand PW- Standardize path weight from supplementary block variable. Comp Stand PW- Standardize path weight from complementary N-S block variable. 95% CIs were derived from 2,000 bootstrap samples and a bias-corrected percentile method.

Pro Development- Professional Development content dimension.

VITA

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