

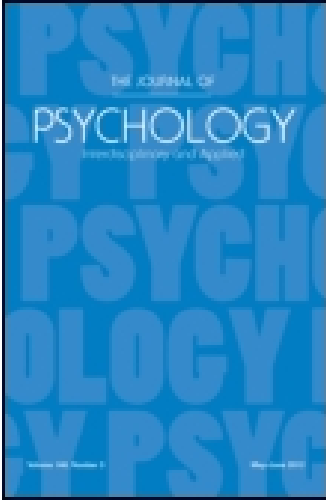
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Incremental Validity of Person-Organization Fit Over the Big Five Personality Measures

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ABSTRACT. Few studies have provided the validity evidence of a measure of objective person-organization fit (P-O fit) as a selection tool. The present study used a concurrent validation design to examine the criterion-related validity and the incremental validity of a P-O fit measure beyond the validity of the Big Five personality test for predicting job performance (task performance and organizational citizenship behavior) and employee commitment (organizational commitment and supervisory commitment) for a group of high-tech professional employees in Taiwan. Results showed that P-O fit predicted the contextual component of overall job performance and was significantly related to two types of employee commitment. Moreover, P-O fit had an incremental validity beyond that of the personality measures for predicting some of our outcome variables.

Keywords: selection tool, person-organization fit, personality test, criterion-related validity, incremental validity

IN THE CONTEXT OF EMPLOYEE SELECTION, existing selection systems typically focus on matching an applicant's attributes (e.g., job-relevant knowledge, skills, ability) to the demands of a particular job (Borman, Hanson, & Hedge, 1997). In addition to the enhancement of employee job performance, however, scholars and managers have recently been paying attention to employee commitment (e.g., organizational commitment, supervisory commitment). Managers are concerned about it primarily because poor commitment on the part of employees has undoubtedly led to higher turnover rates (e.g., Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch,

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& Topolnytsky, 2002; Morris & Sherman, 1981); moreover, turnover rates among newly hired employees are always higher than among employees with longer tenure in the organization (Mobley, 1982). Scholars are interested in employee commitment because organizational flexibility in effectively using employees has increasingly become an important issue as employees tend to go from one job to another rather than stay in one particular job (Borman et al., 1997). Therefore, as Ulrich (1998) noted, whether or not intellectual capital is of critical importance in determining organizational success depends on the competence and the *commitment* of employees. In other words, organizations need to hire applicants who perform well on the job as well as those who evoke high levels of commitment to the organization (Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991).

In general, most of the concerns with staffing organizations involve ensuring appropriate matches between job candidates' capabilities and job requirements, and simultaneously, appropriate matches between job candidates' values and organizational cultures. These two approaches are useful and should efficiently be employed in concert (Borman et al., 1997; Bowen et al., 1991). Therefore, the present study uses job performance (task performance and organizational citizenship behaviors) and employee commitment as the criteria. This trend is summarized in research by Bowen and colleagues. They further suggest that the task of hiring should focus not only on the basis of an employee's behavior relevant to the overall success of the organization (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior), but also on the basis of the employee's attitudes (i.e., organizational commitment), especially for fast-growing high-technology companies, which rely heavily on self-motivated committed people for organizational success. Moreover, previous research has found that the person-organization fit can predict for various employee outcomes (Borman et al., 1997; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Rynes, Brown, & Colbert, 2002; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). However, prior research on exploring the use of selection practices to attain fit was scant (Karen & Graves, 1994; McCulloch & Turban, 2007). Along those lines, this study intends to contribute to the selection literature by examining the criterion-related validity and incremental validity of the objective person-organization fit (P-O fit)¹ as an important selection tool.

Past Research About P-O Fit

Recent meta-analytic findings in the fit literature indicate that P-O fit is positively related to behavioral outcomes (e.g., the corrected correlation (ρ) is .28 for task performance and .26 for organizational citizenship behaviors; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006) and employees with higher P-O fit would result in a higher level of organizational commitment after being hired into an organization ($\rho = .27$; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). The attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework proposed by Schneider (1987) provides a strong theoretical foundation for the hypothesized relationships between P-O fit and work attitudes as well as individual

behaviors in the workplace. Because candidates similar to the preferred organization are attracted to and selected by that organization, that type of employee increases the within-organization value homogeneity over time (Chatman, 1991; Schneider, 1987). In other words, when employees have a higher degree of P-O fit at work, their personal goals may be more consistent with the ones of their organizations. As a result, the employees would be more likely to stick with and contribute to their organizations by experiencing and exhibiting dedication to their own jobs (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). Furthermore, organizational environment can provide individuals the opportunity to fulfill their needs, a scenario that, in turn, reduces the individuals' job stressors, such as role ambiguity and lack of role clarity (Parkington & Schneider, 1979); thus, employees with high levels of P-O fit can result in increasingly high job performance (Schneider, Kristof-Brown, Goldstein, & Smith, 1997).

In addition, the ASA model also rests on the assumption that there is a linkage between P-O fit and work attitudes. When an applicant's values match the specific organizational culture, his or her needs will be fulfilled by the environment after entry into the organization, the fulfillment resulting in his or her display of favorable work attitudes, such as employee commitment and job satisfaction (Schneider et al., 1997). These findings together suggest that selecting individuals with higher levels of P-O fit is important for organizations.

Present Study

Given the aforementioned positive outcomes that appear to be associated with P-O fit in the fit literature, organizations and individuals will benefit by attaining fit. Moreover, employee selection practices are one approach for creating P-O fit. Therefore, due to the academic and practitioner interest in assessment of P-O fit in the selection process, Karren and Graves (1994) indicated that few studies have assessed P-O fit in a selection context and selection tools for assessing fit are relatively untested (Bowen et al., 1991). Although the results from the fit research gave us the theoretical and empirical evidences about positive outcomes of P-O fit, some measures of P-O fit from the fit literature did not meet the selection criteria well (e.g., comprehensive, commensurate dimensions, avoiding systematic or unsystematic error; Karren & Graves, 1994). For example, interviewers make different assessments of applicants and organizations (e.g., Bretz, Rynes, & Gerhart, 1993; Kristof-Brown, 2000), we do not know whether they use commensurate dimensions to judge the applicant-organization fit and bias their judgments because of the similarity between their demographic characteristics and applicants' demographic characteristics (Karren & Graves, 1994). Therefore, researchers must examine the construct validity of the fit measure by testing its relationship to variables that are theoretically related to the fit construct (Karren & Graves, 1994; Schmitt & Klimoski, 1991). Moreover, this study used the Q methodology, which

meets the criteria outlined earlier, to measure P-O fit to offer the criterion-related validity and incremental validity of the P-O fit in selection literature.

As aforementioned, researchers have further noted that there is still an absence of investigation into two critical issues: the validity of P-O fit measures in the context of employment decision making; and incremental-validity evidence of P-O fit over and above the traditional and frequently used measures (e.g., the Big Five personality measures) in the selection context (Arthur, Bell, Villado, & Doverspike, 2006; McCulloch & Turban, 2007). In other words, these unanswered questions help us to gain more understanding of how effective the P-O fit is compared with the more traditional selection tool for personnel selection applications. Therefore, following their suggestions, we have undertaken the present study to advance the selection literature; specifically, we have adopted a concurrent validation design to examine the criterion-related validity and the incremental validity of P-O fit beyond the validity of the Big Five personality measures for predicting job performance and employee commitment.

McCulloch and Turban (2007) extended past research and found that P-O fit as a selection tool for high-turnover call-center representatives has incremental validity beyond cognitive ability for predicting employee retention, but not overall job performance. Although McCulloch and Turban's study provided initial empirical evidence on the validity of P-O fit in the context of selecting for high-turnover jobs, our study examines the use of P-O fit in the context of selecting high-tech knowledge workers, whose job requires a great deal of task interdependence (Borman et al., 1997).

The present study is intended to extend the research of McCulloch and Turban (2007) in three respects. First, McCulloch and Turban found that P-O fit could produce incremental validity above and beyond a cognitive ability test for predicting employee outcomes. In contrast, the present study focuses on the Big Five personality measures as a baseline because (a) organizations have widely used personality measures as part of their personnel-selection practices² (Behling, 1998); (b) past research has shown the Big Five personality measures to be valid predictors of job performance and employee commitment (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Erdheim, Wang, & Zickar, 2006; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998); and (c) scholars have considered the personality traits as reflective of one aspect of P-O fit because it reflects the extent to which an individual's personality traits fit with a work environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003). Second, in contrast with McCulloch and Turban, the present study measures task performance and contextual performance separately (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) rather than treat them as overall job performance. This approach helps us hone our understanding regarding which aspects of performance could be better predicted by a P-O fit measure. Finally, in contrast to McCulloch and Turban, who used the existing measurement of the organizational culture profile developed by O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991), we conducted field interviews and used

the critical-incident technique to develop a P-O fit measure that was more relevant to our sample of high-tech professional employees.

Criterion-Related Validity of P-O Fit

P-O Fit and Task Performance

From an ASA theoretical perspective, we expect that people who share organizational values are more likely to contribute to the firm by doing their jobs well. However, inconsistent with our expectations are findings from Arthur and his associates (2006), who conducted a meta-analysis and showed that P-O fit was not a good predictor of overall job performance ($\rho = .12$, $n = 2,260$) because the lower 95% credibility value was less than zero. It should be noted that in Arthur's study, the effects of P-O fit on the overall job performance are combined effects of overall employee performance without a distinction between the relations of P-O fit with one specific component (e.g., task performance) and the other (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior). Moreover, past research (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) has suggested that job performance criteria could be distinguished into task performance and contextual performance, and the latter could be operationalized much like the form of organizational citizenship behavior (Organ, 1997). Therefore, we expect that the predictive validity of P-O fit will be improved when these two types of performance criteria are considered separately, so that the predictor and performance dimensions could be matched across the board (Tett & Christiansen, 2007). Results of a meta-analytic study support our expectation by showing that P-O fit has a moderate relationship with individual task performance ($\rho = .28$, $n = 5,712$ and the lower 90% credibility value > 0), indicating that the validity of P-O fit as a predictor of task performance can be generalizable across different settings (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). In addition, Kristof-Brown and her associates (2005) confirmed that there was a positive relationship between P-O fit and task performance ($\rho = .05$, $n = 1,660$) and that, more importantly, the lower 80% credibility value was greater than zero. In conclusion, we propose the following Hypothesis 1a:

Hypothesis 1a: P-O fit will be positively related to employee task performance.

P-O Fit and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Shifting the focus to organizational citizenship behavior, past research suggests that when applicants with high levels of P-O fit are hired by organizations, the quality of the social-exchange relationship between the individual and the organization would improve because individuals have their own psychological attachment to their organization's goals and values and have a reciprocal-trust relationship (Chatman, 1989; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Therefore, individuals who share the organization's goals and values will be prone to exchange their pro-social behaviors or extra-role behaviors to benefit both themselves and their

organization and to instinctively benefit the organization by, for example, helping or cooperating with others and carrying out extra duties (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). In addition, individuals with a higher degree of P-O fit at work are likely to generate positive emotional experience (e.g., cheerfulness) because of their high congruence with the organizational culture, the congruence creating more opportunities in which these individuals can fulfill their own needs. Therefore, individuals with high levels of P-O fit will experience more positive affect (O'Reilly et al., 1991); and this, in turn, could generate in the individuals a greater desire to display more organizational citizenship behaviors (Sparrow, 2001).

Past meta-analytic findings have supported the assertion that P-O fit is predictive of the contextual component of overall job performance ($\rho = .26$, $n = 680$, Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; $\rho = .20$, $n = 994$, Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). These evidences may imply that the realization of high levels of P-O fit through hiring would predict more organizational citizenship behaviors in employees. Thus, we propose the following Hypothesis 1b:

Hypothesis 1b: P-O fit will be positively related to employee organizational citizenship behaviors.

P-O Fit and Organizational Commitment

As illustrated earlier, P-O fit would positively correlate with employees' behavioral outcomes. However, achieving high levels of P-O fit through hiring is also important for organizations' efforts to retain a workforce that exhibits the higher organizational commitment necessary to meet environmental competitive challenges (Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Moreover, research on organizational commitment has suggested that commitment has multiple foci. For example, Becker, Billings, Eveleth, and Gilbert (1996) proposed two foci: "local foci," such as commitment to supervisor or workgroup, and "global foci," such as commitment to top management or organization. This two-fold scenario suggests that one's commitment can vary in each of these dimensions and that, thus, a multi-factor model is preferable to a one-factor model. We believe that this approach is more useful to understanding organizational phenomena, especially in Chinese organizations, which place a relatively intense focus on the subordinate's loyalty to the supervisor (Becker et al., 1996). Therefore, in this article, we use a two-factor model of commitment that comprises organizational commitment and supervisory commitment as criteria when validating the P-O fit measure.

As the ASA theoretical expectation, P-O fit can contribute to an individual's organizational commitment. A meta-analysis of P-O fit conducted by Verquer and his associates (2003) found that P-O fit was significantly related to organizational commitment ($\rho = .23$, $n = 147,667$). Kristof-Brown and her associates (2005) showed that higher levels of P-O fit can successfully bring about higher organizational commitment ($\rho = .27$, $n = 15,316$). These findings together provide

validity-related evidence of P-O fit for predicting organizational commitment and we propose the Hypothesis 2a:

Hypothesis 2a: P-O fit will be positively related to employee organizational commitment.

P-O Fit and Supervisory Commitment

However, there is a lack of empirical evidence about the relationship between P-O fit and *supervisory commitment*. Despite this, we propose that applicants with a higher level of P-O fit would bring about a higher level of supervisory commitment. Applicants who possess high levels of P-O fit and who are hired into an organization will be more willing to play the role of “good employee” because they (a) feel attached to their preferred organization, (b) experience positive affect, and (c) establish a close relationship with the organization at work (O’Reilly et al., 1991). This outcome will help supervisors to like and to trust the newly employed individuals, who consequently will not only gain more resources and support from their supervisors but also—and in turn—be more willing to reciprocate with high commitment to their supervisors. Thus, we propose the following Hypothesis 2b:

Hypothesis 2b: P-O fit will be positively related to employee supervisory commitment.

Criterion-Related Validity of Personality Measures

Personality measures have been widely used in employment decision making because they have good criterion-related validity for predicting employee job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001; Small & Diefendorff, 2006). As shown in most meta-analyses for the validity of the Big Five personality measures (e.g., Barrick et al., 2001; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998), conscientiousness and emotional stability are positively associated with job performance in most jobs. For example, the work of Schmidt and Hunter shows that conscientiousness had a positive relationship with overall performance ($\rho = .31$); in addition, conscientiousness can predict task performance well and, in fact, has an even higher correlation with contextual performance than task performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; McManus & Kelly, 1999). Openness to experience and agreeableness has good predictive validity relative to performance in jobs that emphasize interpersonal interaction (Barrick & Mount; Schmidt & Hunter). Furthermore, personality measures can be important predictors of employees’ attitudinal outcomes. Erdheim and his associates (2006) showed that the Big Five personality measures are significantly related to organizational

commitment. For example, individuals with a higher level of conscientiousness would be more involved in their jobs and would look for more opportunities to obtain formal and informal work rewards (e.g., promotion, respect; Organ & Lingl, 1995), which, in turn, would result in higher employee commitment to the supervisors and organizations. In conclusion, past research has consistently proved that personality measures are valid predictors of employees' attitudes and behaviors.

Incremental Validity of P-O Fit

Although several studies have found that the existing selection tools, such as biodata scales and interview scores, have incremental validity over and above the personality measures in predicting individual job performance (e.g., Cortina, Goldstein, Payne, Davison, & Gilliland, 2000; Mount, Witt, & Barrick, 2000), no study has investigated the effects of the combination of P-O fit and the Big Five personality measures on performance (McCulloch & Turban, 2007). Moreover, in recent years, the P-O fit measure as a selection tool may have played an important role in predicting employees' attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, the present study features an expanded conceptualization of performance and investigates whether P-O fit can provide incremental validity over the Big Five personality measures in predicting employee performance and commitment.

P-O Fit, Personality Measures, and Employee Performance

As with the performance theory of individual differences (Schmit, Cortina, Ingerick, & Wiechmann, 2003), P-O fit is based on an analysis of values and should result in job performance (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999) because people's values acquired through cognition and experience accumulation can provide a principal basis for goals (Locke & Henne, 1986). Therefore, people with high levels of P-O fit would experience high levels of motivation to make job-related decisions in accordance with organizational goals. Moreover, the Big Five personality measures are important sources of information about an applicant's work motivation such as goal level and task persistence. Although personality can influence job performance through individual motivational processes (Barrick & Mount, 2000; Schmitt et al., 2003), P-O fit would affect employees' job performance not only through the employees' work motivation (i.e., goal choice), but also through affective states, such as positive emotions (Kopelman, Brief, & Guzzo, 1990; Patterson, Warr, & West, 2004). More specifically, when there is a good match between individuals and the specific aspects of a selected organization's culture (e.g., promotion focus), the individuals would try to help the organization reach its goals and would feel cheerful in the process (Brockner & Higgin, 2001). Along this line of thought, Sparrow (2001) proposes that, according to evidence,

emotional states can mediate the relations between P-O fit and salient employee behaviors, such as task and contextual performance. This evidence implies that, compared with the Big Five personality traits, which influence job performance mainly through motivational mechanisms, P-O fit may predict job performance through both motivational and affective mechanisms. This implication, if true, would mean that P-O fit has unique predictive validity over that of the personality measures. Therefore, we propose that P-O fit will uniquely account for variance in various performance criteria beyond those accounted for by personality measures. We propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: P-O fit will have incremental validity beyond that of personality measures in predicting employee task performance.

Hypothesis 3b: P-O fit will have incremental validity beyond that of personality measures in predicting employee organizational citizenship behaviors.

P-O Fit, Personality Measures, and Employee Commitment

As noted earlier, both P-O fit and personality measures have a positive influence on employee commitment. In the present study, we propose that P-O fit will add incremental validity beyond personality measures in predicting employees' attitudes because each test can measure different applicant characteristics in the selection context. More specifically, personality measures can capture an applicant's personality constructs that tend to be relatively stable over time and situations; however, unlike personality measures, a P-O fit measure tends to focus on fits between a person's and an organization's *values*, which are more susceptible to change over time (Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003). Therefore, a P-O fit measure is likely to tap a source of information somewhat different from that of the Big Five personality measures. In addition, P-O fit can represent individual values that are core components of the organization's culture (O'Reilly et al., 1991); these, in turn, have stronger relationships than individual personality with attitudinal outcomes (Schneider, 1987), such as organizational commitment (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991; Westerman & Cyr, 2004). Studies have shown that P-O fit—as a measure—can take a step closer to predicting attitudinal outcomes than is possible with the personality measures (Chatman, 1989; Judge & Kristof-Brown, 2004; Latham & Pinder, 2005). Taken together, it is reasonable to expect that the measure of P-O fit will account for unique variances in predicting attitudinal outcomes because P-O fit concerns primarily values (Chatman, 1989). Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4a: P-O fit will have incremental validity beyond that of personality measures in predicting employee organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4b: P-O fit will have incremental validity beyond that of personality measures in predicting employee supervisory commitment.

Method

Participants and Procedures

As this research has adopted a concurrent validation design to examine the criterion-related and incremental validity of objective P-O fit, the data for this study come from a selected pool within a high-tech company in Taiwan. Fast-growing technological companies must constantly change in response to the rapid development of markets and in pursuit of high organizational flexibility. This implies that employee job performance and commitment are critical for organizational success (Bowen et al., 1991; Ulrich, 1998). In addition, we collected data from one company in order to control for possible organizational effects; and this one-company approach perhaps better manifests the effects of individual differences on fit assessments than would be the case with a multiple-company approach (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Of the 167 questionnaires distributed, we received a valid sample of 134 employees (80.2% response rate). As for the participants, most were professional engineers and salespeople (76.6%), while the others were administrative specialists (19.4%) and purchasing engineers (4%). In addition, 53% of the participants ($n = 70$) were male. The participants' mean age was 34.05 ($SD = 5.53$). The mean job tenure was 6.91 years ($SD = 4.95$). To address concerns about a possible sampling bias, we compared sample means for the present study's valid samples with all possible samples of this selected company on all demographic variables. Results of a series of t -tests show that the two groups were not statistically different from each other. Therefore, sampling bias may not be a problem in the present study.

Measures

P-O Fit. The P-O fit was measured by individual-organizational value congruence because value congruence has been the most frequently assessed dimension of P-O fit (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006) and has been considered to be the most effective predictor of employee outcomes (e.g., O'Reilly et al., 1991). In the current study, we proceeded with the development of a P-O fit scale by following the four steps of organizational culture profile (OCP) suggested by Chatman (1989) and O'Reilly and his associates (1991).

Describing Organizational Values. Our first step was to take a critical-incident approach to inductively generate descriptions of organizational culture that would capture the high-tech organization's cultural phenomena. One of the current study's authors interviewed 12 frontline employees (in one-on-one interviews) and 9 middle managers (in one-on-three group interviews) to generate some descriptors for the high-tech firm culture.³ Simultaneously, we used a deductive approach based on the extensive review of previous literature about the OCP developed by O'Reilly and his associates, and Cable and Judge (1996) as well. The purpose of this literature review was to identify a comprehensive set of value descriptions that could serve to characterize both individuals and organizations

and to meet O'Reilly and his associates' (1991) criteria of generality, discriminability, readability, and non-redundancy. Additionally, we included secondary source records (e.g., Internet) and other public information on other high-tech organizations in Taiwan. Then, we asked the firm's three HR managers to review the descriptions and to consider whether these terms accurately described their company. Finally, we generated 23 organizational value statements (e.g., being innovative, sharing information freely, opportunities for professional growth, and working in collaboration with others) to characterize the cultural values of the selected company and the high-tech companies in general.

Assessing Characteristics of the Firm. As a second step in the process, we invited HR professionals of the selected company to nominate five senior managers who had full knowledge of their organizational culture. Managers were asked to describe the value system they felt currently exists in the organization, and managers sorted out the culture descriptions using a scale with response options ranging from 1 (*not very characteristic*) to 7 (*very characteristic*). With Q-sort methodology, the ratings were sorted into a forced normal distribution requiring 2-3-4-5-4-3-2. We averaged the managers' sorting to define the "organization profile." Further, we checked whether the scores were consistent among senior managers to ensure internal agreement. Following James, Demaree, and Wolf (1984), we assessed an inter-rater agreement by computing $r_{wg(j)}$ and obtained the mean value of .78 (ranging from .71 to .91), indicating a high level of inter-rater agreement among the managers toward the same culture descriptions.

Assessing Individual Preferences. Third, participants sorted out the same 23 culture descriptions to indicate the extent to which each value statement described the preferred organization they desire to work for. They sorted out the culture descriptions using a scale with response options ranging from 1 (*most undesirable*) to 7 (*most desirable*), and the ratings were sorted into a forced normal distribution requiring 2-3-4-5-4-3-2. And, we used Q-sort methodology to create an "individual profile."

Calculating the Person-Organization Fit Score. Finally, we calculated Kendall's tau-b coefficient between these two profiles to assess the overall P-O fit, which ranged from 1 (*perfect fit*) to -1 (*perfect non-fit*).

Personality Measures. The participants self-reported the Big Five personality measures on the basis of Chen's (1993) personality scale, which is conceptually modified from the scale of Hogan Personality Inventory (Hogan, 1986). Chen has established both the reliability and the validity of this scale for Chinese populations. The measure includes five distinct personality traits: conscientiousness, extraversion, emotional stability, agreeableness, and openness to experience. Each participant assessed his or her own personality using a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). To test the factor structure of the personality measures used in the present study, we conducted a confirmatory factory analysis for the five-factor model. Results show that the five-factor model provided an acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 [2,474, N = 134] = 3,944.23, p < .00, \chi^2/df$

= 1.59, CFI = .89, NFI = .89, RMSR = .09). The 72 items employed in this study were all loaded significantly on the expected latent construct (conscientiousness: $\lambda = .47-.69$, extraversion: $\lambda = .44-.76$, emotional stability: $\lambda = .48-.70$, agreeableness: $\lambda = .35-.69$, and openness to experience: $\lambda = .44-.76$, $t > 1.96$, all $ps < .05$). Examples of representative items for each factor are provided as follows: 19 items for conscientiousness (e.g., “I do my best to do well at any job”); 16 items for extraversion (e.g., “I feel happy to be with others”); 13 items for emotional stability (e.g., “Sometimes, I don’t know why I am angry” *reverse scored*); 10 items for agreeableness (e.g., “I like most of the people I’ve met”); and 14 items for openness to experience (e.g., “I have an active imagination”). Cronbach’s alphas for the Big Five personality scale in this study were .92 for conscientiousness, .90 for extraversion, .87 for emotional stability, .82 for agreeableness, and .89 for openness to experience.

Organizational Commitment. We used the 6-item affective commitment subscale developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) to measure organizational commitment on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). We used this measure because the fit between a person’s values and organizational values is strongly associated with affective outcomes (O’Reilly et al., 1991; Van Vianen, 2000) and because Chinese organizations focus more on the affective dimension of organizational commitment than do organizations in the West (Cheng & Jiang, 2006). The term *affective organizational commitment* refers to an employee’s “emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in an organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991). One sample item was “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.” Cronbach’s alpha for the 6-item scale was .85 in this study.

Supervisory Commitment. We used the 5-item measures obtained from Becker and his associates (1996) to measure the degree of an employee’s supervisory commitment on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). Sample items were “When I talk about my supervisor, I usually say ‘we’ rather than ‘they,’” and “When someone praises my supervisor, it feels like a personal compliment.” Cronbach’s alpha for the 5-item scale was .89.

Task Performance. We used the 4-item scale developed by Farh and Cheng (1997) to assess self-reported task performance, which rested on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). Sample items were “I always complete the job requested by my supervisor on time” and “My performance always meets the job standards requested by my supervisors.” Cronbach’s alpha for the 4-item scale was .76.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. In this study, we used the 20-item scale by Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) because this measure was designed according to Eastern cultural backgrounds. Participants were asked to report the extent to which they engaged in organizational citizenship behavior at work, and the reporting corresponded to a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree*

(1) to *strongly agree* (6). We averaged the item scores to determine an overall score for organizational citizenship behaviors because we had developed the hypotheses at the construct level in our theoretical argument (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Sample items were “I coordinate and communicate with colleagues” and “I help newcomers to adapt the new work-conditions.” Cronbach’s alpha for the 20-item scale was .93.

Control Variables. To reduce confounding effects, we controlled for the three demographic variables of gender, age, and job tenure⁴ (Schmitt et al., 2003).

Results

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations of the variables in this study. As shown, several proposed predictors predicted employees’ attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. As expected, P-O fit was positively related to organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and supervisory commitment ($r = .22, .25, .32$, respectively; all $ps < .01$), providing support for hypotheses 1b, 2a, and 2b. However, P-O fit was not significantly related to task performance. Thus, Hypothesis 1a was not supported. In addition, all of the Big Five personality measures were positively related to employees’ relevant behavioral and attitudinal outcomes, such as task performance ($r = .20-.61$, all $ps < .05$), organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .35-.64$, all $ps < .01$), organizational commitment ($r = .33-.37$, all $ps < .01$), and supervisory commitment ($r = .21-.37$, all $ps < .05$), except for the effects of extraversion and openness to experience on organizational commitment ($r = .16$ and $.13$, respectively, both $ps > .05$).

Furthermore, as shown in Table 2 and Table 3, we conducted a series of hierarchical regression analyses to examine whether P-O fit provides incremental predictive validity beyond the personality measures. In the first step of the regression analyses, the control variables (gender, age, and job tenure) were entered; in the second step, the Big Five personality measures were entered; finally, P-O fit was entered. Results show that the full set of predictors accounted for 27–49% of variance in an employee’s job performance and commitment (all $ps < .01$). However, the P-O fit did not provide significant incremental prediction of employee task performance after the personality measures were counted for ($\Delta R^2 = .00$, $p > .05$). It did, however, account for a significant 2% variance increase ($p < .05$; see Table 2) in explaining organizational citizenship behaviors, after personality-measure effects were controlled for. In addition, P-O fit also accounted for 5–6% of the unique variance in organizational commitment and supervisory commitment (all $ps < .01$ respectively; see Table 3) after the personality measures were accounted for.⁵ Overall, these results support hypotheses 3b, 4a, and 4b, but not hypothesis 3a.

TABLE 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Study Variables^a

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Gender ^b	—	—	(—)												
2. Age	34.05	5.53	-.08	(—)											
3. Job tenure	82.95	59.40	-.17	.75**	(—)										
4. P-O fit	0.22	0.22	-.17	.03	-.10	(—)									
5. Conscientiousness	3.29	0.39	-.03	.23**	.15	.11	(.92)								
6. Extraversion	2.65	0.45	.18*	-.04	-.22*	.28**	.29**	(.90)							
7. Openness to experience	3.11	0.44	.03	.01	-.10	.20*	.51**	.54**	(.89)						
8. Emotional stability	2.90	0.48	.14	.19*	.13	.03	.38**	.34**	.24**	(.87)					
9. Agreeableness	3.19	0.38	-.06	.12	.14	.21*	.53**	.46**	.48**	.55**	(.82)				
10. Organizational commitment	4.37	0.83	.06	.32**	.22*	.25**	.37**	.16	.13	.33**	.36**	(.85)			
11. Supervisory commitment	3.98	0.99	.01	.07	-.06	.32**	.31**	.37**	.23**	.21*	.36**	.58**	(.89)		
12. Task performance	4.72	0.76	-.07	.30**	.26**	.03	.61**	.20*	.29**	.39**	.35**	.37**	.10	(.76)	
13. Organizational citizenship behaviors	4.73	0.54	.09	.23**	.12	.22**	.64**	.35**	.41**	.35**	.47**	.46**	.35**	.47**	(.93)

Note. Coefficient alpha reliability estimates are presented in parentheses along the diagonal. Correlations below the diagonal are observed uncorrected correlations. Correlations above the diagonal are corrected for predictor and criterion unreliability except for the relations between P-O fit and outcomes (these correlations are only corrected for criterion unreliability).

^a Sample size varied between 128 and 134.

^b Gender: 1 = *male* and 0 = *female*.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

TABLE 2. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Task Performance and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors on Personality Measures and P-O Fit

Variables	Task performance		Organizational citizenship behaviors	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Control variables		.09		.07
Gender ^a	-.12		.11	
Age	.04		.12	
Job tenure	.15		-.03	
Personality measures		.35**		.40**
Conscientiousness	.50**		.52**	
Extraversion	.12		.07	
Openness to experience	.03		.02	
Emotional stability	.23*		.02	
Agreeableness	-.14		.11	
P-O fit	-.04	.00	.15*	.02*
Total R ²		.44**		.49**
Adjusted R ²		.40		.45

Note. Regression coefficients reflect the full model and are standardized betas.

^aGender: 1 = male and 0 = female.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Discussion

This study contributes to the literature of personnel selection on P-O fit by demonstrating that P-O fit can add incremental validity to the existing Big Five personality measures in regards to predicting employees' organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and supervisory commitment. While McCulloch and Turban (2007) found that P-O fit as a selection tool had incremental value beyond cognitive ability for predicting employee retention, our study extends their findings in three ways. First, we have further demonstrated the incremental validity of P-O fit over the well-established predictors of performance (i.e., the Big Five personality measures) for predicting employee behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. Second, the present study has shown that objective P-O fit as a selection tool has good validity and can be adopted in the selection procedures of a fast-growing high-tech organization (Bowen et al., 1991). In other words, this study adapted the concurrent validation design to test the impacts of P-O fit in a selection context and we believe this research could create a great practical value because of providing the validity of measures of P-O fit (Karren & Graves, 1994).

TABLE 3. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of Organizational Commitment and Supervisory Commitment on Personality Measures and P-O Fit

Variables	Organizational commitment		Supervisory commitment	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Control variables		.11		.05
Gender ^a	.12		.04	
Age	.23		.16	
Job tenure	-.01		-.19	
Personality measures		.12**		.17**
Conscientiousness	.22*		.21*	
Extraversion	.01		.22*	
Openness to experience	-.14		-.17	
Emotional stability	.12		-.04	
Agreeableness	.11		.17	
P-O fit	.27**	.06**	.24**	.05**
Total R ²		.29**		.27**
Adjusted R ²		.23		.21

Note. Regression coefficients reflect the full model and are standardized betas.

^aGender: 1 = *male* and 0 = *female*.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Finally, our results show that the P-O fit measure can add a unique contribution when predicting the contextual aspects of overall performance, such as helping and cooperating with others, supporting the organization's mission, and putting in extra effort when necessary (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

Contrary to our expectations, we failed to find the positive effects of P-O fit on task performance. However, the magnitude of the correlation coefficient between P-O fit and task performance ($r = .03$) was comparable with the one reported in Arthur and his associates' (2006) work (sample weighted mean $r = .08$). Moreover, Arthur et al. found that the validity coefficient for the P-O fit-task performance relationship did not generalize across situations (i.e., the lower 95% credibility value was less than zero). Thus, it is possible that in the context of a high-tech industry, employees with a high degree of P-O fit would be unable to cast this fit's seemingly potential influence on task performance. One plausible reason behind this assertion is that for these employees in a high-tech industry, professional knowledge and skills might be more important in determining employee performance than would be the extent of their P-O fit, because high-tech industries are generally regarded as knowledge-intensive (Alvesson, 2001). We

encourage scholars in the field to conduct future research that helps determine the extent to which the present findings are replicable.

In response to Arthur and his associates' (2006) concerns that P-O fit is a poor predictor of job performance, our results suggest that P-O fit has a positive linkage with the contextual elements of job performance. Taken together, the present study confirms the general expectation that the correlation between P-O fit and contextual criterion can be higher than the correlation between P-O fit and task performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Findings of this study also contribute to the P-O fit literature by providing empirical evidence about P-O fit within a selection context. In most of the existing research on P-O fit, organizations are often encouraged to recruit and select individuals on the basis of how similar they are to existing organizational members (Kristof, 1996). In the pre-entry stage of recruitment, P-O fit was found to exert a strong effect on organization attraction ($\rho = .22$) and job acceptance ($\rho = .24$) when applicants made their job-choice decisions (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). More specifically, applicants were attracted to an organization similar to them and desired to enter or stay in the applicant pool for that organization. In addition, during the selection process, Cable and Judge (1997) found that interviewers' subjective applicant-organization value congruence has large effects on their hiring recommendations. By taking the present findings into consideration, we may obtain further understandings of the relevance of P-O fit for pre-entry (e.g., job-choice intention; Cable & Judge, 1996), as well as employees' *post-entry* attitudes (e.g., employee commitment), turnover (e.g., McCulloch & Turban, 2007), and contextual performance. The latter findings are particularly beneficial to organizations in their efforts to hire and retain the "right" employees, as Schneider's (1987) ASA model suggests (Bowen et al., 1991).

Moreover, the results of this study add to the growing literature on selection and personality measures by replicating the previous findings in three ways. First, the present findings are consistent with the contention that personality measures are good predictors of task and contextual components of overall job performance and employee commitment (e.g., Bowman & Motowidlo, 1997; Erdheim et al., 2006). Second, in line with Hertz and Donovan's (2000) meta-analytic findings, we confirm that the measures of conscientiousness ($\beta = .50, p < .01$) and emotional stability ($\beta = .23, p < .05$) are practically useful for predicting task performance. Finally, consistent with most past research, the present study has found that the Big Five personality measures have somewhat higher predictive ability on the contextual component of job performance ($\Delta R^2 = .40, p < .01$) than on task performance ($\Delta R^2 = .35, p < .01$).

Although employees' work outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior and organizational commitment may not be included in the bona fide occupational qualification (BFOQ), past research consistently found that organizational commitment is beneficial to individual's job performance (e.g., Riketta,

2002), and that organizational citizenship behaviors are positively related to individual performance (e.g., Tsai, Chen, & Liu, 2007), group performance (e.g., Nielsen, Hrivnak, & Shaw, 2009), and organizational performance (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). Therefore, in order to increase organizational effectiveness, it is necessary to explore how to promote these work outcomes of employees. The present study provides insights to the practice of personnel selection in the following three aspects: First, organizations can add the P-O fit selection tool to existing selection systems rather than replacing them because results of the present study are of practical importance in suggesting the use of P-O fit selection tools can predict employee attitudinal and behavioral outcomes for organizations seeking to retain a flexible workforce. Second, organizations should pay attention to clearly communicating their organizational values to new members from the beginning of the recruitment and selection process (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) because this communication can aid in the hiring and retention of individuals who share desirable values, resulting in higher organizational citizenship behavior and higher levels of organizational and supervisory commitment, which are beneficial to organizational success (Borman et al., 1997; Bowen et al., 1991). Organizations can disclose the company's values and culture information by sources like company website, newspapers, and business magazines. Finally, since we found P-O fit can predict attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, we suggest that companies can design effective selection tools (e.g., interview questions or paper-and-pencil tests) to assess applicants' subjective P-O fit, or adopt tools (e.g., OCP which is used in this study) that could be used to assess the level of applicants' objective P-O fit.

Research Limitations

Although our research provides initial evidence concerning the criterion-related and incremental validity of P-O fit on employee outcomes, a few limitations of the present study should be noted. First, all samples of this study were job incumbents rather than applicants; thus, there is some degree of a possible restriction of the range within the P-O fit scores and personality measures. Subsequently, the results of P-O fit effects reported here may be conservative estimates due to the likelihood of range restriction. With respect to the design of our validation study, we feel that using a concurrent validation design may not be an issue because a meta-analysis conducted by Arthur and his associates (2006) showed that the magnitude of the relationship between P-O fit and outcomes was quite similar regardless of whether predictive designs or concurrent designs were used.

Second, to mitigate the potential same source bias (Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992), we addressed this issue in following three ways. To begin with, we calculated our P-O fit measure scores by comparing the organization profile to the individual profile and then by calculating the correlation between them (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Despite this, we also addressed this issue by informing each participant that the purpose of the study was to "figure out their thoughts about their

company and himself," which is to avoid the illusory correlations caused by respondents' implicit assumptions (e.g., respondents may assume that the measurements are associated with each other) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In addition, we followed Podsakoff et al.'s approach to examine the severity of common method variance using confirmatory factor analysis. Results showed the one-factor model (i.e., all items loaded on a common factor) ($\chi^2 [779] = 3181.71$; $\chi^2/df = 4.08$; CFI = .86, NFI = .80, NNFI = .85, RMSEA = .15) fit the data worse than the proposed ten-factor model (including six predictors and four outcome variables) ($\chi^2 [734] = 1525.81$; $\chi^2/df = 2.08$; CFI = .93, NFI = .87, NNFI = .92, RMSEA = .08). As a result of these ways, we believed that same-source bias may not adversely influence our findings, but caution for explanations of our findings is necessary.

Third, to test these hypotheses, we collected data from one industry (i.e., high tech industry) of one country (i.e., Taiwan). Thus, the cross-cultural or cross-industrial generalizability of the results may be a concern. We contend that this may not bias the interpretations of our findings, as patterns of correlations among study variables identified in this research were generally congruent with findings using samples from other industries (e.g., financial services industry; McCulloch & Turban, 2007) and other countries (e.g., United States; O'Reilly et al., 1991). However, as the published personnel selection research is predominantly from U.S. samples and rests on relatively little data from other cultures, it is useful to test the generalizability of North America findings in relation to East Asian findings. Future research testing the study's model using samples from western societies or other industries could provide direct evidence of the generalizability of our findings.

Fourth, this study focused on person based variables (both personality and value oriented); thus, it did not fully capture the reality of most recruitment and selection systems. However, in order to control for other exogenous organizational-level variables (e.g., the uses of different recruitment strategies such as employee referral versus newspaper; Kristof, 1996), we used the samples from a single high-tech organization in Taiwan. Kristof-Brown and her associates (2005) state that, in comparison with studies involving multiple organizations, the use of samples from a single organization does not appear to significantly reduce the strength of the reported relationships. We suggest that future research tackle this issue by incorporating variables regarding the recruitment and selection systems.

Fifth, the present study focused on the effects of individual-difference variables (i.e., personality trait and P-O fit), which are suggested to capture the "will do" aspect of performance factors (Schmitt et al., 2003). Although we tried to control employees' job experiences (e.g., job tenure), which captured an aspect of capability of performing, we encourage future research to incorporate more "can do" factors such as general cognitive ability in order to thoroughly consider the factors of job performance.

Finally, our measure of fit, using the Q-sort methodology, involved forced ranking in the OCP. This approach has been critiqued on the basis that these indexes reflect similarity in the applicant and organizational profiles, but do not provide information about the differences between the individual and the organization (Kristof, 1996). However, Verquer and his associates (2003) have suggested that this profile-matching process is a good method for calculating fit in spite of the method's drawbacks because it is consistent with the conception of highly regarded value rankings. In addition, one distinct advantage of the Q-sort methodology is that more items are available for reliable use because, for example in the current study, each senior manager had to rank the 23 value statements and they had to compare each cultural statement to every other statement for generating the final reliable results; thus, this method may quite accurately capture an organization's value profile (Chatman, 1989).

Conclusions

The current study investigated the criterion-related and incremental validity of P-O fit in the context of high-tech professional employees. The results of this study indicate that objective P-O fit has good criterion-related validity and incremental validity beyond the validity of existing personality measures, which had been shown to be the most useful predictors of contextual performance in the selection and personality literature to date (e.g., Bowman & Motowidlo, 1997; McManus & Kelly, 1999). Specifically, the present study provides evidence that P-O fit has predictive power regarding both organizational citizenship behavior and employee commitment. This evidence adds to the growing literature in the field of personnel selection by demonstrating the validation of P-O fit in predicting the contextual aspect of job performance, as well as organizational and supervisory commitment. In addition, our findings suggest that the joint effects of P-O fit and personality measures in the selection context are greater than when each measure is used alone in predicting employee attitude and behavior. Therefore, as the business environment becomes more complex for knowledge workers, the simultaneous use of P-O fit and personality measures will contribute to better employee work outcomes and, thus, lead to organizational success.

NOTES

1. The term "P-O fit" as mentioned in the present study means *objective* P-O fit. We developed an *objective* measure of P-O fit rather than a subjective one for two reasons. First, although research has shown that subjective fit produces stronger effects on most employee outcomes than does the objective measure, the relationships between subjective P-O fit and attitudinal variables involve self-ratings and would possibly reflect some inflation due to same-source bias (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). The importance of an objective P-O fit measure can be further confirmed by recent meta-analytic findings conducted by Hoffman and Woehr (2006) showing that an objective P-O fit measure was more strongly related to

behavioral outcomes than was a subjective fit. Second, in the selection battery, the applicants may more easily fake their responses on their subjective perceived P-O fit (which captures their individual perception regarding the extent to which they feel as though they fit into their company) than would be the case with an objective P-O fit (McCulloch & Turban, 2007).

2. A survey of the Society for Human Resource Management indicates that more than forty percent of Fortune 100 companies reported using personality tests for selecting job applicants for positions ranging from frontline worker to CEO (Shaffer & Schmidt, 1999). Another report states that the number of companies reliant on personality tests in the United States is growing by an average of 10% per year (Hsu, 2004).

3. First, we met with 12 incumbents and 9 middle managers to collect critical incidents of delineating the selected high-tech organizational culture, especially in the constructive creation, teamwork, and inspiration, which based on the formal documents about core competency descriptions provided by the company's HR division. They provided approximately 72 written critical incidents. In doing this, we looked for these critical incidents based on the review of previous literature about the OCP and grouped them to 27 brief descriptions to represent specific elements on most common high-tech culture characteristics.

4. There is also a concern that a given job position could affect the task requirements of the job. Therefore, we conducted an additional analysis on jobs, which we sorted on the basis of job-position dummy codes (engineering versus non-engineering). The job position was served as a control variable, and we entered it into our regression model. Results show that the variable had no influence on the results obtained in this study.

5. It raises the interesting question: which predictors make more contribution to predict the criteria? To determine the relative important of predictors, conscientiousness and P-O fit measures, we conducted the additional analysis about the dominance analysis (Budescu, 1993). Results showed after ranking the importance of these two variables, the full model for predicting supervisory commitment contribute 52.94% of the variance to P-O fit, and 47.06% of the variance to conscientiousness measure. Thus, P-O fit dominates conscientiousness measure. However, for predicting employee organizational citizenship behaviors and organizational commitment, conscientiousness measure (91.86% variance for predicting organizational citizenship behaviors, 73.53% variance for organizational commitment) dominates P-O fit (8.14% variance for organizational citizenship behaviors, 26.47% variance for organizational commitment). We thank an anonymous reviewer for this comment.

AUTHOR NOTES

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