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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

**THE PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT OF
WAREHOUSE OPERATIONS EMPLOYEES**

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

CHAD W. AUTRY

NORMAN, OKLAHOMA

2001

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**THE PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT OF
WAREHOUSE OPERATIONS EMPLOYEES**

**A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
MICHAEL F. PRICE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION**

BY

Patricia J. Daugherty
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ABSTRACT

Record low levels of unemployment characterized the economically prosperous period of the mid-to-late 1990's. During this period, warehouses and distribution centers in the United States experienced extremely high turnover rates, as workers accepted less taxing and more glamorous positions that became available in other industries. Turnover among warehouse operations employees has since reached crisis levels, and is responsible for a significant portion of human resource costs.

The current research proposes that high turnover rates, as well as other constructive (control) and/or destructive (escape) warehouse employee workplace behavioral responses, are the result of stress caused by lack of fit between employee job expectations and the realities found in the warehouse or distribution center. Thus, there are two primary objectives of this dissertation. The first objective is to assess the relationships between person-organization fit and potential coping responses. The second objective is to determine whether the ascribed or achieved nature of a status trait attributed as the stressor moderates the person-organization fit – coping response relationship.

Warehouse operations employees from seven firms were surveyed regarding their person-organization fit perceptions, status traits, job attitudes, and coping behaviors. Regression results indicate that person-organization fit is positively associated with control-type coping behaviors, and negatively associated with escape-type coping behaviors. Additionally, partial support was found for the presence of the status trait moderator effect.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Considerable research in the domain of marketing has examined the exchange process and methods of satisfying consumer needs. Many of the studies have focused on understanding the need fulfillment phenomenon. Often, marketing researchers have made these investigations in terms of economic utility. Economic utility, as applied to marketing, refers to the ability of a good or service to satisfy some aspect of the consumer's needs or wants (Gist, 1971; Zikmund and D'Amico, 2000).

Four types of economic utility are associated with the need fulfillment process (Gist, 1971). *Form utility* is created by the conversion of raw materials into finished goods and services that are matched to consumer demand. *Time utility* is created when products are made available at the time that they are useful to the consumer. *Possession utility* occurs when the consumer's need to own the product and have control over its use or consumption is satisfied. And *place utility* is generated when goods and services are available at a location where the customer can use them. These types of economic utility serve as the basis for market-based competition (Gist, 1971; Zikmund and D'Amico, 2000). Products and services must be perceived to offer utility or value to potential buyers/users if they are to be a success.

The overall or combined utility of products and services can be represented in terms of the marketing mix. The marketing mix encompasses four

elements or variables relating to the market offering – product, price, promotion, and place (McCarthy, 1960). The *product* is a good, service, idea, place, or person that is offered for exchange, including design, packaging, and any other associated features. *Price* is the value assigned to the product offering, the amount the buyer is charged. *Promotion* encompasses the techniques by which marketers communicate with existing customers and potential buyers to inform and persuade them to buy the product. *Place* refers to the utilization of channels of distribution to transport, store, and otherwise handle materials related to and including the product offering. Marketers make adjustments in the economic utility of their offerings by manipulating or making changes to one or more of the four elements. For example, product enhancement by adding more features or capabilities creates more economic value for consumers, and thus represents increased utility.

The place element of the marketing mix is of primary interest in the current study. The place element can be divided into two different research areas. One stream of research addresses channels of distribution and the structures and relationships that govern interfirm exchange. Another stream, which is central to this research, deals more with the physical movement of goods and related information from location to location. This area was first viewed from a physical distribution standpoint, related to the processes that facilitate the outbound flow of products from firms to downstream channel partners (Bowersox, Closs, and Helferich, 1986). Later, more of an integrated logistics perspective was taken. The focus of distribution research shifted to include investigations of the

processes and flows from the supply (upstream) side as well as the demand side of a single firm (Michigan State University, 1999). In the late 1990's, supply chain management emerged as the dominant paradigm and extended beyond what had been the domain of logistics. Supply chain management research takes a more holistic approach to the examination of product flows and associated processes by considering the activities within the entire marketing channel rather than simply a single firm (Michigan State University, 1999; Handfield and Nichols, 1999). Though each of these viewpoints has had an important impact on the development of research related to the place element of the marketing mix, they are essentially equivalent in terms of semantics. Therefore, for the sake of simplification, this dissertation will use supply chain terminology to express ideas related to product flow or distribution.

A great deal of research has addressed the processes involved in the physical movement of products. However, to support the efficient and effective physical flow of products and information throughout the supply chain, significant human resources are also required. Thus, the focus of this dissertation is supply chain staffing and the examination of attitudes and behaviors of supply chain employees. The scope of supply chain staffing is very broad; twenty-two different logistics job families within six functional categories have been identified that aid in the execution of supply chain-related processes (Mississippi State University, 1999). These are included in Table 1-1. Therefore, it is necessary to limit the scope of the current research. Warehouse operations employees, a family of workers closely associated with creation and transfer of place utility,

**TABLE 1-1
LOGISTICS JOB FUNCTIONS AND
RELATED JOB FAMILIES***

LOGISTICS JOB FUNCTION	LOGISTICS JOB FAMILIES
Purchasing	• Purchasing Manager • Purchasing Agent
Customer Service	• Customer Service Representative • Customer Service Supervisor • Customer Service Manager
General Management	• Top Managers • Inventory Administrators • Inventory Supervisors • Production Managers • Supply Chain Managers
Information Systems	• LIS Technicians • LIS Managers
Warehousing	• Warehouse Operations Employees • Warehouse Clerks • Warehouse Administrators • Warehouse Supervisors • Warehouse Planning and Support • Warehouse Managers
Transportation	• Transportation Operations Employees • Marine/Rail Employees • Transportation Administrators • Transportation Managers

* Adapted from Mississippi State University (1999), Appendix 2.

have been selected as the primary subject.

SUPPLY CHAIN MANAGEMENT RESEARCH

Supply chain management research has centered on the processes utilized to move product and information from the point of origin to the point of consumption. Many different processes have been studied; articles have been published in the *Journal of Business Logistics* related to 33 different types of supply chain processes in the last 10 years alone. The most widely investigated of these are related to inventory management (21 articles), productivity/quality programs (16), logistics computer applications (15), traffic management (15), and customer service programs (14) (Miyazaki, Phillips, and Phillips, 1999).

However, until recently, the human element of supply chain management has largely been neglected in the literature. Employees in the supply chain organization have been assumed to be a “constant” in research related to supply chain processes. This perspective is changing. Recent studies have begun to recognize the importance of the worker and the role of the worker within the processes. The articles have dealt with issues related to truck driver turnover (Keller and Ozment, 1999), dispatcher communications capabilities (Ozment and Keller, 1999), third-party logistics management development and retention (Cook and Gibson, 2001), supply chain employee job skills and compensation (Daugherty, Lusch, Myers, and Griffith, 2000), warehouse worker human resource management issues (Murphy and Poist, 1993), and training and motivation of supply chain customer service representatives (Lancioni, 1992), among others. It has been noted that interpersonal issues are increasing in

focus within supply chain research: Kent and Flint (1997) propose that the future era of supply chain management will include multiple areas of study related to employee behavior and interaction (boundary spanning, etc.).

One area of behavioral analysis that may add to the current supply chain employee knowledge base is related to the match between warehouse operations employees (forklift drivers, dock workers, picking/packing clerks, etc.) and employers, i.e., the degree to which the employee perceives that he/she “fits in” with the culture of the organization. *Organizational culture* is a “system of shared values and beliefs that interact with a company’s people, structures, and control systems to produce behavioral norms (Uttal, 1983).” The organizational culture is frequently invisible to those outside the organization, and is sometimes ambiguous to those within it (Schein, 1992). However, organizational culture is thought by many to be the force that drives decision making in the workplace, and therefore impacts employee attitudes and behaviors (Schein, 1992; Reichers and Schneider, 1990; Thompson and Luthans, 1990).

The fit between warehouse employees and the organizational culture has normative implications for both the individual’s well being and for organizational outcomes. For example, extended job tenure, greater job satisfaction, and greater organizational commitment have each been associated with fit between workers and their organizations (Kristof, 1996; O’Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991). This type of fit, known in the organizational literature as *Person-organization fit*, will influence working conditions and the ability of the firm to attract and/or retain employees, and thus warrants examination in that context.

PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT

Thorough understanding of the employer-employee relationship is critical for maintaining a skilled workforce (Rousseau and Parks, 1993). Person-organization fit has been operationalized in various ways in the organizational behavior literature in an attempt to capture this relationship. Person-organization fit is defined broadly as the compatibility between individuals and their organizations (Kristof, 1996). However, this definition has been subject to confusion due to multiple conceptualizations and operationalizations of person-organization fit. Person-organization fit also has limited distinction from other forms of fit between the person and his/her environments (Judge and Ferris, 1992). These issues must be dealt with so that the concept of person-organization fit can be better used to examine the relationship between supply chain operations employees and their organizations.

A detailed analysis of person-organization fit will be undertaken in Chapter 2; however, for the purposes of the current research person-organization fit is best conceptualized as the condition where the individual possesses supplementary fit with the organizational culture. A supplementary fit is achieved when the characteristics of the individual are closely matched to those of the local environment. This type of congruence can be differentiated from complementary fit, which occurs when a person's characteristics "make whole" the environment, or add to it what is missing (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987). For example, an individual that prefers to work only on weekdays might possess supplementary fit with the organizational culture of a banking institution open

primarily Monday through Friday. In contrast, a doctor who specializes in heart surgery could possess complementary fit if hired into a medical unit consisting mainly of pediatricians, orthopedic specialists, and obstetricians.

The current research also characterizes person-organization fit as the match between individual needs/expectations and organizational systems or structures (Cable and Judge, 1994). The literature has focused on three other operationalizations of person-organization fit as well (Kristof, 1996). The other perspectives on person-organization fit are described as congruence between individual and organizational values (Chatman, 1989, 1991; Boxx, Odom, and Dunn, 1991; Judge and Bretz, 1992), congruence between individual and organizational goals (Schneider, 1987; Vroom, 1966), or the match between personality characteristics and organizational climate (Tom, 1971; Burke and Dezca, 1982; Ivancevich and Matteson, 1984). The needs/expectations operationalization is preferred in the current context because this perspective places a focus on expectations rather than values, goals, or psychological characteristics, and thereby may be used to capture congruence between employee expectations and actual working conditions.

Given this delineation of person-organization fit, consequences related to outcome behaviors of employees can be hypothesized. Prior research has indicated that person-organization fit is antecedent to several employee dispositions and behavior patterns (e.g. Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Kristof, Goldstein, and Smith, 1998; O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991; Kristof, 1996). Two dispositional outcomes of person-organization fit that have received

significant attention in the literature are job satisfaction and commitment to the organization (Chatman, 1991; Boxx et al, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991). These are important organizational constructs, and are worthy of further examination in the supply chain context.

Other potential outcomes are manifested as job-related coping behaviors. These outcomes can be classified into two groups based on the focus and/or direction of their impact. Behavioral outcomes that take an active, positive approach to dealing with job-related stress are known as control behaviors, while those that take a destructive, escapist approach to job stress are known as escape behaviors. Examples of control behaviors might include improved job effort, organizational citizenship behaviors, constructive criticism, and other types of job-related self-improvement. Escape behaviors might include turnover intentions, industrial sabotage, chronic absenteeism or tardiness, or job neglect.

The person-organization fit literature suggests that when employees are well matched with their organizational cultures, they will have a propensity to experience higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment than when they perceive poor person-organization fit (Downey, Hellriegel, and Slocum, 1975; Tziner, 1987). The organizational behavior and marketing literatures provide extensive studies analyzing the relationships between satisfaction, commitment, and associated functional or dysfunctional behavioral outcomes (e.g. Ostroff, 1992; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Hunt, Wood, and Chonko, 1989; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). However, the nature of the relationships between person-organization fit and control or escape oriented

behavioral outcomes is less obvious. In order to investigate the relationships, person-organization fit will be viewed through status inconsistency and attribution perspectives.

THEORY BASES

According to the person-organization fit literature, when employees enter a job situation, they have expectations regarding personal and professional outcomes that will result from their employment (Judge and Ferris, 1992). Two important questions related to these outcomes are the following: (1) How will employees cope when (despite their skills, experience, and education) their apparently reasonable expectations go unmet by the organization? (2) How will the individual's control over the source of unmet expectations impact the coping behavior choice? Employers need to understand this information so that they can attract, motivate, and retain good workers, i.e., so that they can develop effective human resources architecture (Lepak and Snell, 1999). Thus, the research questions of interest are:

- (1) How are unrealized expectations in the workplace, i.e., poor person-organization fit, related to employee coping behaviors?**
- (2) Will employees cope differently with unmet expectations when the source of poor person-organization fit is determined by uncontrollable personal characteristics (i.e., ascribed traits) versus those that are open to individual achievement (i.e., achieved traits)?**

To address the questions of individual responses to felt incongruity with the organization, this dissertation will investigate employee reactions to lack of person-organization fit in warehouse operations employees and their organizations. The current research focuses on the impact of incongruity on employee behaviors based on a set of employee characteristics—such as education, race, tenure, or age—and uses principles from status inconsistency and attribution theories as its central framework.

Status Inconsistency Theory

The first research question can be examined using a status inconsistency viewpoint. Status inconsistency theory is related to organizational justice theories, and has its roots in the sociology literature. Specifically, status inconsistency is a feeling of injustice resulting from incompatibilities between an individual's status bases (self-image, expectations, and/or reality) (Lenski, 1954, 1956; Merton, 1957; Homans, 1950). Status inconsistency theory proposes that incongruities in the status bases create psychological stress (cognitive dissonance) for an individual, who will then respond via some sort of coping behavior (Homans, 1958, 1961). For example, in the case of an employee, discrepancies between the employee's expectations regarding the organization and the realities that the employee encounters (a lack of person-organization fit) will cause job related stress for that individual. The employee would then choose from a set of available coping behaviors, such as job neglect, turnover, or investment in additional education, in an attempt to avoid the job-related stress.

Other theories could have been used in place of status inconsistency theory as a base for the investigation of person-organization incongruity. Two of the more popular of these theories include equity theory and relative deprivation theory. Equity theory proposes that perceived inequities in treatment or reward between an individual and that person's peers act as a motivating agent (Adams, 1963). This type of motivation theory predicts that unequal treatments will cause a discomfort for one or more of the compared parties for which a response behavior can be expected (Adams, 1963, 1965). Similarly, relative deprivation theory suggests that satisfaction with rewards is contingent upon comparisons between the level of actual reward and the reward that was expected or desired (Crosby, 1976, 1984; Folger et al, 1983). Status inconsistency theory is similar to these theories in that social comparisons are made of inputs and outcomes that serve as the basis for expectations regarding the fairness of other or future outcomes (Adams, 1965; Festinger, 1954). However, status inconsistency theory is better for addressing the issue of lack of person-organization fit for two important reasons. First, since status inconsistency is primarily concerned with status discrepancies rather than rewards, it is appropriate for comparisons of individual level variables such as race, occupation, or income (Lenski, 1954). Second, the theory assumes that ascribed and achieved characteristics are indicators of social status (Lenski, 1956), and therefore can be used to make social comparisons in local settings (warehouses within the current context). As such, this theory base will allow for the testing of a moderating effect of ascribed

and achieved status traits on the relationship between person-organization fit and control or escape behavioral outcomes.

Attribution Theory

Attribution theory provides a foundation for examining the second research question. Attribution theory has evolved from a body of social psychological research directed at explaining how individuals' perceptions of the causes of events and behavior influence their resultant reactions. The framework for attribution theory can be found in the works of three social psychological researchers: Heider (1958), Jones and Davis (1965), and Kelley (1971, 1973). The conceptualization originally proposed by Heider (1958), sought to explain how people assign causality to events, and what the consequences of those events will be. Jones and Davis (1965) extended this initial concept to include observers of others' behavior, concluding that observers make inferences about the actor's intentions, and use these inferences to form perceptions related to the personality traits of the actor.

Extensions of Heider's and Jones and Davis' work made by Kelley (1971, 1973), hold significance for the current study. Kelley studied the underlying informational factors that are thought to lead to certain manifestations of attribution behavior. He theorized that observers (including the self) use three kinds of information to determine the causes of an actor's behavior. These included measures of attributional consistency, distinctiveness, and consensus discussed in detail in Chapter Two. However, Kelley's conclusions are noteworthy for the current research, which seeks in part to explain the

differences in reactions of employees based on misfit between themselves and their organizations. Kelley found that actors' behaviors could be attributed to either internal or external causes, with differential outcomes. This finding has implications for the current research. For example, a worker who blames himself for failure to correctly accomplish a task may want to seek training to eliminate future failures. In contrast, a worker who attributes his failure to an external cause (such as unsafe working conditions or an overly demanding supervisor) may react by choosing from an entirely different decision set, which may include skipping workdays or quitting the job altogether. Thus, attribution theory may provide a framework with which differential outcomes of lack of person-organization fit in warehouse operations employees can be explained.

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

This dissertation will examine the interactions of person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, and selected outcome behaviors in a supply chain organizational context. A primary objective of the research is to investigate the moderating effect of focal ascribed and achieved status traits on the relationship between person-organization fit and control and escape behaviors that result from the lack of such a fit. A secondary purpose is to explore pre-established organizational behavior relationships between the antecedents and outcomes in a supply chain warehousing organization context. The results of this research are anticipated to have considerable value for firms wishing to construct an efficient and flexible organizational human resources architecture.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the theoretical foundations supporting the conceptual model and to present a summary of relevant literature upon which the model's constructs and linkages are based. Status inconsistency and attribution theories are reviewed, followed by a summary of the research that examines the constructs relevant to this study. The chapter consists of two sections: (1) A review of the conceptual framework, and (2) a summary and introduction of the research model.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Little research has been conducted related to attitudes and behaviors of supply chain employees. In general, most studies have focused on the processes that are implemented in order to create place utility, i.e., the delivery process. However, recent research has begun to focus on supply chain employees, and future supply chain management research is anticipated to be characterized by a much greater focus on interpersonal and organizational issues (Miyazaki, Phillips, and Phillips, 1999).

One area of organizational study that may represent a valuable contribution to supply chain management research is related to person-organization fit. The degree to which supply chain employees possess traits similar to those of the local organization will play a role in determining individual job satisfaction and commitment to the organization. Furthermore,

inconsistencies between employee expectations regarding the organizational culture of the firm and the realities that worker experiences on the job may affect the types of coping behaviors that the individual selects in response to status-related cognitive dissonance.

The current research develops and tests a model that investigates associations between perceived person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and two types of coping behaviors (control behaviors and escape behaviors) that may result from perceived lack of fit with the organizational culture. The model also examines the possibility that the relationship between person-organization fit and coping response behaviors is moderated by the nature of a critical status trait that the employee perceives to be the primary inhibitor of fit. The model is driven by perceived inconsistencies in employees' status bases and internal attributions formed by workers to explain these inconsistencies. Thus, status inconsistency and attribution theories are utilized to form the theoretical framework.

Status Inconsistency Theory

In its most basic form, status inconsistency theory holds that the presence of a status inconsistency – a lack of congruence between at least two of an individual's status traits – leads to stress, which in turn produces a coping response behavior (Lenski, 1954, 1956; Merton, 1938). Status traits are defined as any characteristics of an actor that are observable or measurable and are differentially evaluated in terms of honor, esteem, or desirability (Berger et al., 1998). From the status inconsistency perspective, the notion of a status trait or

dimension is equivalent to the individual's position on some hierarchical dimension (Lenski, 1954).

Status traits are either ascribed or achieved. The notions of ascribed and achieved traits are concepts developed by Linton, who described their differentiation in the following manner:

Ascribed status traits are those characteristics that are assigned to individuals (regardless of) differences in their innate abilities, while achieved traits are those that (are) open to individual achievement (1936, p. 115).

For example, age, gender, and race are ascribed traits because they represent individual differences that exist regardless of ability, while education and occupation are achieved traits because they are subject to individual achievement. Though many ascribed and achieved status traits are also commonly used as bases for demographic segmentation, such as age or income, this is not always the case. Other non-demographic indicators (such as height, hair color, or expectations for success) might also be used to measure the status of an individual, depending on the context of interest (Foner, 1979).

When an individual experiences a disparity in relative position on two or more of their status hierarchies, a status inconsistency (or "decrySTALLization") is said to exist (Lenski, 1954). For example, a person might possess an advanced graduate degree, yet be employed in a job that provides a level of compensation far below that which would be expected of someone of high formal education. In this instance, the disparity between the individual's positions on two status hierarchies, education and income, is thought to cause internal cognitive dissonance, embarrassment, or social disgrace – any of which can induce coping

behaviors (Hughes, 1945; Homans, 1958, 1961; Geschwender, 1967; Festinger, 1957). The nature of the stress caused by a status inconsistency represents a critical assumption of the theory: cognitive dissonance, embarrassment, and social disgrace are reactions to stress that are psychological. Thus, it can be stated that in general, status inconsistency theory predicts that the discovery of status inconsistencies leads to psychological stress, which in turn leads to some coping response. This causal logic will drive the development of hypotheses in the current research.

In order that status inconsistency theory can be operationalized for comparisons of employee attitudes, behaviors, and/or expectations, two types of *a priori* assumptions must be considered. First, the input and response variables of interest must be assumed to reflect the individual's standing on some systematically related status hierarchies (Hughes, 1945; Stouffer, 1949). For example, in the comparison of workplace status inconsistency outcomes such as pay or job position, the antecedents of pay or position must be status dimensions that are relevant to the outcomes, such as seniority or training.

The second assumption reflects newer refinements of status inconsistency theory related to stereotyping. When individuals in society interact, expectations about the nature of relationships between their multiple status hierarchies sometimes develop (Geschwender, 1967). Following multiple observations of other individuals, status traits can come to be seen as occurring in common or "natural" combinations, which are the basis for forming stereotypes (Hughes, 1945; Geschwender, 1967). For instance, the occupational status position of

“marketing faculty” may be associated with a demographic status position of “white male” due to stereotyping on the dimensions of race and gender, based on observations of several marketing faculty. Thus, the formation of expectations regarding the relationship between status hierarchies will depend on the individual’s perception of the normally existing relationship in the local context (Hornung, 1980; Zimmermann, 1985).

Status inconsistency theory involves a social comparison that serves to generate a basis for forming expectations. The theory is based on comparisons of one’s actual experience with the expectations. Valid measurement of expectations and realities is critical for research grounded in this theory base. For the purposes of this dissertation (which focuses on discrepancies between warehouse employee expectations and reality), it will be necessary to pose relevant questions to the sample frame that are related to expectations of organizational culture, and the extent to which the expectations are verified.

Status inconsistency theory has been utilized to explain various types of status-related incongruity in organizational contexts. Studies related to organizational demography and occupational stress (Bacharach, Bamberger, and Mundell, 1997), occupational gender roles (Mannheim, 1993), and work team effectiveness and chairmanship (Cunningham and Wallace, 1997) represent some of the more recent research of job-related stress that have been explained by inconsistencies in status hierarchies between individuals. Since the current research is devoted to the analysis of employee reactions to job stress (coping behaviors), specifically including job satisfaction and organizational commitment

and their consequences, status inconsistency theory was chosen as the current research paradigm. Other theories of organizational could have been chosen. Equity theory and relative deprivation theories also have been utilized in analyses of status differences. However, as mentioned in Chapter One, these theories lack the correct unit of comparison (they compare reward structures rather than status traits) and the ability to differentially examine achieved and ascribed indicators of social status. Thus, status inconsistency theory is preferred to either of the other two theory bases for the purposes of the current research.

In summary, status inconsistency theory assumes that an intricate, simultaneous social comparison occurs between a reality-based status trait and a related expectation. The comparison provides a reference standard for individuals' evaluations of their actually realized outcomes. Subsequently, based on the social comparison of perceived important status dimensions, individuals may experience incongruity-related stress.

Attribution Theory

Attribution theory attempts to describe how people attribute events to one or more possible causes. The theory has been described as, "a theory about how people make causal explanations...(or) a general conception of the manner in which people think about and analyze cause-effect data (Kelley, 1973)." The fundamental underlying assumption is that individuals are motivated to understand the causes of behaviors and events in order to better control and predict the world around them (Heider, 1944).

Heider, the social psychologist credited with the original formulation of attribution theory, characterizes the theory as a focused, perceptual attempt to explain events in people's environments (Heider, 1944, 1958). However, this definition would lead one to believe that attribution theory consists of a single explanatory paradigm. This is actually not the case. In fact, attribution theory can be considered to be the integration of three different areas of research: object-perception theory, person-perception theory, and self-perception theory. These areas, distinguishable by their focus of attribution, seek to explain attributions regarding the behavior of persons, the reasons for object-evoked attributions, and reasoning behind attribution behavior focused at oneself (Heider, 1944, 1958; Jones and Davis, 1965; Bem, 1972; Kelley, 1971, 1973). The culmination of these three paradigms comprises the body of what is currently termed attribution theory.

Heider's (1944) original formulation was centered on the object-perception paradigm. Heider proposed that the assignment of causal attributions to the actions of others requires the acceptance of three fundamental assumptions:

1. The person doing the observing (and hence, making the attribution) is distinguishable from the person being observed (the object).
2. The action being observed can be classified as emanating from either the object or the observer.
3. The action is directed either toward or away from both the observer and the object.

Based on these assumptions, Heider's formulation proposes that the observer perceives the actions and/or reactions of the object and then tries to understand the nature of those behaviors by speculating about causes and intents. The source and direction of the action are relevant for making this analysis. From the analysis, the observer makes attributions regarding the (re)actions of the object along two dimensions. (Re)actions are speculated as being either (a) intentional or unintentional, and (b) caused by internal factors such as personality or ability, or external factors existing in the object's environment (Heider, 1944). Heider later added that these two attributional dimensions were affected by predispositions held by the observer, such as attitudes, pre-existing beliefs, and the potential benefits/risks of attributing actions in various ways (Heider, 1958).

The second paradigm, person-perception theory, was developed by Jones and Davis (1965), who focused on the intentionality dimension of attribution. These researchers proposed that observers make inferences about the object's behavioral intentions, and subsequently use these inferences to form mood perceptions. In other words, the observer forms attributions about the object by linking perceived intentions of the object's behavior to corresponding personal characteristics of the object (Jones and Davis, 1965). The strength of these attributions has been shown to be moderated by several variables, including directness of impact on the observer, the observer's perception that the action occurred by choice, and the social desirability of the action (Hewstone, 1983; Baron and Byrne, 1984).

The third operationalization of attribution theory, self-perception theory was initiated by Kelley (1973), and added to by Bem (1972). Kelley studied the information required by an observer to assign causality to internal or external factors, based on Heider's second set of findings. However, unlike Heider, Kelley believed that self-attributions were possible, and thus allowed for the possibility that the observer and the object could be the same person. Kelley theorized that observers use three kinds of information when determining object behaviors:

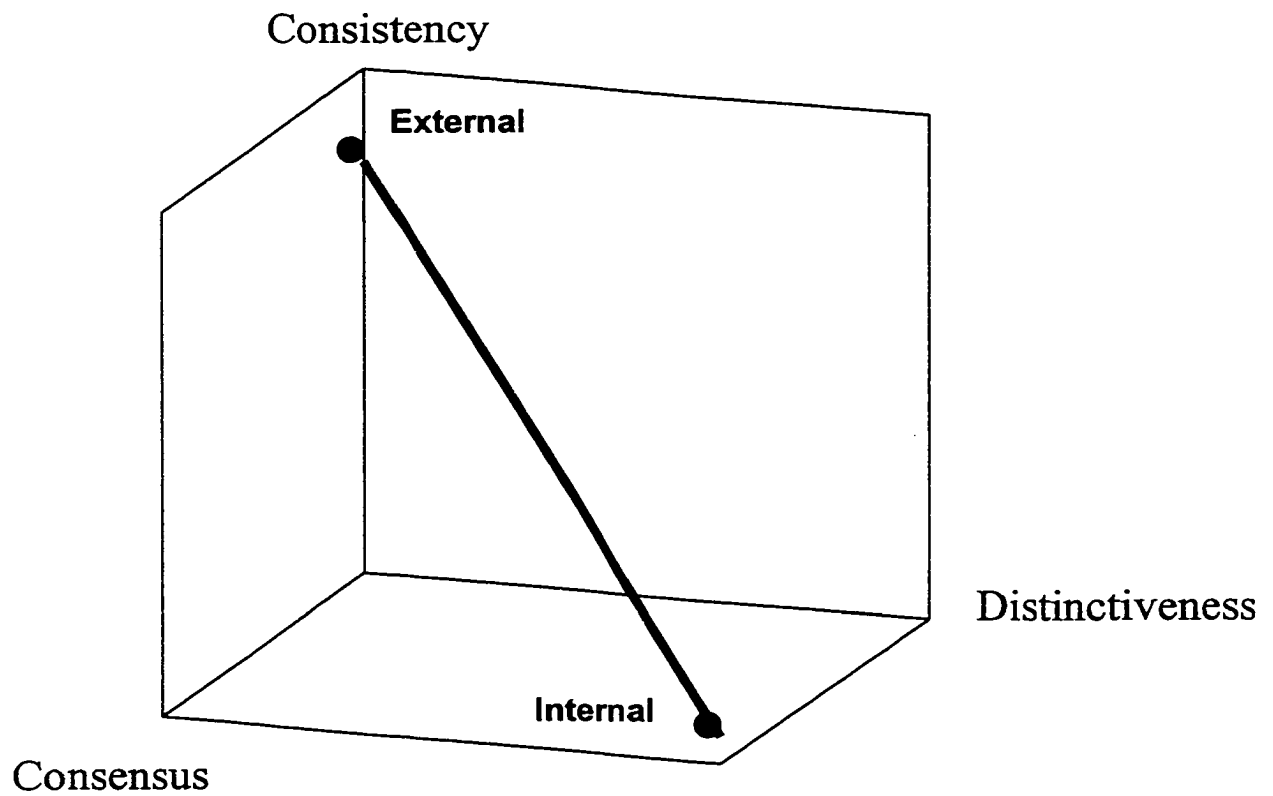
1. Distinctiveness: The extent to which the object acts reacts in the same manner across different situations.
2. Consistency: Uniformity of the object's performance on the same task over time.
3. Consensus: The extent to which the object acts in the same manner as the observer would in a similar situation.

Kelley theorized that simultaneous analysis of these three factors would allow for object's behaviors to be attributable to internal or external causes. Specifically, the observer would tend to attribute the object's behavior to internal causes in cases there was low consensus, high consistency, and/or low distinctiveness are present. Alternatively, the observer would be more likely make an external attribution under conditions of high consensus, low consistency, and/or high distinctiveness. These relationships are depicted in Figure 2-1. Through these propositions, Kelley argued that attributions provide the motivation to act, and

more importantly, form the basis for selecting among alternative courses of action (Kelley, 1971, 1973).

FIGURE 2-1

ATTRIBUTIONAL INFORMATION RELATIONSHIPS*



* Adapted from Kelley (1971, 1973)

The integration of Kelley's (1971) findings with the work of Bem (1972) allows for an important operationalization of self-perception theory. Bem posits that individuals observe their own behavior and external constraints on their behavior, and use this information to make causal attributions. In other words, individuals can make attributions about themselves, i.e., can act as both observer and object in the same situation. Furthermore, these attributions have been proposed to affect many personal characteristics, including individual attitudes, which are of interest in the current research.

A central facet of Bem's contribution to self-perception theory is the notion of *locus of causality*. The locus of causality is defined as key question individuals ask themselves regarding the location where consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness are measured to exist: internal or external to the observer/object. In accordance with the theory, individuals latently ask themselves whether their behavior is internally or externally motivated, and whether their resulting behaviors are different based on this factor. Research in other areas has given support to this sort of attributional duality. Studies of consumer credibility (Wiener and Mowen, 1986), industrial psychology/motivation (Deci, 1975; Benware and Deci, 1975), and sociology (Aronson, 1966) have espoused differential outcomes related to internally and externally based attributions.

The third operationalization of attribution theory, self-perception theory, has important implications for the current research. When workers endure job-related stress caused by perceived mismatches with their managers, their co-workers, or their company, they may choose to cope with this stress in a variety

of ways. However, a lack of fit between the employee and elements of the organization may elicit a coping behavior from the employee in an effort to relieve some of the job related stress. It is possible that the selection of the appropriate coping mechanism will be in some way impacted by the locus of causality, which may prescribe differential coping mechanisms.

The concept of person-organization fit assesses the match between workers and organizational culture. Person-organization fit has been associated with employee attitudes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. It may be impacted by critical status traits of employees, and may influence the types of attributions that employees make in cases where a lack of fit is present. As such, person-organization fit represents the focal construct in the current study.

Person-organization Fit

Person-organization fit is defined generally as the compatibility between individuals and organizations. However, this definition is somewhat inadequate due to multiple conceptualizations and operationalizations of the construct. Kristof's (1996) review of person-organization fit presents a framework which reviews the construct's various usages.

Kristof (1996) notes that person-organization fit has been conceptualized in two ways based on different distinctions of compatibility between the individual and the organization. The first distinction is between supplementary and complementary fit. According to Muchinsky and Monahan (1987), supplementary fit occurs when an individual possesses characteristics that are similar to other

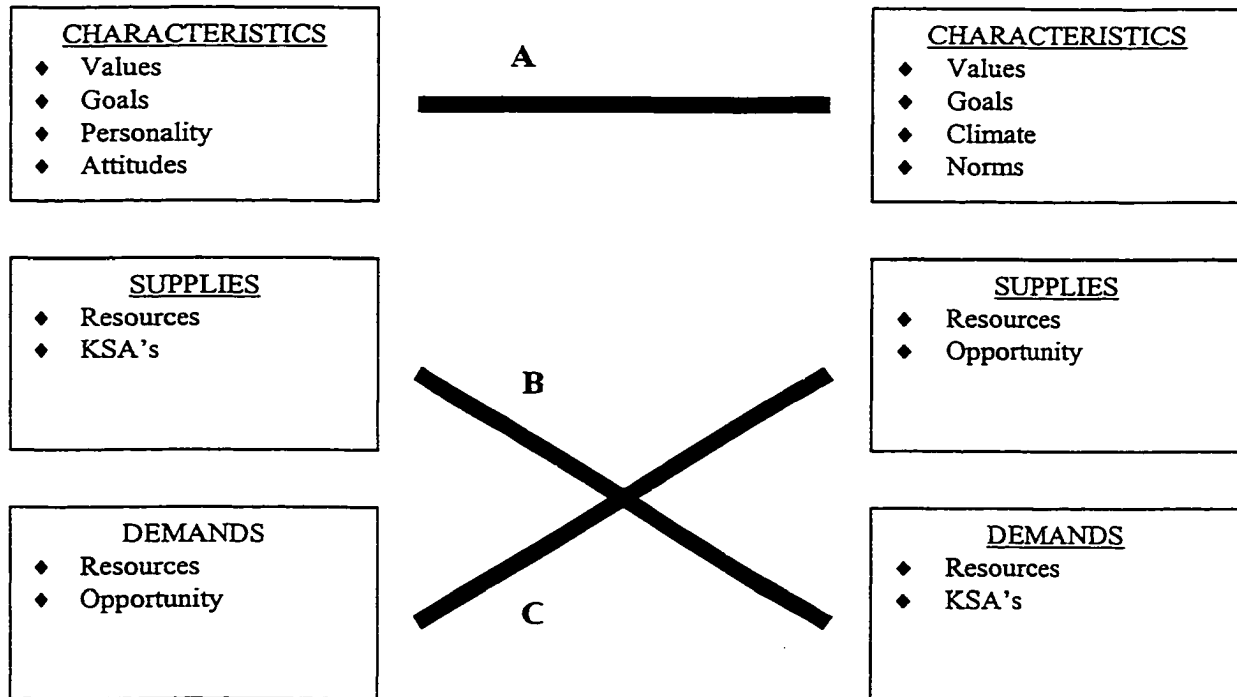
individuals in the environment. This type of congruence can be differentiated from complementary fit, which exists when the individual's characteristics "make whole" the environment, or add what is missing (Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987). The second distinction is presented by the demands-abilities and needs-supplies perspectives, which are derived from other forms of fit/congruence (e.g. Caplan, 1987). The demands-abilities perspective proposes that fit exists when the knowledge, skills, or abilities of the individual are matched to the demands of the organization. In contrast, the needs-supplies perspective suggests that fit occurs when the organization satisfies the needs, desires, or preferences of the individual (Kristof, 1996). Most research of person-organization fit has taken a unilateral approach to the conceptualization of the construct; authors tend to define person-organization fit using one distinction and completely ignore the other. Kristof's (1996) investigation was one of few to propose an integrative framework. Exceptions include the works of Bretz and Judge (1994), and Bretz, Rynes, and Gerhart (1993), each of which considered both conceptualizations of person-organization fit. An adaptation of Kristof's (1996) framework is presented in Figure 2-2.

Figure 2-2 illustrates the relationships between individuals and their organizations that are captured in the person-organization fit literature. In the model, supplementary fit is denoted by Line A as the relationship between the characteristics of the person and the organization. The characteristics of the person most often examined are values, goals, personality, and attitudes. The corresponding characteristics most often examined related to organizations are

FIGURE 2-2
CONCEPTUALIZATIONS OF PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT*

PERSON

ORGANIZATION



* Adapted from Kristof (1996)

values, goals, climate, and norms. When there is a match between an organization and a person on the characteristics, supplementary person-organization fit is said to exist (Kristof, 1996).

In contrast, Muchinsky and Monahan's (1987) concept of complementary fit occurs when demands and supplies of organizations and persons are matched, i.e., the individual's characteristics "make whole" or add to the environment. For example, an individual would possess a complementary fit with an organization if that individual's supplies were matched to a demand in the firm. Referring to Figure 2-1, Line B indicates a complementary fit between individual supplies and organizational demands, while Line C indicates a complementary fit between organizational supplies and individual demands. Organizational supplies are related to financial, psychological, and physical resources as well as opportunities for employee growth (Schein, 1992; Kristof, 1996). Individual supplies consist of contributions of time, labor, or commitment (i.e., resources) or KSA's which can be capitalized on by the organization (Schein, 1992).

Based on the two conceptualization paradigms and their integrative framework, Kristof (1996) defines person-organization fit as:

...the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share fundamental characteristics, or (c) both.

This definition is thought to be the state-of-the-art perspective on person-organization fit because it recognizes the complex multiple conceptualizations of the construct and considers both the supplementary and complementary

perspectives. Person-organization fit has been defined in this manner in all known investigations published following Kristof's (1996) conceptual review.

The literature has also operationalized person-organization fit in four different ways (Kristof, 1996). One method emphasizes the needs-supplies conceptualization, while two others reflect supplementary fit. The fourth operationalization can be viewed from either a supplementary or complementary needs-supplies perspective.

Articles by Bretz, Ash, and Dresher (1989) and by Cable and Judge (1994) take the needs-supplies perspective. Bretz, Ash, and Dresher (1989) tested hypotheses related to individual need satisfaction and found evidence that congruence between internal needs and external environments helps to facilitate individuals' job selection processes. Similarly, Cable and Judge (1994) noted that the fit between individual preferences and compensation structures significantly impacts job seekers' attitudes towards hiring organizations. These authors operationalized person-organization fit as the match between individual needs or preferences and organizational operations, structure, or processes. This operationalization is rooted in need-press theory, where "presses" (i.e., forces or pressures) in the environment either aid or inhibit the fulfillment of individual needs (Murray, 1938). Another similar theory base, the theory of work adjustment, suggests that individuals will experience work-related satisfaction if they enter job environments that fulfill their needs. Bretz and Judge (1994) utilized this theory to investigate the job search tendencies of employed

managers, again operationalizing person-organization fit from the needs-supplies perspective.

Another common operationalization of person-organization fit refers to the congruency between individual and organizational values. Chatman (1989), who proposed a model of person-organization fit based on convergent viewpoints regarding workplace value expectations, was the first to take this operational approach. Chatman (1991) subsequently tested the model using recruits of a public accounting firm as the sample frame. Her findings included support for three important hypotheses: (1) Recruits whose values (upon entry) match those of the firm adjust to it more quickly, (2) those who experience the most vigorous socialization fit the firm's values better than those who do not, and most importantly, (3) recruits whose values most closely match the firm's feel most satisfied, and intend to and/or actually remain with the firm longer. Boxx et al. (1991) found similar results in a not-for-profit organizational setting; hypothesis testing indicated that value congruency leads to greater levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and group cohesion. Extensions to research related to this operationalization were added by O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991), and by Posner (1992). O'Reilly et al. used longitudinal data collected from accountants and MBA students to assess the Organizational Culture Profile, an instrument designed to capture individuals' preferences for organizational cultures. The results suggest that person-organization fit is more accurately assessed after employees have experienced the organization for a period of 1-2 years. Furthermore, the results suggest that person-organization fit predicts job

satisfaction and organizational commitment better after a period of one year, and turnover intentions after two years (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991). Posner (1992) extended the value congruency approach by examining the impact of demographics such as age, gender, and ethnic background on work attitudes. Analysis of data collected from a multinational manufacturing firm indicated that person-organization value congruency is directly related to positive work attitudes and that demographic factors did not moderate the relationship.

The third operationalization of person-organization fit uses a goal congruence perspective. This operationalization is based on the idea that individuals and organizations use each other as resources that can be implemented for the achievement of goals. When the goals of the individual and the organization are more similar, then each party benefits from the goal congruency, i.e., from the elimination of redundancy or wasted effort. Schneider (1987) was the first to operationalize the construct in this way, through the development of his ASA (attraction-selection-attrition) framework. The ASA suggests that either individuals or organizations will be attracted to and select other entities with which they are goal congruent, and will divest themselves of entities (through attrition) with which they are not goal congruent (Schneider, 1987). The ASA framework takes its roots from Vroom's (1966) organizational decision making hierarchy, which indicates that individuals act in ways which best serve their goal related interests, including the individual's propensity to choose environments which contain individuals who will best aid in personal goal achievement. This orientation implies that person-organization fit may be

antecedent to long-term goal heterogeneity, as organizations attract members who have congruent goals while rejecting those with incongruent goals (Schneider, 1987; Kristof, 1996).

The final operationalization of person-organization fit takes a more psychological approach. This operationalization suggests that person-organization fit exists when the elements of the individual's personality are well matched with the organizational "personality" or climate. Works by Burke and Dezca (1982) and Ivancevich and Matteson (1984) examined the match between Type A and Type B personalities and their local environments, and used the results to make predictions regarding occupational stress and consequences such as turnover and satisfaction. However, although this operationalization of person-organization fit seems to be a supplementary-type fit (i.e., a match between the personalities of the two entities), its measurement suggests a complementary needs-supplies perspective. This interpretation is offered by Kristof (1996), who notes that climate is frequently operationalized in terms of organizational supplies (reward systems, communication patterns, etc.) while individual personality is often construed in terms of needs rather than cognitive processes. For example, an organization's individualist climate might be operationalized as a competitive sales situation characterized by fighting over customers, commission based compensation plans, etc. which may fail to meet the individual's need for collective or group success. Because researchers have struggled with their conceptualization of fit, and because direct measurement of

personality is often difficult, this operationalization of person-organization fit has been used sparingly.

The concept of person-organization fit should not be confused with other forms of congruence between the individual and the environment. Besides person-organization fit, three other types of person-environment fit have been addressed in the literature (Judge and Ferris, 1992). Fit has also been examined between the individual and the job (e.g., Edwards, 1991), the individual and the group (e.g., Hoerr, 1989), and the individual and vocation (e.g., Super, 1953). Schneider (1995) indicates that the appropriate level of analysis for fit depends on the contextual setting and methodological issues related to the proposed research.

Person-job fit is roughly defined as the fit between abilities of a person and the demands of a job (Edwards, 1991). It is probable that job requirements will be strongly associated with the goals and/or values of the organization; however, these are distinctly different components of the work environment (Kristof, 1996). For example, although organizational policies are used to establish guidelines for compensation, managers usually have flexibility in determining the reward structures for specific jobs (Bartol and Martin, 1988). Furthermore, O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991) have empirically shown that person-job and person-organization fit can exhibit wide variance within individuals. Thus, despite the apparent conceptual overlap, systems and structures of organizations and jobs should be considered separately with respect to fit with the individual (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991; Kristof, 1996).

Person-group fit is conceptually related to the notion of teamwork (Hoerr, 1989), and is defined as the compatibility between individuals and their work groups (Hoerr, 1989, Guzzo and Salas, 1995). Research related to teamwork and work team composition has indicated that achievement of high levels of person-group fit is a primary predictor of teamwork effectiveness (Klimoski and Jones, 1995). Goal congruence, personality congruence, and value congruence have also been shown to influence job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Weldon and Weingart, 1993; Klimoski and Jones, 1995). However, groups are merely sub-organizational units, and as such they may possess different norms and values than the organization in which they are contained (Louis, 1990). Therefore, there may be widely differential levels of fit between the individual and the workgroup, and the individual and the organization (Trice and Beyer, 1993; Kristof, 1996).

Person-vocation fit implies congruence with a career type. Super (1953) proposed that individuals select career paths based on the levels of fit that different career options have with their values or self-image. Although this perspective may aid in selection of the individual's vocational area, it does not imply anything related to the choice of the work organization (Kristof, 1996). Thus, person-vocation fit is a distinct concept from person-organization fit.

In summary, as person-organization fit is examined in organizational research, more attention must be given to the multiple conceptualizations and operationalizations of the construct. In particular, the specification of precise operational and conceptual definitions is required in order that relationships

between person-organization fit and its outcomes can be hypothesized. Two of the more important of these relationships involve person-organization fit and employee attitudes. The relationships between person-organization fit and job satisfaction, and between person-organization fit and organizational commitment, have critical implications for the selection and retention of supply chain employees (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991). Before an analysis of these relationships can take place, the job satisfaction and organizational commitment constructs must first be defined, and relevant literature reviewed.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most frequently studied concepts in the organizational literature. Locke (1969) provided the most commonly cited definition for job satisfaction. Locke defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." Fundamentally, job satisfaction is the way the employee feels about the job.

Major theories that have been used to explain the occurrence of job satisfaction include equity theory, social influence theory, two-factor theory, and discrepancy theory. Equity theory proposes that the perception of fairness in work inputs and outcomes will determine employee job satisfaction. Inputs refer to anything of value that the employee contributes to the organization, and outcomes refer to anything of value received from the job (including pay, benefits, etc.). Equity theory suggests that a judgement of fairness is made based upon comparison of the individual's input/outcome ratio with that of a

referent other. The referent other is often another employee within the organization with which the individual relates. According to equity theory, if the individual possesses a ratio that is similar to that of the referent other, the individual will perceive equitable treatment and will tend to be satisfied with the job situation. On the other hand, if the individual perceives an inequity (unequal ratios), then dissatisfaction may occur in the form of guilt, anger, or resentment (Adams, 1963). In response to equity-based dissatisfaction, individuals may choose to alter their input levels as a coping response (Goodman, 1977).

Social influence theory takes a simpler approach to job satisfaction than the social comparison paradigm of equity theory. Pfeffer and Salancik (1977, 1978) suggest that social comparisons are not as important as the attitudes of co-workers in predicting satisfaction. Their major premise is that individuals decide how satisfied they are with the workplace based on levels of satisfaction observed in other employees, rather than based on the job itself. Though this theory is interesting in that it assumes that emotions in individuals are guided by similar emotions in referent others, it has received minimal support in the literature as an explanation of job satisfaction. Only three studies were found that have tested social influence theory. However, research by O'Reilly and Caldwell (1979), White and Mitchell (1979), and Weiss and Shaw (1979) indicates strong support for social cues – job satisfaction relationships. Thus, it appears that the influence of co-workers on satisfaction is at least worthy of consideration.

Herzberg's two-factor theory takes yet another approach to explaining employee job satisfaction. Two-factor theory proposes that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposite ends of an attitudinal continuum; rather, they are thought to be two independent constructs. According to the theory, job characteristics can be grouped into two categories known as motivators or hygiene factors (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959). Motivators are job characteristics that are related to the individual's higher-order needs, such as opportunity for achievement and recognition. Hygiene factors include more basic need satisfiers, such as pay, supervision, and status (Herzberg, 1966). The two-factor theory proposes that a nominal amount of the hygiene factors is needed to fulfill the individual's base needs, and job dissatisfaction will ensue unless these factors are present. However, sufficient amounts of hygiene factors are not enough to insure satisfaction. According to two-factor theory, the individual will experience job satisfaction only when an adequate amount of the appropriate motivators is present (Herzberg, 1966). Two-factor theory has been met with several criticisms (see Locke, 1969; Hulin, 1971), and has not received much empirical support.

Locke (1969), Porter (1961), and Wanous and Lawler (1972) have each suggested that job satisfaction is dependent on the discrepancy between what the individual perceives the reward to be and what is desired. Here, the desired amount is the minimum amount necessary to fulfill the individual's personal needs (Locke, 1969). According to Locke's (1969) discrepancy theory, an individual will be satisfied when there is no discrepancy between the desired and

actual rewards, and less than satisfied when a discrepancy exists. Porter's version of this model of satisfaction was slightly different. He defined satisfaction more normatively as the difference between how much of something exists, versus how much is actually present (Porter, 1961). Wanous and Lawler found variance in employee responses depended on the conceptualization of discrepancy. Their findings indicate that individuals possess multiple types of feelings about their jobs, and therefore, no optimal definition of job satisfaction exists (Wanous and Lawler, 1972). Their stance that the appropriate method for measuring satisfaction depends on the situation reflects more of a contingency approach.

Based on the multiple theoretical foundations presented for its definition and measurement, it can be stated that job satisfaction is dependent on a variety of characteristics related to the job position. These include, among others, pay, working conditions, supervision, co-workers, job content, job security, and opportunity for advancement. Overall, job attitudes such as satisfaction and commitment are determined jointly by job characteristics and employee characteristics, based on comparisons between existing conditions and the perception of conditions that should exist.

The relationships between job satisfaction and other attitudinal and behavioral outcomes have been researched throughout the organizational literature. Job satisfaction has been studied with respect to its relationships with performance (Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985), withdrawal behaviors (Scott and Taylor, 1985), life satisfaction (Judge and Watanabe, 1993), organizational

effectiveness (Hollenbeck and Williams, 1986), and organizational commitment (Reichers, 1985), among others. The relationship between job satisfaction and performance is one of the most popular topics in the literature. In early job satisfaction research, it was commonly assumed that employees who were satisfied would be more motivated and thereby more productive than dissatisfied employees (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955). Had this finding been supported throughout the course of the satisfaction-performance literature, it would have implied that an organization could become more productive simply by increasing those variables that were linked to satisfaction. However, the linkage between satisfaction and performance, although intuitively appealing, has been empirically shown to be relatively weak (Locke, 1969; Iaffaldano and Muchinsky, 1985).

A number of literature reviews have uncovered a fairly consistent negative relationship between satisfaction and withdrawal in the form of turnover and absenteeism (e.g., Mobley 1977; Muchinsky, 1977; Steers and Rhodes, 1978). Evidence suggests that employees experiencing low levels of job satisfaction are slightly more likely to miss work or to voluntarily terminate employment than are satisfied employees. Based on this relationship, employees who are satisfied with their jobs have been found to mildly affect organizational effectiveness.

The relationship between job satisfaction and person-organization fit has recently begun to receive attention in the literature. Hackman and Oldham (1976) found job satisfaction was related to a match between job characteristics and the strength of growth needs in the individual. Chatman (1991), whose results indicated that new employees are more satisfied when they possess

value congruency with their hiring firms, supplied further support for the linkage. The linkage was further verified in studies of school principals (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991), manufacturing employees and managers (Posner, 1992), academic job seekers (Cable and Judge, 1996), and highway and transportation administrators (Odom, Boxx, and Dunn, 1990).

Organizational Commitment

Early research related to the concept of organizational commitment focused primarily on employee behavior. However, in the 1970's, the focus changed from employee behaviors to employee attitudes (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). From this perspective, organizational commitment can be defined as "a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization" (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment are concepts that are often juxtaposed. Both concepts are frequently utilized to examine employee attitudes and can be shown to similarly predict other organizational outcomes; however, the two variables are distinct. Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) clarify the difference between the concepts:

...commitment differs from (job) satisfaction in several ways. To begin with, commitment...is more global, reflecting a general affective response to the organization as a whole. Job satisfaction, on the other hand, reflects one's response either to one's job or to certain aspects of one's job. Hence, commitment emphasizes attachment to the employing organization, including its goals and values, while satisfaction emphasizes the specific task environment where the employee (works).

Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) further suggest that organizational commitment is more enduring than job satisfaction, which tends to be more readily affected by events that transpire on a daily basis in the workplace.

More recent research suggests that organizational commitment can be viewed as a three-dimensional construct reflecting its multiple operationalizations. The three dimensions of organizational commitment, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), are the normative, affective, and continuance orientations. *Normative commitment* refers to the individual's "moral obligation" to remain with the organization. This orientation takes a psychological approach to commitment based on feelings of remorse or guilt. *Affective commitment* reflects the employee's emotional attachment to the organization. For example, greater amounts of affective commitment are associated with involvement in the organization and enjoyment of membership within it. *Continuance commitment* represents the individual's being economically or socially "forced to stay" in the organization, describing commitment as derived from the cost-benefit tradeoffs associated with leaving (Meyer and Allen, 1991).

Employee retention has been strongly associated with all three dimensions of organizational commitment. The strongest relationship has been found between retention and the affective dimension. Meyer and Allen (1997) suggest that emotional attachment to the organization significantly reduces turnover, even in the relative absence of the other commitment dimensions. However, organizations should take care that they do not focus solely on any one dimension of commitment to the total exclusion of the others. For instance, an

employee who rates very highly on the affective dimension may not necessarily be productive if the contentedness leads to spending excessive time socializing with co-workers who become close friends. In fact, in this case, high affective commitment may actually be counterproductive relative to the goals of the organization.

An abundance of literature has examined the relationship between organizational commitment dimensions and various antecedents. These antecedents have been categorized as (1) personal characteristics, (2) work experiences, or (3) organizational characteristics. *Personal characteristics* are attributes that can be used to describe individuals, such as age, ability, or job level. *Work experiences* describe events that occur on the job and impact the employee's attitudes about the job, such as coworker support, promotion and tenure, or organizational justice. *Organizational characteristics* describe the nature, composition, or complexity of the firm, and include measures such as firm size and centralization of decision making (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

Empirical research has failed to explain any significant direct relationships between personal characteristics and either normative or continuance commitment. However, marginal support has been shown for the relationship between affective commitment and age (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Cohen, 1993), and a strong correlation has been shown between perceived job competence and affective commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

Work experiences have also been researched for potential relationships with the dimensions of commitment. Moderate correlations with each of the commitment dimensions have been found for coworker support and respect (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Koys, 1988), organizational fairness/justice (Koys, 1991), job scope (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990), and organizational socialization practices (Van Maanen, 1979; Allen and Meyer, 1990).

From an organizational characteristic perspective, commitment has been shown to have a potential relationship with organizational structure (Meyer and Allen, 1997) and human resource practices (Schuler, 1992), as well as person-organization fit. The relationship between person-organization fit and organizational commitment is relevant to the current research. The relationship between person-organization fit has been documented in organizational contexts such as accounting firms (Chatman, 1991), public-sector executives (Boxx et al., 1991), and middle managers (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991). Value congruence in these and other types of organizations is currently thought to be an important predictor of employee satisfaction and commitment, as well as subsequent behavioral outcomes, which are reviewed in the next section.

Behavioral Outcomes: Control and Escape

When individuals experience stress on the job, they tend to seek out mechanisms that will relieve the stress. These mechanisms are generally known as coping behaviors. Coping behaviors are frequently defined as the things people do to avoid being harmed by "lifestrains" (Pearlin and Schooler, 1978), or to master stressful environmental conditions (Monat and Lazarus, 1977). Central

to the concept of coping is the fundamental assumption that individuals are responsive to environmental forces that cause them discomfort (Pearlin, 1975). Since workplaces are environments characterized as possessing social forces (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), the understanding of coping behaviors is critical for assessing the impact of job related stress on employees.

Recent research categorizes coping behaviors based on three earlier proposed conceptual frameworks (Latack, 1986). The first two conceptualizations propose that coping behaviors are situational (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980). Folkman and Lazarus (1980) contend that situations such as unreasonable work deadlines or miscommunications between the employee and the supervisor elicit stress in the employee, who responds with either an emotions-focused or problem-focused coping behavior (Folkman and Lazarus, 1980). Emotions-focused coping behaviors seek to manage or reduce emotional stress. For example, an individual who employs an emotions-focused coping behavior might try to reduce emotional stress resulting from an incident in the workplace by “looking at the bright side”, or by ignoring or dismissing the incident altogether. Conversely, problem-focused coping behaviors attempt to manage stress by managing the situation. An individual who employs a problem-focused approach to the aforementioned work incident might attempt to reduce stress by talking to the supervisor, taking training courses, or staying late to catch up on work missed due to travel. Thus, the focal difference between problem and emotions-focused coping behavior can be identified as differential levels of

outward focused activity designed to either act upon or avoid the problem at hand (Folkman, 1982).

Moos and Billings (1982) added a third conceptualization of coping behavior. Their research suggests that in addition to taking an active (problem-focused) or passive (emotions-focused) response to stress, individuals also have the option of selecting a symptom-management strategy. This type of coping behavior is different in that it does not provide for taking steps to address individual situations. Rather, the individual employing symptom-management responses considers stress on a global level, and seeks to alleviate any physiological symptoms resulting from the summation of all sources of job stress. For example, an individual who is experiencing general job stress might decide to work out at a gym, play tennis, or other behaviors which help to “blow off some steam”, or otherwise reduce the amount of physiological stress experienced.

The integrative framework employed by Latack (1986) reflects the integration of the previous three conceptualizations of coping behavior, including an additional *cognitive reappraisal* element. The cognitive reappraisal element adds the possibility that merely thinking about the source of stress may greatly aid in the solution of the stress-related problem (Latack, 1984). Latack (1986) categorizes coping responses to workplace stress as either control behaviors, escape behaviors, or symptom-management behaviors.

Control behaviors are defined as actions or cognitive reappraisals that are proactive, or “take-charge” type responses. These responses are often thought to be more “positive”, or more functional for the purposes of the individual. When

individuals select a control behavior as a coping response to job related stress, they generally intend to remain a part of the organization in the long-term. By choosing a control behavior the employee is seeking relief from the source of the job-related stress in order that their duration of employment in the organization can be as comfortable as possible (Latack, 1986; Latack and Havlovic, 1992).

Conversely, *escape behaviors* consist of actions and cognitive reappraisals that suggest an avoidance or escapist approach to the problem, including those behaviors by which individuals actively seek to “retaliate” against the organization. These responses are generally thought to be more destructive to the organization in that they fail to address the problem adequately, and often result in the physical and/or psychological removal of the individual from the organization. Individuals who select an escape-type coping response are not interested in the welfare of the organization. Rather, they have determined that the best solution for the job stress they are feeling is to leave the situation, regardless of the impact of their leaving on the firm (Latack, 1986; Latack and Havlovic, 1992).

Symptom-management behaviors fail to recognize the problem at all; they merely attempt to manage the symptoms that cause physical discomfort for the individual. As a result, symptom-management strategies are generally thought of as “quick fix” strategies for stress reduction, and may be followed by the selection of either an escape or control behavior if the symptoms persist over time (Latack, 1986). Employees who select a symptom-management strategy as a coping response may be in denial that a problem exists, or are hesitant to address the

“real source” of their job stress for some other reason (Latack and Havlovic, 1992; Moos and Billings, 1982).

Manifestations of each of Latack's (1986) coping behavior categories have appeared in the organizational and/or psychological literature as stress-related outcomes. However, the nature of escape behaviors, which have a more adverse and sizable impact on organizations than control behaviors or symptom-management behaviors, has made them a more attractive topic for organizational research. Substantial research has been undertaken related to escape behaviors such as turnover and turnover intention (e.g. Horn et al., 1992; Mobley, 1982; Mobley et al., 1978; Staw and Oldham, 1978), and psychological withdrawal in the form of absenteeism (e.g., Mathieu and Kohler, 1990; Steers and Rhodes, 1978; Staw and Oldham, 1978), tardiness (e.g., Blau, 1985; Tremolieres, 1978), “burnout/brownout” (e.g., Westman, 1997; Lee and Ashforth, 1996), or general types of job neglect (Farrell, 1984; Lee and Jablin, 1992). Popular press articles have also considered industrial sabotage or other types of active disloyalty to the organization as associated with escape-type behaviors such as turnover, etc. (Crino, 1994; Giacalone and Knouse, 1990).

Control behaviors have also received attention in the academic literature. Frequently studied examples of control behaviors that are employed as potential remedies to stress in the workplace include seeking additional training or knowledge (e.g., Kagan, Kagan, and Watson, 1995; Martocchio, 1994; Saks, 1994), or the development of social networks or structures (Heaney, Price, and Rafferty, 1995). Other control-related studies have examined control behaviors

such as the devotion of more time or energy with the goal of improved job performance (Latack, 1984; Pearlin and Schooler, 1978; Schonfeld, 1990), policy changing (when possible) (Latack, 1984; Anderson, 1977), organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g., Chattopadhyay, 1999), and voicing of opinions regarding the problem to supervisors (e.g., Anderson, 1977; Burke and Belcourt, 1974; Pearlin and Schooler, 1978; Hall, 1972). Most of the symptom-management research has been accomplished in the organizational therapy/health and psychological literatures. A very large number of studies have examined the effects of sleep, alcohol, exercise, food, family interaction, drug abuse, etc. on work performance and workplace behavior (e.g., Lehman, 1992; Totterdell et al., 1995; David, 1968). Symptom-management research has also been examined in the contexts of religion and professional counseling; research has suggested that the adoption of a religious faith (e.g., Lawless, 1989) and/or the seeking of professional help (e.g., Graham, 1982) are critical in managing stress related physical symptoms.

One of the broad goals of the current research is to examine relationships between job-related stress and its behavioral outcomes. A focus will be placed on the differential impact of stress on outcomes that are either functional or dysfunctional with respect to the individual and/or the organization. Previous research, as mentioned above, has shown that both control behaviors and symptom-management behaviors are “positive” or active behaviors that seek to reduce stress in the individual. However, symptom-management behaviors fail to directly address the source of stress, instead focusing on managing the

secondary results of the problem. Since this dissertation focuses on the direct outcomes of status-related stress in the workplace, it is not necessary to consider symptom-management behaviors. For the purposes of the current research, relevant outcome behaviors will include those (usually internally directed) outcomes that fall within Latack's (1986) categorization framework as control behaviors or escape behaviors.

SUMMARY

Person-organization fit has been shown to be positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kristof, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Boxx et al., 1991, O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991). Organizational commitment has also been shown to be positively associated with several types of control behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Shore and Wayne, 1993), job performance (Petty, McGee, and Cavender, 1983), and voicing of opinions (Farrell, 1984). Both job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been suggested to be negatively associated with several types of escape behaviors, such as turnover (Mobley et al., 1979), absenteeism (Mowday et al., 1982), and burnout (Lee and Ashforth, 1996). Furthermore, job satisfaction has been shown to be positively associated with organizational commitment on several occasions (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

However, researchers have not yet attempted to examine the direct effect of person-organization fit on control and escape behaviors. Additionally, no research was found that tests for a moderation effect of ascribed and achieved status bases on the relationship between person-organization fit and employee

behavioral outcomes. The existing and proposed relationships are depicted in the conceptual model, which is introduced in the next chapter. The derivation of this model and its hypotheses is the focus of Chapter Three.

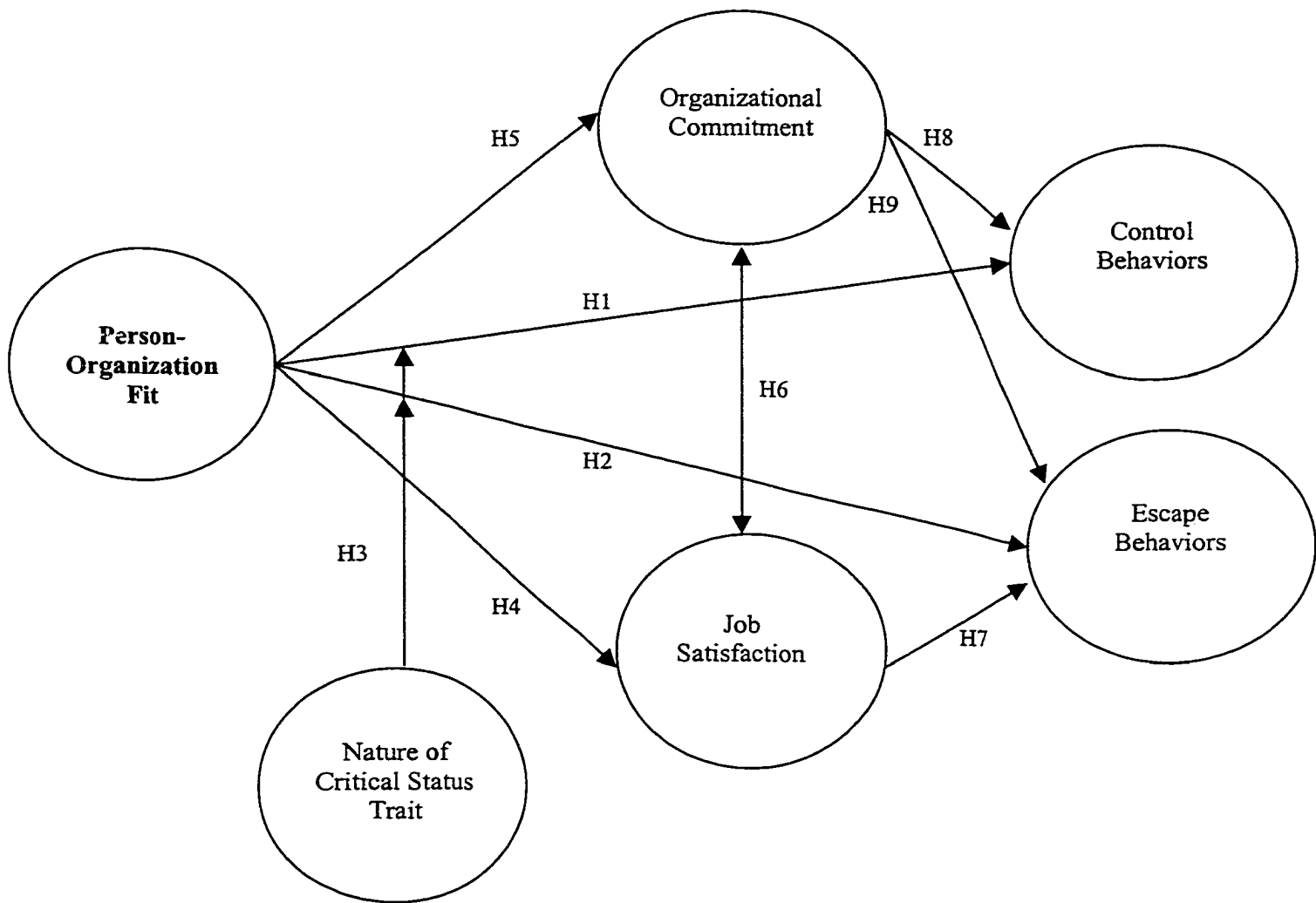
CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Based on the literature reviewed in Chapter Two, relationships between perceived person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and control and escape outcome behaviors can be hypothesized. Several of these relationships have been investigated in prior research. The relationships between person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment have been examined in the organizational behavior literature (e.g. Bretz and Judge, 1994). The organizational literature also has included a number of studies associating a lack of job satisfaction with escape-type behaviors such as turnover or neglect, and has examined the relationships between organizational commitment and both escape and control-type behaviors (e.g. Mobley et al., 1979; Farrell, 1984; Mowday et al, 1982; Lee and Ashforth, 1996; Shore and Wayne, 1993; Petty, McGee, and Cavender, 1983). However, as previously mentioned, empirical studies that associate person-organization fit with escape and control behaviors are lacking. Furthermore, no studies have been found that examine the possibility that a moderating effect of status traits might impact the relationship between person-organization fit and these types of outcome behaviors.

The current research addresses this gap by proposing a conceptual model that builds on the person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and coping behavior literature streams. Status inconsistency

FIGURE 3-1
CONCEPTUAL MODEL



theory is utilized to predict the relationships between the endogenous variable person-organization fit and coping mechanisms that take the form of escape and control behaviors, and attribution theory is used to explain the differential choice made between control and escape behaviors. The conceptual model is presented in Figure 3-1. The remainder of Chapter Three will be devoted to the development of hypotheses depicted in the conceptual model.

RESEARCH CONCEPTS

The current research proposes a model containing six constructs. These constructs are briefly defined as follows:

Person-organization fit refers to the compatibility between individuals and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share fundamental characteristics, or (c) both.

Organizational commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and (b) has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization.

Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.

Control behaviors are actions or cognitive reappraisals that reflect a proactive or "take-charge" response to the management of job stress, and are often more positive in nature for both the individual and the organization.

Escape behaviors are actions and cognitive reappraisals that suggest an avoidance or escapist approach to the management of job stress, including those behaviors by which individuals actively seek to retaliate against the organization.

Status traits are any characteristics of an actor that are observable or measurable and are differentially evaluated in terms of honor, esteem, or desirability.

In order that the focal constructs of the study can be examined and relationships hypothesized, the constructs must first be formally specified in terms of conceptual and operational definitions.

Person-organization fit. The literature presents two conceptualizations of person-organization fit. On one hand, person-organization fit is conceptualized as either a supplementary or a complementary type of match with the organizational culture. Depending on the conceptualization, person-organization fit occurs when the individual either possesses characteristics that are similar to the organizational culture, or possesses characteristics that match the culture by “making it whole,” or adding what is missing. Furthermore, person-organization fit takes either a needs-supplies or a demands-abilities conceptual perspective. In essence, this means that fit exists either when the organizational satisfies the individual's needs, or when the individuals has the abilities to meet organizational demands (Kristof, 1996).

The first theoretical base, status inconsistency theory, will guide the conceptualizations of person-organization fit within the current research. Status inconsistency theory implicitly involves a comparison of two or more status hierarchies. When differences in relative status levels unexpectedly occur, the individual is said to be experiencing a status inconsistency. According to the theory, these inconsistencies lead to emotional stress, which subsequently leads to coping behaviors by the individual (Lenski, 1954, 1956). Because the status hierarchy comparison results in stress only when there are differential status levels across hierarchies, it can be assumed that the “default” or normal state of

the status comparison is one of relative equality across hierarchies. This implies that the optimal conceptualization of person-organization fit for the current research will include a type of fit that is characterized by similarity across hierarchies. Thus, the concept of person-organization fit will take the form of supplementary fit rather than complementary fit in the current research. Similarly, person-organization fit must also be conceptualized using either a needs-supplies perspective or a demands-abilities perspective. The needs-supplies perspective is more consistent with status inconsistency theory than the demands-abilities perspective in that it employs individual rather than firm preferences regarding status hierarchies; status inconsistency theory requires comparisons of an individual's status bases rather than those of organizations. Therefore, a needs-supplies perspective will also be adopted as a conceptual base for person-organization fit in the current research.

Person-organization fit has been operationalized in four different ways in the literature. The various operationalizations position person-organization fit as either (1) a match between individual and organizational values; (2) a match between individual and organizational goals; (3) the match between individual personality and organizational climate; or (4) the match between individual work attitudes or expectations and organizational norms (Kristof, 1996). Status inconsistency theory is most congruent with the fourth operationalization. The comparison between individual expectations and realities fulfills a primary assumption of the theory base: that the input and response variables reflect the individual's standing on some status hierarchies. None of the other three

operationalizations meet this criterion. Therefore, for the purposes of the current research, person-organization fit will be operationalized as the match between individual work expectations and organizational norms (realities).

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The organizational behavior literature has studied the employee attitudes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment to a great extent. However, the terms are often misapplied and/or juxtaposed. This research will take the position of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) in operationalizing job satisfaction and organizational commitment as distinct concepts. Job satisfaction will be measured as the individual's affective response to specific aspects of the job, while organizational commitment will be treated as a more global response to the organization as a whole.

Additionally, organizational commitment has been suggested to exist in multiple states. According to Allen and Meyer (1991), organizational commitment adopts one of three orientations. Normative commitment refers to the individual's (guilt-based) moral obligation to remain with the firm. Affective commitment reflects the employee's emotional attachment to the organization. Continuance commitment implies that the individual is either economically or socially forced to stay in the organization. The current research can be best characterized as an analysis of employee emotions or attitudes in response to a presence or lack of person-organization fit. Furthermore, the related concepts of interest (job satisfaction, escape behaviors, and control behaviors) are affective concepts and/or outcomes of affective concepts. Thus, for consistency in the current

analysis, the concept of organizational commitment will be operationalized using the affective commitment paradigm.

Control and escape behaviors. For the purposes of the current research, control and escape-type coping behaviors will serve as outcomes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and person-organization fit. Though many different types of control and escape behaviors are available as responses to job-related stress, only a few will be considered in the current study. Control behaviors that will be considered will include active, positive responses to stress including seeking additional training, attempts to improve job performance, and constructive complaint behavior intended to elicit a corrective response to job-related stress. Escape behaviors that will be included in the study will be intent to turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness. As noted in Chapter Two, symptom-management strategies will not be considered in the current research, as they seek to delay or ignore rather than attend to job-related stress.

Status traits. According to status inconsistency theory, status traits are the unit of analysis within social comparisons (Lanski, 1954). Status traits are either ascribed to the individual or achieved by the individual during life experiences (Linton, 1938). Within the current research, ascribed and/or achieved status traits will be viewed from an attribution perspective. That is, they will be hypothesized as differentially influencing the relationship between person-organization fit and the control and escape behaviors. Thus, a distinction must be made between status traits that are ascribed and status traits that are achieved.

Linton's (1938) conceptualization of status traits will be employed to make this distinction.

According to Linton (1969), the difference between ascribed and achieved status traits is related to individual ability. Traits that exist in individuals regardless of ability, such as gender or race, are said to be ascribed traits. Conversely, traits that can be developed as abilities, such as education or income, are referred to as achieved traits.

Attribution theory is used to guide the operationalization of the critical status trait construct. As mentioned in Chapter Two, a central facet of attribution theory is the notion of locus of causality. Locus of causality is defined as a key question regarding the location where an attribution is made: either internal or external to the individual making an observation. In order to capture the locus of causality in terms of ascribed and achieved traits, the subjects in the current research are asked to evaluate the influence that a list of common status variables has on their levels of person-organization fit. Status traits will be subjected to Linton's criteria and a judgement made relative to the ascribed or achieved, e.g., internal or external nature.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The operationalization of the study constructs makes possible the specification of research questions and related hypotheses regarding construct relationships. The remainder of Chapter Three examines the proposed relationships depicted in Figure 3-1.

According to the person-organization fit literature, when employees enter a job situation, they have expectations regarding outcomes that will result from their employment (Judge and Ferris, 1992). When employee expectations go unmet, the employee can react in a number of ways. Employers need to understand employee reactions to unmet expectations, i.e., status inconsistencies, so that they can attract, motivate, and retain good workers. Furthermore, the ascribed or achieved nature of the source of a status inconsistency may affect the type of attribution selected by the employee, which is manifested as a coping response. Understanding the differential attributions of achieved and ascribed status traits in moderating the person-organization fit – coping behavior relationship may be beneficial to employers in that some unmet expectations may be avoidable. Therefore, the primary research questions of interest in the current research are the following:

Research Question #1: How are unrealized expectations in the workplace, i.e., lack of person-organization fit, related to employee coping behaviors?

Research Question #2: Do achieved and ascribed status trait attributions differentially impact the relationship between person-organization fit and employee coping behaviors?

In addition to the primary research question, other valuable information can be gained from the examination of the interrelationships between person-organization fit and employee attitudes. Specifically, employers may be interested in better understanding the impact of person-organization fit on employee job satisfaction and commitment, or the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, so that coping responses can be predicted or alleviated. Therefore, three secondary research questions are:

Research Question #3: How is person-organization fit related to employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment?

Research Question #4: How is job satisfaction related to organizational commitment?

Research Question #5: How do job satisfaction and organizational commitment relate to employee coping behaviors?

Formal hypotheses reflecting the research questions are derived below.

Person-organization Fit and Control Behaviors

The current research uses status inconsistency and attribution theories in an attempt to explain the relationship between person-organization fit and selected control and escape-type coping behaviors. Within the current research, the match between the expectations of the individual and the realities supplied by the firm, i.e., the level of person-organization fit, represents a focal status hierarchy comparison. When the individual and the firm are well matched on critical status traits (expectations demanded by the individual and reality supplied by the firm), person-organization fit is said to be high, and no status inconsistency exists. Alternatively, when the individual and the firm are not well matched on critical status traits, a lack of person-organization fit exists, constituting a status inconsistency.

The presence of a status inconsistency, according to status inconsistency theory, causes discomfort or stress in the individual that is met with some sort of coping response (Lanski 1954, 1956; Merton, 1938). However, in the absence of a status inconsistency, no coping response is required. Thus, it can be reasoned that the employee's perception of high person-organization fit alleviates the need

for any sort of behavior that might be employed in an effort to increase the fit. In other words, only when an incongruity between expectations and reality is perceived will an employee attempt to remedy or flee the situation, i.e., employ a control or escape behavior. Therefore, the first two hypotheses are presented:

Hypothesis One: Person-organization fit is negatively associated with control behaviors.

Hypothesis Two: Person-organization fit is negatively associated with escape behaviors.

Status inconsistency theory, applied to person-organization fit, suggests that a lack of realized employee expectations will elicit a coping response from the employee. However, this reaction may differ from situation to situation, depending on the source of misfit between employee expectations and organizational reality. The differential reactions to different sources of person-organization misfit can be explained using attribution theory.

When employees feel that they have not received what was explicitly or implicitly expected from the job situation, they will attempt to identify an explanation (e.g., a status trait) for the discrepancy. Applying attribution theory, when individuals observe their own situations, they ask themselves whether the locus of causality for the situation is internal or external, and may choose differential outcomes or responses in each case. If the individual attributes the discrepancy to a status trait that is internally manageable, i.e., an achieved trait, the individual has recourse. That is, if person-organization fit is lacking due to an achieved status trait, the individual can relieve related job stress by employing a control behavior. For example, if employee is experiencing lack of fit with the

organization attributable to a lack of training, a culture that pressures employees to work long hours, or exclusion from informal social networks, that individual can cope by taking classes, coming to work earlier, or attending informal events such as golf outings and lunches away from the office.

Alternatively, when employees have unmet expectations that can be attributed to status traits that are external and/or unmanageable, i.e., ascribed traits, the individual is left without recourse. In such cases, the individual feels helpless to an external situation, or discriminated against, and therefore cannot cope using a control-type behavior. The coping response available to the individual in such a situation involves avoidance or modification of the source of stress, i.e., an escape behavior. For example, if the employee perceives that his expectations are going unmet as a result of ethnic or gender bias, there is no means by which to address this in a control-type manner. In such a case, the employee might decide, for example, to quit the job altogether, or might respond by withdrawing from the job situation in the form of chronic tardiness or absence.

Thus, the nature of the status trait attributed to causing the discrepancy in the expectation-reality comparison is critical for predicting what types of behavioral outcomes the status-inconsistent individual will enact. In other words, the ascribed or achieved (internal or external) nature of a critical status trait will differentially influence the type of coping behavior selected in response to lack of person-organization fit. This reasoning yields the third hypothesis:

Hypothesis Three: The ascribed/achieved nature of the status trait attributed as the cause of employee misfit will moderate the relationship between person-organization fit and coping behaviors,

such that (a) ascribed traits lead to escape behaviors, and (b) achieved traits lead to control behaviors.

Person-organization Fit and Job Attitudes

A number of studies have related congruency between individuals and their environments with job-related attitudes. Several of these studies have examined the relationship between different types of person-environment fit and individual job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The general premise behind these relationships is intuitive: employees who feel that their expectations of the job situation are being realized will be more fulfilled in terms of their employment relationship and will become loyal/committed to their organizations over time. This premise was verified by Locke (1969), Porter (1961), and Wanous and Lawler (1972), who each suggested that job satisfaction is dependent on the discrepancy between expected and achieved rewards. Other examples of articles justifying these relationships were published by Schneider (1972), who verified these relationships using a large sample of bank employees, and Schneider and Bartlett (1968), who found support for the relationships in an insurance sales context. More recently, Tziner (1987) related person-organization fit with job satisfaction and performance in an industrial worker setting. In all, 21 articles were found in support of the person-organization fit – job satisfaction relationship, while 14 articles were found relating person-organization fit with organizational commitment. The preponderance of this evidence leads to the fourth and fifth hypotheses:

Hypothesis Four: Person-organization fit will be positively associated with job satisfaction.

Hypothesis Five: Person-organization fit will be positively associated with organizational commitment.

Additionally, a large number of studies have shown support for a correlation between job satisfaction and commitment. The basis for this relationship is the logic that a positive emotional state related to the job will cause the individual to want to continue membership in the organization, and that continued membership creates a level of comfort with the organization that leads to enhanced satisfaction (Reichers, 1985). Mathieu and Zajac's (1990) meta-analysis reports that job satisfaction and organizational commitment were significantly correlated at $p < .01$ across 43 studies conducted prior to 1990. Therefore, the sixth hypothesis:

Hypothesis Six: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be positively correlated.

Job Satisfaction and Escape Behaviors

Escape behaviors are most frequently selected when the employee has no other recourse but to flee the stress of the job situation. Actions such as turnover, absenteeism, tardiness, neglect and/or burnout allow the employee to avoid the source of job related stress when no control-type behaviors are available. The organizational literature contains a very large number of studies that describe the relationship between escape behaviors and job satisfaction; in general, the relationships are negative.

The negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover has been verified in a large number of studies. Mobley et al. (1977) note that satisfaction

with the various aspects of the job such as pay, promotion, etc. is strongly related to lack of behaviors and attitudes directed towards leaving the organization. Horn et al. (1992) meta-analyzed this negative relationship, and found a strong negative relationship in all cases as well as overall. Evidence has been uncovered supporting the negative relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism/lateness by Steers and Rhodes (1978). Neglect and burnout, though studied much less frequently in the academic literature, are intuitively inconsistent with job satisfaction. Individuals would seem to be much less likely to neglect their job or become psychologically detached if they maintain a positive emotional state regarding their employment situation.

Thus, it appears that an overall negative relationship will exist between job satisfaction and escape behaviors. This is reflected in the seventh hypothesis:

Hypothesis Seven: Job satisfaction will be negatively associated with escape behaviors.

Organizational Commitment and Control and Escape Behaviors

As employees develop relationships and become familiar with their employers over time, they begin to make decisions regarding continued employment. Organizational commitment reflects the willingness of the employee to maintain the employment relationship in the long-term. When employees possess an attitude of commitment to the relationship, they are unlikely to behave in a manner inconsistent with the health of the organization.

If an employee is placed in a situation of discomfort or stress due to a status inconsistency, theory indicates that the individual will choose a coping

mechanism. However, if that employee is committed to the organization, the coping mechanism chosen will reflect the employee's commitment. In such a case, the employee will want to choose a coping behavior that will reduce the stress in a way that is minimally damaging to, or if possible, supportive of the organization. Therefore, the eighth and ninth hypotheses are presented:

Hypothesis Eight: Organizational commitment will be positively associated with control behaviors.

Hypothesis Nine: Organizational commitment will be negatively associated with escape behaviors.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND MEASUREMENT

The research model presented in Chapter Three depicts a set of proposed interrelationships between the person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, status traits, and coping behaviors of warehouse operations employees. In order to investigate the nature of these relationships, empirical research was undertaken. Chapter Four examines a number of concerns related to the empirical testing of the research model, including the research design, exploratory work, sampling frame, instrumentation and measurement, data collection, and psychometric analysis of the research constructs.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Before the research hypotheses can be empirically tested, three concerns related to the design of the research must be addressed. First, since secondary data measuring the person-organization fit, job attitudes, and coping mechanisms of warehouse employees is not available, a survey method of data accumulation is considered appropriate (Cook and Campbell, 1979). Second, mail surveys are considered to be a risky option for data collection because of the likelihood of extremely low response. Third, warehouse operations employees generally are less educated and, thus, may have difficulty completing a questionnaire. These factors limit the use of written survey instruments. As a

result, scales commonly used to measure key constructs are edited to facilitate understanding among the target group.

The current research is carefully designed to address these main concerns, as well as other common research issues related to psychometrics and measurement. Specifically, primary data have been collected using a personally administered empirical survey questionnaire containing semantically simplified Likert-type scales. A series of steps were taken to insure quality design and data collection. These steps are presented in Table 4-1.

TABLE 4-1 Methodological Procedures and Purposes*	
PROCEDURE	PURPOSE
1. Exploratory interviews, literature review, and initial survey design and pretesting	Helps to determine and measure relevant constructs; improves validity and reliability
2. Survey revision, sample selection, and data collection	Instrument improvement (format, construct validity, and external validity); representativeness
3. Analysis of descriptive statistics for constructs and items	Improvement of reliability
4. Factor analysis and Pearson correlations	Test construct validity; remove factors with inadequate loadings

* Based on the works of the following authors: Dillman, (1978); Churchill, (1979); Cook and Campbell, (1979); Anderson and Gerbing, (1982); Yin, (1984); Eisenhardt, (1988); Eisenhardt and Bourgeois, (1988); Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, (1995).

The steps in Table 4-1 were followed sequentially, in an attempt to achieve the maximum levels of validity, representativeness, and reliability for the research constructs. The remainder of Chapter Four will describe the implementation of each of these steps.

EXPLORATORY WORK

To begin the project, exploratory interviews were conducted with several individuals to determine the nature and importance of the research questions. The persons interviewed included several academics and warehouse managers, and one warehousing consultant. Concurrently, the warehouse employee and organizational behavior literatures were scanned to determine the extent to which the research questions had been previously addressed. From the interviews and the literature search, it was determined that the project has the potential to make an important contribution to the supply chain management knowledge base.

INSTRUMENTATION AND MEASUREMENT

Questionnaire development was performed in several stages, following the procedures suggested by Churchill (1979). First, another more extensive review of the supply chain, warehousing, and organizational literatures was undertaken. Based on this review, an initial set of questions was developed to measure the focal constructs in the study. Following the suggestions of Eisenhardt (1988), more interviews were conducted with academics, managers and workers to assist with construct identification, semantics, and face validity. A number of significant constructs were identified, including person-organization fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, status traits, and coping behaviors, as well as control variables of interest such as gender, age, race, and job position.

After the constructs were identified, seven-point Likert-type scales were developed to operationalize them. (Questions related to the control variables

were written with constrained answer choices or left open ended.) Pre-existing scales were adapted from the literature where practical and applicable, though in some cases, it was necessary to develop new scales. The initial scales were presented to the pool of academics, managers, and workers in order to determine that the scales were meaningful and clear. Modifications were made based on their input, and the scales were placed into a ten-page questionnaire format.

The sample frame, which will be more closely examined later, was thought to include a significant number of Spanish speaking individuals. To insure that the attitudes and feelings of these employees could be accurately measured, it was necessary to develop surveys written in Spanish. Thus, two different versions of the survey were developed, written in both English and Spanish. The Spanish version was created following the back-translation suggestions proposed by Brislin (1983) and Sekaran (1983). Specifically, the English questions were translated by the author into Spanish, and re-translated into English by a professional translator to insure a reasonable amount of functional, conceptual, and metric equivalence. Changes were made following the initial back-translation, and an additional back-translation was done for verification of meaning. Three versions of the survey were made in each language, with the questions placed in a different order in each in order to minimize common method bias and error related to respondent fatigue.

The initial survey instrument was pretested with 112 logistics employees from a total of six different firms. Their input was intended to evaluate survey

length, content, and readability, as well as to provide a barometer for the reliability of the scales. Suggestions made by the pretest subjects were incorporated into the final survey design. Once the questions were finalized, the questionnaire was printed in booklet form per the suggestions of Dillman (1978). A cover page indicating the sponsorship of The University of Oklahoma was placed on the front, and a note of thanks was placed on the back page. Questions were formatted with blank spaces between items and questions to enhance readability.

As previously mentioned, five main constructs were included in the questionnaire. These constructs were measured as described below.

Person-Organization Fit

As mentioned in Chapter Two, person-organization fit has been operationalized in a number of ways in the literature. The current research takes a dual perspective when operationalizing the construct. First, this study approaches person-organization fit from a needs-supplies, supplementary perspective. In other words, this research defines fit as a match between factors that are needed by the individual and supplied by the firm, with the stipulation that fit occurs when the individual's requirements match the firm's supplies rather than complementing them. Second, since this dissertation is mostly concerned with the feelings or attitudes of the individual toward the organizational culture when making the fit assessment, a measure of perceived fit should be employed rather than a measure of bilateral or "true" fit.

The ideal person-organization fit measurement procedures depend on the research questions contained in the study. According to Kristof (1996), there are two options that can be considered when measuring person-organization fit. In the case where a measure of bilateral fit is desired, a commensurate measurement – describing both the person and the organization with the same content dimensions – is required (i.e., Caplan, 1987; Edwards, 1991, 1997; French, Rogers, and Cobb, 1974). Alternatively, in the case where only one perspective on person-organization fit is desired (that of either the person, or the organization, but not both), some authors have elected to use a direct measurement (i.e., Posner, Kouzes, and Schmidt, 1985; Cable and Judge, 1995). Direct measurement involves asking people explicitly whether they believe a good fit exists. Because the current research involves the perception of fit from the perspective of the warehouse operations employee only, and does not include the attitudes of the organization in the fit relationship, a direct measure of person-organization fit is utilized.

Although several direct person-organization fit measures are available for adaptation from the literature, the preexisting measures are limited by two factors. Since the person-organization fit construct, as operationalized here, is a measure of the fit between the attitudes of the individual and the organizational culture, it is necessary to fully understand which types of attitudes are relevant for the current research, and also, what components of the organizational culture influence individual attitudes. The existing direct measures fail to account for these issues, utilizing a unidimensional approach for both the person and

organization components. Thus, a more comprehensive measure of person-organization fit is developed for use in this study.

Individual attitudes, according to Lutz (1991), are multidimensional, and include both affective and cognitive components. The cognitive component of the attitude is composed of the knowledge that is acquired as a result of experience with the attitude object (in this case, the organizational culture). On the other hand, the affective component of the attitude is composed of the individual's emotions or feelings about the attitude object (Lutz, 1991). Thus, the direct measurement of perceived person-organization fit is two-dimensional, capturing knowledge or cognitions related to the organizational culture, as well as feelings and emotions regarding the culture.

The direct person-organization fit measure should also include the various facets of the organizational culture that are perceived by the person as affecting his or her attitudes. According to Schein (1991), the organizational culture is transmitted to employees via three organizational entities: the management/leader, the co-workers of the employee, and the organizational policies, structure, and procedures. It is possible that the employee could possess differential levels of fit with each of these entities. Thus, the direct measurement of person-organization fit included in this study also accounts for the various sources that transmit organizational culture to employees.

In summary, the direct person-organization fit measure used in the current research will include both cognitive and affective attitude components, as well as components reflecting the manager, co-workers, and firm characteristic elements

included in the corporate culture. Therefore, a six-dimensional measure of person-organization fit is used to measure employee perceptions regarding the work environment. These dimensions are called Supervisor-Cognitive Fit, Supervisor-Affective Fit, Coworker-Cognitive Fit, Coworker-Affective Fit, Firm-Cognitive Fit, and Firm-Affective Fit. Six-item measures using seven-point Likert-type scales were developed for each person-organization fit construct. After pretesting, two items were removed from both the Firm-Cognitive Fit and Coworker-Cognitive Fit constructs due to face validity issues. Each of the other fit constructs was allowed to remain as originally written. Cognitive fit scales were anchored as 1 = much worse than I expected, 7 = much better than I expected. Affective fit scales were anchored as 1 = not at all, 7 = extremely. The final scale items for the perceived person-organization fit constructs are presented in Table 4-2.

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment represent two of the most-studied concepts in the organizational literature. As such, each of these constructs has been measured in a large variety of ways, depending on the research context. The current research focuses primarily on the person-organization fit and coping responses of warehouse operations employees, and proposes that job satisfaction and organizational commitment may mediate the fit-response relationship. However, the current study is not concerned with the multidimensionality of the job satisfaction construct, i.e., the different types of satisfaction that may be felt by workers in response to person-organization fit or

Table 4-2

Final Scale Items for Perceived Person-Organization Fit

Think of the expectations you had when you were hired to work for your current company...	
Supervisor-Cognitive Fit	Compared to what you expected, how would you rate your <u>manager</u> in the following areas? (7 point scale: 1 = much worse than I expected, 7 = much better than I expected)
SCF1	As a supervisor
SCF2	As a problem solver
SCF3	As a role model
SCF4	As a teacher
SCF5	Making decisions regarding employees (hiring, firing, promotion, etc.)
SCF6	Handling stressful situations
Supervisor-Affective Fit	Relative to what you expected, how do you feel about your manager? (1 = not at all _____, 7 = extremely _____)
SAFP1	Pleased
SAFPp2	Happy
SAFP3	Content
SAFN1	Bothered
SAFN2	Angry
SAFN3	Mistreated
Co-Worker-Cognitive Fit	Compared to what you expected, how would you rate your <u>co-workers</u> in the following areas? (7 point scale: 1 = much worse than I expected, 7 = much better than I expected)
CCF1	I can confide in them
CCF2	They cooperate with me
CCF3	They give me helpful advice
CCF4	They explain company policies and procedures to me
Co-Worker-Affective Fit	Relative to what you expected, how do you feel about your <u>co-workers</u> ? (1 = not at all _____, 7 = extremely _____)
CAFP1	Pleased
CAFP2	Happy
CAFP3	Content
CAFN1	Bothered
CAFN2	Angry
CAFN3	Mistreated
Company-Cognitive Fit	Compared to what you expected, how would you rate your <u>company</u> in the following areas? (7 point scale: 1 = much worse than I expected, 7 = much better than I expected)
FCF1	The reward/pay systems
FCF2	Work policies and procedures
FCF3	Physical surroundings / work conditions
FCF4	Company "lifestyle" or atmosphere
Company-Affective Fit	Relative to what you expected, how do you feel about your <u>company</u> ? (1 = not at all _____, 7 = extremely _____)
FAFP1	Pleased
FAFP2	Happy
FAFP3	Content
FAFN1	Bothered
FAFN2	Angry
FAFN3	Mistreated

as a prelude to coping responses. Additionally, the length of the more multidimensional satisfaction measures makes them impractical to include in a questionnaire where job satisfaction is not a focal construct. (For example, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire contains nearly one hundred items.) Therefore, a more global measure for job satisfaction was chosen.

The global measure of job satisfaction adapted for the current research is taken from the work of Brayfield and Rothe (1951). Although this five-item measure is somewhat old in terms of publication date, it is still commonly used in top journals in the fields of psychology, marketing, and organizational behavior (see Judge, Bono, and Locke, 2000; Babin and Boles, 1998; Staw and Barsade, 1993) when a global measure is appropriate.

The selected measure of organizational commitment, as mentioned in Chapter Two, is adapted from Allen and Meyer's (1990) affective commitment scale. The Allen and Meyer scale was originally an eight-item, seven-point scale intended to measure the extent of individual attachment to the organization. Based on Allen and Meyer's analysis, which showed that two of the items had very low factor loadings (below the level of .60 proposed by Nunnally, 1967), six items were adapted for the scale used in the current study.

As mentioned before, both scales were slightly adapted in order that they would be more readable and/or comprehensible for the current sample frame. Items for both scales were anchored as 1 = never, 7 = every day. The final scale items for job satisfaction and organizational commitment are shown in Table 4-3.

Table 4-3	
Final Scale Items for Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment	
Think about your overall opinions about your job and your company...	
<u>Job Satisfaction</u>	Indicate how often you have the following feelings or emotions about your job. (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
JOB1	I feel fairly satisfied with my present job
JOB2	I am enthusiastic about my work
JOB3	Each day at work seems like it will never end (reverse scored)
JOB4	I find real enjoyment in my work
JOB5	I consider my job to be rather unpleasant (reverse scored)
<u>Organizational Commitment</u>	Indicate how often you have the following feelings or emotions about your job. (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
ORG1	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career at this company
ORG2	I enjoy discussing my company with outside people
ORG3	I do not feel like "a part of the family" at my company (reverse scored)
ORG4	I do not feel emotionally attached to this company (reverse scored)
ORG5	This company has a great deal of meaning for me
ORG6	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my company (reverse scored)

Coping Behaviors

Six coping behaviors are included in the research model as potential outcomes for lack of person-organization fit. Three of these represent control-type coping behaviors, while three others represent escape-type coping behaviors. Control behaviors measured in the current study include exerting more effort, seeking additional training, and constructive criticism behavior. Since very few measures for these variables were found in the literature, measures were developed following the suggestions of Cook and Campbell (1979) and Eisenhardt (1988). Following pretesting and interviews, each scale consisted of three items, anchored as 1 = never, 7 = every day. The control behavior scales used are presented in Table 4-4. Escape behaviors measured in the current study include intent to turnover, tardiness, and absenteeism. Unlike

Table 4-4	
Final Scale Items for Coping Behaviors - Control	
Think about your behaviors and feelings while at work during the past year.	
<u>Exerting more effort</u>	In the past year, how often have you tried to improve your job situation by doing the following? (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
EFF1	Trying harder at your assigned tasks
EFF2	Working longer hours to get things done
EFF3	Exerting more effort on the job
<u>Seeking additional training</u>	In the past year, how often have you tried to improve your job situation by doing the following? (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
TRAIN1	Seeking additional training related to my specific job
TRAIN2	Learning more about my job through formal or informal information
TRAIN3	Attending job-specific classes
<u>Constructive Criticism Behavior</u>	In the past year, how often have you tried to improve your job situation by doing the following? (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
VOICE1	Voicing my concerns to managers
VOICE2	Providing constructive criticism about my working conditions to someone
VOICE3	Going through "proper channels" to get things changed

control behaviors, a number of scales for these variables were found in the literature. However, these behaviors have almost always been measured in the organizational literature using single item scales. Since one-item scales are generally thought to be unreliable (Hair et al., 1996), multi-item scales were again developed following the suggestions of Cook and Campbell (1979) and Eisenhardt (1988). Following pretesting and interviews, the intent to turnover and tardiness scales consisted of four items, and the absenteeism scale consisted of three items. All escape behavior scales were anchored as 1 = never, 7 = every day. The control behavior scales used are presented in Table 4-5.

Table 4-5	
Final Scale Items for Coping Behaviors - Escape	
Think about your behaviors and feelings while at work during the past year.	
<u>Intent to Turnover</u>	In the past year, how often have you... (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
TURN1	Considered working somewhere else
TURN2	Thought about quitting your job
TURN3	Thought about how nice it would be to work elsewhere
TURN4	Considered employment at another company
<u>Tardiness</u>	In the past year, how often have you ... (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
TARD1	Been warned by a manager because you were late
TARD2	Failed to report for work on time
TARD3	Showed up late to work
TARD4	Arrived at the warehouse after your shift started
<u>Absenteeism</u>	In the past year, how often have you ... (7 point scale: 1 = Never, 7 = Every Day)
ABS1	Been absent from the job because you just didn't feel like going to work
ABS2	Missed a workday for no really good reason
ABS3	Taken a sick day in order to do something more fun

Status Traits

Two types of status traits are included in the research model as potential moderators of the person-organization fit – coping behavior relationship. No comprehensive measure of ascribed and achieved traits was found in the literature; therefore, items were developed. A large pool of ascribed and achieved traits was compiled from a search of the status literature. After showing the list to academics and managers, it was determined that a list of 21 total traits might have value in the current research due to the possibility that they might factor into warehouse job attitudes. The pool of status traits was included in the pretest questionnaire, and following pretesting, was reduced to a list of thirteen viable traits. Five different items were included to represent ascribed status traits, while eight others represent achieved status traits. Scales were included

measuring the extent to which the improvement of each trait would increase the feeling of comfort (i.e., fit) in the workplace. The scales were anchored as 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree. The status trait items are presented in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6	
Final Items for Status Traits	
Think about the characteristics that describe you as a person. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:	
Ascribed Traits	I would feel more comfortable at work if I were: (7 point scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)
ASC1	Older than I am now
ASC2	Physically bigger or taller
ASC3	Of the opposite gender/sex
ASC4	Of another racial or ethnic background
ASC5	Younger than I am now
Achieved Traits	I would feel more comfortable at work if I were: (7 point scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree)
ACH1	More educated
ACH2	In better physical condition
ACH3	A member of a worker's union
ACH4	Better trained at my job
ACH5	A member of the "good ol' boys' network"
ACH6	More experienced at my job
ACH7	With this company for a longer time
ACH8	Someone with more seniority

SAMPLING FRAME

In order to select a sampling frame that would be relevant for the examination of warehouse employee person-organization fit, job attitudes, and coping behaviors, the literatures related to each of these variable types were consulted. Since the purpose of the current study is to examine individual reactions to phenomena in the workplace, rather than workplace-related effects, it was determined from the literature that multiple individuals from a few strategic

business units would be sufficient for the sampling frame. A profile of the companies where employees were surveyed is included in Table 4-7.

Table 4-7 Participating Firm Profiles and Responses				
Firm	Location	Industry	Usable Surveys	Inducement
1	Oklahoma City, OK	3PL	66	\$50
2	Atlanta, GA	3PL	84	\$100
3	Fort Worth, TX	Electronics	224	None
4	Fort Worth, TX	Paper	22	None
5	Dallas, TX	3PL	17	None
6	Oklahoma City, OK	Food	88	\$50
7	Allentown, PA	3PL	166	\$50

DATA COLLECTION

Firms were contacted to solicit participation through key contacts known by the author or by members of the examining committee. The key contact was typically a logistics or human resources manager. Seven of the eleven firms contacted by the author consented to have some or all of their employees included in the study. The seven participating firms were located in four different states, four different industries, and three different geographic regions of the United States. The variance in backgrounds was important for controlling for regional, local, and cultural differences in employee attitudes and perceptions, as well as to enhance demographic variability in responses.

In three of the seven surveyed firms, supervisors told employees that they could use work time to complete the questionnaire if they desired to participate. Employees of the other four firms were told that they could participate if they chose to, but participation was voluntary, and the survey could be completed during their break time or lunch period. In order to enhance the likelihood that

employees in these firms would participate, a cash inducement of \$50 or \$100 was offered via random drawing to a single winner. Since the surveys themselves were completely anonymous, winners were selected by drawing numbers from a hat. This method of response inducement, frequently known as the "lottery" method, was chosen because it is thought to bear a low amount of response bias (James, 1990).

PSYCHOMETRIC ANALYSIS

Empirical research undertaken for the purpose of hypothesis testing and using summated scales requires a number of analyses to insure that measurements (and thus, conclusions) are valid and/or free of bias. Specifically, in order to show relationships between constructs in survey research, it is first necessary to invoke four types of validity, i.e., accuracy in measurement. These include statistical conclusion validity, construct validity, internal validity, and external validity (Cook and Campbell, 1979; Hair et al., 1996; Mentzer and Flint, 1997). Each of these types of validity is composed of a number of subcomponents, and each is susceptible to a number of problems. This section describes the methods used to minimize the potentially harmful effects related to the different types of measurement error.

Statistical Conclusion Validity

Because covariation between the dependent and independent variables is a necessary condition for inferring causality, it is necessary to assess the relatedness of antecedent and outcome variables before attempting to test

causal hypotheses. Statistical conclusion validity refers to inferences about whether it is reasonable to presume covariation given a desired Type I error level and known response variances (Cook and Campbell, 1979). A number of threats exist regarding the inference that two or more variables covary. In the case of the current research, the most serious of these threats include the possibilities of low statistical power, data distribution abnormality, and random heterogeneity of respondents (Cohen, 1970; Cronbach and Snow, 1976).

Cohen (1970, 1977) suggests that studies be designed to achieve alpha levels of at least .05 with power levels of 80%. In order to achieve such power levels, three factors must be considered simultaneously: desired Type I error rate, sample size, and effect size (Hair et al., 1996). In the current research, SOLO statistical software was used to make an *a priori* power calculation, with the conservative assumption that effect sizes would be small (.20), and specifying an alpha of .05. This calculation yielded a recommended sample size of about 350 for power of 80%. Since 667 usable surveys were collected, low power is not considered to be a problem for covariation of variables in the current research.

To assess the normality of the data distribution, the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of each item was computed using SPSS. The results of these calculations are reported in Table 4-8. The variables are listed in the first column. The second and third columns contain the means and standard deviations of each item, and the fourth and fifth columns contain the skewness and kurtosis of each item.

The skewness and kurtosis of the items are of particular interest when assessing the normality of the data distribution. Items were examined individually to determine whether any exceeded the skewness level of 5.0 or the kurtosis level of 2.0 recommended by Kenkel (1989). Though no items were found to be excessively skewed, a total of six items were found to exceed the acceptable kurtosis level of 2.0: TARD1, TARD2, TARD4, ABS1, ABS2, and ABS3. Following the procedure recommended by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1996), a logarithmic transformation of these variables was executed before testing. A post hoc examination of residuals was undertaken following the main analysis; these were found to be normal. Thus, the kurtosis was determined not to have affected the research outcomes.

To insure that the effects of random heterogeneity of respondents were minimized in the study, steps were taken to insure that a reasonable level of homogeneity existed between workers, per Cook and Campbell (1979) and Elashoff (1969). Specifically, workers were selected from only a few warehouses, and participants were only allowed to participate in the study after it was verified that they held very specific job positions (i.e., hourly operations employees performing materials handling and/or transportation functions).

Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to the possibility that the items meant to represent a certain construct might be insufficient to capture the construct's full conceptual meaning (Cook and Campbell, 1979). In this context, constructs should be measured so that they are not underrepresented, i.e., the failure to incorporate all

of their relevant dimensions. Furthermore, they should also not contain “surplus construct irrelevancies,” i.e., items that do not conceptually pertain to the

Table 4-8
Descriptive Statistics of Measured Variables

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
SCF1	4.91	1.67	-.532	-.469	ORG2	3.98	2.26	.039	-1.512
SCF2	4.78	1.67	-.413	-.652	ORG3	3.19*	2.25	.605	-1.177
SCF3	4.53	1.67	-.309	-.615	ORG4	3.03*	2.22	.668	-1.101
SCF4	4.50	1.75	-.303	-.728	ORG5	4.29	2.29	-.183	-1.494
SCF5	4.45	1.80	-.245	-.852	ORG6	3.19*	2.16	.594	-1.107
SCF6	4.64	1.70	-.363	-.646	EFF1	5.65	1.89	-1.301	.339
SAFP1	4.97	1.72	-.659	-.285	EFF2	5.27	2.17	-.166	-1.450
SAFP2	4.99	1.68	-.597	-.342	EFF3	5.63	1.76	-1.235	.364
SAFP3	4.85	1.68	-.469	-.494	TRAIN1	3.87	2.36	.153	-1.601
SAFN1	3.59*	1.87	.071	-1.036	TRAIN2	4.20	2.20	-.056	-1.458
SAFN2	3.26*	1.93	.295	-1.115	TRAIN3	2.44	1.91	1.296	.405
SAFN3	3.37*	2.06	.275	-1.250	VOICE1	3.93	2.09	.145	-1.363
CCF1	4.27	1.65	-.292	-.468	VOICE2	3.58	2.07	.338	-1.235
CCF2	4.79	1.58	-.461	-.357	VOICE3	3.65	2.25	.314	-1.401
CCF3	4.72	1.70	-.393	-.601	TURN1	3.44	2.12	.487	-1.226
CCF4	4.60	1.70	-.262	-.670	TURN2	2.73	1.95	.979	-.376
CAFP1	5.08	1.58	-.583	-.263	TURN3	3.15	2.04	.728	-.849
CAFP2	5.01	1.60	-.651	-.075	TURN4	2.93	2.02	.890	-.586
CAFP3	4.93	1.59	-.429	-.405	TARD1	1.72	1.23	1.974	3.286
CAFN1	3.40*	1.88	.207	-1.070	TARD2	1.94	1.36	1.676	2.307
CAFN2	3.32*	1.88	.220	-1.090	TARD3	1.94	1.22	1.379	1.010
CAFN3	3.36*	1.91	.195	-1.179	TARD4	1.79	1.23	2.007	4.024
FCF1	3.63	1.80	.180	-.884	ABS1	1.75	1.25	1.963	3.320
FCF2	3.78	1.56	.051	-.406	ABS2	1.71	1.23	2.018	3.572
FCF3	4.46	1.56	-.186	-.472	ABS3	1.82	1.25	1.889	3.319
FCF4	4.31	1.60	-.203	-.403	ASC1	3.22	2.15	.953	-.064
FAFP1	4.50	1.79	-.441	-.624	ASC2	3.53	2.26	.657	-.666
FAFP2	4.66	1.73	-.476	-.540	ASC3	3.29	2.44	.805	-.689
FAFP3	4.51	1.71	-.337	-.588	ASC4	3.50	2.49	.649	-.944
FAFN1	3.63*	1.83	.130	-1.018	ASC5	3.74	2.24	.410	-.939
FAFN2	3.44*	1.89	.250	-1.039	ACH1	4.65	2.05	-.304	-.954
FAFN3	3.44*	1.95	.237	-1.113	ACH2	4.34	2.09	.025	-.933
JOB1	5.24	2.03	-.855	-.657	ACH3	4.13	2.36	.131	-1.285
JOB2	5.42	1.83	-1.039	-.017	ACH4	4.28	2.13	-.040	-1.157
JOB3	3.57*	2.09	.286	-1.307	ACH5	3.81	2.38	.498	-1.003
JOB4	5.20	1.92	-.899	-.405	ACH6	4.28	2.10	-.093	-1.144
JOB5	2.80*	1.94	.853	-.561	ACH7	4.22	2.07	.025	-.996
ORG1	3.74	2.48	.222	-1.640	ACH8	4.09	2.18	.154	-1.063

* Reverse scored

construct (Cook and Flay, 1978; Cook and Campbell, 1979). Thus, construct validity is necessary to demonstrate that the researcher is “measuring what is intended to be measured.”

According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1996), a three-step process is required to show construct validity. First, the items in the construct must be shown to have convergent validity, i.e., they should all converge on the same statistical factor. Once convergence is shown, then the construct must also be shown to have reliability, i.e., internal consistency among its measures. Finally, the scale must be shown to have discriminant validity, which implies that each construct should be only slightly correlated to other constructs in the study (Hair et al., 1996).

Convergent validity is shown for each of the constructs using factor analysis with orthogonal rotation. This was especially important for the multiple measures of person-organization fit, which are scales that were developed in the current research to represent six very similar constructs. The factor loadings for the six person-organization fit constructs are included in Table 4-9.

As is shown in Table 4-9, each of the items for each of the six person-organization fit constructs loads on a single factor, which according to DeVellis (1991) serves as adequate evidence of convergent validity. This is a particularly important preliminary finding: the dimensionalization of the person-organization fit construct represents an important step toward supporting the research hypotheses presented in the current research.

A similar examination of convergent validity was also undertaken for the job attitude and coping behavior constructs. The results of this factor analysis are shown in Table 4-10.

Table 4-9 Factor Loadings for Person-Organization Fit Constructs						
Factors	Supervisor-Cognitive Fit	Supervisor-Affective Fit	Coworker-Cognitive Fit	Coworker-Affective Fit	Company-Cognitive Fit	Company-Affective Fit
SCF1	.900	--	--	--	--	--
SCF2	.923	--	--	--	--	--
SCF3	.896	--	--	--	--	--
SCF4	.899	--	--	--	--	--
SCF5	.842	--	--	--	--	--
SCF6	.878	--	--	--	--	--
SAFP1	--	.757	--	--	--	--
SAFP2	--	.746	--	--	--	--
SAFP3	--	.708	--	--	--	--
SAFN1	--	.683	--	--	--	--
SAFN2	--	.712	--	--	--	--
SAFN3	--	.697	--	--	--	--
CCF1	--	--	.872	--	--	--
CCF2	--	--	.917	--	--	--
CCF3	--	--	.931	--	--	--
CCF4	--	--	.852	--	--	--
CAFP1	--	--	--	.734	--	--
CAFP2	--	--	--	.717	--	--
CAFP3	--	--	--	.709	--	--
CAFN1	--	--	--	.733	--	--
CAFN2	--	--	--	.709	--	--
CAFN3	--	--	--	.698	--	--
FCF1	--	--	--	--	.833	--
FCF2	--	--	--	--	.858	--
FCF3	--	--	--	--	.835	--
FCF4	--	--	--	--	.890	--
FAFP1	--	--	--	--	--	.774
FAFP2	--	--	--	--	--	.742
FAFP3	--	--	--	--	--	.739
FAFN1	--	--	--	--	--	.763
FAFN2	--	--	--	--	--	.691
FAFN3	--	--	--	--	--	.667
Eigenvalue	7.132	5.779	2.142	1.853	1.720	3.274
Variance Explained	.233	.181	.068	.058	.050	.127

The factor analysis presented in Table 4-10 provides evidence of convergent validity for six of the eight exogenous constructs. For each of two constructs, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, one item failed to load on its predicted factor (JOB3 and ORG3). Given that each scale would still contain at least four items if the non-loading factors were removed, these items were deleted from their respective scales. It is possible that the current sample frame interpreted the items in a way inconsistent with their intended meanings.

Table 4-10 Factor Loadings for Job Attitude and Coping Behavior Constructs								
Factors	Job Satisfacti on	Organizational Commitment	Exerting More Effort	Seeking Additional Training	Constructive Criticism Behavior	Intent to Turnover	Absentee -ism	Tardiness
JOB1	.749	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
JOB2	.834	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
JOB3	-.559	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
JOB4	.824	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
JOB5	.706	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
ORG1	--	.752	--	--	--	--	--	--
ORG2	--	.678	--	--	--	--	--	--
ORG3	--	-.296	--	--	--	--	--	--
ORG4	--	.533	--	--	--	--	--	--
ORG5	--	.762	--	--	--	--	--	--
ORG6	--	.657	--	--	--	--	--	--
EFF1	--	--	.885	--	--	--	--	--
EFF2	--	--	.737	--	--	--	--	--
EFF3	--	--	.661	--	--	--	--	--
TRAIN1	--	--	--	.848	--	--	--	--
TRAIN2	--	--	--	.743	--	--	--	--
TRAIN3	--	--	--	.813	--	--	--	--
VOICE1	--	--	--	--	.873	--	--	--
VOICE2	--	--	--	--	.873	--	--	--
VOICE3	--	--	--	--	.826	--	--	--
TURN1	--	--	--	--	--	.874	--	--
TURN2	--	--	--	--	--	.876	--	--
TURN3	--	--	--	--	--	.920	--	--
TURN4	--	--	--	--	--	.929	--	--
TARD1	--	--	--	--	--	--	.776	--
TARD2	--	--	--	--	--	--	.895	--
TARD3	--	--	--	--	--	--	.919	--
TARD4	--	--	--	--	--	--	.788	--
ABS1	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.905
ABS2	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.929
ABS3	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	.891
Eigenvalue	1.92	3.57	1.02	1.09	1.44	7.311	1.38	3.985
Variance Explained	.062	.115	.029	.035	.046	.235	.039	.128

In order to further insure that construct validity requirements are met, coefficient alpha was computed for each construct to assess scale reliability. This is necessary because low reliability results in inflation of standard errors of estimates (Toothaker, 1995). In Tables 4-11 and 4-12, the scale variables are listed in the first column. The second column contains an item-to-total correlation, and the third column indicates the reliability of each scale if the

specified item were to be deleted. The fourth column, the coefficient alpha, represents the construct reliability with all remaining items included.

Table 4-11			
Item-to-total Statistics for Person-Organization Fit Constructs			
	Item-to-total correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Overall scale alpha
SCF1	.851	.935	.947
SCF2	.883	.931	
SCF3	.846	.935	
SCF4	.849	.935	
SCF5	.776	.944	
SCF6	.821	.938	
SAFP1	.573	.765	.801
SAFP2	.573	.765	
SAFP3	.602	.758	
SAFN1	.554	.770	
SAFN2	.504	.780	
SAFN3	.534	.776	
CCF1	.771	.901	.915
CCF2	.842	.877	
CCF3	.868	.867	
CCF4	.745	.911	
CAFP1	.545	.776	.803
CAFP2	.617	.759	
CAFP3	.608	.761	
CAFN1	.537	.778	
CAFN2	.508	.784	
CAFN3	.553	.775	
FCF1	.703	.854	.874
FCF2	.741	.835	
FCF3	.702	.850	
FCF4	.786	.817	
FAFP1	.616	.784	.820
FAFP2	.633	.780	
FAFP3	.628	.781	
FAFN1	.604	.787	
FAFN2	.516	.805	
FAFN3	.515	.807	

The reliability analyses presented in Table 4-11 indicate a very high level of internal consistency for each of the six person-organization fit constructs. Each of the six constructs were found to have alpha in excess of the .600 level suggested by Nunnally (1967) as the minimally acceptable standard. Since the scale did not include an unusually large number of items, the alpha coefficients

for the person-organization fit constructs were accepted as evidence of scale reliability. A similar reliability analysis, presented in Table 4-12, was undertaken to examine the internal consistency of the exogenous constructs.

Table 4-12
Item-to-total Statistics for Job Attitude and Coping Behavior Constructs

	Item-to-total correlation	Alpha if item deleted	Overall scale alpha
JOB1	.542	.748	.783
JOB2	.663	.770	
JOB4	.656	.710	
JOB5	.553	.744	
ORG1	.442	.566	.649
ORG2	.355	.610	
ORG4	.421	.577	
ORG5	.450	.564	
ORG6	.337	.607	
EFF1	.676	.583	.760
EFF2	.591	.713	
EFF3	.633	.643	
TRAIN1	.603	.559	.733
TRAIN2	.570	.601	
TRAIN3	.472	.716	
VOICE1	.695	.724	.828
VOICE2	.696	.725	
VOICE3	.624	.833	
TURN1	.778	.911	.921
TURN2	.780	.909	
TURN3	.850	.886	
TURN4	.864	.881	
TARD1	.620	.888	.868
TARD2	.791	.798	
TARD3	.835	.781	
TARD4	.634	.862	
ABS1	.782	.856	.894
ABS2	.832	.813	
ABS3	.759	.875	

Again, each of the scales possessed coefficient alphas well in excess of Nunnally's prescribed acceptable minimum standard. However, in two cases (VOICE3 and TARD4) the scale alpha would improve if the item in question were to be deleted from the scale. Given that the incremental scale improvements that

would result from the deletion of these items is very small, and the deletion would come at the expense of degrees of freedom, the decision was made to allow the two items to remain in the scales.

To complete the examination of construct validity for the measures included in the study, correlation analyses were conducted in an attempt to show discriminant validity. The correlations between the person-organization fit constructs are shown in Table 4-13; correlations between the exogenous job attitude and coping behavior constructs are included in Table 4-14.

The assessment of discriminant validity took place in two stages. First, the procedure advocated by Gaski and Nevin (1985) was implemented, whereby a correlation between two scales that is lower than the reliability of each of those scales serves as evidence of discriminant validity. As shown in Tables 4-11 through 4-14, all scales had reliability estimates in excess of the between-scales correlations. Second, Anderson and Gerbing's (1987) method was utilized to determine that the confidence interval (± 2 standard errors) for each pairwise correlation estimate between constructs did not include the value of one. The scale for each construct also passed this test. Thus, discriminant validity is not considered to be a problem.

According to Cook and Campbell (1979), a number of potential impediments to construct validity can occur during the course of a research project. For survey research, two concerns are of particular interest: mono-operation bias, and mono-method bias.

Table 4-13 Correlation Matrix for Person-Organization Fit Constructs						
	Supervisor-Cognitive Fit	Supervisor-Affective Fit	Coworker-Cognitive Fit	Coworker-Affective Fit	Company-Cognitive Fit	Company-Affective Fit
Supervisor-Cognitive Fit	—	.				
Supervisor-Affective Fit	.635*	—				
Coworker-Cognitive Fit	.518*	.314*	—			
Coworker-Affective Fit	.326*	.499*	.523*	—		
Company-Cognitive Fit	.472*	.295*	.312*	.165*	—	
Company-Affective Fit	.381*	.506*	.233*	.377*	.638*	—

* Significant at $p < .05$

Table 4-14 Correlation Matrix for Job Attitude and Coping Behavior Constructs								
	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Commitment	Exerting More Effort	Seeking Additional Training	Constructive Criticism Behavior	Intent to Turnover	Absenteeism	Tardiness
Job Satisfaction	—							
Organizational Commitment	.586*	—						
Exerting More Effort	.212*	.227*	—					
Seeking Additional Training	.190*	.165*	.469*	—				
Constructive Criticism Behavior	-.078	-.052	.300*	.430*	—			
Intent to Turnover	-.554*	-.516*	-.080*	-.055	-.188*	—		
Absenteeism	-.181*	-.157*	-.110*	.004	.057	.400*	—	
Tardiness	-.159*	-.137*	-.061	-.032	.007	.342*	.694*	—

* Significant at $p < .05$

Mono-operation bias occurs when constructs are underrepresented due to the use of a single item scale. In most cases, the use of single-item scales compromises the validity of research results by the assumption that the single

operant is a perfect representation of the concept being studied – this is rarely the case. Mono-operation bias was avoided through the use of multi-item scales. Each scale implemented contained enough items from the outset that a few could be deleted for various reasons without reducing the scale to a single item.

Mono-method bias implies that the research instrument itself might include bias factors that would skew the results of data collection. Cook and Campbell (1979) offer a number of solutions for minimizing this type of error. In the current research, mono-method bias was controlled by offering questions in different orders, using reverse scaled questions, and by varying wording from positive to negative.

Internal Validity

Internal validity, according to Mentzer and Flint (1997), provides evidence of causal relationships. Since the research questions presented in the current study are causal in nature, the potential for causal relationships must be shown before testing can commence. To do this, plausible rival hypotheses must first be refuted. Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991) have classified internal validity/rival hypothesis problems as falling into four categories: history, maturation, instrumentation, and non-response.

History biases to internal validity are the result of changing conditions in the environment during the course of the study. In particular, history bias becomes a problem when the responses of the sample frame change dramatically over the course of the research project due to some outside influence that is related to the key study variables. In such cases, late

respondents and early respondents might provide different responses to questions based simply on the external change. Mentzer and Flint (1997) note that history bias is easily overcome by completing studies within a narrow and reasonable amount of time, and through analysis intended to insure that late and early responses do not differ significantly. The current research guarded against history bias by completing the entire survey process within a three-month period. T-Tests for differences in means were also used to compare the first 25% and last 25% of responses on all survey items. No differences in means were found. Thus, history bias is not considered to be a problem in the current research.

The second problem related to internal validity takes the form of maturation bias. Maturation bias occurs when the sample frame “matures” in terms of knowledge of the specific research process that they are being subjected to. If subjects are repeatedly exposed to questionnaires and/or treatments, they tend to develop preconceived notions regarding the research process, which influences the manner with which they will respond to the experiment. Because warehouse operations employees have rarely been designated as subjects in empirical academic research, maturation bias was not considered to be a problem in the current study.

Internal validity problems have also been proposed to occur as a result of improper instrumentation, i.e., questionnaire development. To minimize the multitude of problems that are associated with faulty questionnaires, specific procedures were adopted and followed from Churchill (1979), and DeVellis (1991). These authors are leading authorities regarding questionnaire design.

Their prescriptions were adhered to wherever possible during the course of the study.

Finally, internal validity was evidenced through a thorough analysis of non-response bias. Wave analysis was performed per the suggestions of Armstrong and Overton on all items included in the survey. No significant differences were found. Hence, non-response bias is not considered to be a problem.

External Validity

External validity has been defined as the degree to which research findings can be generalized to the population (Lynch, 1982). Thus, for the current research to make a true contribution to the supply chain knowledge base, showing that the research possesses external validity is a necessity. External validity is embodied in three ideas: statistical generalizability, conceptual replicability, and realism (Mentzer and Flint, 1997). Unfortunately, external validity can only be evidenced following the passing of time and/or other research efforts. Mentzer and Flint note that:

Within any one study, we can only address statistical generalizability by not drawing any conclusions beyond the scope of (the current) sample...the only way to add to (the) certainty is to have others replicate the study...(though) the issue of realism can partially be addressed through careful theory development and sample selection...(1997, p. 210)

Thus, the true test of external validity for the current research will come in the form of subsequent research in the field of supply chain management.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS

The first four chapters of this dissertation developed a research model and outlined the research process used to collect data used in testing the model. Chapter Five presents the results of statistical analyses that are used to evaluate the research model. First, a detailed descriptive profile of the responses and respondents is provided and summarized. Then, linear regression and Pearson correlation analyses are used to evaluate the hypothesized relationships between constructs. The results of testing are then summarized.

RESPONSES AND RESPONDENT PROFILES

As mentioned in Chapter Four, the questionnaire was administered to warehouse operations employees working in several warehouses in different geographic regions of the United States. A total of 726 surveys were given to employees for completion. Of that number, 684 were returned. After an initial analysis of the returned responses, it was determined that 17 had excessive missing values and/or were left entirely blank. Thus, a total of 667 responses were determined to be usable for the purposes of the current research. This represented an overall response rate of 91.87%. Breakdowns of the responses by firm are included in Table 5-1.

A number of items were included in the survey as control variables. From these items, characteristic profiles of the respondents can be constructed.

Demographic control information was collected relating to the respondents' gender, age, racial/ethnic background, and formal education levels.

Table 5-1: Responses and Response Rates				
Firm	Surveys Distributed	Surveys Returned	Usable Responses	Response Rate*
1	72	66	66	91.67%
2	85	84	84	98.82%
3	228	228	224	96.05%
4	23	23	22	100.0%
5	17	17	17	100.0%
6	117	95	88	78.63%
7	184	171	166	90.22%
Totals	726	684	667	91.87%

* Calculated as Usable Responses/Surveys Offered

Other control information collected included items related to union membership, job experience (both in the current firm and overall warehousing experience), typical work shift, and typical work status (full-time, part-time, or summer/holiday/temp). A summary of the demographic control information is included in Table 5-2. A summary of the work-related control information is included in Table 5-3.

As shown in Table 5-2, the majority of the respondents are male (74.06%). Only about one-fifth (20.53%) of the respondents are female (about 5% did not respond). This is not a surprising distribution; Mississippi State University's (1999) research indicates that nearly 73% of warehouse operations employees, on average, are male. The average age of the respondents is 36.33 years, with the majority of respondents (71%) being between the ages of 25 and 54. Again, these statistics are somewhat parallel to those found by Mississippi State

University, which found an average age of 38 years and a 95% of employees aged between 19 and 60.

Table 5-2: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage*
Gender		
Male	494	74.06
Female	137	20.53
No response	36	5.41
Age		
Under 25	118	17.69
25-34	188	28.18
35-44	149	22.33
45-54	131	19.64
Over 54	51	7.65
No response	30	4.51
Race/Ethnicity		
White	291	43.62
Black	124	18.59
Hispanic	89	13.34
Asian	72	10.79
Other	39	5.84
No response	52	7.82
Formal Education		
Some high school	77	11.53
High school diploma	294	44.73
Some college	196	29.38
College degree	56	8.39
Other	5	0.07
No response	39	5.89

*Within-variable percentages may not add to 100.00% due to rounding.

The ethnic composition of the response frame, presented in Table 5-2, is thought to be a function of the geographic locations sampled. Over 43% of the respondents were white; 18% were black. Significant percentages of the sample

frame identified themselves as being of Hispanic (13%) or Asian (11%) descent. However, the racial distributions were generally concentrated according to the area of the United States and/or the location of the warehouse relative to the nearest large city, e.g., there were more blacks in urban areas than in rural areas, and more Hispanics in the southwestern states than in the northeast.

Overall, the sample frame was a moderately well educated group. About 12% had less than a high school diploma and nearly 38% had attended at least some college, with over 8% having attained a college degree.

The analysis of the work-related control information included in Table 5-3 indicates that the sample frame represents a generally non-union, relatively inexperienced group. Only about 10% of the sample were union members, and most (56%) have held warehousing jobs for a total of less than 5 years. Only about 12% have worked in the warehousing industry for more than 10 years. Furthermore, over 45% have been with their current company for less than 2 years. These statistics provide some evidence that warehouse operations employees turn over relatively frequently, and probably work in other industries besides warehousing during the course of their careers.

Other data were collected to determine how often and when employees work in the warehouse. The majority of workers work full-time and on the early shift at their facility (though it is possible that some work on more than one or rotating shifts). Less than one-fifth of the respondents indicated that they are part-time, temporary, holiday, or summer job holders, and less than half work on evening or overnight shifts at their facilities.

In summary, the typical warehouse operations employee responding to the research questionnaire is male, white, and approximately 36 years old. He is

Table 5-3: Work-related Characteristics of Respondents		
Variable	Frequency	Percentage*
Union Membership		
Member	68	10.19
Non-Member	533	79.91
No response	66	9.90
Job Experience – Firm		
0-2 years	303	45.42
3-5 years	189	28.33
5-10 years	90	13.49
11+ years	27	4.04
No response	58	8.69
Job Experience – Total		
0-2 years	237	35.53
3-5 years	152	22.78
5-10 years	145	21.74
11+ years	78	11.69
No response	55	8.24
Work Shift**		
Early	336	**
Evening	201	**
Overnight	82	**
Work Status		
Full-time	438	65.56
Part-time	111	16.64
Summer/holiday/temp	67	10.04
No response	51	7.65

*Within-variable percentages may not add to 100% due to non-response.

** Multiple responses were allowed

probably a high school graduate, with a good chance that he has completed at least some college. He is likely to hold a full-time position, but has been at his

current firm for a relatively short time, has only a few years experience in the warehousing industry, and is probably not a member of a worker's union.

The remainder of Chapter Five will be devoted to the testing of the research hypotheses related to the person-organization fit, job attitudes, and coping behaviors of warehouse operations employees detailed in the previous chapters.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

In Chapters One through Four, a total of nine research hypotheses were developed. The hypotheses were primarily concerned with assessing the relationships between person-organization fit, job attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment), and potential coping behaviors in response to a lack of person-organization fit. The possibility that the ascribed or achieved nature of a critical status trait may moderate the relationship between person-organization fit and the coping behaviors is also examined. The first three hypotheses represent relationships that are unique to this study (have not been previously tested). As such, they represent new contributions to the literature. The last six hypotheses seek to reconfirm previous findings. A review of the research hypotheses and variable relationships is presented in Table 5-4.

The first two hypotheses predict that person-organization fit will be negatively related to control-type and escape-type coping behaviors. In other words, it is anticipated that the presence of person-organization fit will limit fit-related stress in the employee, and thus will not require either a positive or negative coping responses to "correct" the stress. Regression analysis was used

to test these hypotheses. Since person-organization fit was measured as a six-dimensional construct, and there are three each of the control –type and escape-type coping responses being considered in the current study, a total of

Table 5-4: Review of Research Hypotheses			
Hypothesis	Variable Relationships Tested		
H1: Person-organization fit is negatively associated with control behaviors.	SCFSUM SAFSUM CCFSUM CAFSUM FCFSUM FAFSUM	→ (-)	VOICESUM EFFSUM TRAINSUM
H2: Person-organization fit is negatively associated with escape behaviors.	SCFSUM SAFSUM CCFSUM CAFSUM FCFSUM FAFSUM	→ (-)	TURNSUM ABSSUM TARDSUM
H3: The ascribed or achieved nature of the status trait attributed as the cause of employee misfit will moderate the relationship between person-organization fit and coping behaviors, such that (a) ascribed traits lead to escape behaviors and (b) achieved traits lead to control behaviors.	SCFSUM SAFSUM CCFSUM CAFSUM FCFSUM FAFSUM	→ (+/-) ↑ STATUS	VOICESUM EFFSUM TRAINSUM TURNSUM ABSSUM TARDSUM
H4: Person-organization fit will be positively associated with job satisfaction.	SCFSUM SAFSUM CCFSUM CAFSUM FCFSUM FAFSUM	→ (+)	SATSUM
H5: Person-organization fit will be positively associated with organizational commitment.	SCFSUM SAFSUM CCFSUM CAFSUM FCFSUM FAFSUM	→ (+)	ORGSUM
H6: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be positively correlated.	JOBSUM	↔ (+)	ORGSUM
H7: Job satisfaction will be negatively associated with escape behaviors.	JOBSUM	→ (-)	TURNSUM ABSSUM TARDSUM
H8: Organizational commitment will be positively associated with control behaviors.	ORGSUM	→ (+)	VOICESUM EFFSUM TRAINSUM
H9: Organizational commitment will be negatively associated with escape behaviors.	ORGSUM	→ (-)	TURNSUM ABSSUM TARDSUM

eighteen (6 x 3) regression equations were estimated to test each of the first two hypotheses. Results for Hypothesis One are presented in Table 5-5; results for Hypothesis Two are presented in Table 5-6.

Table 5-5: Regression Results for Hypothesis One			
Independent Variable	Increased Effort	Seeking Training	Constructive Criticism
Supervisor-cognitive Fit	.009*	.004*	.001
Supervisor-affective Fit	.008*	.002*	.004
Coworker-cognitive Fit	.007*	.007*	.003
Coworker-affective Fit	.002	.002	.002
Firm-cognitive Fit	.009*	.104*	.008*
Firm-affective Fit	.008*	.003*	.007*
F	5.12*	1.81**	2.92*
R ²	.059	.028	.033

*p < .05, ** p < .10

The regression results shown in Table 5-5 fail to support the negative relationship between person-organization fit and control behaviors relationships proposed by Hypothesis One. In fact, the regression results indicate a strongly positive relationship between person-organization fit and control behaviors. Twelve of the eighteen estimated equations indicate a significant and positive relationship between a person-organization fit dimension and a control-type coping behavior. Based on the testing, three results appear noteworthy. First, the tests indicate that coworker-affective fit does not significantly influence any of the control-type behaviors. It appears that the feelings that employees have regarding their coworkers do not matter when they consider options related to self-improvement, i.e., the removal of achievement-related stress. Second, it also appears that only the dimensions of person-organization fit that are firm-level

dimensions (firm-cognitive fit and firm-affective fit) are significant predictors of constructive criticism. This may indicate that employees are more willing to offer opinions when the source of their fit-related stress is impersonal, i.e., related to company policies and procedures, rather than personal (related to their supervisor or coworkers).

Finally, and most importantly, it appears that the absence of person-organization fit is not required for an employee to enact a control behavior. The results indicate that employees are enacting control behaviors as a consequence of a presence of fit rather than the lack thereof. Though this result is inconsistent with the theory base, it may indicate that employees who are pleased with their fit with the manager, coworker, and/or firm itself may be more willing to take steps to further improve their own standing in the organization than would those who perceive that they do not possess similar fit. In other words, employees who perceive person-organization fit may conclude that the organization is a desirable workplace, and is worth the effort required to improve their personal performance.

The results presented in Table 5-6 indicate that strong support ($p < .05$) was found for Hypothesis Two. In sixteen of the eighteen specified relationships, person-organization fit was a significant negative predictor of escape-type coping

Table 5-6: Regression Results for Hypothesis Two			
Independent Variable	Intent to Turnover	Absenteeism	Tardiness
Supervisor-cognitive Fit	-.327*	-.003*	-.005*
Supervisor-affective Fit	-.209*	-.005*	-.007*
Coworker-cognitive Fit	-.162*	-.007	-.003
Coworker-affective Fit	-.009*	-.004*	-.005*
Firm-cognitive Fit	-.619*	-.005*	-.008*
Firm-affective Fit	-.419*	-.008*	-.004*
F	35.27*	5.07*	3.75*
R ²	.289	.055	.041

*p < .05

behaviors. Only for the linkages between coworker-cognitive fit and absenteeism, and between coworker-cognitive fit and tardiness, are the hypothesized relationships not significant in the negative direction. These results seem to indicate that the belief that coworkers are helpful or cooperative is not sufficient to positively influence/reduce absenteeism or tardiness behaviors, or similarly, that the inability to rely on coworkers does not significantly enhance the chances of the employee choosing to be absent or tardy. However, based upon the F and R² statistics, it does appear that a highly significant amount of variance in all three of the escape-type behaviors is explained by person-organization fit.

Hypothesis Three predicts the presence of an interaction effect moderating the relationship person-organization fit and coping behaviors. Specifically, it is hypothesized that the type of coping response chosen (control or escape) in response to misfit will depend on the attributional nature of the perceived source of employee stress (ascribed or achieved). Thus, a lack of person-organization fit will be positively associated with control behaviors when

the individual attributes misfit to achieved traits, and will be positively associated with escape behaviors when the individual attributes misfit to ascribed traits.

Moderated regression, following the suggestions laid out by Stone and Hollenbeck (1992), was used to test the third hypothesis. A moderator index for status traits was calculated by summing the standardized z-scores of the 5-item ascribed traits scale and the 8-item achieved traits scale. To detect the moderation effect, each of the antecedent person-organization fit variables was first independently regressed onto each of the six coping outcomes in a standard linear expression ($Y = b_0 + b_1X$). Then, each equation was re-estimated including a moderator variable, which took the form of the cross-product of the independent variable and the moderator index ($Y = b_0 + b_1X + b_2XZ$). Finally, changes in R^2 between the simple and revised models were assessed to determine if significant increases in explained variance occurred as a result of the inclusion of the moderation effect.

The results of the simple and moderated regression analyses are included in Table 5-7. The results indicate partial support for Hypothesis Three. A total of 28 of the 36 proposed relationships between the six person-organization fit constructs and the six coping outcomes experienced significant increases in R^2 as a result of the inclusion of the moderator variable. Interestingly, all eight of the non-significant moderation effects were found in models where the outcome was a control behavior. This seems to indicate that employees that perceive their stress to be due to an ascribed trait are more likely to react (in a destructive manner) than are employees that perceive their stress to be attributable to an

Table 5-7: Moderated Regression Results for Hypothesis Three												
Variable(s) Entered	Intent to Turnover		Absenteeism		Tardiness		Increased Effort		Seeking Training		Constructive Criticism	
	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2	R^2	ΔR^2
SCFSUM	.10		.00		.01		.03		.00		.00	
SCFSUM x STATUS	.11	.01**	.01	.01**	.02	.01**	.04	.01*	.01	.00**	.00	.00
SAFSUM	.04		.01		.01		.01		.00		.00	
SAFSUM x STATUS	.06	.02*	.02	.01**	.02	.01*	.02	.01*	.01	.01**	.00	.00
CCFSUM	.01		.00		.00		.01		.00		.00	
CCFSUM x STATUS	.03	.02*	.01	.01*	.01	.01*	.01	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00
CAFSUM	.00		.01		.00		.00		.00		.00	
CAFSUM x STATUS	.02	.02*	.02	.01*	.02	.02*	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
FCFSUM	.20		.00		.00		.01		.01		.00	
FCFSUM x STATUS	.22	.02*	.02	.02*	.02	.02*	.02	.01**	.02	.01**	.01	.01**
FAFSUM	.20		.04		.02		.01		.00		.01	
FAFSUM x STATUS	.21	.01*	.05	.01*	.03	.01**	.02	.01**	.01	.01**	.02	.01**

*p < .05, ** p < .10

achieved trait (in a proactive manner). Also, it is noteworthy that six of the eight non-significant relationships included a coworker fit antecedent (coworker-cognitive fit or coworker-affective fit) and a control behavior. This may indicate that employees view coworker-related misfit as “curable” when it is attributed to achieved traits, and as “incurable” when the coworker misfit is related to ascribed traits. Or, in other words, coworker-related misfit appears to elicit a coping

response only when the source of the misfit is something that the employee can do nothing about.

Hypotheses Four and Five predict that person-organization fit will be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Each of the six person-organization fit constructs was regressed on the job satisfaction and organizational commitment summary variables. The results of these analyses are presented in Tables 5-8 and 5-9, respectively.

Table 5-8: Regression Results for Hypothesis Four	
Independent Variable	Job Satisfaction
Supervisor-cognitive Fit	.225*
Supervisor-affective Fit	.200*
Coworker-cognitive Fit	.219*
Coworker-affective Fit	.154*
Firm-cognitive Fit	.509*
Firm-affective Fit	.350*
F	29.81*
R ²	.265

*p < .05

Table 5-9: Regression Results for Hypothesis Five	
Independent Variable	Organizational Commitment
Supervisor-cognitive Fit	.290*
Supervisor-affective Fit	.193*
Coworker-cognitive Fit	.289*
Coworker-affective Fit	.112*
Firm-cognitive Fit	.668*
Firm-affective Fit	.444*
F	43.61*
R ²	.336

*p < .05

As is shown in the tables, person-organization fit is a highly significant predictor of both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. All six of the person-organization fit measures were found to significantly predict both job attitudes ($p < .05$). Additionally, the F-values indicate high overall significance, and variance explained for each multiple regression is also quite high. Thus, the data strongly support both Hypothesis Four and Hypothesis Five.

Similarly, Hypothesis Six proposes that job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be significantly correlated. The results of the Pearson correlation analysis conducted in Chapter Four are relevant for testing this hypothesis. Table 4-14 presented the inter-correlations between the study's main constructs in an attempt to verify discriminant validity. Although discriminant validity was shown between the job satisfaction and organizational commitment constructs, the Pearson coefficient (.586) was highly significant ($p < .05$). From this analysis, we can deduce that although job satisfaction and organizational commitment represent different ideas, they are strongly correlated in the current context. Hypothesis Six is strongly supported.

Hypotheses Seven, Eight, and Nine propose relationships between the job satisfaction and organizational commitment constructs, and the control and escape-type coping behaviors. These hypotheses were tested using linear regression. The results of the tests are presented in Tables 5-10, 5-11, and 5-12, respectively.

Hypothesis Seven proposes that there will be a negative association between job satisfaction and the escape-type coping outcomes. As is illustrated

in Table 5-10, job satisfaction has a highly significant negative association ($p < .05$) with turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness. These results provide strong support for Hypothesis Seven.

Table 5-10: Regression Results for Hypothesis Seven			
Independent Variable	Intent to Turnover	Absenteeism	Tardiness
Job Satisfaction	-.633*	-.009*	-.004*
F	218.5*	17.94*	15.19*
R ²	.271	.029	.025

* $p < .05$

Hypothesis Eight predicts that organizational commitment will be positively associated with each of the control-type coping behaviors. Table 5-11 shows the results of the regression analysis testing this hypothesis. The results are as predicted; organizational commitment was found to be a strong significant predictor ($p < .05$) of increased effort and seeking training. Organizational commitment was also a predictor of constructive criticism to a lesser extent ($p < .10$). Thus, Hypothesis Eight is supported.

Table 5-11: Regression Results for Hypothesis Eight			
Independent Variable	Increased Effort	Seeking Training	Constructive Criticism
Organizational Commitment	.145*	.117*	.004**
F	31.83*	17.75*	2.70**
R ²	.056	.029	.015

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .10$

Hypothesis Nine predicts that organizational commitment will be negatively associated with escape-type coping behaviors. The results presented in Table 5-12 support this hypothesis. Organizational commitment was found to have a highly significant negative relationship with intent to turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness. Thus, Hypothesis Nine is strongly supported.

Table 5-12: Regression Results for Hypothesis Nine			
Independent Variable	Intent to Turnover	Absenteeism	Tardiness
Organizational Commitment	-.526*	-.134*	-.123*
F	231.93*	11.16*	9.46*
R ²	.277	.018	.015

*p < .05

SUMMARY

In chapters One through Four, a total of nine research hypotheses were developed to construct the research model. The results of hypothesis testing are summarized in Table 5-13.

As previously mentioned, the first three hypotheses represent previously untested linkages, while the last six hypotheses seek to replicate previously proposed relationships. As expected, the six replicated hypotheses were supported; five out of the six were supported strongly. Of the three hypotheses that were new in the current study, one was not supported. Hypothesis One proposed that warehouse employee person-organization fit will be negatively associated with control-type coping behaviors. The data did not support this

assertion. In fact, a very strong positive association was found between person-organization fit and control behaviors for twelve of the eighteen tested paths. Hypothesis Two was strongly supported. Hypothesis Two proposed that warehouse employee person-organization fit is negatively associated with escape-type coping behaviors. Sixteen of the eighteen tested paths were significant to $p < .05$. Hypothesis Three was partially supported. Hypothesis Three proposed a moderating effect of status traits on the relationship between warehouse employee person-organization fit and both types of coping behaviors. Twenty-eight of thirty-six regressions showed a significant increase ($p < .10$) in R^2 when the moderator was included.

Table 5-13: Results of Testing	
Hypothesis	Test Results
H1: Person-organization fit is negatively associated with control behaviors.	Not Supported
H2: Person-organization fit is negatively associated with escape behaviors.	Strongly Supported
H3: The ascribed or achieved nature of the status trait attributed as the cause of employee misfit will moderate the relationship between person-organization fit and coping behaviors, such that (a) ascribed traits lead to escape behaviors and (b) achieved traits lead to control behaviors.	Partially Supported (28 of 36 relationships significant to at least $p < .10$)
H4: Person-organization fit will be positively associated with job satisfaction.	Strongly Supported
H5: Person-organization fit will be positively associated with organizational commitment.	Strongly Supported
H6: Job satisfaction and organizational commitment will be positively correlated.	Strongly Supported
H7: Job satisfaction will be negatively associated with escape behaviors.	Strongly Supported
H8: Organizational commitment will be positively associated with control behaviors.	Supported
H9: Organizational commitment will be negatively associated with escape behaviors.	Strongly Supported

The results of hypothesis testing, particularly for the three initial hypotheses, have important implications for warehouse managers, distribution managers, logistics executives, as well as academics that perform supply chain and/or organizational research. These implications are discussed in detail in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

This dissertation has proposed and analyzed a research model related to the person-organization fit of warehouse operations employees, including several outcomes related to the presence and/or lack of fit between the individual and the warehouse organization. Chapter Six completes the dissertation by discussing the results of the study's analyses. Conclusions for research and practice, including future research avenues, are discussed. Limitations of the current research are also presented.

CONCLUSIONS FOR RESEARCH

Academic research conclusions can be drawn related to two different areas. First, issues related to the measurement of constructs are addressed. Then, the findings of the empirical analyses are discussed.

Measurement Issues

A total of sixteen measurement scales were used in the current research. All of the scales, with the exception of the job satisfaction and organizational commitment measures, were developed specifically for this study. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment were measured using pre-existing scales. Almost all of the included scale items loaded on their anticipated factors and exhibited the necessary level of reliability. Those items that failed to load as anticipated were removed.

Three conclusions related to the newly developed measurement scales are important for future academic research. First, the six-dimensional perceived person-organization measure developed in the current study represents an improvement over the unidimensional measures used in the past. Previous measures of person-organization fit have assumed that the individual forms an overall perception of congruence with the organization, and that this perception forms a holistic basis for coping reactions, job attitudes, etc. However, based on this research, it appears that person-organization fit may occur in several different “types” based on the differences between organizational and psychological influences, and that differential outcomes may result from various operationalizations of perceived fit. This may represent a valuable finding for organizational research. The dimensionalization of the fit variable will allow specific sources of misfit to be isolated, and thus, more specific outcomes of misfit-related problems in the workplace can be hypothesized.

Second, the three items related to the control-type coping behaviors are thought to be the first scale developed to measure increased effort, seeking additional training, and constructive criticism behaviors. Organizational research has discussed proactive/positive job related outcomes less frequently than negative/destructive outcomes for intuitively obvious reasons: negative outcomes are more likely to adversely impact the organization, draw managerial attention, and/or influence business unit performance. Hopefully, the control behavior scales developed in the current study will be useful for continuing research related to positive coping responses to job stress.

Third, the three- and four-item scales developed to capture escape-type coping behaviors are also thought to be better than previously used measures. Intent to turnover has typically been measured using a single item, or in limited cases, using two items with one reverse-scored. Questions measuring intent to turnover have also typically included a somewhat arbitrary time frame within which turnover is thought to take place. The scale used in the current research to measure intent to turnover is a four-item index without time constraint. This scale exhibited extremely high reliability, and thus, may be a more useful measure in future organizational research. Similarly, the measures developed for absenteeism and tardiness (three and four items, respectively) also had high reliabilities and may represent improvements over the one- and two-item scales frequently found in the literature.

Empirical Analyses

Linear regression, moderated linear regression, and Pearson correlation techniques were used to test the nine hypotheses derived in Chapters One through Three. Six of the nine hypotheses replicate previously tested relationships, while three hypotheses represent new contributions to the supply chain and/or organizational literature.

All six of the replication hypotheses were supported by the current study. Specifically, (1) person-organization fit is shown to be positively associated with job satisfaction and organizational commitment; (2) job satisfaction and organizational commitment are shown to be highly correlated; (3) organizational commitment is shown to be positively associated with control-type coping

behaviors; and, (4) both job satisfaction and organizational commitment are shown to be negatively associated with escape-type coping behaviors. The evidence presented in the current research serves to corroborate the findings of past studies examining these construct linkages and the proposed relationships. Furthermore, this study represents the first known attempt to examine the person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment constructs in a supply chain context.

The tests for the three new hypotheses rendered mixed results. The first hypothesis suggests that person-organization fit is negatively associated with control-type coping behaviors. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. In fact, the data provide strong evidence that the opposite is actually the case: twelve of the eighteen equations estimated showed a significant *positive* relationship between person-organization fit and control behaviors. Though this finding is contrary to the theory base, it is not an unreasonable result. Employees who experience high levels of person-organization fit may choose to act in the best interests of the organization in an effort to improve/add value to the organization (i.e., altruism), or, on the other hand, may do so in order to remain in the good graces of those who control their continued employment. Thus, although the result of Hypothesis One is somewhat unexpected, it may explain constructive behavior in warehouse settings unrelated to job stress. Further research related to antecedents and outcomes should be undertaken for a fuller understanding of control behaviors.

The second hypothesis suggests that person-organization fit is negatively associated with escape-type coping behaviors. This hypothesis was strongly supported by the data. Sixteen of the eighteen estimated equations were significant. The two exceptions are noteworthy: proposed linkages between coworker-cognitive fit and two of its escape outcomes (absenteeism and tardiness) were not significant. This may indicate that the recognition of differences between the individual and his/her coworkers alone does not create a willingness to escape the workplace. Rather, an affective (emotional) misfit with coworkers would need to exist before the turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness behaviors begin to occur. This result could be expected: coworkers may have less influence on employee behaviors than supervisors or firm policies due to their lack of power held over the focal individual. Future research related to differences in power bases of organizational culture influencers is necessary to more clearly understand their differential impacts.

The third hypothesis predicts that the relationship between person-organization fit and the chosen coping behavior will be moderated by the ascribed/achieved nature of a critical status trait attribution. The data partially support this hypothesis, with 28 of the 36 relationships between person-organization fit and coping behaviors showing a significant moderation effect. These results are important for academics for a number of reasons. First, these are the first tests known to include status traits in a model with employee person-organization fit and/or coping behaviors, and as such, represent a new direction in predicting outcomes of fit/lack of fit and employee behaviors. Also, the pattern

of significance for the moderation effect seems to indicate that status/fit interactions are generally strong predictors of escape behavior outcomes, but are less effective for predicting control behaviors. This may mean that persons experiencing misfit due to ascribed traits will have a greater propensity to respond to job-related stress than will employees who know that the source of their stress is correctable. The former situation depicts employees who feel trapped and “lash out” against their organizations, while the latter depicts employees that could do something about their job stress, but may or may not elect to do so. The “threshold” at which each type of misfit is transformed into a coping response may be different, and presents an interesting topic for future study.

Other results derived from the third hypothesis should also interest researchers. As noted in Chapter Five, six of the eight non-significant moderation effects include a type of coworker-related fit as the antecedent variable. As was the case with the second hypothesis, this may indicate that individuals are less subject to adverse effects as a result of coworker-related misfit than misfit related to the supervisor or company policy due to power differences. This seems to be particularly true in cases where the outcome is a control behavior, as no coworker fit-control behavior relationship had a significant moderator effect. Coworker/status interactions appear to have minimal effect on employee coping responses, which may mean that peer pressure directed toward positive organizational outcomes or individual self-improvement may be weak or minimal in warehouse organizational contexts. Finally, it also appears

that status–related moderator effects influencing constructive criticism behavioral outcomes are minimal, except in the cases where fit with firm policy or procedures is concerned. This may indicate that employees are willing to criticize company policies, but are less willing to criticize people in the work environment that they will have to coexist with over the duration of employment. Subsequent research should examine these possibilities.

CONCLUSIONS FOR PRACTICE

Practitioners (warehouse managers, distribution managers, and other logistics professionals) may be interested in the results of this dissertation for a number of reasons. Specifically, consideration of person-organization fit and its differential outcomes may be relevant when employers implement, evaluate, and/or amend their human resource processes.

The results of the study suggest that overall, employees who possess high levels of person-organization fit (i.e., whose expectations are met by the firm) are likely to engage in behaviors that will benefit themselves and/or the organization. This finding represents a good incentive for staffing personnel to attempt to recruit, screen, and hire candidates that have realistic expectations regarding their employment. According to the research, well-matched candidates are more likely to take independent action related to self-improvement (i.e., seeking training or completing formal education) or the improvement of the work environment (i.e., constructive criticism or organizational citizenship behaviors), either of which will benefit the firm.

Concurrently, the findings also seem to indicate that individuals possessing low levels of person-organization fit are likely (especially in cases where the misfit is attributable to an ascribed trait) to react to misfit-related stress in a negative or destructive manner. Employees that lack person-organization fit are more likely to be late to work, absent, or contemplating employment elsewhere. Thus, organizations will want to hire and retain employees who have expectations that can be met by the firm. The question is, how can this be accomplished, given the fact (per Shein, 1992) that the organizational culture is typically static/unchanging, and may be somewhat ambiguous to those within the organization?

A partial answer to this question has been proposed by Judge and Ferris (1991), who differentiate between the practical uses of quantitative testing versus qualitative techniques when seeking to achieve fit-related hiring objectives. They suggest that initial application screening, as well as different forms of psychological and aptitude testing, are effective ways of assuring that potential employees meet general qualifications or requirements. However, these techniques are thought to be inadequate for assessing person-organization fit, because they measure only the individual, and not his/her congruency with the firm's supplies. Judge and Ferris claim that the fit assessment is best made via the pre-employment interview. Thus, the majority of the time spent during initial and secondary job interviews should be spent assessing the match between employee expectations and firm supplies (and vice versa) rather than rehashing basic qualifications and/or job skills. Unfortunately, this process makes the

assumption that the interviewers can accurately identify the culture of the organization in order to make the fit assessment. This assumption may be precarious unless the interviewers have a high level of familiarity with not only the policies and procedures of the firm, but the different personality types that are currently or anticipated to be working there in supervisory or collegial roles. Thus, it is recommended that interviewers spend time learning about the culture of the organizational work environment (especially that outside the corporate office, in "the trenches,") and use this information to identify the personal characteristics of potential employees would enhance the probability that there will be a match with the organization.

Findings related to the status trait portion of the research may also be important for screening of warehouse job candidates. The research has shown that individuals who are mismatched with the organization due to ascribed trait attributions will typically seek an escape behavior in response. A goal of the screening process should be to carefully identify candidates who are likely to possess this type of misfit, as they seem to be the most likely to cost the organization in terms of missed work hours or replacement. However, the shortage of candidates for warehouse positions has reached crisis levels in recent years. In many cases, recruiting and hiring employees that possess the "perfect fit" is a secondary concern, or even an impossibility. The shortage of workers often presents warehouse staffing personnel with a choice between hiring a worker that may not "work out", or hiring none at all. Thus, it is somewhat unrealistic and/or impractical to reject the application of a candidate

based solely on an ascribed trait misfit discovered in the job interview. In order to improve the person-organization fit, job satisfaction, and (eventually) organizational commitment of this group of potential hires, greater investment in both comprehensive and job-focused internal training programs should be made from the outset. Improvements in internal training, combined with frequent and positive feedback, may allow workers mismatched on ascribed traits to compensate for uncontrollable shortcomings through greater achievement on traits that they *can* control, i.e., in terms of job-related education and (eventually) performance.

Similar suggestions may be helpful when screening candidates who are mismatched due to underachievement on achieved traits. Misfit based on achieved traits, however, may be less problematic; achieved traits are more "controllable" by the employee. For example, it may be acceptable to hire some employees who are slightly below firm requirements in terms of education, training, and/or experience. This type of candidate may consider the job position to be a valuable opportunity, and be loyal to the organization in exchange for the chance to prove their capabilities. These candidates may also be willing to accept the position at a lower starting salary than a more qualified candidate, and can usually overcome their achieved trait-related shortcomings by attending classes, earning a diploma, or simply experiencing on-the-job training. However, it may be less practical to hire a candidate who is mismatched with the organization due to overachievement/underemployment. Research has shown that overqualified employees are likely to have low job satisfaction and other job

attitudes, and are susceptible to psychological and family problems that may lead to turnover (Feldman, 1996; Feldman and Leana, 1997).

Finally, it should be noted that the pursuit of person-organization fit in job candidates might inadvertently be misinterpreted as the pursuit of workforce homogeneity – a rather dangerous organizational objective from a legal and practical perspective. Complete homogeneity in terms of ascribed traits is generally against corporate policy and/or local or federal law. Furthermore, excessive homogeneity of ascribed or achieved traits can also lead to lapses in creativity, groupthink, or discrimination against the minority group (Schneider, 1983; Pfeffer, 1983). Care should be taken to comply with appropriate legislation, and to maintain levels of diversity needed to foster organizational growth.

LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The key objectives of this dissertation were to examine the relationships between warehouse operations employee person-organization fit and coping behaviors, and to assess the possibility that status traits might moderate the coping behavior choice decision. Although the findings suggest that each of these objectives was met, it is necessary to discuss the limitations of the research.

The coping behaviors included as outcomes in the study, though important, do not represent the entire range of potential outcomes to job-related stress that employees may choose from in response to a lack of person-organization fit. The length of the questionnaire was purposely limited to a length

that could be easily completed by an employee on a lunch or coffee break. Thus, it was not considered feasible to include the full variety of control and escape behaviors that were relevant to the study.

The most noteworthy of the limitations of the current research are contextual and sampling limitations. Although warehouse operations employees provide an excellent frame for analysis of person-organization fit and coping behaviors of supply chain employees, other types of employees (truck drivers, customer service representatives, logistics managers, etc.) may react differently due to different working conditions and responsibilities. Thus, it is not possible to fully generalize the results of the current study to the entire body of employees engaged in the marketing/place element. However, this study is a useful first step in examining supply chain employee fit and job attitudes, and may forge the way for other cross-functional research that will yield more generalizable conclusions.

Other limitations of the research are related to the methodology. A frequently cited shortcoming of survey research, relative to more qualitative studies, is the lack of richness of the data. Some researchers feel that smaller amounts of qualitative data are better for assessing constructs and their relationships (Cook and Campbell, 1979). This limitation is balanced by the large scope of the current study, in terms of sample size and high reliability. The validity of self-reported data is also frequently brought into question, particularly when questions regarding personal behaviors are considered. Greenleaf (1992) proposes that adjustments to research findings may be necessary to counteract

the effects of yea-saying and nay-saying behavior by survey respondents. It is possible that employees may embellish their responses to survey questions in order to guard against the possibility that their anonymity may be breached. However, it is also possible that their true coping reactions to a lack of person-organization fit indicate differential responses based on status traits. Further research replicating the current study can help to clarify this issue.

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APPENDIX: Survey Instruments

**WAREHOUSE OPERATIONS EMPLOYEES:
A study of employee attitudes and behaviors**

Informed consent form for research being conducted under the auspices of:

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

Please note:

Thank you in advance for your participation in this study. It should only take about 10-15 minutes of your time. You must be 18 years of age or older to participate. Participation is voluntary; refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits. You do not have to answer all questions.

The purpose of this study is to learn more about the job attitudes and feelings of warehouse operations employees, and to assess the types of situations that cause job related stress, lack of fit with the company, and/or employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Please be assured that your responses to this survey will be kept secret. Because there are no names associated with the survey, all responses to this survey will be kept anonymous, and individual responses cannot be shared with anyone. The only data released will be aggregates or totals of all responses for use in research publications.

To ensure that your responses remain anonymous, please take care NOT to write your name and/or your company name on the form. Please seal and return your responses in the self-addressed reply envelope provided by The University of Oklahoma. The envelope is pre-addressed and has postage included. Please take care to return it directly via regular mail in this envelope at your earliest convenience. (Do not return the completed survey to any employee of your company.)

If you have any questions regarding this project, please contact:

Chad Autry
Doctoral Candidate in Marketing
307 W. Brooks, Room 1
The University of Oklahoma
Norman, OK 73019
405-325-5915

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please call the University of Oklahoma Office of Research Administration at 405-325-4757 or e-mail irb@ou.edu.

By returning this survey, you indicate your willingness to participate.

SECTION ONE:

Think of the expectations you had when you were hired to work for your current company.

Compared to what you expected, how would you rate your manager in the following areas?

	RATING						
	Much worse than I expected	Worse than I expected	Slightly worse than I expected	Just as I expected	Slightly better than I expected	Better than I expected	Much better than I expected
As a supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
As a problem solver	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
As a role model	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
As a teacher	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Making decisions regarding employees (hiring, firing, promotion, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Handling stressful situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Relative to what you expected, how do you feel about your manager?
(Please CIRCLE the appropriate number)

Not at all pleased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely pleased
Not at all bothered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely bothered
Not at all angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely angry
Not at all happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely happy
Not at all content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely content
Not at all mistreated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely mistreated

Compared to what you expected, how would you rate your co-workers in the following areas?

	RATING						
	Much worse than I expected	Worse than I expected	Slightly worse than I expected	Just as I expected	Slightly better than I expected	Better than I expected	Much better than I expected
I can confide in them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
They cooperate with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
They give me helpful advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
They explain company policy and procedures to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Relative to what you expected, how do you feel about your co-workers?
(Please CIRCLE the appropriate number)

Not at all pleased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely pleased
Not at all bothered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely bothered
Not at all angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely angry
Not at all happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely happy
Not at all content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely content
Not at all mistreated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely mistreated

Compared to what you expected, how would you rate your company in the following areas?

	RATING						
	Much worse than I expected	Worse than I expected	Slightly worse than I expected	Just as I expected	Slightly better than I expected	Better than I expected	Much better than I expected
The reward/pay systems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Work policies and procedures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Physical surroundings/work conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Company "lifestyle" or atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Relative to what you expected, how do you feel about your company?
(Please CIRCLE the appropriate number)

Not at all pleased	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely pleased
Not at all bothered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely bothered
Not at all angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely angry
Not at all happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely happy
Not at all content	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely content
Not at all mistreated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extremely mistreated

SECTION TWO:**Think about the characteristics that describe you as a person.****Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

I would feel more comfortable at work if I were...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Mildly disagree	Neutral	Mildly agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Not Applicable
more educated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
in better physical condition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
older than I am now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
a member of worker's union	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
better trained at my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
a member of the "good ol' boys" network	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
more experienced at my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
physically bigger or taller	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
of the opposite gender/sex	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
of another racial or ethnic background	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
with this company for a longer time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
younger than I am now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
someone with more seniority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA

Now, select the ONE item from the list above that you think is the most important if you want to fit in better with your supervisor, co-workers, or company. Write it here _____.

SECTION THREE:**Think about your behaviors and feelings while at work during the past year:**

In the past year, how often have you...	Never	A few times a year	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every Day
Considered working somewhere else	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Been warned by a manager because you were late	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Been absent from the job because you just didn't feel like going to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Thought about quitting your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Failed to report to work on time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Missed a workday for no really good reason	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Thought about how nice it would be to work elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Taken a sick day in order to do something more fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Showed up late to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Considered employment at another company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Arrived at the warehouse after your shift started	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How often have you tried to improve your work situation by doing the following?	Never	A few times a year	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every Day
Trying harder at your assigned tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours to get things done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Exerting more effort at your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Seeking additional training related to my specific job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Learning more about my job through formal or informal instruction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending job-specific classes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Voicing my concerns to managers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Providing constructive criticism about my working conditions to someone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Going through the "proper channels" to get things changed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How frequently have you had the following feelings about your job?	Never	A few times a year	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every Day
I feel emotionally drained from my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel used up at the end of the workday	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel tired when I wake up and have to face another day on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working all day is really a strain for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel burned out from my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organization does	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have become less interested in my work since I started this job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have become less enthusiastic about my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my opinion, I am good at my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel happy when I accomplish something at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

I just want to do my job and not be bothered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I doubt the importance of my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION FOUR:

Think about your overall opinions about your job and your company.

Indicate how often you have the following feelings or emotions about your job.

	Never	A few times a year	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every Day
I feel fairly satisfied with my present job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am enthusiastic about my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Each day at work seems like it will never end	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find real enjoyment in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I consider my job to be rather unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career at this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy discussing my company with outside people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not feel like a "part of the family" at my company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not feel emotionally attached to this company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This company has a great deal of meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION FIVE:**Think about your behaviors and feelings while at work during the past year.****Indicate how often the following have occurred.**

	Never	A few times a year	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every Day
I have been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have felt nervous and stressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have felt confident about my ability to handle work-related problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have felt that things were not going my way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have found that I could not cope with all of the things I had to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have been able to control the irritations related to my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have felt as though I were on top of things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Compared to what you expected when you took your current job, how would you rate your manager, your co-workers, and your company, OVERALL?

	RATING						
	Much worse than I expected	Worse than I expected	Slightly worse than I expected	Just as I expected	Slightly better than I expected	Better than I expected	Much better than I expected
Your manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Your co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Your company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION SIX:

Please tell us a few things about yourself:

Your age: _____

Your job title: _____

Number of years working for your current company: _____

Total number of years working in warehouses: _____

Your racial/ethnic background: (circle one)

White
Native American

Black
Pacific Islander

Asian
Hispanic

Other: _____

Last education COMPLETED: (circle one)

Some high school

High school diploma

Some college

College Degree

Other: _____

Are you a member of a worker's union? (circle one)

Yes

No

How often do you work in the warehouse? (circle one)

Full-time

Part-time

Summer/holiday

Which shift do you work?

Early

Evening

Overnight

**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR
PARTICIPATION IN OUR STUDY!**

PLEASE SEAL YOUR RESPONSES IN THE ENVELOPE PROVIDED BY THE
UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

PARA EMPLEADOS DEL ALMACEN:
Encuesta sobre las actitudes y el compartamiento de los empleados

Bajo el patrocinio de la
UNIVERSIDAD DE OKLAHOMA

Note Ud. por favor:

Agrademos su participación en la encuesta. Nos interesa muchísimo saber algo de su vida diaria en el almacén. Apreciamos mucho su ayuda.

Le aseguramos que lo que responde Ud. a las siguientes preguntas no se compartirá con nadie. Las repuestas de cada individuo son confidenciales. Los datos que se usarán en las investigaciones académicas serán solamente los totales de las repuestas y no las repuestas mismas de los individuos. Ud. puede asegurar la seguridad de sus repuestas, por no escribir aquí en este papel ni su nombre de la empresa. Además, después de hacer la encuesta, Ud. puede cerrarlo en el sobre ajuntado por la Universidad de Oklahoma.

Si tiene alguna pregunta sobre la encuesta, póngase en contacto con:

Chad Autry
Doctoral Candidate in Marketing
307 W. Brooks, Room 1
The University of Oklahoma
Norman, OK 73019
405.325.5915

PARTE PRIMERA:

Piense Ud. en lo que esperaba de la compañía cuando al principio empezó a trabajar aquí. Use las valuaciones indicadas (haciendo un círculo en el número que corresponde a lo que cree Ud.) para responder a las preguntas.

Comparado con lo que esperaba, ¿cómo caracteriza Ud. al director (en encargado) en cuanto a las cosas siguientes?

	VALUACIONES						
	Mucho peor que lo que esperaba	Peor que lo que esperaba	Un poco peor que lo que esperaba	Precisamente lo que esperaba	Un poco mejor que lo que esperaba	Mejor que lo que esperaba	Mucho mejor que lo que esperaba
Como supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Como persona que resuelve problemas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Como modelo imitar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Como maestro	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Como la persona que contrata, despide, y asciende a los empleados	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Como la persona que se encarga de manejar las situaciones llenas de tensión	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Comparado con lo que al principio esperaba Ud. del encargado, ¿qué es lo que piensa Ud. de él o de ella?
(Por favor, use los números para responder a lo siguiente)

Ud. no lo ve como simpático de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ud. lo ve como simpático
No le preocupa a Ud. de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ud. está muy preocupado
Ud. no está enojado de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ud. está muy enojado
Ud. no está alegre de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ud. está muy alegre
Ud. no está contento que ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ud. está muy contento
Ud. no está maltratado de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ud. está muy maltratado

Comparado con lo esperaba, ¿cómo caracteriza Ud. a sus compañeros de trabajo, en cuanto a las cosas siguientes

	VALUACIONES						
	Mucho peor que lo que esperaba	Peor que lo que esperaba	Un poco peor que lo que esperaba	Precisamente lo que esperaba	Un poco mejor que lo que esperaba	Mejor que lo que esperaba	Mucho mejor que lo que esperaba
Ud. puede fiarse de ellos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Los compañeros trabajan muy bien con Ud.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le dan a Ud. consejos muy buenos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Me explican los compañeros las reglas de la empresa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Comparado con lo que esperaba, ¿cómo considera Ud. a sus compañeros de trabajo?
(Por favor, use los números para responder a lo siguiente)

Ni siquiera está Ud. contento con ellos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Ud. está muy contento con ellos
Ni siquiera está molesto por ellos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy molesto por ellos
Ni siquiera está enojado con ellos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy enojado con ellos
Ni siquiera está feliz con ellos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy feliz con ellos
Ni siquiera está bien con ellos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy bien con ellos
Ni siquiera está maltratado por ellos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy maltratado por ellos

Comparado con lo esperaba, ¿cómo caracteriza Ud. a la compañía de trabajo, en cuanto a las cosas siguientes?

	VALUACIONES						
	Mucho peor que lo que esperaba	Peor que lo que esperaba	Un poco peor que lo que esperaba	Precisamente lo que esperaba	Un poco mejor que lo que esperaba	Mejor que lo que esperaba	Mucho mejor que lo que esperaba
¿En cuanto a lo que tiene que ver con los salarios y otras recompensas?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
¿En cuanto a las políticas y las gestiones?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
¿En cuanto al ambiente físico y las condiciones del lugar del trabajo?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
¿En cuanto al <estilo de vivir> o al ambiente de la compañía?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Comparado con lo que esperaba, ¿cómo considera Ud. a la compañía de trabajo?
(Por favor, use los números para responder a lo siguiente)

Ud. no está satisfecho Ud. de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy satisfecho
No está molesto Ud. de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy molesto
Ud. no está enojado de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy enojado
Ud. no está alegre de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy alegre
Ud. no está contento que ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy contento
Ud. no está maltratado de ninguna manera	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Está muy maltratado

PARTE SEGUNDA:

Piense Ud. En lo que describe a Ud. Como persona.

Indique a qué grado está de acuerdo (o no) con las frases siguientes.

**Ud. estaría mas cómodo
en el trabajo si...**

	No está del todo de acuerdo	No está de acuerdo	No está del todo de acuerdo	Esta neutral	Está un poco de acuerdo	Está de acuerdo	Está del todo de acuerdo	No tiene nada que ver con Ud.
Tubería mejor educación	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Tubería mejor condición física	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Tubería más edad que ahora	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Fuera miembro de un sindicato de labradores	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Fuera mejor capacitado para su empleo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Fuera miembro del "grupo" o de la "pandilla"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Tiene mas experiencia en el trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Mas alto o bajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Del otra sexo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Fuera de otra raza o de otra formación étnica	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Tubería mas tiempo con la compañía	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Tubería menor edad que tiene ahora	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA
Tubería más sonoridad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	NA

Ahora, escoja Ud. uno de los puntos de la lista de arriba que mas tiene que ver con mejor relaciones para Ud. con el director, con los compañeros de trabajo, o con la compañía. Escríbalo aquí: _____.

PARTE TERCERA:

Piense Ud. en sus sentimientos y su comportamiento durante el año pasado en el lugar de trabajo.

En los últimos doce (12) meses, ¿con qué frecuencia ha hecho Ud. las cosas siguientes?	Nunca	Algunas veces por año	Una vez al mes	Algunas veces al mes	Una vez por semana	Algunas veces por la semana	Todos los días
Ha considerado la posibilidad de trabajar en otro sitio	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha sido advertido por llegar tarde	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha faltado por el día simplemente por no querer trabajar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha pensado en dejar su empleo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha faltado en llegar a la hora	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha faltado todo un día sin razón	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha pensado en lo bueno que sería trabajar en otro lugar	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
He estado <enfermo> cuando de veras hacía otra cosa más divertida	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha llegado tarde al trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha considerado un puesto con otra empresa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha llegado Ud. al almacén después de comenzar su turno	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

¿Con qué frecuencia ha tratado Ud. de mejorar su trabajo por medio de los siguientes métodos?	Nunca	Algunas veces por año	Una vez al mes	Algunas veces al mes	Una vez por semana	Algunas veces por la semana	Todos los días
Ha trabajado más en sus tareas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha trabajado más horas para completar sus tareas asignadas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha puesto más esfuerzo en su puesto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha buscado entrenamiento para su puesto particular	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Nunca	Algunas veces por año	Una vez al mes	Algunas veces al mes	Una vez por semana	Algunas veces por la semana	Todos los días
Ha aprendido mas sobre su puesto por entrenamiento (formal o informal)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha asistido a algunas clases sobre su puesto en particular	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha mencionado a las directores sus preocupaciones sobre el trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha ofrecido alguna critica constructiva a alguien sobre su puesto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha procedido por la <cadena del mandar> para cambiar las cosas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Nunca	Algunas veces por año	Una vez al mes	Algunas veces al mes	Una vez por semana	Algunas veces por la semana	Todos los días
Se sintió agotado de las emociones por su trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se sintió agotado al fin del día de trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Estaba cansado al despertar y todavía tenia que enfrentar otro día de trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
El día del trabajo es una presión verdadera para Ud.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. puede resolver los problemas que surgen en su trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se sintió Ud. del todo agotado por su trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. cree que hace una contribución útil a lo que hace la compañía	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. tiene menos interés en su trabajo desde comenzó su puesto .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. tiene menos entusiasmo para su trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
En su opinión, Ud. hace bien su trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se sintió feliz cuando cumplió una tarea	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. ha hecho muchas cosas valiosas en su puesto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Nunca	Algunas veces por año	Una vez al mes	Algunas veces al mes	Una vez por semana	Algunas veces por la semana	Todos los días
Solamente quiere Ud. hacer su trabajo y no estar molesto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. no se ha puesto más cinico en cuanto a lo que contribuye en su puesto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. no tiene confianza en cuanto a lo que contribuye en su puesto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
En su trabajo, está seguro de la eficacia de lo que hace Ud.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PARTE CUATRA:

Piensa Ud. en sus opiniones sobre su puesto y la compañía por completo.

Indica Ud. la frecuencia con la cual ha tenido los siguientes pensamientos o las emociones en cuanto a su puesto.

	Nunca	Algunas veces por año	Una vez al mes	Algunas veces al mes	Una vez por semana	Algunas veces por la semana	Todos los días
Está algo satisfecho con su puesto actual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tiene entusiasmo para su trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Los días en el trabajo parecen interminables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Siente Ud. el gozo verdadero de su trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le parece algo desagradable su puesto	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se alegraría pasar el resto de su carrera con esta empresa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le gusta a Ud. hablar de su compañía con otros, fuera del trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. no siente como parte de la familia del empresa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No se siente atado a la empresa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Esta empresa tiene mucha importancia para Ud.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ud. no tiene un sentido fuerte de su parte de la compañía	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PARTE QUINTA:

Piense Ud. en su comportamiento y sus emociones al estar en el lugar de trabajo durante al año pasado.

Indique Ud. con que frecuencia han pasando los siguientes eventos.

	Nunca	Algunas veces por año	Una vez al mes	Algunas veces al mes	Una vez por semana	Algunas veces por la semana	Todos los días
Ud. ha tenido momentos de angustia por algo inesperado que pasó.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se ha sentido nervioso o bajo la presión	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha tenido confianza en sus habilidades para resolver cualquier problema en el trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ha sentido que las cosas no le iban bien	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No ha podido soportar todo lo que tenia que hacer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
No ha podido controlar lo que le molestaba del puesto suyo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Se ha sentido estar en control de lo que pasaba	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Comparado con lo esperado al aceptar este puesto, ¿cómo considera en general a su director, a sus compañeros de trabajo, a la empresa?

	VALUACION						
	Mucho peor que lo que esperaba	Peor que lo que esperaba	Un poco peor que lo que esperaba	Precisamente lo que esperaba	Un poco mejor que lo que esperaba	Mejor que lo que esperaba	Mucho mejor que lo que esperaba
Su director	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Su compañeros de trabajo	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
La empresa	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PARTE SEXTA: Díganos, por favor, unas cosas sobre su persona:			
¿Cuántos años tiene Ud.?:	_____	Su título (El nombre de su puesto):	_____
¿Cuántos años ha trabajado en su puesto actual?:	_____	¿Cuántos años ha trabajado en un almacén?:	_____
Su procedencia étnica:	Caucáseo	Negro	Asiático
	Indio / Indígena	Isleño Pacífico	Hispanico
	Otro: _____		
Su educación:	Algún rato en la escuela secundaria	Diploma del secundario	Algún rato en la universidad
	Diploma en la universidad	Otro: _____	
¿Es Ud. miembro de un sindicato de trabajadores?	Sí	No	
¿Con que frecuencia de un sindicato te trabajadores?	A tiempo completo	A tiempo parcial	Los veranos
¿Cual es su turno que trabaja Ud.?	Temprano	La tarde	Por la noche

Muchísimas gracias para su participación en la encuesta.