

AN EXAMINATION OF INDIVIDUALS' SELF-SELECTIONS TO
ORGANIZATIONS

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ABSTRACT

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It has long been noted that people have a tendency to look for and engage in situations that are congruent with their personalities, their self-concepts, their interests, their attitudes and their values (Allport, 1937; Bandura, 1973; Ickes, Snyder & Garcia, 1997). However, most studies in the Person-Organization fit area are limited to examining employees who have been hired, while the self-selection process of choosing to apply for certain organizations or the self-assessment of fit with an organization are less explored. The present study examines job seekers' decision-making processes on ratings of attractiveness for hypothetical companies.

Using a decision-making process model similar to the Lens Model, the links between individual difference characteristics (e.g., the Big Five personality, tolerance for ambiguity) and preferences for different types of organizations were examined. A total of 222 graduate level Business major students participated in the study and provided self-ratings on a number of individual differences measures, such as the Big Five Personality Inventory. Next, participants were presented with 18 hypothetical company descriptions, which varied on four dichotomized organizational culture dimensions. Their participation included rating the attractiveness of these companies. When making a decision about the company's attractiveness, the participant's weight assignments to each organizational culture dimension were assessed and then linked to the self-rated individual differences factors.

It was found that extraverted individuals preferred organizations that are casual in appeal and promote risk-taking growth. Individuals who scored high on neuroticism preferred organizations requiring formal appearance. Individuals who scored high on openness preferred innovative/risk-taking organizational cultures. Additionally, individuals having a lower tolerance for ambiguity preferred organizations that require formal appearance as well as value conservative growth. Finally, individuals who scored high on self-efficacy preferred to work in casual environments. Supplementary analyses results suggested that individuals who scored high on internal locus of control and self-

efficacy tended to rate prospective companies more attractive as opposed to the lower internal locus of control or self-efficacy counterparts.

The results are consistent with the idea that people have different preferences for different types of organizations, and such preferences are associated with the individual difference characteristic of the person.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Individual's Intrinsic Needs for Self-Selecting Congruent Situations

Personality psychologists have long noted that people have a tendency to look for and engage in situations that are congruent with their personalities, their self-concepts, their interests, their attitudes and their values (e.g., Snyder & Ickes, 1985; Ickes, Snyder & Garcia, 1997; Buss, 1987; Swann, 1987). For example, as early as 1937, Allport suggested that people actively seek environments that are congruent with their dispositions. Likewise, Bandura (1973) suggested that individuals achieve behavioral consistency primarily through their own constructed social environment. In other words, based on individual differences, people are consciously or unconsciously constructing their own reality or their own world, in which they can feel most comfortable.

Bower (1973) noted "people foster consistent social environments which then reciprocate by fostering behavioral consistency" (p. 329). Along the same line, Ickes and colleagues (1997) reasoned this intrinsic propensity as one's need to manifest and reinforce his/her disposition; this desire can be observed through the selection of a "fit" in environments that he/she chooses to engage in (Ickes, Snyder & Garcia, 1997). By engaging in or constructing congruent

environments, people feel more comfortable because outcomes are perceived as more predictable. For example, health psychologists McNulty and Swann (1991) found that in order to make their own world more predictable and controllable, people often engage in self-verification processes. In other words, people strive to sustain and reinforce their self-view, even for perceptions that are negative. Evolutionary psychologists, including Buss (1987), also asserted that individuals are biologically programmed to seek out and avoid situations through three processes. He named the three mechanisms (or processes): selection, evocation, and manipulation. These mechanisms function to guide people in developing and retaining congruent situations.

In sum, for many decades, psychologists from different disciplines have espoused various professional beliefs (e.g., social, personality, health and evolutionary) yet have generally come to the similar conclusion that people possess an intrinsic need to select and construct their social environments (e.g., friendship, spouse, social settings, work settings) so as to reinforce their dispositions, attitudes, and self-concepts.

1.1.1 Reasons for Choosing Inconsistent Situations

Although people, in general, are innately inclined to choose congruent situations and avoid incongruent situations, there are exceptions to the rule. Snyder and Ickes (1985) stated that there are two circumstances for which people will choose to engage in incongruent situations. First, when one attempts to change his/her existing personality, he/she may engage in situations that can

facilitate the desired disposition. For example, if an introvert wishes to become more extroverted, he/she may choose to participate in more socially stimulating situations, and learn to become comfortable in the new environment. Second, when a person wishes to exert influence and change the situation or others in the situation, he/she may choose to enter an incongruent environment to exercise the changes. Ickes and colleagues (1997) have noted that people who choose to enter incongruent situations are often guided by a goal or a motive (e.g., reform one's personality, change existing situation). The behavior of engaging in an inconsistent environment may seem paradoxical; however, the opposite is true in that these intentions are still consistent with the individual's self-concepts, attitudes and values. Generally speaking, people are intrinsically active in selecting and constructing situations that are congruent with their self-concepts.

1.1.2 Congruence and Life Outcomes

As stated earlier, engaging in environments congruent with one's self-concept can lead to reinforcing one's self-disposition, and outcomes in such environments are perceived as more predictable. Therefore, one can easily argue that when people find themselves in a congruent environment, they feel more relaxed, comfortable and satisfied; indeed, research from various disciplines supports this view.

Research in the social and interpersonal processes areas generally suggests that it is not opposites that attract, but similarities. As early as 1964, Byrne and Nelson noted that similarity between persons was related to interpersonal

attraction. Although some researchers question the cause-effect relationship (e.g., Sunnafrank, 1991), the association between similarity (e.g., attitude, personality) and attraction is generally less debatable (e.g., Cappella & Palmer, 1992; Sunnafrank, 1992). People prefer others who are similar to the self because similarities in personality, attitudes and preferences reinforce our self-concept, which, in turn, produces positive affect. In addition, people with similar personality, interests, values and attitudes are likely to select and enjoy similar environments and likely to respond to situations in a similar manner (e.g., Bryne, Nelson, 1964; Gosling, Ko, & Mannarelli, 2002).

Likewise, Buss (1985) argued that people self-select mating partners who are similar to themselves in terms of personality, ethnic, racial, status, and physical attractiveness. Such preferences or selecting processes are biologically programmed and not a simple random course of action. Indeed, research does suggest that attitude similarity is strongly related to marriage satisfaction (Hendricck, 1981).

The self-selection theory argues that people not only select who they want to spend time with and be around, but also select the social settings or environments that allow the self-concept to be manifested. While the “fit” or similarity in values and attitudes between two persons leads to attraction and satisfaction, the “fit” between a person and a work or career environment should lead to satisfaction and an increase of job satisfaction and productivity. In fact, Eysenck (1981) found that personality variables interact with situations. In his

experiment, extroverts performed better than introverts on the cognitive tests conducted in high ambient stimulated environments. The opposite was true for the introverts, who performed better than extraverts on the same cognitive tests in low stimulated environments. These findings may have set the stage for and inspired much research in both the industrial and organizational psychology and organizational behavior fields.

In the recent decade, the notion of person-organization fit has become an increasingly popular topic in the selection area (e.g., Kristof, 1996). Person-Environment fit researchers are generally guided by the belief that a better “fit” between people and their work environments or their jobs is related to higher job satisfaction, higher performance and less stress. Guided by these propositions, many studies have examined the “fit” between a person and the environment in various respects.

1.2 Person-Environment(P-E) Fit

Kristof (1996) listed a number of forms of person-environment fit at multiple levels, which include person-vocational (P-V) fit, person-group (P-G) fit, person-job (P-J) fit and person-organization (P-O) fit. Specifically, person-vocational fit examines the individual differences of career choices, and is usually not related to fit with a particular organization. Person-group fit is concerned with the compatibility between the person and his or her work group. Person-job fit, as defined by Edwards (1991), focuses on “demands-ability” fit or “need-supplies” fit between the person and the requirements/offers of the job.

Person-organization fit centers on the compatibility between the person and the organization. The current dissertation focus is on the P-O fit aspect and aims to examine the relation between a person's characteristics and his/her organizational preferences.

1.2.1 Person-Organization fit (P-O fit)

Kristof (1996) defines P-O fit as, "the antecedents and consequences of compatibility between people and organizations" (p.3). She further distinguishes two types of compatibility, namely, supplementary fit and complementary fit. Supplementary fit is defined as, "supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals" (Muchinsky, 1987, p. 269), and arises when similarity is found between fundamental characteristics of the person and the organization. These organizational characteristics are most often culture, climate, values, goals and norms. The individual characteristics, on the other hand, are usually labeled by personality, attitudes, values and goals (Kristof, 1996). Conversely, complementary fit occurs when a person's individual set of characteristics can somehow serve as the missing piece to an organization's puzzle thereby "making whole" or adding to what is absent in the organization (Muchinsky, 1987, p. 271). In sum, Kristof (1996) suggests that P-O fit occurs when the organization and the person: 1) provide for each other's needs; 2) share similar fundamental characteristics; or 3) both one and two.

Most research in the P-O fit area has examined supplementary fit, which is often found related to job satisfaction, effective socialization, lower turnover and

less stress (e.g., Saks, Ashforth, & Blake, 1997; Warren, 1997). Schneider (1987), however, argued through the attraction-selection model (ASA), that companies often hire similar people therefore resulting in the construction of a homogeneous personality in their work force. Such similarity within a work group often leads to groupthink. More specifically, the ASA model argues that certain types of people prefer and are attracted to particular types of organizations. The organization, on the other hand, also selects certain types of applicants to join the company. Despite the pros and cons of fit, most research in the P-O fit area examines the compatibility and likeability between the person and the culture of an organization.

1.3 Defining Culture

Culture is defined in various ways and conceptualized differently by many researchers. Culture can be operationalized at four levels: the national level, the organizational level, the groups and dyads level and the individual level (Aguinis and Henle, 2003). The scope of this dissertation focuses on organizational culture.

Triandis (1996) suggests that culture can be observed from shared cognitions, standard operating procedures and assumptions. He emphasizes the value component of culture that underlies shared attitudes, beliefs, norms, and roles, which collectively constitute a theme. However, Aguinis and Henle (2003) noted that since the 1950s researchers have established over 160 definitions of organizational culture. Many researchers (i.e., Aguinis & Henle, 2003; Triandis,

1994; Rousseau, 1990) have attempted to list some of the representative definitions (see Appendix A).

As shown through the list of definitions, researchers do not necessarily agree on their conceptualization of organizational culture. As a result, their focuses in the line of research also vary. For example, Ed Schein (1984) argued that organizational culture can only be assessed ideographically on unconscious assumptions that guide employees' actions and speech. From this perspective, the examination of an organizational culture can only be qualitatively assessed and requires the researchers' in-depth interactions with the employees. Rousseau (1988) suggests the examination of behavioral norms as a method of organizational culture assessment. She believes that organizational cultures can be quantified through surveys using Likert-type scales because behavior norms are often observable in organizations. O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991) also designed Organizational Culture Profile scale (OCP) that quantifies culture; however, their focus primarily investigated values of an organizational system.

Such disagreements reflect the multidimensional and the multilayer nature of an organizational culture (e.g., Aguinis & Henle, 2003, Rousseau, 1990). In 1990, Rousseau compiled a comprehensive review of the various conceptualizations of the different layers of organizational culture as defined by researchers in the field. From most observable to least observable, she suggests that researchers operationalize organizational culture in five layers: 1) material artifacts (e.g., logos, badges); 2) structure - patterns of activities (e.g., decision

making, coordination and communication mechanisms); 3) behavioral norms – beliefs regarding acceptable and unacceptable behaviors (e.g., competitiveness or cooperation relationship between peers); 4) values – priority assigned to certain states or outcomes (e.g., innovation versus predictability and risk seeking versus risk avoidance); 5) unconscious assumptions – not necessarily knowable even by members of the group, ideographic and in-depth research is needed to assess these assumptions (e.g., sibling like rivalry between a CEO's subordinate). These layers of organizational culture can be operationalized in terms of degrees of accessibility and observability.

Conceptualizing Organizational Culture. As Rousseau suggests, organizational culture is multi-dimensional, observable and measurable at different depth levels or observability levels. Therefore, numerous different methods were developed to study and conceptualize it at the different levels. On the other hand, it is nearly impossible to have a universal definition for organizational culture and obtain agreement amongst researchers. The main reason for these differences derives from the various goals or motives for understanding it. For example, if a researcher attempts to have an in-depth understanding of a company and everything about the company, he/she may want to consider including qualitative assessment to learn more about the company, or possibly consider Ed Schein's approach to organizational culture. However, if the goal is to differentiate the various types of organizations and study the association between the differences factors and organizational outcome,

the use of quantitative assessments of behavioral norms or organizational values is reasonable. As a result, there may not be one single definition of organizational culture scale that is universally accepted and appropriate in all situations. Instead, it is situationally dependent. If the goal is, for example, to consider the pre-employment assessment of P-O fit from the job seeker perspective, organizational culture measurements should be targeted to the specific audience.

1.3.1 Organizational Culture Observed by Prospective Employees

Researchers conceptualize organizational culture differently, but how does it appear to a prospective employee? I argue that studies that focus on job seeker perception of organizational cultures may want to consider how companies differ from a job seeker perspective when considering a job choice. More specifically, prospective employees will only focus on observable and salient characteristics of organizations. Past studies have set the stage for examining the link between personality and culture preferences (Judge & Cable, 1997). Since job seekers are likely not going to know every detail of the potential company's culture or processes; as a result, job decision may derive from a different cognitive process than statistic analyses would indicate. Consequently, job seekers will only focus on and make decisions based upon the broad, the observable and the salient differences between prospective companies.

The fuzzy-trace theory argues that although people are capable of encoding multiple gist and verbatim representations, reasoning and decision

making often operate at the least precise level. Qualitative gist representations and large disparities are often default considerations in reasoning and decision-making (Reyna & Brainerd, 1991). In other words, small rating differences of fine-grained, quantitative culture scale items may represent one's opinion on detail preferences of a company's culture; however, many of these small differences (for example: a rating of 3 versus a 4 on a 5-point Likert scale of an item) may not necessarily be what influences one's job choice decision. Additionally, people may weight their preferences differently. They may indicate certain preferences for organizational culture aspects, but, when making final decisions about a company, some preferences may have a stronger influence on the final decision versus others.

Job seekers are less likely to differentiate the multiple layers of an organizational culture as described by Rousseau (1990). Organizational culture is communicated to job seekers through the different cues in the environment, such as dress code or organizational structure. For this reason job seekers may observe different characteristics across the outer layers of an organization culture (e.g., material artifacts, structure) as suggested by several researchers.

Conversely, the most inner layer of the organizational culture, the unconscious assumptions of the culture system (as advocated by Schein (1984)) is less likely to be perceived and evaluated by a job seeker since the understanding of this particular layer of the culture requires in-depth interactions.

Nevertheless, outsiders can observe salient and common characteristics of the other four layers.

Researchers have developed several useful organizational culture scales. For example, Cook and Rousseau incorporate the behavioral norm approach and developed “*Organizational Culture Inventory*” to differentiate organizations from one another. However, their approach and development of the scale was aimed at improving organizational management. Likewise, the OCP scale by O’Reily and colleagues assesses organizations through the comparisons of their values. No organizational culture scales targeted at job seekers currently exist, therefore, it was necessary to construct four salient culture dimensions in an attempt to differentiate corporate cultures from one another for job seekers.

These dimensions were chosen because they are salient, common, can be generalized across industries, and are often observable by job seekers prior to accepting a position. In addition, these dimensions are relatively orthogonal from one another and can be contrasted from the two dichotomized ends (see Appendix A). These dimensions were also selected so as to lower social desirability effects; culture dimensions that elicit social desirability were eliminated. The majority of individuals prefer some specific organizational culture styles. After eliminating social desirability characteristics of organizations, opposing culture styles may be equally preferred by individuals who are different in personality or other individual differences characteristics. Additionally, these four dimensions are not the only dimensions that categorize

organizational culture. Instead, this is critical information with regard to the four dimensions, that are often accessible to job seekers, and therefore, the factors are often taken into consideration when one estimates the attractiveness of an organization.

In 1993, Rafaeli and Pratt noted that study of a company's dress code contributes to understanding of organizational behaviors. It was also found that dress code policy served as a schematic representation governing employee behaviors at work (Rafaeli, Dutton, Harquail U Mackie-Lewis, 1997). From the most observable layer to least observable layer as compiled by Rousseau (1990), job seekers are commonly able to grasp company culture through "material artifacts". Material artifacts can be seen as impression management tools for the company to represent itself to both insiders and outsiders. Through these material artifacts (e.g., logos, badges), companies attempt to communicate a certain image to observers. As a result, the first dimension that can be generalized and differentiates company culture can be observed through the company's self-presenting image, contrasted as either formal/professional or informal/relax (Dimension 1) with respect to dress codes and office settings.

The next layer is the organizational structure. Triandis and Gelfand (1998) suggested that cultures differ on a two-dimensional scale, vertical/horizontal and individualism/collectivism. Horizontal refers to behaviors/attitudes that emphasize equality. Vertical refers to behaviors/attitudes that emphasize hierarchy. Collectivism involves an emphasis on common group goals;

individualism involves wanting to be unique and distinct from a group. Although this theory came out of assessing the values perspective of one's culture orientation, similar structures or emphases can also be found in an organization. For example, some companies consist of more hierarchical levels whereas others are more flat. These structures provide guidance for employees in their daily activities, such as communication and work structure. Therefore, organizational cultures can be contrasted in terms of organizational structure and work structure, which both relate to patterns of activities and communication in an organization (Dimension 2 and Dimension 3). Dimension 2 and 3 resemble culture dimensions described by Triandis and Gelfand (1998) from a structure perspective. Similarly, Hofstede (1988) argued that cultures differ in four respects: power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. His idea of power distance and individualism/collectivism also related to Dimensions 2 and 3. A company's stance with regard to these two dimensions is often given via job advertisement, and/or on the company website and/or by current employees upon office interactions. Therefore, the information should be relatively accessible to job seekers.

The third layer of culture assessment is behavioral norms. Culture behavioral norms can be defined as "shared cognitions by members within an organization". Therefore, behavioral norms are more likely to be observed and picked up by insiders or members within a group, and are less commonly

readable to outsiders. Since this study focuses on job seeker perception, the behavioral norm element will not be included.

The fourth layer is organizational values, which is a more of an inner layer in terms of accessibility. As a result, many culture values may not be clearly understood or well communicated to an outsider prior to his/her accepting the job. The job seeker may simply grasp the most observable or common value factors that differentiate cultures of companies. O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell (1991) argued that organizational culture should be accessed through the underlying values. They designed the Organizational Culture Profile scale (OCP) in an effort to quantify culture. Factor analysis of the OCP results indicated seven dimensions of organizational values at the firm level, namely: innovation, stability, respect for people, outcome orientation, attention to detail, team orientation, and aggressiveness. Although many cultural values underlie an organization's culture system, job seekers can comprehend only the most obvious. Innovation was found as the first dimension with the largest variance loadings at both the firm level and the individual level preferences. Sample items loaded highly on this dimension include "risk taking", "a willingness to experiment", and "innovation". Therefore, I argue that job seekers are likely to be able to grasp an organization's strategy, whether it was risk taking/innovative growth or conservative growth. Dimension 4 resembles the innovation dimension on the OCP scale.

1.4 Fit in the Eyes of Beholders

A person's actual fit with the organization is often less important than his/her own perception of fit. Indeed, in the performance appraisal area, perceived personality similarity as opposed to actual similarity was found to be a more consistent predictor of performance ratings (e.g., Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001). Ferris and Judge (1991) noted, "People react on the bases of perceptions of reality, not reality per se."

In addition, Judge and Cable (1997) found that subjective fit (job seeker's direct perception of fit) mediated the relation between objective fit (actual fit coefficient between the seeker's culture preferences and the organization's reputed culture) and organization attraction. Therefore, person-organizational fit should begin by examining the job seekers' perceptions of their fit to the organizations.

1.4.1 Studies Focused on Job Applicant Perception of fit

Rafaeli (2001) suggested that employment advertisement is a value source that often communicates many organizational characteristics to job applicants. Until recent years, few studies examined the appeal of an organization from the pre-application perspective.

For example, in a longitudinal study, Saks and Ashforth (2002) found that job search behaviors were positively related to both P-O fit and P-J fit; P-O fit perception was also positively related to attitudes towards the job and the organization. Hence, they argued that P-O fit perceptions play an important role

predicting both job search behaviors and employment quality. Cable and Judge (1994) also found that the individual differences of dispositions predicted one's preference of pay policies (e.g., flexible benefits, individual-based pay, fixed pay), in which pay policies can be considered as an inference of organization culture.

These studies have suggested that job seekers form perceptions about companies and estimate their fits to the offered positions. Such attitudes and fit assessments towards a given organization are very important because they not only influence the individual's job search behaviors, but also the employment quality in the future. Nevertheless, the individual's attitudes and assessments towards a given company are also dictated by one's dispositions and self-concepts.

1.5 Personality as a Predictor of Organization Preferences

As stated earlier, people attempt to find situations that are congruent with their personality and their self-concept. Therefore, a number of individual differences factors were related to P-O fit; these individual differences were also found to be important predictors of attitudes and job performance (e.g., Judge & Cable, 1997).

Personality was noted as a relatively stable and enduring set of dispositions that governs one's behaviors (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1992; Snyder & Ickes, 1985). A constellation of individual differences that may be especially important in predicting personal choices to situations is captured by the Big Five model of personality (Digman & Inouye, 1986; Goldberg, 1981, 1992; John, 1990).

There is apparent consensus that the basic structure of personality consists of five broadband dimensions or “superfactors” (e.g., Digman, 1997; Digman & Takemoto Chock, 1981; Ozer & Reise, 1994; Panter, Tanaka, & Hoyle, 1994). Indeed, recent studies have shown that if the scope of the measurement domain is large, five comprehensive personality factors consistently emerge - extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience/intellect.

This study predicts that persons different on the Big Five dimensions will prefer different working environments (i.e., organizational culture). For example, extraversion is the degree of sociability; therefore, extraverts enjoy being around people and being socially stimulated, the reverse is true for introverts (e.g., Watson & Clark, 1992). Hence, extraverts and introverts are likely to prefer different environments. As a result, extraversion can be an important factor in one’s choices to situations; a case can also be made for the other dimensions.

Conscientiousness is seen as an important factor in group living and is concerned primarily with matching behavior to performance standards (e.g., Hogan & Ones, 1997; Digman & Inouye, 1986; Graziano & Ward, 1992). The socioanalytic theory of Hogan (1982) suggests that conscientiousness is an interpersonal strategy that deals with members in a group. In addition, conscientiousness has been consistently linked to job performance (e.g. Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001; Salgado, 1997). Barrick, Mount, and Judge (2001) summarized findings from 15 prior meta-analytic studies that

linked the five-factor model to job performance. They concluded that people higher in conscientiousness perform better across all occupations. Although conscientiousness was generally found as a desirable trait at the work place, it was also suggested that conscientious individuals are controlled and risk-averse (Goldberg, 1990). Therefore, high conscientious individuals will likely prefer organizations that are better defined in structure and value conservativeness.

Neuroticism refers to one's ability for emotional regulation. Neuroticism/emotional stability was also found to be a reliable predictor of overall work performance although its relationship to specific performance criteria was less consistent in comparison to conscientiousness (Barrick, Mount & Judge, 2001). Openness to experience refers to a continuum of individuals ranging from those who are very open to new experiences to those who are down to earth and value traditions (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Therefore, people differing in these two dimensions are also likely to differ in their choices of organizations. Agreeableness is associated with the motive of maintaining positive interpersonal relations (Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001). Therefore, agreeable individuals were not expected to relate to the four culture dimensions in the present study. However, it could be associated with other organizational culture characteristics.

Indeed, the Big Five personality indices were related to individual's preferences of organizational cultures, as assessed using the OCP scale. Specifically, Judge and Cable (1997) found that individuals who rated high on

neuroticism were less attracted to organizations with innovative and decisive values as opposed to the ones rated low on neuroticism. Individuals who scored high on extraversion preferred more aggressive, team oriented and supportive cultures. The ones who rated high on openness to experience were more attracted to companies with innovative, detail-oriented and team-oriented cultures compared to the ones rated low on openness. Persons rating themselves high on agreeableness; however, were more attracted to company cultures that are supportive, and team-oriented. They were also less were attracted to cultures that are aggressive, outcome-oriented and decisive organizational cultures compared with their low agreeable counterparts. Finally, individuals who scored high on conscientiousness were more attracted to detail-oriented, outcome-oriented and reward-oriented cultures, but less attracted to companies valuing innovation compared to individuals who scored low on conscientiousness. In sum, the study showed that self-ratings of the Big Five personality explained an average of 23% of variances in culture values preferences.

The present study employs a decision-making process approach to study individuals' self-selections to organizations. Specifically, Judge and Cable (1997) provided ground rules for developing hypotheses with regards to the relationships between the Big Five personality dimensions and preferences/choices for organizations possessing different characteristics.

Assuming that the individuals' preferences for organizational cultures fully transfers to their decision-making for job choices, the following hypothesized were developed according to Judge and Cable's (1997) findings stated above:

Hypothesis 1: Individuals scoring high on extraversion will prefer organizations that value risk-taking growth and facilitate team-oriented work structures, and they will be less attracted to organizations that require formal business appearance.

Hypothesis 2: Individuals scoring high on conscientiousness will be less attracted to organizations valuing risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 3: Individuals scoring high on neuroticism will be less attracted to organizations that value risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 4: Individuals scoring high on openness to experience will be more attracted to organizations that value risk-taking growth.

1.6 Other Individual Differences Factors Influencing Company Choices

The term self-concept was defined by Baumeister (1997) as "the totality of inferences that a person has made about himself or herself". These inferences include the individual's personality and schemas, as well as his/her understanding of social roles and relationships.

Wylie (1974, 1979) reviewed the self-concept area and concluded that most research focuses on self-esteem. It was argued that the evaluative aspect is central to one's self-concept. Baumeister (1997) suggested that there are two major sources of self-esteem, the evaluative feedback one receives and direct

experiences of efficacy of success and failures. Some research suggests that the two aspects are not strongly related to each other (e.g., Franks & Marolla, 1976). Self-esteem and self-efficacy can be seen as the schemas that one infers about the self. Most studies found that self-esteem is quite stable over time (Baumeister, 1997).

Bandura (1977) noted that self-efficacy is the expectation to which people “can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcome” (p192). It was suggested that this expectation, which was developed through the evaluation of past experiences of attribution to successes and failures, is the determinant of behavior. More specifically, Bandura argues that self-efficacy or expectations determine an initial decision to engage in a task, to exert the amount of effort to task and the extent to be persistent. Self-fulfilling prophecy suggests that one’s expectations are often satisfied, and in turn, this leads to the validation and reinforcement of the initial assessment of self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy can be seen as related to self-esteem; at the same time, it is different from self-esteem because an individual’s expectation of mastery may not necessarily be fundamental to his/her core values that will affect the level of self-esteem. A substantial amount of research suggests that self-efficacy is related to task efforts, job performance and other personal outcomes (Bandura, 1986). In addition, Chen, Gully and Eden (2004) suggest that self-efficacy is more highly related to life outcomes that are influenced by motivation, whereas,

self-esteem is more associated with outcomes influenced by affect. Therefore, self-efficacy is a better predictor to job choices given that the task is well specified.

Although self-efficacy has been consistently found related to life outcomes and work outcomes, the relationship between general self-efficacy and preferences for organizational cultures or job choices were seldom explored. According to the definition and the findings on self-efficacy and life outcomes stated above, I hypothesized that *individuals who score high on self-efficacy will prefer a more individualistic/self-reliant culture as opposed to the ones score low on self-efficacy* (Hypothesis 5, see Chapter 2) because high self-efficacy individuals are more confident in their ability to accomplish tasks, therefore are more likely to prefer to rely on their own skills.

Locus of control (i.e., external versus internal) may be another important individual differences predictor in organization preferences. Locus of control refers to one's perceived degree of control in life, whether successes and failures are due to luck, chance, fate, power of other, or the own self (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control has been consistently been linked to many work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, stress, performance, perception of the job, compliance with authority and supervisory style (e.g., Spector, 1982; 1986). Therefore, locus of control can also be an important variable in predicting organization preferences. However, this relationship has never been explored.

Individuals with an internal locus of control orientation tend to attribute successes and failures to their own efforts and abilities. Therefore, I argue that

individuals who score high on internal locus of control will prefer individualistic/self-reliant, and conservative cultures compared to those scoring high on external locus control (Hypothesis 6, see Chapter 2). This is in part because successes can be better controlled and external factors (i.e., organization or team factors) impose less impact in the self-reliant and conservative environments.

Another individual differences factor, tolerance for ambiguity, can also be an important predictor of organization preferences. It is not difficult to predict that people with low tolerance for ambiguity are likely to avoid unstable or ever-changing environments and prefer companies that value traditions. Using the isomorphic theory, Quick, Nelson, Quick & Orman (2001) suggested that the control, the uncertainty, and the interpersonal dimensions are important aspects of person-environment fit related to managing stress. The individual differences in degree of tolerance for ambiguity may play an important role in governing one's self-selection behaviors to work environments. Specifically, I argue that *individuals who score low on tolerance for ambiguity will be less attracted organizations valuing risk-taking growth comparing to the ones who score high on tolerance for ambiguity* (Hypothesis 7, see Chapter 2) because innovative/risk-taking organizational culture represents greater uncertainties in the workplace.

CHAPTER 2

THE PRESENT THEORY IN CONTEXT

Ickes, Snyder and Garcia (1992) noted that an essential component in experimental research is random assignment of subjects to the manipulated situations. This method, however, eliminates the opportunity for individuals to self-select congruent situations where their dispositions or self-concepts can be fully manifested. Likewise, most research in the person-organizational fit area has focused on employees who have been hired, while the self-selection process of choosing to apply for certain organizations and the willingness to accept an offer is less explored.

Ickes and colleagues (1992) suggested that alternative methods, such as studying personal choices to hypothetical situations, can be used to examine the self-selection process in situations. However, hypothetical situations are not easily described through quantifiable scales. As a result, the four culture dimensions stated earlier were developed to contrast companies on the different aspects. A total of 16 scenarios, each representing a company's culture system, were formed based on all possible combinations of the four dichotomized culture dimensions. Participants can therefore rate the attractiveness of a given hypothetical company based on the qualitative culture descriptions.

2.1 Brunswik's Lens Model

Brunswik's Lens model (Brunswik, 1952; Hoffman, 1968) allows one to infer individual job seekers' use of information cues in decision-making processes utilizing the four previously stated culture dimensions. Although participants were given identical information about each hypothetical company, they were able to assign different weights to different culture dimensions when evaluating the attractiveness of the company. The focus of this study is to examine how individuals differ with regards to their judgment processes concerning the attractiveness of an organization based on the company's cultural characteristics.

2.1.1 The Full Lens Model

The basic Lens model includes three parts: the judge state (participant ratings of company attractiveness), the environmental cues (description of an organization varies on the four culture dimensions), and the true state (true attractiveness of the company; see Figure 1). The correlation between the attractiveness ratings and the true attractiveness of the company is called response accuracy, indicating judgmental accuracy from each judge. That is, the extent to which a judge can accurately identify the true attractiveness of the company. Conversely, each environmental cue represents a degree of relevance with regards to the true state; therefore, the correlation between each environmental cue and the true state is called cue validity or environmental

validity. Finally, the correlations between the attractiveness ratings and the environmental cues yield cue utilization, a representation indicating the extent to which a judge is employing the specific cues to make his/her judgment with regards to the company's attractiveness. In other words, the association between each cue and the company's attractiveness ratings represents the weight that the individual judge assigns to the cue as for determination of the company's attractiveness.

More specifically, the judgment (attractiveness ratings) and the true state (actual attractiveness) are predicted by an additive linear combination of environmental cues, which can be computed using multiple correlation methods.

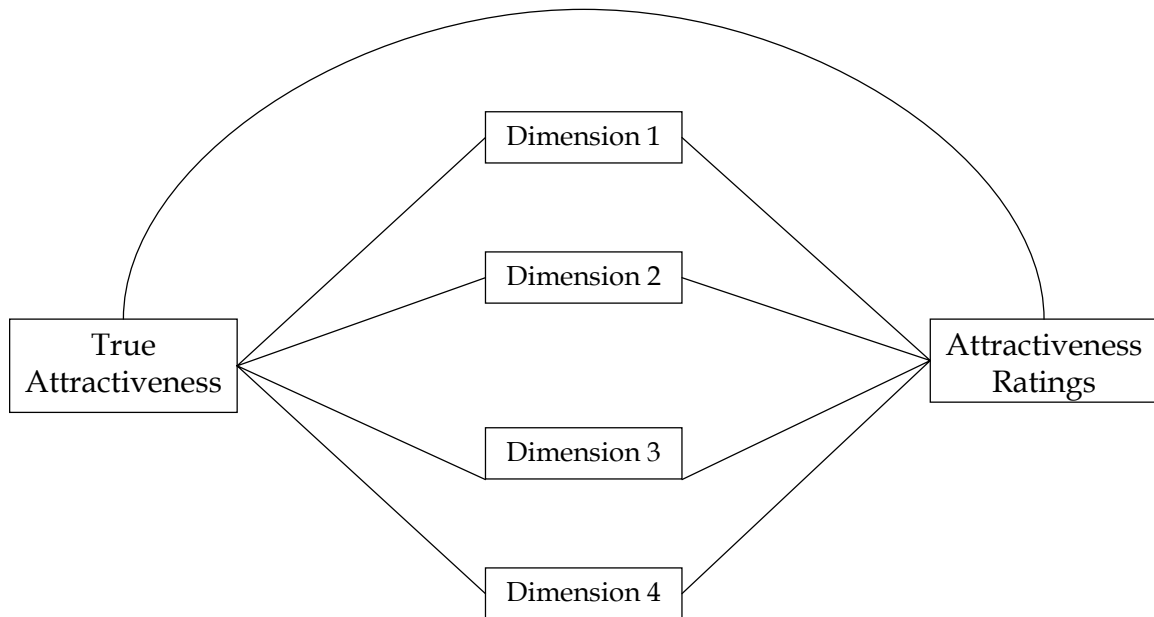


Figure 2.1 Regular Lens Model

2.1.2 Half Lens Model

It is impossible to identify the true attractiveness of a company because beauty is in the eyes of beholder. The same company may be more appealing to one individual as opposed to another. These differences in perceptions may be associated with the individual differences of personal factors, such as personality. This study is not concerned with the true attractiveness of companies, but the *perceptions* and *judgments* about the attractiveness of different companies. Therefore, it will focus only on factors that influence perceptions of company's attractiveness given contrasting culture descriptions. For this reason, the current study only employed half of the Lens model, neglecting the true state factor in the model (see Figure 2).

Using the bivariate correlational method, the relative weight that a participant assigns to the use of a cue can be assessed by correlating this individual's ratings of company attractiveness on the 18 scenarios (including the two repeated scenarios for reliability check) to the 18 pre-arrangement combinations for the four dimensions. In other words, four bivariate correlation analyses for each participant were conducted, and then four correlation coefficients were formed. The correlation coefficients represent the weight that a participant assigns to the environmental cue when making his/her judgments with regards to a company's attractiveness. These weight assignments or

judgmental processes (the focus of this study) may be associated with the individual differences factors (see Figure 2).

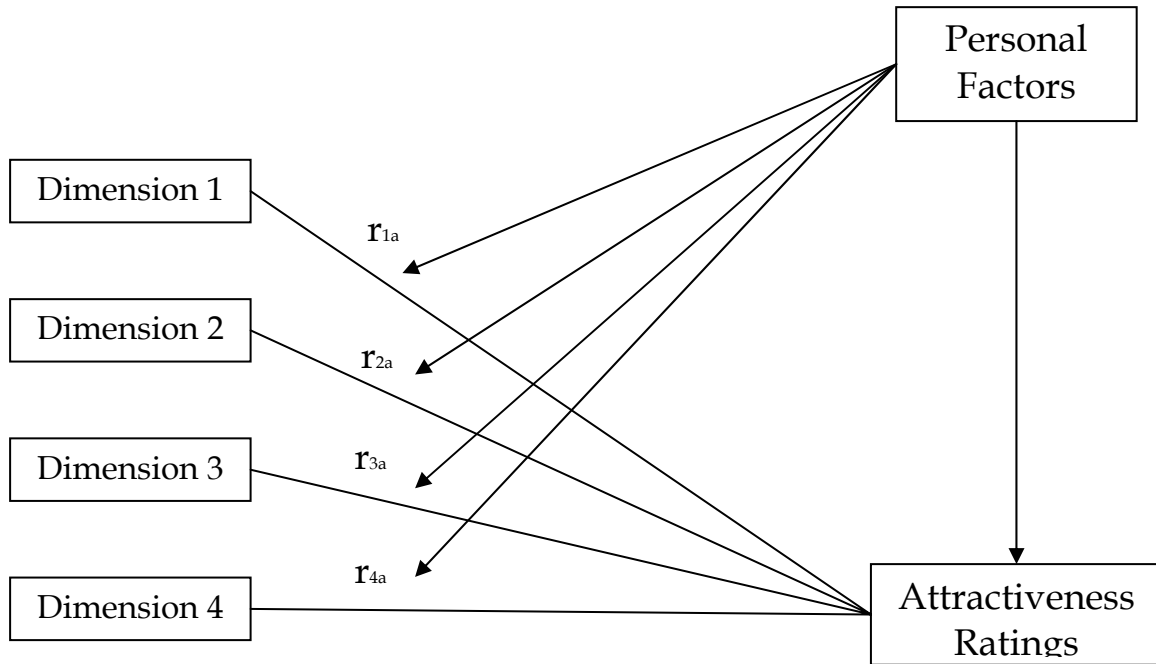


Figure 2.2 Half Lens Model

Hypotheses

As discussed in Chapter 1, the study by Judge and Cable (1997) provided clear support as to which individual differences, as represented by the Big Five personality, are related to one's preferences to organizational cultures as conceptualized by organizational values. The current paper hypothesizes similar findings; however, it takes a decision process perspective in measuring individual's rated preferences for organizations possessing different characteristics instead of simply reflecting on self-ratings of organizational culture statements. Specifically, I am interested in the association between the

individual differences factors and person's decisions about the attractiveness of companies. In other words, it was hypothesized that each individual assigns relative weights to different organizational culture dimensions culture when making his/her decision about the attractiveness of a company; the individual differences in weight assignments are related to the individual characteristic of the person. Specifically, seven focal hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis 1: Individuals scoring high on extraversion will prefer organizations that value risk-taking growth and facilitate team-oriented work structures, and they will be less attracted to organizations that require formal business appearance.

Hypothesis 2: Individuals scoring high on conscientiousness will be less attracted to organizations valuing risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 3: Individuals scoring high on neuroticism will be less attracted to organizations that value risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 4: Individuals scoring high on openness to experience will be more attracted to organizations that value risk-taking growth.

As stated earlier, individual's self-efficacy, tolerance for ambiguity, and attribution of successes and failures in life can also be important predictors to one's estimation of personal fit to an organization.

Hypothesis 5: Individuals who score high on self-efficacy will prefer a more individualistic/self-reliant culture.

Hypothesis 6: Individuals who score high on internal locus of control will prefer individualistic/self-reliant, and conservative culture.

Hypothesis 7: Individuals who score low on tolerance for ambiguity will be less attracted organizations valuing risk-taking growth.

In sum, this paper aims to examine the individual's self-selection processes to organizations in terms of his/her perceived fit. It is designed to build on previous studies in the P-O fit domain, and contribute to the understanding of job seekers' judgments about their fits to organizations that differ on common culture characteristics.

2.2 Unique Contribution of the Study

The present study employs a decision making model to examine the individual judgments about organizational preferences of job choices. Many P-O fit studies indicated that there are more preferable organizational cultures in general (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994). From the person-environmental fit perspective, however, it is also reasonable to believe different individuals can equally like many opposite styles of organizational culture. It is the fit that matters; some organizational cultures may be more attractive to certain individuals, but not to others. The present study aims to emphasize the importance of person-organizational fit.

Using correlational methods, Judge and Cable (1997) found that individual differences of personality were associated with preferences for different types of organizational cultures. However, the fuzzy theory perspective (Reyna et al., 1991) purports that individual's decision making processes often are not based on ratings of the fine grained item ratings, but is

driven by grasping the gist of different options and considering the large contraries among the choices. The current model allows examination of the discrepancy between item-ratings of culture preferences on the OCP scale and the decision about organizational attractiveness. Rousseau (1992) suggested that the values of a company are not most observable; therefore, individual job seekers may not perceive the same degree of “fit” with an organization as would be computed through correlating individual’s value preferences with the actual organization value ratings. Individuals may prefer certain types of organizations, yet, not able to discern values because key values may be vague to job applicants as outsiders. Therefore, perception of fit to the organization may undergo a different estimation. Since perceived fit with the organization consists of variances or errors that are subject to human observation and interpretation. Consequently, the actual value fit between the person and the organization may not necessarily influence job choice or organizational preference to the same degree as predicted through the correlations between the true value similarity of the person and the organization. Job seekers are more likely to grasp cues about a company’s culture through different compensatory means in the environment, and make decisions based on such.

Past research has seldom explored job seekers’ judgmental processes with regard to weights assigned to different environmental cues or organizational characteristics. When the job seeker is making inferences about an organization’s attractiveness and his/her fit with the company, he/she will assign different

weights to different characteristics. These weight assignments are indicators of the relative importance of the particular organizational characteristic to the individual when he/she is deciding a company's attractiveness. Given the design of the present study, the individual differences of the judgmental processes may be examined and linked to personal factors (e.g., personality).

Nonetheless, individual factors other than personality measures have not been examined. For example, one's self-concept as measured by the general self-efficacy and/or tolerance for ambiguity traits can also be important predictors of the individual's interpretation of organizational fitness.

In sum, the results of the present study can contribute to selection research and practical application to gain better understanding of job seeker perception of fit to different types of organization. As stated earlier, there are two types of fit: complementary fit and supplementary fit. Schneider and colleagues (1995) argue that supplementary fit may not necessarily be beneficial to an organization's effectiveness, given the concerns of groupthink. Understanding certain types of environments that are preferred by certain individuals can facilitate the effectiveness of a hiring or job advertisement process. For example, if a company is looking to hire individuals with specific characteristics, certain culture characteristics can be highlighted that attract the types of ideal candidates.

Along the same line, the self-selection theory argues that individuals not only select, but also construct environments that are congruent with their self-concept. Through a better understanding of the self-selection process, companies

can motivate certain individuals to construct or cultivate the desired organizational culture.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter includes the details about the sample of participants, the scales that were used, and the procedures for conducting the study.

3.1 Participants

The participants were graduate level Business major students at a mid-size university in northern Texas. A total of 222 students (male = 106, female = 116) participated in the study. These students were comprised of 92.4% Master's level students and 7.6% of Ph.D. students. The student majors included Accounting (17%), Business Administration (28.3%), Finance and Real Estate Management (11.2%), Health Administration (5.4%), Information System (6.7%), Management (6.3%), Marketing (16.6%), Industrial and Organizational Psychology (4%), and Others (1.3%). Of these 222 students, 57.4% were White Americans, 4.5% were Black, 30.5% were Asian, 4% were Hispanic and 3.6% were from other ethnic groups. A total of 49.3% of these students had over 5 years of work experience and 47.1% indicated between 1 - 5 years of work experience and 3.6% had no previous work experience.

3.2 Measures

Demographic information. Participants were asked to provide general demographic data about their gender, ethnicity, major, and classification in school (i.e., pursuing a Master's degree or pursuing a Ph.D. degree) (see Appendix D).

Personality measures. Participants were given the Big Five Inventory (BFI) to assess their personality on five broad dimensions, (*extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience* [for information regarding the BFI's reliability and validity, see John, 1990, and John, Donahue, and Kante, 1991]). Using the BFI, the participants rated the extent to which the forty-four statements described their own characteristics on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (see Appendix D). Specifically, they were asked to rate themselves on each statement beginning with the phrase "I see myself as someone who ...". Sample items include "is talkative", and "tends to find fault with others".

To be more consistent and less confusing for persons responding to the questionnaire, the rest of the scales were standardized and utilized the 6-point Likert-type ratings, of which 1 being "Disagree Very Much" and 6 for "Agree Very Much" (see Appendix D).

Locus of control. One's attribution and orientation as to the locus of control, or the degree of considering life events to be either due to internal efforts or external effects were assessed using the 16-item work locus of control scale

(WLCS) from Spector (1988). Sample items included “A job is what you make of it”, and “On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish” (see Appendix D).

Tolerance for ambiguity. the individual differences of tolerance for ambiguity using a 7-items scale from Ashford and Cummings (1985), which was adapted from Norton (1975). Sample items included “I do not like to get started in group projects unless I feel assured that the project will be successful”, “In a decision-making situation in which there is not enough information to process the problem, I feel very uncomfortable” (see Appendix D).

Self-efficacy. Participants were assessed on their level of self-efficacy using a 5-item subscale from Jones (1986). Sample items included “I do not anticipate any problems in adjusting to work in an organization” (see Appendix D).

Organizational Attractiveness. Participants were asked to rate the attractiveness of a fictitious company given that the different characteristics varied on the four dichotomized dimensions.¹ The four dichotomized culture dimensions formed a total of 16 scenarios, which included all combinations of variability. The 16 scenarios were randomized. To assess the reliability of individual ratings, two repeated scenarios were randomly chosen and included after the 16 scenarios. Using the 5-item scale from Highhouse, Lievens and Sinar

¹ A manipulation check was performed to examine the individual perceptions about fictitious companies. Specifically, six individuals were given the 18 company descriptions and asked for their opinions about each the company’s appearance (either Formal or Informal), the company’s structure (either Hierarchical or Flat), the work structure (either Teamwork or Self-reliant), and the company’s strategy (either Innovative/Risk Taking or Conservative). Responses from the six individuals were identically correct as predicted by the study.

(2003), participants were asked to rate the attractiveness of the 18 hypothetical organizations after reading their culture descriptions. Sample items included “for me, this company would be a good place to work”, and “I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort” (see Appendix D).

3.3 Procedure

A survey website was set up by a professional company. The use of the website was to ensure the professional appearance of survey, convenience of access, as well as to restrict participants from going back and comparing or changing answers from previous pages.

Every instructor who was teaching a graduate level Business class during spring of 2005 was contacted requesting a five-minute in-class introduction to students about the study. Approximately 70% - 80% of these instructors responded and agreed to the request. Using five minutes of class time, the study was introduced to students attending the class. Students were also given the link of the website to complete the survey. Student response rate is difficult to measure because many students were attending more than one participating class. However, a conservative estimate of response rate should be about 25 - 50%.

Towards the end of the survey, students were asked to enter their name, their email address and the name of their instructor. Three winners were drawn at the conclusion of the study for three prizes of \$100.00 each.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The present chapter first includes a series of preliminary analyses that examine scale reliabilities, descriptive statistics and manipulation checks to ensure data quality. Next, the correlations between individual differences factors were examined. Finally, the seven focal hypotheses were tested to examine the possible links between individual differences characteristics and preferences for different types of organizational cultures.

4.1 Reliability and Consistency of Ratings

There are two general ways to assess reliability, which can include the examination of internal consistency of scales and test of temporal stability. Specifically, reliability of each individual differences measure was examined, and the Cronbach's alphas, as the internal consistency measure, are reported for each scale. Overall, the scales used in the study were found reliable, $\alpha > .67$ (see Table 1).

Temporal Stability. Consistency of responses on organizational attractiveness ratings was computed by calculating the bivariate correlation between ratings from each pairs of the repeated scenario. The two repeated scenarios were arranged toward the end of the survey as company 17 and

company 18. The correlation coefficient for company 17 and the previous rated company (fictitious company # 9) was found reliable, $r = .69$. However, the correlation between company 18 and the previous rated company (fictitious company # 8) was only moderately related, $r = .45$. The average temporal stability of company ratings was .57. A couple of potential causes may be responsible for the discrepancy of reliability between the two repeated scenarios. First, there may be issues of fatigue towards the end of the survey; and therefore, ratings for company 17 were found more reliable than ratings for company 18. Alternatively, participants may be more confident in their ratings for the first repeated company scenario as opposed to the second company scenario given the difference in organizational culture descriptions.

4.2 Manipulation Check and Descriptive Statistics

The four organizational culture dimensions were developed based on several principles. First, the four dimensions should be relatively free of social desirability influence. Both dichotomized ends of the organizational culture descriptions should be equally attractive and there should be an equal number of people preferring either side of the dimension. As stated earlier, participants' decisions on company attractiveness are based on descriptions about each company and vary on the four culture dimensions. The use of environmental cues (the four culture dimensions) is derived through the correlation between his/her ratings of 18 scenarios and the 18 pre-arrangement combination descriptions for the four dimensions. If the means of these correlations are at

zero, then these dimensions are relatively free of the social desirability effect. Indeed, the means of correlation coefficients for each dimension preference were mostly near zero with wide ranges correlation coefficients from negatives to positives (see Table 2), while slightly more people preferred self-reliant work structure as opposed to teamwork oriented. Along the four culture dimensions, each dichotomized end of the dimension was preferred equally by different individuals.

Second, the culture dimensions were chosen because they are salient and often observable by job seekers. Participants were asked for the amount of information they often gather before they attend an interview. Over 83% of the participants indicated that they have some information about the company's stance on either side of the four dimensions before deciding whether to accept the position. The culture dimensions used in the present study were found relatively accessible or observable by job seekers; therefore it is more likely to be taken into consideration when making a job choice.

Third, the dimensions were chosen so that they are ideally orthogonal from one another given the interest in assessing the multiple aspects of organizational culture. A series of bivariate analyses were conducted and culture dimensions were found slightly correlated with one another (See Table 3). Specifically, participants who preferred organizations with formal appeal also preferred hierarchical structure of the company, more self-reliance in work structure and conservative growth of a company. Likewise, persons preferring

hierarchical company structure also preferred formal appeal of the company, self-reliant of work structure and conservative growth of a company.

Descriptive Statistics of Individual Differences Measure. Average composites were computed for each individual differences measure; namely, the Big Five personality dimensions (agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience), locus of control (larger number indicates a higher degree of internal locus of control), self-efficacy, and tolerance for ambiguity (larger number indicates lower tolerance for ambiguity). The minimum, maximum, means and standard deviations are reported in Table 4. Individual ratings on these scales appear to be reasonable in terms of ranges, means and standard deviations.

4.3 Intercorrelations of Individual Differences Factors

A number of individual differences factors were used in the study. The Five Factor model is one of the most widely accepted personality constructs that captures the individual differences between people. The relationship between personality and life outcome has been studied extensively in recent decades. For example, conscientiousness has been consistently found to be related to job performance (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). Therefore, the relationships between the Big Five personality and other individual differences factors (i.e., locus of control, tolerance for ambiguity and general self-efficacy) that have also been found related to work outcome is of particular interest to this study. To examine the links between the Big Five personality and locus of control,

tolerance for ambiguity, self-efficacy, and zero-order correlation were first computed.

Specifically, as stated earlier, average composites were computed on each individual differences dimension, for each of the Big Five (*extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, and openness to experience*), self-efficacy, tolerance for ambiguity, and internal locus of control. Next, using the Pearson correlation method, every possible pair of individual differences factors was examined. The Big Five dimensions showed some relatedness, which is not uncommon (Formy-Duval, Williams, & Patterson, 2004). However, the focus was on the relationships between Big Five personality and work locus of control, self-efficacy and tolerance for ambiguity; although the Big Five has been studied extensively in the recent decades, these relationships were seldom explored.

Specifically, low tolerance for ambiguity was found negatively associated with extraversion ($r = -.15, p < .05$), conscientiousness ($r = -.17, p < .05$), openness to experience ($r = -.25, p < .01$), and internal locus of control ($r = -.24, p < .01$). It was also positively associated with neuroticism ($r = .34, p < .01$).

Internal locus of control, on the other hand, seemed associated with the positive side of the Big Five (i.e., extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience). In particular, it correlated with extraversion ($r = .24, p < .01$), conscientiousness ($r = .17, p < .05$), openness to experience ($r = .14, p < .05$) and negatively correlated with low tolerance for ambiguity.

Likewise, general self-efficacy was also found related to the positive end of the Big Five personality; but was not significantly correlated with internal locus of control. Specifically, it was related to extraversion ($r = .19, p < .01$), conscientiousness ($r = .16, p < .05$), and openness to experience ($r = .15, p < .05$; see Table 5).

Predict Ratings on Other Individual Differences Factors from Ratings on the Big Five. The unique predictiveness of each Big Five personality dimension was next examined using regression analyses. That is, the Five Factor personality dimensions were all entered in the regression equation to predict either internal locus of control, tolerance for ambiguity or general self-efficacy while controlling for the shared variances of each. The Big Five personality significantly predicted ratings on tolerance for ambiguity $R^2 = .22, F(5, 222) = 8.22, MS\ error = 0.47, p < .01$.

Both neuroticism ($\beta = .30, t = 4.31, p < .01$), and openness to experience ($\beta = -.18, t = 2.78, p < .01$) dimensions were associated with low tolerance for ambiguity. In other words, neurotic individuals showed lower tolerance for ambiguity and persons high on openness to experience often had high tolerance for ambiguity.

There was an overall significance of utilizing the Big Five personality to predict ratings on locus of control $R^2 = .12, F(5, 222) = 5.70, MS\ error = 0.36, p < .01$. Neuroticism was also found negatively related to internal locus of control ($\beta = -.21, t = 2.97, p < .01$). Hence, neurotic individuals were more external locus

of control oriented. When all Big Five personality dimensions were included in the regression equation as predictors, none of the five dimensions were found to uniquely predict general self-efficacy, $p > .05$.

4.4 Testing of Focal Hypotheses

Overview

As earlier noted in Chapter 2, the 16 scenarios were formed as a 2 x 4 ANOVA design (as dummy coded by "1"s and "0"s) that included all possible combinations of the four dichotomized culture dimensions (see Table B1 & B2). The 16 scenarios were then randomized. Adding the two repeated scenarios to the existing 16 scenarios, a total of 18 observations or fictitious companies were formed (see Table B3). Participants were asked to rate the attractiveness of these 18 companies. The four pre-arranged dichotomized culture dimensions (as shown in Table B3) served as independent variables to predict attractiveness ratings outcomes. Finally, four bivariate correlations were computed to determine the association between the arrangements of each culture dimensions (using dummy coding of 1 and 0 representing each dichotomized end of four dimensions) and the 18 observations or company attractiveness ratings, which served as a single variable. Each participant produced four independent correlation equations, and the magnitude of the correlation between a dimension and the observations represents the weight that the individual assigned to the particular dimension when making judgments concerning the company's attractiveness. A larger correlation coefficient indicates that greater

consideration was given to a particular culture dimension when the individual was making judgments about the organization's attractiveness. The positive or negative signs of the correlation coefficients represent preferences for either end of the organizational culture dimension. Subsequently, these four correlation coefficients for each participant were then normalized using Fisher's z-score transformation method.

Next, the influence of demographic (e.g., major, gender, ethnicity) variables to individual preference of different culture dimensions was examined. The continuous demographic variable, years of work experience, was correlated to individuals' preferences for each of the four culture dimensions. Work experience was not found related to preferences for any of the four dimensions, $p > .29$. In addition, one-way ANOVAs were performed to examine if different demographic groups used environmental cues (organizational culture dimensions) differently or preferred different organizational culture style.

Finally, the judgment processes, with regards to the use of information cues, may be predicted by the individual differences factors. Therefore, the next step was to examine the relationship between the individual differences factors and the weight assignments to information cues (organization culture dimensions). Pearson correlation technique was first employed to assess the predictability of each personal factor to the use of each information cue or each of the four culture dimensions.

Culture Preference by Demographic Groups

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine whether organizational cultures were preferred by different demographic groups, namely by gender or by ethnicity. Focus was on whether different demographic groups would assign different weights to the four culture dimensions when making their decisions about company attractiveness. Results revealed that women indicated a stronger preference for formal business appeal ($\underline{M} = .07$, $SD = .27$) as opposed to men ($\underline{M} = -.01$, $SD = .24$), $F(1, 217) = 5.20$, $MS\ error = 0.07$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Please note that the means are the average of correlation coefficients, which range from -1 to 1. Preference for the other three culture dimensions was not found to differ between genders, $p > .05$.

Ethnicity was also found associated with the individual's preference for the four culture dimensions. However, ethnic groups were not equally sampled, therefore, results reported here are less reliable. Overall significance was found for preferences by ethnicity for the hierarchical/horizontal dimension $F(4, 215) = 5.71$, $MS\ error = 0.05$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .10$, for the team work/self-reliance dimension $F(4, 215) = 2.63$, $p < .05$, and for the risk taking growth/conservative growth dimension $F(4, 215) = 2.65$, $MS\ error = 0.04$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .05$. Post-hoc analyses were conducted for the significant ANOVA findings. Hispanics showed a much stronger preference for non-hierarchical companies ($\underline{M} = -.28$, $SD = .17$) as opposed to Blacks ($\underline{M} = -.10$, $SD = .21$), to Asian ($\underline{M} = -.03$; $SD = .25$) to Whites ($\underline{M} = .04$, $SD = .21$) and to other demographic groups ($\underline{M} = -.01$, $SD = .20$). Post-hoc

analyses did not show a significant difference between ethnic groups on preferences for the other three culture dimensions. The main reason is the unequal sample size. Although Hispanics in the current sample showed a much stronger preference for companies with flat structure, the results should be re-tested in other studies because of the concern for the small sample size of Hispanics and unequal samples among ethnic groups.

4.4.1 Bivariate Correlations between Individual Differences Factors and Organizational Culture Preferences

Hypothesis 1: Individuals scoring high on extraversion will prefer organizations that value risk-taking growth and facilitate team-oriented work structures, and they will be less attracted to organizations that require formal business appearance.

Hypothesis 1 was partially supported in that the extraversion dimension was negatively related to preference for formal business appearance ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$; see Table 6), and positively related to preference for company's value of risk taking growth ($r = .19$, $p < .01$; see Table 6). Extraverted individuals preferred organizations that cultivate casual environments and values risk taking growth. Individual ratings on extraversion were not found to be related to preference for teamwork cultures. Although individual differences factors predicted organizational culture preference at $\alpha = .01$ level, the relationships were relatively weak. A number of reasons can be named. First, the organizational culture descriptions were written in such a way that either stance of the culture style is positive/neutral to eliminate social desirability effect.

Participants may see merits about either end side of the organizational culture. Second, participants were rating company attractiveness based on incomplete information, such as pay, company size, location, etc., therefore, most participants chose not to rule out considerations for most companies.

Hypothesis 2: Individuals scoring high on conscientiousness will be less attracted to organizations valuing risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 2 was not supported in that ratings of conscientiousness were not found related to preference for the four culture dimensions (see Table 6), $p > .05$.

Hypothesis 3: Individuals scoring high on neuroticism will be less attracted to organizations that value risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 3 was not supported in that ratings of neuroticism were not associated with preference for risk-taking growth, $p > .05$ (see Table 6). However, neurotic individuals showed a stronger preference for companies that require formal appearance ($r = -.21$, $p < .01$; see Table 6).

Hypothesis 4: Individuals scoring high on openness to experience will be more attracted to organizations that value risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 4 was supported in that persons higher on openness to experience indicated stronger preference for companies that value risk taking growth ($r = -.14$, $p < .05$; see Table 6).

Hypothesis 5: Individuals who score high on self-efficacy will prefer a more individualistic/self-reliant culture.

Hypothesis 5 was not supported in that ratings on general self-efficacy were not found related to preference for self-reliant culture, $p > .05$ (see Table 6). However, ratings on general self-efficacy were negatively associated with preference for formal appearance ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$; see Table 6). That is, individuals who scored high on self-efficacy preferred companies that cultivate casual environments and less formal dress code are not required.

Hypothesis 6: Individuals who score high on internal locus of control will prefer individualistic/self-reliant, and conservative culture.

Hypothesis 6 was not supported in that ratings on internal locus of control were not found related to organizational culture preferences.

Hypothesis 7: Individuals who score low on tolerance for ambiguity will be less attracted organizations valuing risk-taking growth.

Hypothesis 7 was supported in that ratings on low tolerance for ambiguity were negatively associated with preference for risk-taking growth companies ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$; see Table 6). In other words, individuals who rated themselves low on tolerance for ambiguity preferred companies valuing conservative growth. In addition, low tolerance for ambiguity was also found related to preference for companies that require formal business appearance ($r = .18$, $p < .01$; see Table 6).

4.4.2 Supplementary Analyses

Supplementary analyses were conducted to examine if individual differences characteristics were related to the leniency of company attractiveness

ratings. For example, do individuals scoring higher on agreeableness rate companies as more attractiveness than the lower agreeable counterparts? Likewise, individuals scoring higher on self-efficacy may be more confident about working in different environments; as a result, their ratings of company attractiveness for the 18 scenarios were higher than the individuals scored lower on self-efficacy. To examine these hypotheses, the 18 company attractiveness composites were summed to form a single composite representing overall rating of company attractiveness; subsequently, the summed composite was correlated to the individual differences factors (i.e., the Big Five personality, locus of control, self-efficacy and tolerance for ambiguity). Indeed, supplementary analyses results revealed that individuals with an internal locus of control orientation rated companies as more attractive, $r = .14$, $p < .05$ compared to the more external locus of control counterparts. Likewise, individuals scoring higher on self-efficacy also rated companies as more attractive, $r = .26$, $p < .01$.

4.5 Conclusion

The preliminary analyses for the current data indicated that the scales used in the study are relatively reliable. In addition, individual ratings of company attractiveness were also found moderately reliable. The four chosen organizational culture dimensions were found to be relatively observable by job seekers through manipulation check. In addition, the correlations among the four culture dimensions were low which indicated that the multi-dimensional aspect of organizational cultures was assessed independently in the present

study. Finally, each side of the four dichotomized culture dimensions was preferred nearly equally by different individuals. Therefore, the principal argument for person-organizational fit is justified in that organizational beauty lies in the eyes of beholders. Testing of main hypotheses in the present study supported most of the claims that organizational culture preferences were associated with individual differences characteristics.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The present study took an experimental approach to investigate individual's self-selection processes to organizations. A decision-making model was utilized to examine people's use of environmental cues about organizations in making job choices. The present chapter discusses conceptual arguments for the study, interpretation of findings (in Chapter 4), and implications for practices as well.

5.1 Conceptual Arguments for the Study

Several conceptual arguments guided the development of the study. First, it was hypothesized that there is not a uniform culture preferred by all individuals; instead, people prefer different types of organizations depending on individual characteristics. Second, according to previous organizational culture theories, different aspects of an organization can be conceptualized or be perceived as defining culture. Organizational culture matters to a job seeker only when it is observable and can be contrasted and compared between prospective choices. Job seekers obtain company information or culture characteristics based on different environmental cues. In return, the information is considered when making job choice decisions. Lastly, it was hypothesized that individual

differences of factors, such as personality, often guide one's choices to organizations. In other words, I argue that people's preferences for different types of companies are associated with their individual characteristics.

In particular, the design of the study examines the individuals' ratings of company attractiveness when the given companies are different in cultural aspects. For this purpose, half of the Lens model (Brunswik, 1952) was used to determine specific weights that each participant assigns to a culture dimension when making decisions about the attractiveness of the hypothetical companies. Hogan (1983) argued, from the evolutionary perspective that people capitalize their advantage in group living through evolving his/her individual characteristics. This argument explains the underlying mechanisms for people's intentions and behaviors to select environments that are congruent to the self-concept; presumably, the individual advantage can be better fostered and cultivated in these situations.

People are actively seeking environments that are congruent with their own personality, values and interests. As a result, the individual differences factors, such as personality or tolerance for ambiguity, are important sources of information to predict liking for different environments or companies.

5.2 Making sense of the Present Findings

To test these hypotheses, the assumptions made for the study were examined. Specifically, the study was developed based on the assumption that individuals differ on their preference for ideal company cultures. There may not

be a single ideal company culture for everyone, while the preferences of organizations vary among individuals. Indeed, the results revealed that the four opposing culture characteristics were preferred almost equally by different individuals. Such findings validated the argument for person-environmental fit or for person-organization fit. That is, people differ with regards to their preferences for and self-estimate of fit with organizations. As other researchers have similarly found, job seeker perception of fit with a company is associated with employment qualities (Saks & Ashforth, 2002). And therefore, I argue that fitting the right candidate in the right company is a crucial consideration in the Selection process.

Second, differential organizational culture preferences were examined by both gender and ethnic groups. Women preferred companies requiring a formal dress code and emphasizing professional image presentation. Such findings may be associated with women's number threat in the workplace, and vulnerability to sexual harassment. Companies monitor and communicate their image to employees and outsiders through their presentation styles, whether it is casual/relaxed environment or a formal business environment. These images govern others' perceptions about the company, as well as employee interactions within the company, therefore, the company dress code policy may have served as a schematic representation for employee interactions. Similarly, companies that required a formal dress code and emphasized formality might have been

perceived as having less vulnerability to sexual harassment and that behaviors are more controlled at the professional level.

Hispanics in the current sample also showed a strong preference for non-hierarchical organizational cultures. This is interesting because the finding was opposite of what was often found about the Hispanic cultures in past research. For example, Hofstede (1980) reported that power distances were highest in Latin America. Likewise, other researchers also noted in anthropological descriptions of Mexican-American, Puerto Rican and Cuban culture that Hispanics are much more accepting of hierarchical cultures (e.g., Rogg, 1974). Ottai, Triandis and Hui (1999) also found that Hispanic naval recruits showed significantly higher scores in the power distance dimension from the Mainstream recruits, and were more tolerant of power distances within an organization. However, they also found that acculturation and biculturalism among Hispanics predicted greater similarity to the Mainstream recruits. Hispanic preference for flat organizations or lesser power distance companies may be a result of a compensation effect. Since the populations of Master's level Business classes are primarily comprised of White Americans or Asians in this particular school, few Hispanics were found in the graduate level of the Business school. Possibly through the pressure of acculturation, Hispanics in the present study were pressed to correct their differences with the Mainstreams, and resulting in a compensation effect. Again, the Hispanic sample was very small in the present

study; future research should further examine the acculturation and compensation proposition.

Third, the relations between individual differences and organization choices were examined (organizational choices or preferences, in the present study, are defined as weights that individuals assigned to characteristics of organizations when making decisions about the attractiveness of the company). A number of individual differences factors were considered in the present study; they included the Big Five personality (*extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience*), tolerance for ambiguity, locus of control and general self-efficacy.

The Big Five personality dimensions have been consistently linked to life outcomes. Among these, extroversion and neuroticism are most widely studied because of their apparent impact on social relations and wellness (Watson & Clark, 1997). In addition, both dimensions have been linked to the sensitivity of positive and negative affects (Eysenck, 1967; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1969; Gray, 1972, 1981).

It was suggested that extroversion is responsible for dispositional interest in social behaviors. For example, Costa and McCrae (1992) noted that extraverts "...like people and prefer large groups and gatherings" (p.15). Besides this obvious sociability aspect, extraverts are also seen as assertive and adventurous (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Based on these dispositional interests, it is reasonable to

believe that the individual differences of extraversion have a strong influence on people's interests of engaging in different environments.

Indeed, Judge and Cable (1997) reported that extraverts rated companies with aggressive, team-oriented cultures as more desirable places for employment and organizations with supportive cultures as less desirable places for employment. Are these items-rating preferences transferred into one's decision-making process for job choices? The results from the present decision-making study revealed that extraverts preferred companies that cultivate a casual environment and don't require formal dress code. Additionally, extraverts preferred companies that value innovation and encourage experiments for new concepts and ideas. The association between extraversion and preference for teamwork cultures was not found in the present study. When extraverts were making decisions about their fit with a work environment, they were more concerned with the company's strategic approach (i.e., risk taking versus conservativeness) and social appearance (i.e., formal versus informal) as opposed to work structure (teamwork versus self-reliant work structure).

Several reasons may help explain the inconsistent results from previous research. Although people may prefer different work environments, some preferences are given more consideration when making job choices, whereas others are not. For example, if extraverts were asked to rate their preferences on the culture scale, they may indicate their liking for teamwork cultures. However, when it comes to job choice decisions, these preferences are not taken into

consideration. Alternatively, that extraverts showed preferences for informal environments but not for teamwork based environments may imply that companies using an informal dress code policy may offer a stronger schematic representation for social stimulation as opposed to companies with teamwork cultures.

The neurotic dimension, on the other hand, is frequently associated with emotional reactivity and stress. For example, Gunthert, Cohen and Armeli (1999) asked college students to complete a 14-day questionnaire with regards to the occurrence of daily events, primary and secondary appraisals of the events and their moods. They found that high neurotic individuals reported having more interpersonal stress than low neurotic individuals. Likewise, using the diary method, Mroczek and Almeida (2004) found that there was a stronger association between daily stress and negative affect for persons high on neuroticism as opposed to their more emotionally stable counterpart. These studies clearly provided evidence for the association between neuroticism and stress or emotion susceptibility. From the biological perspective, Tellegen (1985) suggests that neuroticism can be seen as a warning system that is motivated to scan for dangers in uncertain environments.

Neurotic individuals should be motivated to avoid uncertainty and stress, and therefore, are motivated to seek out environments that are perceived as more controllable. Based on the correlational study by Judge and Cable (1997), neurotic individuals were hypothesized to be less attracted to companies that

value risk taking growth instead of conservative growth. This relationship was not found significant in the present study, although a relationship did occur in the predicted direction. Instead, neurotic individuals gave stronger consideration to organizational appearance, and preferred companies that required formal dress code. This is interesting given that one would predict that more stress should be associated with working in companies that value risk taking growth as opposed to conservative growth, and therefore, neurotic individuals should place a stronger weight into this aspect of organization culture when making his/her job choices. However, current results suggested that neurotics seemed to be more concerned with reducing daily uncertainty as opposed to long-term career uncertainty. The assumption behind this argument is that companies requiring formal dress code also set boundaries for interpersonal interactions, thereby reducing uncertainty involved in daily interactions. Or, possibly company dress code policy was a stronger schematic representation that could govern employee behaviors. Therefore, I argue that neurotic individuals may be more prone to interpersonal anxiety as opposed to job anxiety.

John and Srivastava (1999) described the openness to experience as a dimension that deals with the degree of originality, depth and complexity of mental and experiential life. Consistent evidence supported this notion that the openness dimension was associated with creativity and divergent thinking (McCrae, 1987). In addition, it has also been found as an important predictor for

vocational interest (Costa, McCrae, & Holland, 1984). Therefore, I hypothesized that this dimension influences the liking for companies that value innovation. Given the nonconforming and autonomous nature of high openness individuals (Goldberg, 1990), they should also be less attracted to teamwork-oriented cultures.

Indeed, results from the present study supported that high openness individuals considered companies that value innovation and encourage experimenting new concepts and ideas as more desirable place for employment. However, the relationship between ratings on openness and preferences for non-teamwork cultures was not found. High openness individuals may indicate a preference for non-teamwork oriented culture, while this preference was not given much attention when making the decisions for employment.

The conscientiousness dimension was hypothesized to be associated with preferences for companies that value conservative growth as opposed to preferences for companies that value risk taking growth. Although results were found in the predicted direction, a significant relationship between conscientiousness and the choosing of conservative work cultures was not established. Although hypothesis was that conscientious individuals preferred cultures that are less uncertain and better defined, this emphasis was not strong when they are making an occupational choice.

The agreeableness dimension was neither hypothesized nor found related to the four culture dimensions studied in the present study. Nevertheless,

agreeableness may be related to preferences for other organizational culture dimensions that are not included in the present study. Future research should examine the relations between agreeableness and culture dimensions other than the four that were studied in the present study.

Other than the Big Five personality dimensions, previous studies have not linked other individual characteristics to persons' ratings of company attractiveness, such as work locus of control, tolerance for ambiguity or general self-efficacy. These variables may also be important predictors for individual's preferences for different types of organizations. For example, persons with a lower tolerance for ambiguity may seek out environments that are perceived as more controllable. The relationships between these characteristics and organizational behaviors or work outcome were found from past research; it is important to understand the types of work environments that actually attract the types of job seekers.

Result revealed that persons who scored lower on tolerance for ambiguity showed a preference for organizations that require formal dress code and value conservative growth. Companies that cultivate a casual culture and/or value risk taking may typically be perceived as higher on ambiguity. Consistent with findings from Rafaeli (1993), dress code policy seems to serve as an important schematic representation for a company's culture. It also governs employee behaviors and sets boundaries for interpersonal processes in the workplace. The degree of controllability in interpersonal relationships within an organization

was indirectly inferred through this schematic representation and the degree of ambiguity was estimated.

Finally, company dress code policy was also found related to individual ratings on general self-efficacy. Persons who scored higher on general self-efficacy indicated a preference for casual environments as opposed to formal dress code. Based on the conceptual argument for self-selections, I argued that individuals with higher general self-efficacy probably believed that they are able to perform better in organizations that cultivate a casual environment. Alternatively, individuals who scored high on general self-efficacy may anticipate to perform equally well in either situation, while the casual environments are more comfortable to work in. Future research should be conducted to address the competing propositions for mechanisms that underlie the present findings.

5.3 Implication for Practices

First, the present study provided clear evidence for the argument of P-O fit and self-selections. Different individuals equally preferred opposing culture styles. For this reason, selection process should place a heavy consideration on person-organizational culture fit. As past research has suggested, P-O fit is related to job satisfaction and other positive organizational outcomes.

Second, findings in the present study replicated partial results from Judge and Cable (1997) with respect to the relationship between individual differences characteristics and organizational culture preferences. However, the results were

not entirely identical, suggesting that job seeker decision process may not simply be based on ratings for preferences of organizational culture scales, but was going through a different cognitive processing path. Practitioners may want to take this into consideration when applying findings to practice.

Third, different organizational cultures seemed to be preferred by different demographic groups, which may be especially relevant for companies trying to attract minorities. By emphasizing certain organizational culture styles, companies can be more efficient in attracting targeted demographic groups for applications or employment.

Increasing knowledge of job seeker judgment process with regards to job seeker estimate of fit with a company can increase the effectiveness of job advertisement and selection, allowing companies to emphasize certain organizational characteristics to attract certain types of individuals.

Personality psychologists argue that job performance is determined by both effort and ability. Individual differences of personality can explain the motivational aspect of job performance (Hogan, 1983, 1991, 1996). Indeed, recent meta-analyses studies on the Big Five and job performance have provided support to the argument (e.g., Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). Although the agreeableness and conscientiousness dimensions were not found related to preferences for the four culture dimensions studied in this dissertation, associations between extraversion, neuroticism and openness to experience in relation to culture preference were found. Companies can utilize the information

to better select and retain ideal employees for different positions. As discussed in Chapter 1, research has found that P-O fit was related to retention, job satisfaction and effective socialization. From this perspective, a company should not only aim to find good fits in selections, but also cultivate cultures that are desirable to current employees. For example, if an individual is hired for a position because of the innovation or risk-taking aspect of the company or the job, when the organization changes and gears more towards a conservations approach, management should take note of the changes and better adjust the employees to a more ideal position which allows the individual's characteristics to better manifest.

Agreeableness and conscientious dimensions may be related to other organizational culture styles that are not included in the present study. Future studies should further examine the associations.

In order to build a more satisfied and/or efficient job force, companies can mold their cultures to better fit current and future work forces and invite specific types of desired individuals for employment.

Last, but not least, the present study revealed findings mostly related to preferences for Dimension 1, Business Appearance and Dimension 4, Organizational Strategy. In other words, differential preferences for the Organizational Structure (hierarchical or horizontal) dimension and the Work Structure (team-oriented or self-reliant) dimension were not generally found related to individual differences factors. This is interesting because both Triandis

(1994) and Hofstede (1980) would have argued that these are the two very important organizational dimensions that differentiate companies from each other. The absence of findings in the present study suggested that company differences on these two dimensions may not be as meaningful to job seekers as opposed to the Business Appearance dimension and the Organizational Strategy dimension. Job seekers in the present study placed lesser weight on these two dimensions when making decisions for future employment. Future studies should investigate these unexpected absences of findings.

5.4 Conclusion

The present study adopts a decision making model to examine individual choices between different types of organizations. It was conducted under the assumption that people prefer different types of organizations and that organizational culture is an important aspect considered when making a job choice decision. Indeed, results supported the propositions and that individual difference factors were related to people's preferences or choices for potential employers.

The present study utilized an experimental approach to examine attractiveness ratings for hypothetical companies. The advantage is that findings in the study are generalizable and simultaneously, a strong limitation is installed. The companies that participants rated in the present study are hypothetical, by that nature realism is lacking. Future studies should use real companies that possess different culture characteristics to validate the present findings.

APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE DEFINITIONS

<i>Source</i>	<i>Definition</i>
Becker & Geer (1970)	Set of common understandings, expressed in language
Herskovits (1955)	Human-made part of the environment
Hofstede (1980)	Controls behavior in the same way that a computer program controls a computer
House et al. (1997)	Shared psychological properties
Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952)	Transmitted patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic systems that shape behavior
LeVine, (1984)	A set of schedules of reinforcement
Louis (1983)	Three aspects: 1) some content (meaning and interpretation) 2) peculiar to 3) a group
Lytle et al. (1995)	Frame that prescribes behavior
Martin & Siehl (1983)	Glue that holds together an organization through shared pattern of meaning. Three component systems: context or core values, forms (process of communication – e.g., jargon) strategies to reinforce content (e.g., rewards, training program)
Ouchi (1981)	Set of symbols, ceremonies, and myths that communicate the underlying values and beliefs of the organization to its employees
Poortinga (1992)	Shared constraints
Ronen (1997)	Common ways of viewing events and objects
Schein (1984)	Unconscious assumptions that guide the employees' actions and speech
Skinner (1953)	Shared meaning system
Swartz & Jordon	Pattern of beliefs and expectation shared by members that produce norms shaping behavior.
Triandis (1972)	Consists of both objective elements and subjective elements that predict social behavior
Uttal (1983)	Shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how things work) that interact with an organization's structures and control systems to produce behavioral norms (the way we do things here).

APPENDIX B

MANIPULATION TABLES

Table B1: Four Dichotomized Culture Descriptions.

Dummy Codes	<p>Dimension 1: Business Appeal</p> <p>1 Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company.</p> <p>0 The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional.</p> <p>Dimension 2: Organizational Structure</p> <p>1 The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder.</p> <p>0 There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.</p> <p>Dimension 3: Work Structure</p> <p>1 The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others.</p> <p>0 The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own.</p> <p>Dimension 4: Organizational Strategy</p> <p>1 Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.</p> <p>0 The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.</p>
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Table B2: All Possible Combination of Four Dichotomized Dimensions

#	D1	D2	D3	D4	Company Descriptions
1	1	1	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • The company is structured in the "chain of command" format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
2	1	1	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • The company is structured in the "chain of command" format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
3	1	1	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • The company is structured in the "chain of command" format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. • The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
4	1	1	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • The company is structured in the "chain of command" format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
5	1	0	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.

Table B2: All Possible Combination of Four Dichotomized Dimensions

#	D1	D2	D3	D4	Company Descriptions
6	1	0	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
7	1	0	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. • The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
8	1	0	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. • The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
9	0	1	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is "relaxed business" and Fridays are "dress down" optional. • The company is structured in the "chain of command" format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
10	0	1	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is "relaxed business" and Fridays are "dress down" optional. • The company is structured in the "chain of command" format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.

Table B2: All Possible Combination of Four Dichotomized Dimensions

#	D1	D2	D3	D4	Company Descriptions
11	0	1	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
12	0	1	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
13	0	0	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
14	0	0	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
15	0	0	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.

Table B2: All Possible Combination of Four Dichotomized Dimensions

#	D1	D2	D3	D4	Company Descriptions
16	0	0	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. • The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.

Table B3: Randomized Arrangement of the 18 Fictitious Companies

#	D1	D2	D3	D4	Company Descriptions
1	0	0	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
2	0	1	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
3	1	1	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
4	1	0	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
5	1	1	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
6	0	1	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.

Table B3: Randomized Arrangement of the 18 Fictitious Companies

#	D1	D2	D3	D4	Company Descriptions
7	0	1	0	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
8	1	0	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
9	0	0	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
10	0	0	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization. The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
11	1	1	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
12	0	1	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder. The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.

Table B3: Randomized Arrangement of the 18 Fictitious Companies

#	D1	D2	D3	D4	Company Descriptions
13	1	0	1	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • The company is structured in the “chain of command” format; employees are clear of whom to report to while pursuing their career and climbing the corporate ladder.
14	1	1	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
15	0	0	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
16	1	0	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company cultivates a casual environment. Dress code is “relaxed business” and Fridays are “dress down” optional. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
17	0	0	1	1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
18	1	0	0	0	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company values autonomy and self-reliance. Employees are expected to display self-initiative and be able to follow through on their own. • The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company. • There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
					<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others. • Employees are encouraged to experiment and take risks with new concepts and ideas. Risk is a company value that encourages growth and gains market shares.

APPENDIX C

RESULT TABLES

C1: Internal Consistency of Self-ratings on Individual Differences Measures

Extraversion	0.88
Agreeableness	0.70
Conscientiousness	0.75
Neuroticism	0.81
Openness to Experience	0.76
Locus of Control	0.83
Tolerance for Ambiguity	0.71
Self Efficacy	0.67
<u>Company Attractiveness *</u>	<u>0.94</u>

Note: an averaged Cronbach's alpha derived from 18 company ratings

C2: Descriptive Statistics of Weights Assigned to Each Dimension

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Formal Organizations	-0.50	0.74	0.03	0.24
Hierarchical Structure	-0.65	0.59	0.00	0.22
Team Work	-0.77	0.65	-0.12	0.29
Risk Taking Growth	-0.48	0.59	0.01	0.20

C3: Intercorrelation of Organization Culture Dimensions

	1	2	3
Formal Organizations			
Hierarchical Structure	0.28		
Team Work	-0.20	-0.28	
Risk Taking Growth	-0.33	-0.30	0.03

C4: Descriptive Statistics of Individual Differences Measures

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Extraversion	1.25	5.00	3.41	0.88
Agreeableness	2.00	5.00	4.03	0.55
Conscientiousness	2.56	5.00	4.13	0.58
Neuroticism	1.13	4.38	2.61	0.76
Openness to Experience	2.00	5.00	3.78	0.60
Internal Locus of Control	1.29	5.43	3.53	0.74
High Tolerance for Ambiguity	2.06	5.94	4.38	0.63
Self-efficacy	1.60	6.00	4.19	0.77

C5: Intercorrelations among Individual Differences Factors

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extraversion							
Agreeableness	0.21**						
Conscientiousness	0.17**	0.18**					
Neuroticism	-0.37**	-0.24**	-0.21**				
Openness to Experience	0.29**	0.15*	0.11	-0.22**			
Low Tolerance for Ambiguity	-0.15*	-0.06	-0.17*	0.34**	-0.25**		
Internal Locus of Control	0.24**	0.09	0.17*	-0.29**	0.14*	-0.24**	
Self-efficacy	0.19**	0.04	0.16*	-0.12	0.15*	-0.12	-0.08

Note: **p< .01; *p< .05

C6: Correlations between Individual Differences Factors and Organizational Culture Preference

	Formal	Hierarchical	Team Work	Risk Taking Growth
Extraversion	-0.21**	-0.13	0.07	0.19**
Agreeableness	-0.01	-0.02	0.04	0.01
Conscientiousness	-0.05	-0.03	0.13	-0.08
Neuroticism	0.21**	0.06	-0.08	-0.10
Openness to Experience	-0.05	-0.03	-0.02	0.14*
Low Tolerance for Ambiguity	0.18**	0.02	0.01	-0.19**
Internal Locus of Control	-0.10	0.05	0.13	-0.07
Self-efficacy	-0.20**	-0.12	0.07	0.13

Note: **p< .01; *p< .05

APPENDIX D

MEASURES

General Information

Major: Accounting Business Administration Finance and Real Estate Management Health
Administration Information System Management Marketing I-O Psychology

Standing: (circle one): pursuing a Master's degree pursuing a Ph.D. degree

Sex (circle one): Male Female

Ethnicity: White Black Asian Hispanic Others

Years of Work Experience _____

Have you seriously looked for a professional job? Yes No

Have you been in a full-time salary position? Yes No

Have you ever been in a managerial position? Yes No

Are you currently looking for a professional position? Yes No

How likely are you to research and learn about the company before applying for a position?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5

Never Sometimes Usually Most Often Always

How likely are you to research and learn about the company you before attending a job interview?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5

Never Sometimes Usually Most Often Always

How likely are you to research and learn about the company before accepting a job offer?

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5

Never Sometimes Usually Most Often Always

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who *likes to spend time with others*? Please choose a number for each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. -

Disagree Strongly 1	Disagree a little 2	Neither Agree nor Disagree 3	Agree a little 4	Agree Strongly 5
---------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

I see myself as someone who

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>___ 1. is talkative</p> <p>___ 2. tends to find fault with others</p> <p>___ 3. does a thorough job</p> <p>___ 4. is depressed, blue</p> <p>___ 5. is original, comes up with new ideas</p> <p>___ 6. is reserved</p> <p>___ 7. is helpful and unselfish with others</p> <p>___ 8. can be somewhat careless</p> <p>___ 9. is relaxed, handles stress well</p> <p>___ 10. is curious about many different things</p> <p>___ 11. is full of energy</p> <p>___ 12. starts quarrels with others</p> <p>___ 13. is a reliable worker</p> <p>___ 14. can be tense</p> <p>___ 15. is a creative problem solver, a deep thinker</p> <p>___ 16. generates a lot of enthusiasm</p> <p>___ 17. has a forgiving nature</p> <p>___ 18. tends to be disorganized</p> <p>___ 19. worries a lot</p> <p>___ 20. has an active imagination</p> <p>___ 21. tends to be quiet</p> <p>___ 22. is generally trusting</p> <p>___ 23. tends to be lazy</p> <p>___ 24. is emotionally stable, not easily upset</p> <p>___ 25. is inventive</p> | <p>___ 26. has an assertive personality</p> <p>___ 27. is cold and aloof , reserved</p> <p>___ 28. perseveres until the task is finished</p> <p>___ 29. can be moody</p> <p>___ 30. values artistic, aesthetic experiences</p> <p>___ 31. is sometimes shy, inhibited</p> <p>___ 32. is considerate and kind to almost everyone</p> <p>___ 33. does things efficiently</p> <p>___ 34. remains calm in tense situations</p> <p>___ 35. prefers work that is routine</p> <p>___ 36. is outgoing sociable</p> <p>___ 37. is sometimes rude to other</p> <p>___ 38. makes plans and follows through with them</p> <p>___ 39. gets nervous easily</p> <p>___ 40. likes to reflect, play with ideas</p> <p>___ 41. has few artistic interests</p> <p>___ 42. likes to cooperate with others</p> <p>___ 43. is easily distracted</p> <p>___ 44. is sophisticated in art, music, or literature</p> |
|--|--|

PLEASE CHECK: DID YOU WRITE A NUMBER IN FRONT OF EACH STATEMENT?

WLCS

Please choose a number for each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. -

Disagree Very Much 1	Disagree 2	Disagree Slightly 3	Agree Slightly 4	Agree 5	Agree Very Much 6
----------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	------------------------	------------	-------------------------

- 1. A job is what you make of it
- 2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish
- 3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.
- 4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.
- 5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.
- 6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.
- 7. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort
- 8. In order to get a really good job you need to have family members or friends in high places.
- 9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.
- 10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.
- 11. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job.
- 12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.
- 13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.
- 14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it.
- 15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do.
- 16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.

TFA

- 1. I do not like to get started in group projects unless I feel assured that the project will be successful.
- 2. In a decision-making situation in which there is not enough information to process the problem, I feel very uncomfortable.
- 3. I don't like to work on a problem unless there is a possibility of coming out with a clear-cut and unambiguous answer.

- ___ 4. I function very poorly whenever there is a serious lack of communication in a job situation.
- ___ 5. in a situation in which other people evaluate me, I feel a great need for clear and explicit evaluations.
- ___ 6. If I am uncertain about the responsibility of a job, I get very anxious.
- ___ 7. A problem has little attraction for me if I don't think it has a solution.

SFS

- ___ 1. I do not anticipate any problems in adjusting to work in an organization.
- ___ 2. I feel I am overqualified for the job I will be doing.
- ___ 3. I have all the technical knowledge I need to deal with my new job, all I need to now is practical experience.
- ___ 4. I feel confident that my skills and abilities equal or exceed those of my future colleagues.
- ___ 5. My past experiences and accomplishments increase my confidence that I will be able to perform successfully in an organization.

Please choose a number for each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. -

Disagree Very Much 1	Disagree 2	Disagree Slightly 3	Agree Slightly 4	Agree 5	Agree Very Much 6
----------------------------	---------------	---------------------------	------------------------	------------	-------------------------

Company FWO possessed the following characteristics:

- Business attire is required at all times. Office settings and dress codes clearly communicate the professional image of the company.
- There are few levels of staff ranking at the company, and information is usually shared freely within the organization.
- The company facilitates a team-based culture, members are expected to be team players and collaborate with others.
- The company believes that competition is valuable to economy growth; accordingly, the top performers within each department will be retained and promoted
- The company values tradition, conservatism and predictability. Team members have steered the organization towards growth at a steady, conservative and controlled pace over the years.

- ___ 1. For me, this company would be a good place to work
- ___ 2. I would not be interested in this company except as a last resort
- ___ 3. This company is attractive to me as a place for employment
- ___ 4. I am interested in learning more about this company
- ___ 5. A job at this company is very appealing to me.
- ___ 6. I believe I will be a good fit to this company.

Post Questions

During the different stages of your job searching and job application process, please rate the amount information you often manage to gather to decide on where the prospected company's stance on either of the following characteristics.

No Information 1	Little Information 2	Some Information 3	Much Information 4	All Needed Information 5
------------------------	----------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------------

Formal versus Informal with regard to Business Appeal

- ___ 1. when I decide to apply for an opening position.
- ___ 2. when I decide to attend an interview
- ___ 3. when I decide to accept the offer

Hierarchical versus Horizontal with regard to Organizational Structure

- ___ 4. when I decide to apply for an opening position.
- ___ 5. when I decide to attend an interview
- ___ 6. when I decide to accept the offer

Team Oriented versus Self-Reliant with regard Work Structure

- ___ 7. when I decide to apply for an opening position.
- ___ 8. when I decide to attend an interview
- ___ 9. when I decide to accept the offer

Risk Taking Approach versus Conservative Approach with regard to Strategic Values

- ___ 10. when I decide to apply for an opening position.
- ___ 11. when I decide to attend an interview
- ___ 12. when I decide to accept the offer

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Sarah Chan received her B.A. from the Florida Atlantic University majoring in Social Psychology with a minor in Business. Her M.S. degree was from the University of Texas at Arlington examining the influence of personal and situational factors that influence performance evaluations. She has worked under the supervision of Dr. Lauri Jensen-Campbell since her undergraduate years on research related to personality, cross-cultural, psychophysiology, and developmental psychology. Upon obtaining her Master's degree in Psychology, she worked with Dr. Ira Berntein and Dr. James Campbell Quick on Personnel and Selections.