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**The Graduate School**

**School of Hotel, Restaurant and Recreation Management**

**THE EFFECT OF PERSONAL VALUES,  
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, AND PERSON-  
ORGANIZATION FIT ON INDIVIDUAL OUTCOMES  
IN THE RESTAURANT INDUSTRY**

**A Thesis in**

**Man-Environment Relations**

**by**

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## ABSTRACT

Person-Organization fit seeks to identify how congruence of organizational culture and individual values predicts individual attitudes and behaviors. This study developed the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP), an instrument to assess perceived organizational culture, preferred organizational culture (interpreted as individual values), and person-organization (P-O) fit in hospitality organizations. The instrument was administered to a sample of 326 employees representing 34 restaurants. A seven-factor structure of organizational culture was identified. A .67 correlation among culture profiles of 26 restaurants suggests an industry-wide restaurant culture exists.

Then, perceived organizational culture, preferred organizational culture, and the fit between the two (P-O fit) were assessed as predictors of job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization. Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted at the individual-level and cross-level. Among perceived culture factors, only the Honesty/People Orientation factor predicted the outcomes. Among preferred culture factors, the Honesty/People Orientation and Fair Compensation/Employee Development factors predicted the outcomes. Perceived and calculated P-O fit were assessed. Mixed and limited results in correlating the measures indicate continuing questions about measurement of P-O fit. Perceived fit was found to explain variance in the outcomes beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values, but calculated fit did not. Perceived and calculated P-O fit explained significant variance in the outcomes when perceived and preferred culture were not in the model.

For hospitality research, the HICP provides a tool to further assess culture, individual values, fit, and their effects. For hospitality practice, the findings support hiring and socializing employees to enhance fit, and managing employees to demonstrate people orientation, honesty, and overall concern for employees' well-being.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

An organization can be only as effective as its people. This aphorism is especially true for restaurant firms, which are characterized by continual and intense customer-staff contact. Moreover, the dynamic interaction inherent in these service encounters means that customer contact personnel in service organizations exert a strong influence on customers' perceptions of service quality and their satisfaction with that service (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994).

Heskett et al. (1994) proposed a model of a service-profit chain linking employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction, and organizational performance. According to this model, internal service quality (for example, fair rewards) drives employee satisfaction, which leads to attentive customer service, then to customer satisfaction and loyalty, and finally to organizational profits and growth. Meanwhile, a growing body of evidence supports an association between employee attitudinal variables and organizational performance (Hallowell, Schlesinger, & Zornitsky, 1996; Schmit & Allscheid, 1995). Chatman (1991) and O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) found employee attitudes, as well as their behavioral intentions, to be directly related to their demonstrated behaviors. These researchers found that satisfied employees were likely to stay with their organization and contribute to its financial success and that employees' "intent to quit," a behavioral intention, predicted actual turnover behavior. Moreover, these attitudes and intentions influence employee effectiveness, customer service, and organizational performance. Thus, it appears

that restaurant managers could gain a valuable competitive advantage by understanding the critical factors that shape employees' attitudes and subsequent behavioral intentions.

Despite the undeniable influence employees exert over the success of operations in the restaurant industry, the factors that influence employee satisfaction and behavioral intentions have been underresearched in the full-service restaurant context. Employee satisfaction studies have been conducted in quick service restaurants (NCS and National Food Service Security Council, 1999), in institutional food services (Bartlett, Propper, & Scerbo, 1999), and in hotels (Mok & Finley, 1986; Pavesic & Brymer, 1990; Pizam & Neumann, 1988; Pizam & Chandrasekar, 1983). But no study appears to have investigated the antecedents of employees' job satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the intense customer-contact environment of full-service or table-service restaurants. Further, the studies that have been done were limited to the evaluation of either individual-level or organization-level antecedents, while a growing body of research suggests a need to examine the combined effect of individual and organizational factors on employee satisfaction (Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996).

In response to this research gap, the study reported here tests the combined ability of individual and organizational factors to predict (1) job satisfaction, (2) intent to quit, and (3) willingness to recommend an employee's organization, in a full-service restaurant context. Because of the positive relationship between employee satisfaction and organizational performance (Hallowell et al., 1994; Wright & Staw, 1999), identifying the factors that shape employee satisfaction in restaurant organizations is vital. Because the intent to quit has been found to predict actual turnover (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991) and these intentions tend to hinder job performance (Sheridan, 1992), the value in exploring

contributing factors to turnover intention is also evident. Finally, because previous research indicates that a large percentage of new job applicants come from referrals of existing employees, and referred applicants often demonstrate high performance and low turnover (Morehart, 2001; Wanous & Colella, 1989), the third dependent variable in the study is a willingness to recommend the organization as a good place in which to work.

In studying these outcomes, organizational researchers tend to explain employee satisfaction and behavioral intentions in terms of either organizational or individual characteristics. Organizational characteristics researchers or “situationalists” are concerned with how people make sense of their environment, while also identifying those environmental elements that affect attitudes and behaviors (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; Sheridan, 1992). The situational perspective emphasizes measurement of the environment as a method of predicting attitudes and behaviors. On the other hand, individual characteristics researchers or “personalogists” suggest that such individual characteristics as personality traits, values and beliefs affect attitudes and actions in consistent and characteristic ways across situations and over time (Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986; Weiss & Adler, 1984). The personal approach emphasizes that one can predict behavior by measuring needs, traits, values, and motives.

Traditionally, personalogists and situationalists have tried to show how either the person or the situation alone affects attitudes and behaviors. The personal versus situational debate has led, however, to a school of thought contending that behavior in organizations results from the complex interaction between features of the organizational context and characteristics of individuals (Chatman, 1991; House, Shane, & Herold, 1996). Research oriented this way has evolved into an interactional perspective based on the fit or

correspondence of individual and organizational values. Thus, person-organization (hereafter, P-O) fit is defined as congruence between the values of organizations (their culture) and the values of individuals (Chatman, 1989). Values—for people and organizations—are generalized ideological justifications both for appropriate behaviors and for the activities and functions of the system (Chatman, 1989). P-O fit is based on the assumption that individuals seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their organization (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). Correspondence between the employee's values and the organization's value system represents a measure of P-O fit, and this correspondence can predict behavior in organizations.

Although the study and application of P-O fit offers promise for influencing behavior, most P-O fit studies to date have proceeded in either “classroom” or “strong situations.” In classroom studies, researchers assessed students' personal characteristics, presented those students with descriptions of hypothetical organizations, and found the students preferred organizations with characteristics that matched their personalities (Bretz, Ash, & Dreher, 1989; Cable & Judge, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Turban & Keon, 1993). But because classroom simulation involves artificial organizations, generalizability to real organizations is in question.

A “strong situation” provides accepted rules and guidelines for behavior. For example, in government or military settings activities are often determined by formal organizational structures. These institutionalized rules and guidelines lead individuals to adopt attitudes and behaviors consistent with the organizational methods and mission and minimize the effects of the individual traits participants bring to their organizations (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989). Therefore, P-O fit studies conducted in strong situations like

government agencies or public accounting firms (Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991) may again fail to capture the fit between individual and situation.

Restaurants offer environments conducive to P-O fit studies because restaurants provide relatively flexible situations that allow employees a greater range of responses to work requirements, while encouraging them to add their personal interpretations to the organizational settings. Yet although restaurants offer an ideal setting in which to study P-O fit, only two limited studies have occurred in the restaurant industry. Enz (1988) conducted her research in the corporate headquarters of a quick-service restaurant chain, but did not include operations-level service employees. Tidball (1988) studied what she termed "ideological congruence" but conceptualized and operationalized a different construct from most fit research. In addition to the lack of research into P-O fit, only a few studies have analyzed individual characteristics or organizational culture individually in the restaurant industry, and none of these investigated the dependent variables used in this study. For example, undertaking individual characteristics research, Dienhart, Gregorie, and Downey (1990) and Groves, Gregorie and Downey (1995) studied the influence of restaurant employees' service orientation on such organizational performance outcomes as sales and productivity. Studies into organizational culture in the restaurant industry (Fintel, 1989; Woods, 1989) have been limited to only a few organizations, and their observational nature and limited use of quantitative techniques kept those researchers from making reliable generalizations regarding the elements of culture that affect performance. Given these limitations, a need exists to ascertain the influence of individual values, organizational culture, and P-O fit on employees' attitudes and behavioral intentions in a wide sample of restaurant organizations.



### Purpose of the Study

This research explores how the shared values of restaurant organizations (their culture) and the values of individual employees are associated with employees' job-related attitudes and behavioral intentions. More importantly, the study investigates whether person-organization fit contributes to explanations of employee job satisfaction, intent to quit, and willingness to recommend the organization beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values.

### Significance of the Study

The study is significant and important for at least five reasons. First, it helps fill the gap in individual characteristics research in restaurants by testing individual values as predictors of attitudes and behavioral intentions. Second, it contributes to understanding of organizational culture in restaurant organizations. Third, the introduction of quantitative measurement to restaurant culture research invites comparisons of individual and organizational values, and more accurate assessments of their influence. Fourth, it increases understanding of P-O fit, compares multiple measures of fit, and provides a model that encourages and facilitates P-O fit research in restaurants. Finally, this study adds external validity to the P-O fit and hospitality literature by explaining human behavior in actual organizational contexts.

## CHAPTER II

### A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

One of the biggest challenges restaurant managers face is to attract, retain, and develop service-oriented employees. One way to meet this challenge is to ensure a match between organizational values and the values of those they hire. Understanding person-organization (P-O) fit can help managers select employees whose values and beliefs match those of the organization and configure socialization experiences to strengthen that match. Thus, research into P-O fit may provide legitimate insight into improving fit and retaining employees over the long term. Particularly in the restaurant industry, which is imbued with a distinct set of “service” values, but is known for high levels of employee turnover, this information could be invaluable.

The following literature review suggests the contribution P-O fit research could make to both hospitality scholarship and industry operations. This review examines the conceptual and empirical developments in organizational culture, individual values, and the interactional (P-O fit) literature, and concludes with a review of the outcome and control variables used in the study presented here.

#### Organizational Culture

Despite increased research interest and industry discussion about the importance of corporate or organizational culture, there is no consensus about exactly what the term means. Considerable agreement and overlap do exist, however, regarding the key elements and

dimensions of organizational culture, including those of shared meanings, norms, values and beliefs (Denison, 1996). Values and beliefs constitute the primary elements in organizational researchers' various conceptualizations of culture (Chatman, 1989, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schein, 1985, 1996; Vandenberghe, 1999). In this study, organizational culture is defined as the values members of an organization share. Many researchers prefer this definition because these shared values are relatively stable and enduring and interact with a company's people and organizational structure to produce patterns of behavior (Chatman, 1991).

Organizations do not possess values apart from the values of their members. Thus, an organizational value system (or culture) is said to exist when (1) individuals know that group support for a given belief exists, (2) a majority of active members are in agreement, and (3) the core values of an organization are intensely held throughout the organization (Chatman, 1991). To the extent that these criteria are met, culture is a relevant and important unit of analysis (Chatman, 1991). Researchers use various methods and instruments to measure organizational cultures or values, and the next section briefly describes these methods and instruments.

### Measuring Organizational Culture

Organizational culture has traditionally been assessed by such qualitative methods as interviews and observations (Smircich, 1983). Qualitative research tools are preferable to quantitative instruments in helping researchers understand such manifest level elements of culture as artifacts and stories. However, observation and interviews may encourage employees to behave differently (usually better) and respond to interview questions in a way

they perceive to be socially desirable. Moreover, a participant observer may interpret observations subjectively. Quantitative methods, on the other hand, offer advantages for cross-sectional organizational research and large-scale studies (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). They enable culture researchers to replicate assessments of culture in different units and to readily compare data across studies. Objective questions are also less prone to social desirability bias than interviews. This study uses a quantitative instrument to explore organizational culture across a broad sample of restaurant organizations.

Researchers have utilized several quantitative instruments to measure work values, including (1) the Survey of Work Values (SWV) (Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, Smith, 1971); (2) the Meaning and Value of Work Scale (MVW) (Kazanas, 1978); (3) the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) (O'Reilly et al., 1991); (4) the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989); and (5) the Organizational Values Congruence Scale (OVCS) (Enz, 1986). The number of items and value dimensions measured in each are shown in Table 2.1. The Table format demonstrates that some value dimensions are very

Table 2.1  
Organizational Value (Culture) Dimensions Found by The Five Value Instruments

<u>The OCP</u> (54 items)	<u>The CES</u> (24 items)	<u>The OVCS</u> (19 items)	<u>The SWV</u> (42 items)	<u>The MVW</u> (50 items)
Innovation				
Stability				
Respect for people	Concern for others	Valuing employees		Interperson. relations
Outcome orientation	Achievement	Valuing profits	Earnings	Econ. independence
Attention to detail				
Aggressiveness			Upward striving	
Team orientation				
	Fairness			
	Honesty	Ethics	Ethics	
		Customer orientation		
		Community involvement	Work involvement	
				Security
				Working conditions
				Prestige
			Social status	Social status
			Pride	Recognition

similar across multiple instruments, while other dimensions are assessed by only one of the instruments.

For the current study, the breadth of the 7-dimension OCP offered the most promise of capturing the cultural elements of the restaurant industry, and its dimensions have been explored in previous restaurant (Woods, 1989), hotel (Christensen, 1988; Kent, 1990; Pizam, 1993), and service industry culture studies (Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Siehl, 1992). Yet although the OCP has demonstrated construct validity—stable factor dimensions across samples including accountants (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991), service industry employees (Chatman & Jehn, 1994), government employees (O'Reilly et al., 1991), health care professionals (Vandenberghe, 1999), and students and campus recruiters (Cable & Judge, 1997; O'Reilly et al., 1991)—its dimensions do not include elements important to restaurant culture including (1) service quality or customer orientation (Enz, 1988; Woods, 1989), (2) honesty and ethics (Enz, 1988), (3) employee development, (4) equitable pay and benefits, and (5) employee empowerment (NCS and National Food Service Security Council, 1999). Thus, rather than choosing dimensions for the current study a priori, a series of pilot studies were conducted to determine the most appropriate factor dimensions.

In addition to differences in the dimensions measured, the instruments in Table 2.1 use two measurement formats or methods, which Chatman (1991) has termed normative and ipsative. In the normative technique, respondents *rate* the extent to which they endorse a set of items or statements using Likert-type rating scales. Thus, values are assessed independently of one another (Boxx et al., 1991; Wollack et al., 1971). Ipsative methods assess preferences between values by requiring respondents either to *rank* a set of values or to choose one value at the expense of another in a forced choice format (Cable & Judge,

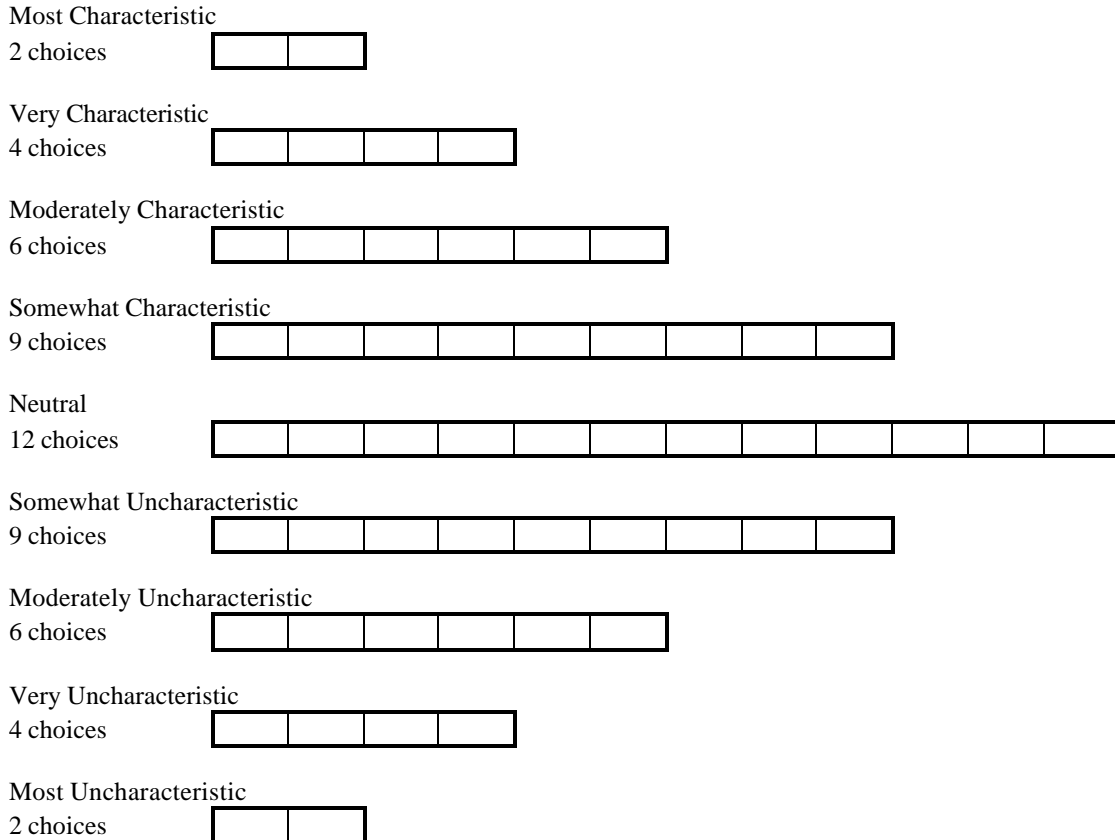
1996, 1997; Chatman, 1991; Enz, 1986, 1988; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999).

Researchers who utilize normative methods claim a number of advantages (Edwards, 1993, 1994; Wollack et al., 1971). First, because values are rated independently from one another on the same scale, the resulting data may be high or low on any or all values. That independent rating makes it possible to capture absolute—interpretable and meaningful—differences between scores. This information is unavailable when values are ranked because the ipsative score represents the relative strength of a value compared with others in the set. Normative data thus lend themselves to parametric statistical analysis such as correlation and regression analysis (Edwards, 1993, 1994). Finally, ratings are less cumbersome than rankings, making a normative format more convenient to administer. The SWV and MVW use normative ratings.

In contrast, other values researchers (Cable & Judge, 1996, 1997; Chatman, 1991; Locke, 1976; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989; Vandenberghe, 1999) have used ipsative techniques (rank order and forced choice) that compare values to one another. They contend that (1) because people's values are hierarchically organized in their value system, ipsative techniques duplicate the way values are held by individuals, and (2) because individuals are not completely aware of their belief structure, values are more accurately measured in choice situations. Further, because ipsative techniques assess values in comparison to each other and all cannot be given a high rating, ipsative instruments typically result in greater differentiation of scores and a more normal distribution (Alwin & Krosnick, 1985). Because many values are socially desirable, the distribution of normative rating scores is typically skewed.

The CES, OVCS, and OCP employ ipsative techniques, and also measure both person and organization values in one instrument. The CES utilizes a “paired comparison” process in which descriptions of behaviors reflecting four values (achievement, fairness, honesty, and concern for others) are paired with one another. From a total of 24 pairs, values are rank ordered by the number of choices made for each. The OVCS uses a “rank-order” approach in which value-items reflecting five factors are simply ranked from highest importance to lowest. This method thus evaluates the relative order of the values without concern for their rating or the differences between them. The OCP uses the “Q-sort” ranking technique in which respondents place survey items into response categories arranged in a symmetrical-pattern as shown in Figure 2.1. Q-sort users argue that because each item in the scale is

Figure 2.1  
The Original Organizational Culture Profile (Q-sort) Format (O’Reilly et al., 1991)  
(54 value items are sorted into nine categories)



implicitly compared to every other item, and more than one item can be placed in a category, scores are more independent of one another than scores collected through the CES and OVCS (Chatman, 1991).

Edwards (1993, 1994) argues against ipsative techniques, claiming that data derived from ranking are not independent and the differences between scores are not meaningful. He contends ipsative data must be treated as ordinal rather than interval. Cornwell and Dunlap (1994) argue that because the sum of any individual respondent's rankings equals a constant, there is a linear dependency among the set of items. This dependence violates the independence of error variance assumption of classical test theory and limits the use of standard parametric statistical analyses. Alternatively, Baron (1996) argues that from a purist perspective even normative scales are not true interval measures, and that the theoretical advantages of forced-choice formats in eliminating response bias outweigh any statistical disadvantage. Muting the argument, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994, p. 23) say that most measurement methods in psychology may be treated as interval scales. In fact, Saville and Wilson (1991) found a .78 correlation between normative and ipsative versions of the same personality instrument, and suggest in practice that normative and ipsative data may be more similar than the debate would indicate. Therefore, as with the factor dimensions, the decision to use normative or ipsative measurement technique was also based on the pilot studies.

### Outcomes of Organizational Culture

Research indicates that culture plays at least four important roles in organizations. First, culture forms a collective identity that helps its members associate themselves with their organization's policies and mission, and feel themselves a part of it (Hofstede, 1998;



Peters & Waterman, 1982). Second, organizational culture prescribes norms of acceptable and unacceptable behavior, making it clear for employees what they should say or do in a given situation (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1990). Third, these norms help employees work together to meet customers' needs and respond to external pressures (Schneider & Bowen, 1995). Fourth, culture provides structure and control without relying on an authoritative management style that can lessen motivation and creativity (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1996).

When organizations promote a certain set of values, like respect for people and high pay for good performance, they create a social energy or motivation that influences employees' attitudes and behaviors. For instance, Peters and Waterman (1982) found excellent organizations held values about quality, service, the importance of people as individuals, and innovation that motivated employees to improve performance and increase their morale, satisfaction, and commitment. Sommer, Bae and Luthans (1996) found that employees who perceived greater warmth, supportiveness, assigned responsibility, and rewards in their organizations increased their organizational commitment. Sheridan (1992) found that firms emphasizing interpersonal relationship values retained employees more successfully than firms emphasizing work task values. To explore how and why restaurant organizations' culture influences employee attitudes and behaviors, one needs to understand restaurant industry culture, which the next section explains.

### Organizational Culture in Restaurant Organizations

Restaurant organizations promote such core values as service to guests, fairness with employees, caring and empathy, promotion from within, attention to detail, innovation, and

teamwork (Fintel, 1989; Withiam, 1996; Woods, 1989). Such cultural values motivate employees and further enforce desired behaviors and standards for customer service. Woods (1989), one of the first researchers to study and describe restaurant culture, investigated five restaurant firms and the culture of the “dinner-house” segment of the restaurant industry. Using interviews and direct observation, he identified three levels of culture: (1) the visible or manifest level (artifacts and stories); (2) the strategic level (vision and market expectations); (3) and the deeply rooted level (values and assumptions). The five restaurant companies demonstrated different cultural aspects on the surface (manifest) level, but had remarkably similar values and assumptions on the deepest levels of culture. Table 2.2 summarizes the shared organizational values of dinner-house restaurants identified by Woods. This study is particularly noteworthy for its detailed descriptions of manifest level elements of restaurant culture, which are inherently difficult to isolate with quantitative measurement. For example, one can examine the stories told in employee meetings and ceremonies only with qualitative methods.

Table 2.2  
Dimensions of Dinner-House Restaurant Culture  
(Woods, 1989)

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People make a difference in the success or failure of the company.  
 A people-oriented personality profile fits the industry.  
 The industry requires hard work and burnout is a big problem.  
 Teamwork is essential and fun is important.  
 Successful people have energy and a clear sense of direction.  
 Training is important.  
 Managers rise through the industry ranks.

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A recent study of over 1,400 employees from 11 different fast-food restaurants investigated employee theft in the fast-food restaurant industry (NCS and National Food

Service Security Council, 1999) and identified eight favorable characteristics of restaurant culture: (1) fairness with employees, (2) caring and empathy (3) employee empowerment, (4) career-enriching opportunities, (5) equitable pay and benefits, (6) accurate matches between person and job, (7) ethics and honesty, and (8) safe working conditions. The study reports that theft is epidemic in the restaurant industry but companies that establish and communicate positive corporate values can experience a significant reduction in counterproductive behavior and workplace theft. Unfortunately, the report does not indicate the methodology by which the set of eight characteristics was determined.

The right set of organizational values may help restaurant operators meet such industry challenges as long work hours, physical demands, and constant contact with often dissatisfied customers. For instance, Christensen (1988) noted that such organizational values as guest service and striving for innovation powerfully influenced employee attitudes and, in return, organizational success and growth. As restaurant managers cope with the industry's inherent challenges, the role of organizational values or culture remains a matter of great interest and concern for hospitality researchers and industry executives.

### Individual Values

As an alternative to culture, the "personalist" view explains behavior based on individual personality characteristics including values, beliefs, and traits. Values are fundamental and enduring aspects of both people and organizations. Because values are common to both organizational culture and individual personality, they are typically used as

the individual measure when studying P-O fit (Chatman, 1991; Enz, 1986, 1988; Meglino et al., 1989, 1992; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999).

Rokeach (1973) defined individual values as “enduring beliefs through which a specific mode of conduct (behavior) or end-state (outcome) is personally preferable to its opposite” (p. 5). *Instrumental* values relate to behaviors such as honesty, creativity, and decisiveness. *Terminal* values refer to outcomes a person strives to achieve, like a comfortable life, happiness, and wisdom. Rokeach proposed a relationship between instrumental and terminal values wherein values concerning modes of behavior facilitate the attainment of the valued outcomes. This study assesses individuals’ instrumental values because they are similar to the values used to describe organizational culture (Chatman, 1991; Schein, 1985), facilitating comparison of person and organization.

### Measuring Individual Values

As with culture, individual values can also be assessed by both qualitative and quantitative methods. For instance, one can assess personal values by observation or interview. But as with the qualitative study of culture, drawing inferences about an individual’s values from their behavior or interview responses is problematic because: (1) interpreting and quantifying values is difficult; (2) the observer’s (or researcher’s) own values may influence the assessment; and (3) a person might not be willing or able to talk about his values, or might be selective in revealing them (Rokeach, 1973). Though qualitative measurement might be more appropriate for generating a list of values, once that list is developed quantitative instruments facilitate data collection and analysis, particularly the proposed comparisons of individual and organizational values.

Researchers have utilized several quantitative instruments to measure individual values. Popular examples include the Value Survey (Schwartz, 1992), the Meaning and Value of Work Scale (Kazanas, 1978), and the Human Value Index (Ronen, 1978). The values measured by these instruments, however, do not correspond with organization-level values in a way that allows fit to be assessed.

### Outcomes of Individual Values

In addition to the role of organization level values, both the theoretical and empirical literatures indicate that individual values are also related to employee attitudes and behaviors. Dawis and Lofquist (1984), Epstein (1979), and Ronen (1978) viewed values as an integral part of an individual's personality structure, and argued that one's personal value system is a relatively stable and fundamental component of the individual's psychological makeup which influences attitudes and behavior.

Several studies support the influence of individual values on job related attitudes and behaviors. For example, Kazanas (1978) found employees with intrinsic work value orientation (for example, independence, self-discipline, and self-actualization) were more satisfied with their jobs and more productive than employees with extrinsic work value orientations (for example, working conditions, interpersonal relations, and security). Ronen (1978) found such personal values as wealth, power, prestige, humanitarianism, equalitarianism, aestheticism, and intellectualism explained 32 percent of the variance in employee satisfaction. In a hotel sample, Tepeci and Farrar (2000) found the individual value-item of *being careful* explained 4 percent of the variance in employee satisfaction, and the individual value-items of *enthusiasm for the job* and *high pay for good performance*

explained 8 percent of the variance in intent to quit. Employees who are highly conscientious (competent, organized, systematic, self-disciplined, and achievement oriented) tend to seek a high degree of involvement in work (Hogan & Ones, 1997) and perform better (Barrick & Mount, 1991) than those who are not so conscientious.

### Individual Values in Restaurant Organizations

Because service work requires employees to interact with customers and co-workers, and because employees influence customers' perceptions of service quality (Schneider & Bowen, 1995), restaurant organizations tend to prefer employees who have such personal values as empathy, commitment, people orientation, and team orientation (Hayes, 1991; Samenfink, 1992). Heskett (1986) suggested successful service employees should have such personal values as flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, and empathy for the customer. Employees with these values tend "to go the extra mile" for customers and take their jobs seriously (Hayes, 1991). In fact, restaurant managers have difficulty finding enough of these potentially successful employees.

Determining the personal characteristics that make employees successful should be of intense interest to hospitality managers and researchers, but little empirical evidence associates personal characteristics with success for restaurant or hotel employees. Studies have assessed the personality traits of self-monitoring (Samenfink, 1994), service-orientation (Dienhart et al., 1990; Groves et al., 1995), and positive and negative mood types (Ross, 1995). Sammons (1994) studied organizational citizenship behavior, or OCB. No restaurant research appears to have studied employee values. Thus, research into employee values in

restaurant organizations seems likely to improve understanding of individual attitudes, behaviors, and performance in the restaurant context.

### The Interactional Perspective

Interactional researchers do not try to explain behavior in organizations in terms of individual or situational variables alone (Chatman, 1989, 1991; House et al., 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schneider et al., 1995). They contend, rather, that an individual's behavior is a function of personal and situational attributes in interaction. This interactional perspective offers the potential to increase our understanding of employee attitudes and intentions in organizations because it acknowledges that both the person and the organization influence behavior. Because persons and settings are not just inseparable but interdependent (Schneider, 1987), an interactional perspective, which is operationalized as person-organization (P-O) fit may offer the best way to examine behavior in organizations.

### Person-Organization Fit

Person-organization fit has been defined and conceptualized in four ways (Kristof, 1996): value congruence (Chatman, 1991); goal congruence (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991); the match between the employee's needs and preferences and the reinforcers available in the work environment (Cable & Judge, 1994); and the match between the (non-value) personality of the individual and organizational culture (Bowen, Ledford, & Nathan, 1991). Researchers use value congruence as the operationalization of person-organization fit because (1) values are fundamental and enduring characteristics of both individuals and

organizations (Chatman, 1991), and (2) values predict a variety of individual outcomes including satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Meglino et al., 1992).

### Measurement of Person-Organization Fit

Early studies of the interaction between employee and organization used measures of personality or other individual variables that did not correspond with the measures of organizations (Bem & Funder, 1978; Tom, 1971). Thus, people were described in one “language” while situations were described in a totally different “language” (Schneider, 1987). To better assess fit, “commensurate measurement” utilizes a common standard or measure (Chatman, 1989). The Organizational Culture Profile (O’Reilly et al., 1991), the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Meglino et al., 1989), and the Organizational Values Congruence Scale (Enz, 1988) operationalize organizational culture as respondents’ perception of the extent to which a set of value dimensions exist in their current organization. Then, to allow comparisons, they assess individual values by asking whether the same dimensions would exist in respondents’ “ideal” organization.

Issues related to measurement of P-O fit include: (1) the distinctions between direct (perceived) and indirect (calculated) fit, (2) the distinctions between individual and cross-level measures of indirect fit, and (3) alternative methods for calculating indirect fit.

### Direct and Indirect Fit

Direct (or perceived) P-O fit measurement assumes fit exists if the respondent perceives it to exist, regardless of whether the respondent’s values are actually similar to the



organization's values. Thus, it can be measured by simply asking respondents to estimate the extent their values are similar to those of the organization. Perceived fit has been shown to predict departmental power (Enz, 1988), even when fit as calculated by a comparison of individual and organizational values failed to predict it. Kristof (1996, p. 11), however, criticized direct measurement of fit because if the value characteristics to be considered are not explicitly described, one cannot be sure that commensurate dimensions are being compared. She further points out that direct measurement of fit as a predictor of employee attitudes may lead to a consistency bias (for example, "I think that I fit well, so I must be satisfied with my job").

Because of these shortcomings, most P-O fit research relies on indirect measurement instruments like the OCP to assess objective or calculated fit (Cable & Judge, 1996, 1997; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). Indirect measures of fit use commensurate measurement—separate rankings for perceived (or existing) and preferred (or desired) culture using the same value-items. Perceived and preferred organizational values are then compared. Cable and Judge (1996, 1997) correlated employees' perceived fit (measured by a three-item normative instrument) with their calculated P-O fit (assessed by the OCP). The relationship between perceived fit and calculated fit, though significant, was relatively small in both studies ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ;  $r = .25, p < .01$  respectively). Enz (1988) also reports only a moderate correlation ( $r = .37, p < .05$ ) between perceived fit (measured by a twenty-four-item normative instrument) and calculated fit (assessed by the OVCS). Thus, the relationship of calculated and perceived P-O fit is an empirical question that deserves further investigation. Both were measured in the current research.

## Individual-level and Cross-level Indirect Fit

*Individual-level* fit measures the relationship between each employee's preferred organizational characteristics and their *individual* perception of the existing organization. Hence, calculation of individual-level indirect fit relies on the individual as the unit of analysis. *Cross-level* fit aggregates employee perceptions of the organization to determine the organizational profile, and compares individual employee's preferred values to this aggregate. For the aggregate to be meaningful, however, agreement between individual responses must be demonstrated, typically  $> .70$  interrater reliability (Chatman, 1991; Kristof, 1996; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Debate over individual-level versus cross-level measurement continues (James, 1982; Kristof, 1996; Rousseau, 1985). Kristof contends that aggregation of individual scores should be used in the measurement of calculated P-O fit because when variables are measured by perceptions, an aggregate is more likely to approach an objective "reality" of the organizational characteristics. Nisbett and Ross (1980) claim individual-level measurement is appropriate because people's perceptions of reality drive their cognitive appraisals of and reactions to specific situations. Kristof (1996) states individual-level fit may have a stronger effect on individual outcome variables than would a fit with the organization's aggregate because individual-level differences are more real for the individual. Again, rather than choose one side in this debate a priori, the current research assessed individual-level and cross-level indirect fit, and compared their ability to predict the outcomes.

### Alternative Methods of Calculating Indirect Fit

At the individual-level and cross-level, fit can be calculated three ways: (1) difference scores, (2) correlations between individual and organizational value items (profiles), and (3) polynomial regression (Edwards, 1993, 1994; Kristof, 1996; Tisak & Smith, 1994).

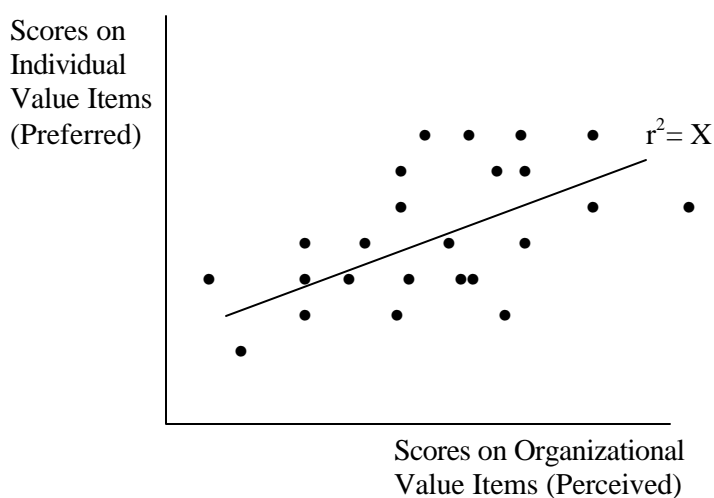
In the difference score method, the arithmetic difference between perceived and preferred value ratings is calculated for each of the commensurate value items. P-O fit is then calculated as the sum of differences ( $D^1$ ), the sum of absolute value of the differences ( $|D|$ ), or the sum of squared differences ( $D^2$ ).  $D^1$  distinguishes between positive and negative differences, but when summed the positive and negative values offset each other.  $|D|$  assigns equal weight to differences regardless of direction so the sum is more meaningful.  $D^2$  is also nondirectional (because all squares are positive) but also assigns greater weight to differences of larger magnitude. Though straightforward, Edwards (1993, 1994) has criticized difference scores for at least four problems: (1) the effects of positive and negative differences are the same; (2) summing conceals the contribution of individual differences to the overall score; (3) because the same individuals generate person and organization profiles, their correlation is artificially inflated and reliability of the difference scores is reduced; and (4) difference scores often fail to explain outcome variance beyond that explained by component measures individually.

Despite Edwards' objections to summing difference scores as a measure of fit, Tisak and Smith (1994) argue that assessment of fit should incorporate multiple value dimensions. Because so many aspects of organizations and individuals influence attitudes and behaviors, they claim overall P-O fit is more meaningful than fit on each value dimension independently. Tisak and Smith also argue that difference scores capture something

conceptually different from their (individual and organizational) component variables, and can explain more variance than their component measures. They maintain the reliability of differences is an empirical question to be addressed on a study-by-study basis.

An alternative to difference scores, the correlation between individual and organizational profiles (known as the Q score) has also enjoyed wide use in P-O fit research (Cable & Judge, 1996, 1997; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). Because individuals have indicated their perception of and preference for the same value-items, the Q method computes a correlation of each individual's scores on these paired responses. As illustrated in Figure 2.2, the correlation is based on as many data points as there are items.

Figure 2.2  
Person-Organization Fit Calculation by Correlation (Q) Method  
(Number of data points based on number of commensurate items)



Cable and Judge (1996) claim correlation provides a conservative, uninflated estimate of P-O fit and is more interpretable than difference scores because correlation represents similarity in profile distributions. Edwards (1994), on the other hand, claims the correlation

method shares many of the shortcomings of difference scores (concealing the contribution of individual differences to the overall P-O fit score, low reliability, and inability to explain additional variance). Further, he claims, perceived and preferred profiles with large discrepancies but similar shapes may produce high correlation values, while profiles with small discrepancies but dissimilar in shape may produce low or even negative correlation scores.

Edwards (1993, 1994) therefore recommended using polynomial regression to assess the relative effect of person (P), organization (O), and fit. In this method, the outcome is regressed on P and O, and the P x O interaction term serves as the measure of fit. Edwards found polynomial regression increased the proportion of variance explained in the dependent variable over the use of difference scores or correlation. Kristof (1996) recognizes that the “fit score” versus polynomial regression debate continues, and recommends using both methods.

### Outcomes of Person-Organization Fit

Several sources provide theoretical justification and empirical evidence that person-organization fit has positive effects. Locke (1976) and Schneider (1987) suggested that individuals are generally attracted to and feel most comfortable in organizations with characteristics similar to their own. Chatman (1989) proposed that individuals who fit the organization in terms of similarity of values were likely to be satisfied and competent and to continue with the firm. Meglino et al. (1989) contend that individuals who hold values and beliefs similar to those of the organization interact more efficiently with their organizational

value system, reducing uncertainty and conflict, which in turn increases satisfaction and commitment.

Although interactionalists accept that personal and situational variables have individual effects on attitudes and behaviors, they contend that the additional unique effect of person-organization congruency is crucial to understanding attitudes and behaviors (Chatman, 1991; House et al., 1996; Schneider, 1987). That is, the construct of fit or match increases the explanation of attitudes and behavior in organizations beyond that explained by “a strong culture” or “deeply rooted individual beliefs.” A closeness between “this is the way I believe things are” and “this is the way I believe things should be” can capture a number of reactions or responses that are not inherent in either the person or the situation but are a result of the interaction between these parts (Chatman, 1991; Schneider, 1987).

Studying the outcomes of P-O fit, O'Reilly et al. (1991) found positive correlations of P-O fit with satisfaction and commitment, and a negative association of P-O fit with intent to leave and actual turnover. Vandenberghe (1999) found that recruits whose value profile is close to that of their employing organization are more likely to stay with it during the early employment period. Kristof's (1996) summary of empirical results supports the positive effects of P-O fit on employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, extra-role behaviors, work performance, stress, and employee behavioral intentions and turnover. Yet although several studies have investigated P-O fit, only Chatman (1991) studied whether P-O fit explains additional variance in individual outcomes beyond that explained by individual and organizational characteristics. She found P-O fit to be a better predictor of satisfaction, commitment, turnover intention, and length of stay than either personal characteristics or situational characteristics, or both combined. The current study attempted to replicate

Chatman's findings in a more flexible work situation where high person and organization interaction occurs.

Despite the generally positive outcomes of P-O fit, Schneider et al. (1995) warn that high P-O fit can potentially cause troublesome homogeneity in an organization. While high levels of P-O fit among organizational members may lead to increased satisfaction, increased commitment and fewer conflicts, excessive P-O fit may lead to conformity and stagnate innovation. Schneider and his colleagues suggested that homogeneity may be beneficial early in the history of an organization because it enhances coordination and communication, but later can lead to inflexibility and resistance to change. Thus, selecting applicants with high P-O fit may be a bad idea in a rapidly changing environment. More research is needed to more accurately determine the long-term organizational outcomes of P-O fit.

### Person-Organization Fit in Restaurants

With the U.S. unemployment rate at a 30-year low and an aging population, restaurant companies are facing significant challenges in finding and retaining qualified and motivated labor (Restaurant Industry Forecast, 2000). The industry's primary labor pool consists of a continuous cycle of workers between the ages of 18 to 27 (Marshall-Mims, 1999), and employment tenure for the typical restaurant employee (1.3 years) is one third that of all employed persons in the U.S. (Restaurant Industry Employee Profile, 2000). Further distinguished by 100 to 300 percent employee turnover (Woods, 1992), the restaurant industry offers a setting in which the study of P-O fit is both novel and potentially advantageous.

Studying P-O fit in restaurant organizations promises to advance our understanding of its effects on individual and organizational outcomes in dynamic service settings.

Nevertheless, as we have seen, only Enz (1988) and Tidball (1988) have focused on the restaurant industry. Enz selected the corporate headquarters of a quick-service restaurant chain and a robotics company for her study, and investigated how similarity in values between departmental members and top management determined power. She found that *perceived* similarity of organizational values between department and top management significantly contributed to the department's power within the organization, but *calculated* value congruity, assessed by the OVCS, did not account for significant percentages of variance in power.

In another restaurant industry study, Tidball (1988) conceptualized "fit" as the extent to which "ideologies" were consistent at different levels rather than measuring fit between individuals and organizations. The three levels were: (1) formal ideology; the principles in which the top management or founders believe, (2) espoused ideology; the aspirations widely shared by all members of the organization, and (3) operating ideology; the "insider's" view of how things really operate within the organization. When espoused and formal ideologies were congruent with operating ideology, employees awarded higher managerial competence scores. Congruence of espoused and operating ideologies explained 31 percent of the variance in profitability. The three congruencies explained 41 percent of the variance in organizational commitment. Although Tidball's congruence study measured a different construct than P-O fit, her work confirms that culture and ideological congruence can affect both employee behavior and organizational performance in at least one restaurant organization.



### Individual Outcomes

The study reported here uses employee satisfaction and behavioral intentions as outcome measures. Attitudes or intentions were chosen because actual behavior is often influenced by exogenous variables, whereas attitudes and intentions are determined by the employee (Shore, Newton, & Thornton, 1990). Behavioral intentions are also preferred because assessing actual behaviors requires longitudinal data collection beyond the scope of the current research. Thus, this research investigates the influence of individual values, organizational culture, and P-O fit on (1) employee job satisfaction, (2) intent to quit, and (3) willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work.

#### Employee Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as a positive or negative evaluative judgment of one's job or job situation (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Job satisfaction is among the most important areas of concern in organizational studies because of its influence on employee behavior and job performance (Wright & Staw, 1999) and subsequent economic benefits. Identifying the determinants of employee satisfaction should help restaurant managers choose strategies to improve employee satisfaction and, in turn, realize greater profits.

As previously stated, several employee satisfaction studies have been conducted in hospitality organizations. But these earlier researchers focused on job characteristics (Bartlett et al., 1999; Pizam & Neumann, 1988), employee demographics (Mok & Finley, 1986), or advancement opportunities or financial considerations (Pavesic & Brymer, 1990; Pizam & Chandrasekar, 1983) as predictors of employee satisfaction. Using individual and

organizational values, this study set out to increase criterion-related validity by explaining a higher percentage of the variance in employee satisfaction than the average 25 percent organizational researchers have so far been able to explain by using single sets of variables like job characteristics (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993).

Satisfaction can be assessed as the sum of a series of facets (co-workers, pay, the work) or as a feeling about the job overall. Global job satisfaction appears to be more inclusive than facet satisfaction, assessing all attitude components (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). In this study, in order to assess internal consistency reliability of the scale, overall job satisfaction was measured using a three-item global satisfaction scale adapted from Cammann et al. (1983).

### Intent to Quit

As stated in Chapter One, no empirical research has addressed the factors that shape employees' intention-to-quit in a restaurant context. Chatman (1991) and O'Reilly et al. (1991) found that intent to quit predicts actual turnover among accountants, and Sheridan (1992) found it to affect organizations' profitability in the accounting industry. Although no evidence yet links intent to quit to actual behavior or performance in hospitality, Perrewe, Brymer, Stepina, and Hassell (1991) also used intent to quit as an outcome in their study of burnout and job satisfaction among hotel managers. Exploring the relative influence of individual and organizational characteristics on employees' intent to quit could easily help restaurant managers to decrease actual employee turnover. The results could include improvements in customer service, employee productivity, and organizational profitability (Woods, 1992).

### Willingness to Recommend the Organization

A large percentage of new job applicants are referrals from existing employees, and referred applicants on average stay longer than other applicants and demonstrate better performance (Morehart, 2001; Wanous & Colella, 1989). When existing employees recommend their organizations to friends and acquaintances, those organizations are likely to attract higher numbers of qualified applicants and to improve their reputations among customers. With low unemployment posing a major problem for the restaurant industry, determining factors that improve an employee's willingness to recommend his or her organization provides a competitive tool for restaurant managers seeking to employ the best performers.

### Control Variables

To assess the discrete influences of individual values, organizational culture, and P-O fit on the outcome or dependent variables, the influence of other variables must be controlled. A review of the P-O fit and hospitality management literature indicates a significant relationship between the following demographic variables and the dependent variables used in this study: gender—women are more likely to stay with their organization than men (Bretz & Judge, 1994); age—as people get older they tend to be more satisfied and stay longer (Agho et al., 1993; Tidball, 1988); marital status—married people are more likely to stay with their organization than unmarried people (Bretz & Judge, 1994); tenure with the organization—as the length of work increases, employees are more likely to be satisfied and intend to stay longer (Judge & Bretz, 1992); educational degree achieved—as employees'

education level increases their job satisfaction increases (Judge & Bretz, 1994), and full- or part-time status—full-time employees are more satisfied than part-time (Tidball, 1988).

Further potential confounds to be controlled include restaurants' chain or independent status and front- versus back-of-the- house job positions. All of these variables were assessed in the questionnaire and controlled in the statistical analysis.

## CHAPTER III

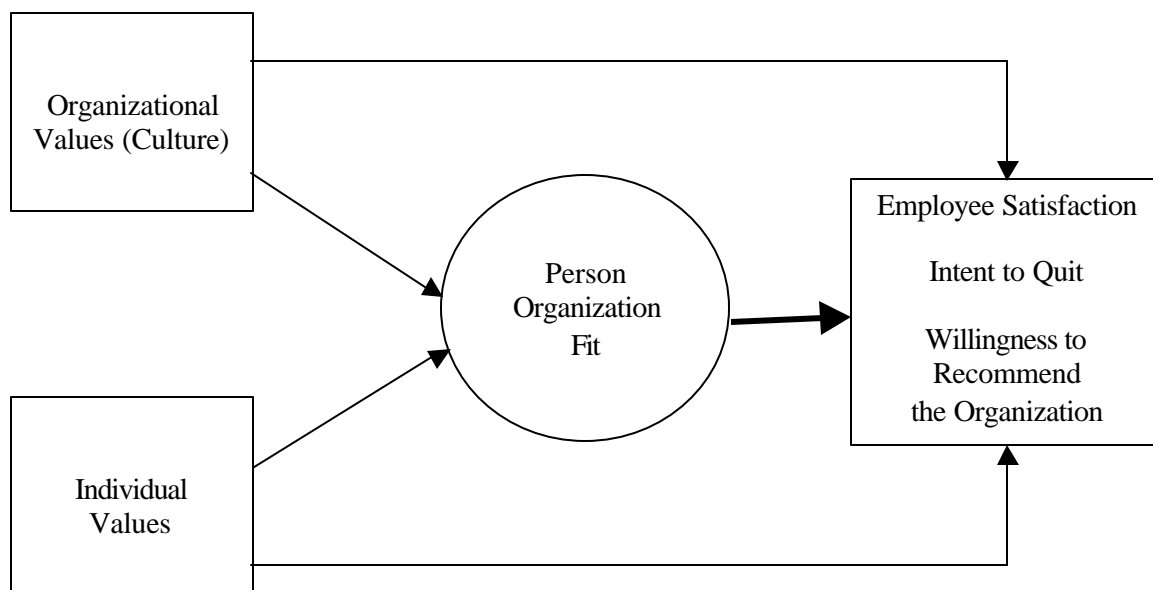
### METHODOLOGY

Understanding employee attitudes and behavioral intentions can help restaurant managers gain a competitive edge. As Chapters One and Two have indicated, an interactional perspective can promote understanding beyond that of individual and organizational characteristics alone. This study investigates whether the match between employee and organizational values affects the satisfaction and behavioral intentions of restaurant employees. This chapter first sets forth the conceptual framework for the study and states the research questions. Then, sections devoted to research design, instrumentation, population, sample and data collection, data collection protocol, variables, and data analyses detail the methodology.

#### Conceptual Framework

Figure 3.1 depicts the conceptual framework for the study and how organizational culture, individual values, and the match between them determine employees' job satisfaction, intent to quit, and willingness to recommend the organization. First, the influence of organizational culture and individual values on the three outcomes is measured. Then the study investigates whether *person-organization fit* contributes to explanations of employee job satisfaction, intent to quit, and willingness to recommend his or her organization beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values.

Figure 3. 1  
 Relationship Between Organizational Culture, Individual Values,  
 Person-Organization Fit and Individual Outcomes



In addition to the primary research question regarding fit as a predictor, the study investigates the relationship between perceived (direct) and calculated (indirect) measures of fit, and between several variations of indirect fit calculation. As reported in Chapter Two, Cable and Judge (1996, 1997) and Enz (1988) found limited correlations between perceived and calculated fit ( $r = .26$ ;  $r = .25$ ;  $r = .37$  respectively) but because only these three studies report the relationship of the two measures, the question is open whether perceived and calculated fit are the same construct. Further, because Enz (1988) found only perceived fit accounted for significant percentages of outcome variance, investigating the impacts of both perceived and calculated fit in another setting should contribute to interactional research.

## Research Design

The research described here examines the influence of personal and organizational values and P-O fit on employee satisfaction and behavioral intentions in restaurant organizations. The author undertakes a field study to investigate naturally occurring P-O fit interactions. Actual organizational settings tend to increase external validity. The study's design is non-experimental because there is no manipulation of the independent variables and no random assignment of subjects to treatment and control groups. This study was approved by the Penn State Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research.

### Instrumentation: Development of the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP)

In designing the data collection instrument for this study, it was important to identify a set of cultural dimensions appropriate to the restaurant industry, and value-items that accurately measure those dimensions. Because the survey was completed in real restaurant organizations, time constraints and ease of response were also important considerations. To test alternative questionnaire items and formats, a series of three pilot studies was conducted, which are detailed in the following pages. The sample for these pilot studies were hospitality management students in the School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Recreation Management at Penn State. Everyone in the sample had hospitality work experience as a requirement of the major. Data were collected during Fall Semester 2000.

### Pilot Study One

The first instrument tested was based largely on the OCP (O'Reilly et al., 1991). The 1991 version of the OCP comprises 54 items. Cable and Judge (1996) and Judge and Cable (1997) reduced the OCP to 40 value-items without compromising the underlying factors. To develop a shortened set of items to represent values in the restaurant industry, the factor structure of the OCP was examined (Appendix A). As Table 3.1 shows, a total of ten factors emerged, including seven dimensions of perceived organizational culture and eight dimensions of preferred culture. Sixteen items loaded on the same dimensions in both perceived and preferred culture to create five factors that “overlap,” including Innovation, Results Orientation, Attention to Detail, Aggressiveness, and Team Orientation. Three dimensions were found in the individual profile that did not emerge in the culture profile, and two were found in the culture profile that did not emerge in the individual profile.

Table 3.1  
Organizational Culture and Individual Value Dimensions  
(O'Reilly et al., 1991)

<u>Perceived Values</u>		<u>Preferred Values</u>
Innovation	(1)	Innovation
Attention to detail	(2)	Attention to detail
Outcome orientation	(3)	Outcome orientation
Aggressiveness	(4)	Aggressiveness
Team orientation	(5)	Team orientation
Stability	(6)	
Respect for people	(7)	
		(6) Decisiveness
		(7) Supportiveness
		(8) Emphasis on rewards

In the first pilot, the original OCP/Q-sort format was utilized. The five OCP dimensions that emerged in both perceived and preferred culture were retained. Based on



previous hospitality and service research (Enz, 1988; Schneider & Bowen, 1995; Tidball, 1988; Woods, 1989) three additional dimensions were added, including people orientation, valuing customers, and honesty and ethics. Four items were used to assess each of the eight dimensions, for a total of 32 items. Table 3.2 lists the eight proposed dimensions and the four items used to measure each.

Table 3.2  
Eight Dimensions and 32 Value Items Tested in Pilot Study One

<i>1. Innovation</i>	<i>2. Results Orientation</i>	<i>3. Attention to detail</i>	<i>4. Aggressiveness</i>
Creativity Innovation A willingness to experiment Risk taking	Result orientation Achievement orientation Focus on getting the job done Concern for task	Precise Paying attention to detail Accuracy Analytical	Aggressive Competitive Forceful Assertive
<i>5. Team Orientation</i>	<i>6. People Orientation</i>	<i>7. Valuing Ethics and Honesty</i>	<i>8. Valuing Customers</i>
Team orientation Working in collaboration with others Cooperating with coworkers Team atmosphere	Respect for individual People orientation Concern for employees Treating people as an asset	Integrity Keeping promises Trust Honesty	Emphasis on service quality Giving customer s what they expect Maintaining a relationship with customers Valuing customers

Using the Q-sort, respondents ranked the 32 items twice; once to describe their perceived organizational culture and the second time to describe their preferred organizational culture. Two hundred ninety students completed the survey, which took about 15 minutes. Unfortunately, results of factor analysis on the two rankings were not meaningful. For example, most of the factor loadings were negative, and a variety of conceptually distinct, unrelated items loaded together. The Keiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of overall sampling adequacy was .045 for organizational culture items and .153 for desired culture, supporting rejection of these results.

Pilot study respondents were given only 32 items (rather than 54) to sort, but written and verbal feedback indicated: (1) although it was relatively easy for respondents to choose the most characteristic or the least characteristic value items, differentiating value items for the middle categories was more difficult; (2) several of the items were too similar; and (3) they wanted to place more items in the “characteristic” or “desirable” categories, but the Q-sort did not allow this. Training the respondents and giving more detailed instructions and time could have lessened those above problems, but might also bias the results.

### Pilot Study Two

Because the Q-sort results were not meaningful, an alternative ipsative format (paired comparisons, Meglino et al., 1989) and a normative format (Likert type scales) were tested in the second pilot study, using the same eight cultural dimensions and 32 value items. To limit the time required, respondents were asked to evaluate only their existing organizations. One hundred fifty students completed the survey. In the normative format respondents *rated* on one-to-seven scales how characteristic of their organizational culture each of the 32 items was. Factor analysis of this data identified six dimensions, including: (1) team and people orientation, (2) innovation, (3) valuing customers, (4) honesty and ethics, (5) attention to detail, and (6) focus on getting the job done (results orientation). Team- and people-orientation were expected to emerge as separate factors but loaded together. Aggressiveness did not emerge as a separate factor. The six factors explained 68% of the variance among the 32 items, and the six factors had reliability ranging from .71 to .92. The KMO measure of overall sampling adequacy was .868. In combination, these results indicated this was a reasonable solution and an acceptable instrument design.

In the “paired comparisons” format each of the eight culture dimensions was paired with every other dimension ( $8 \times 7 / 2 = 28$  paired comparisons). Respondents circled the one from each pair that was most characteristic of their organization, and each dimension thus received a score from zero to seven based on the number of times it was selected. To assess the similarity of the normative and ipsative results, the scores generated for each factor by paired comparisons were correlated with scores for the corresponding factors from Likert ratings. Because aggressiveness did not emerge as a factor, it was not included in the correlation. The separate Team Orientation and People Orientation factors from the paired comparisons were each correlated with the combined Team and People Orientation factor from the Likert ratings. Five of seven paired comparison factors demonstrated moderate ( $p < .01$ ) correlation with normative factors: Team Orientation ( $r = .44$ ), People Orientation ( $r = .42$ ), Innovation ( $r = .49$ ), Valuing Customers ( $r = .35$ ), and Attention to Detail ( $r = .26$ ). Correlations for Results Orientation and Honesty and Ethics were very low and not significant. The positive results from the normative instrument, combined with the inconsistent results using Q-sort and paired comparison rankings, indicated the use of a Likert type rating scale for the instrument format.

### Pilot Study Three

To verify appropriateness of the format and the value dimensions being measured, a third pilot study was conducted. The final pilot study instrument used a simple *rating* method with Likert-type scales in which respondents were simply to assess how well the value items described both their actual and ideal organizations. Scales were anchored from “very uncharacteristic” (1) to “very characteristic” (7). One hundred eighty-two respondents

completed the survey instrument. This format lessened the time needed to fill out the questionnaire, and respondent feedback indicated that it was easy to interpret. Based on results and student feedback from the first two pilot studies, and further literature review (NCS and National Food Service Security Council, 1999), three additional dimensions were added to the instrument, including (1) personal/career development, (2) fair compensation, and (3) empowerment. Because aggressiveness did not emerge as a factor in the second pilot study, it was excluded from the final pilot study instrument. Thus, the third pilot instrument comprised ten factors with four items to assess each, for a total of 40 value items as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3  
Ten Dimensions and 40 Value Items Tested in Pilot Study Three

<i>1. Innovation</i>	<i>2. Results Orientation</i>	<i>3. Attention to Detail</i>	<i>4. Team Orientation</i>	<i>5. People Orientation</i>
Creativity Innovation A willingness to experiment Risk taking	Results orientation Achievement orientation Focus on getting the job done Hard work	Precise Accuracy Paying attention to detail Detail oriented	Team atmosphere Working in collaboration with others Cooperating with coworkers Team Orientation	Support for employees Empathy for employees Respect for individual's rights Caring about employees
<i>6. Valuing Ethics and Honesty</i>	<i>7. Valuing Customers</i>	<i>8. Employee Development</i>	<i>9. Fair Compensation</i>	<i>10. Employee Empowerment</i>
Integrity Keeping promises Trust Honesty	Emphasis on service quality Giving customers what they expect Relationship with customers Valuing customers	Training is important Advancement opportunities Personal / career development Promotion from within	Equitable pay High pay for good performance Good financial rewards Fair compensation	Empowerment Making decisions on your own Working without close supervision Autonomy

Of ten proposed factors, using Principal Components Analysis with varimax rotation, eight emerged for existing culture and six for desired culture (Table 3.4). Thirty-one value items with loadings of .48 or greater made up eight culture dimensions and thirty-two value items with loadings above .50 formed the six desired factor dimensions. The four empowerment items did not load together. One item, *making decisions on your own*, loaded on the Innovation factor. Therefore, the four empowerment items were eliminated from the questionnaire. The four team-orientation and four people-orientation items loaded together, but because theory suggests these are distinct factors, all eight items were retained to see if they would combine again or load separately in the final data set.

Table 3.4  
Eight Perceived Culture and Six Preferred Culture Dimensions Derived From Pilot Study Three

<u>Existing Culture Dimensions</u>	<u>Desired Culture Dimensions</u>
(1) Team and people orientation	(1) Team orientation <sup>1</sup>
(2) Innovation	(2) Innovation
(3) Fair compensation	
(4) Attention to detail	(3) Attention to detail
(5) Valuing customers	(4) Valuing customers
(6) Employee development	(5) Employee development/fair compensation <sup>2</sup>
(7) Honesty and ethics	
(8) Focus on getting the job done	(6) Focus on getting the job done.

<sup>1</sup> Only team orientation items loaded here, people orientation items did not.

<sup>2</sup> While Employee Development and Fair Compensations factors emerged separately in existing culture, they combined together in desired culture.

The final HICP instrument (Appendix B) includes 36 value items hypothesized to measure 9 organizational culture and individual value dimensions. The factors and items are shown in Table 3.5. For clarity the items *trust*, *empathy for employees*, and *achievement orientation* were replaced with *truthfulness*, *fairness with employees*, and *task accomplishment* in the final version HICP. In order to eliminate possible order effect, half of the surveys asked about characteristics of current organizational culture first, while half asked about preferred organizational culture first.

Table 3.5  
Thirty-six Value Items to Measure Nine Culture and Preferred Culture Dimensions in Restaurants

<i>1. Innovation</i>	<i>2. Results Orientation</i>	<i>3. Attention to Detail</i>	<i>4. Team Orientation</i>	<i>5. People Orientation</i>
Creativity Innovation A willingness to experiment Risk taking	Results orientation Task accomplishment Focus on getting the job done Hard work	Precise Accuracy Paying attention to detail Detail oriented	Team atmosphere Working in collaboration with others Cooperating with coworkers Team Orientation	Support for employees Fairness with employees Respect for individual's rights Caring about employees
<i>6. Valuing Ethics and Honesty</i>	<i>7. Valuing Customers</i>	<i>8. Employee Development</i>	<i>9. Fair Compensation</i>	
Integrity Keeping promises Truthfulness Honesty	Emphasis on service quality Giving customers what they expect Relationship with customers Valuing customers	Training is important Advancement opportunities Personal / career development Promotion from within	Equitable pay High pay for good performance Good financial rewards Fair compensation	

#### Population, Sample, and Data Collection

The population for this study consists of all front- and back-of-the-house employees working in table-service restaurants in the U.S. Quick-service or fast-food restaurants were not included because they do not have front-of-the-house employees. The sampling strategy was to survey 10 employees from each of a large set of U.S. restaurants. Using a small sample from many restaurants instead of a lot of employees from one or a few organizations has several advantages. A broader sample is more likely to (1) represent the restaurant industry overall and be generalizable; (2) contain legitimate variance in independent variables that is not a function of any particular organization; (3) provide greater variance in

employee outcomes that the predictors can explain; and (4) allow consideration of whether restaurant culture is organization specific or if there are elements of restaurant culture that exist industry wide. Moreover, this sampling strategy is an effective way to increase sample size and statistical power, while sets of 10 scores from each organization still allow aggregation of organizational values within units to calculate cross-level scores for each organization.

The sample size necessary is a function of the proposed analyses, in this case both factor analysis and regression analysis. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) say factor analysis requires from 5 to 10 subjects per questionnaire item. Comrey (1988) says a sample size of 200 is adequate for factor analysis that involves no more than 40 items, and it is possible to see factor analyses used in scale development based on more modest samples (150 subjects). Because the instrument developed for this study (detailed later) has 36 value-items, the sample should include a minimum of 180 subjects to conduct factor analysis.

NQUERY ADVISOR (Elashoff, 1995) was used to determine the sample size required for the regression analysis. The calculation is based on predetermining (1) *desired effect size* (the correlation coefficient; conventionally .10 = small, .30 = medium, and .50 = large), (2) *alpha* (a priori specified risk of being wrong), (3) *the desired or acceptable level of power or Type II error*, and (4) *the number of predictor variables* (Cohen, 1988). With twenty-three independent variables (8 demographic, 7 perceived culture factors, 7 preferred culture factors, and P-O fit) in the regression, for an alpha of .05 and power = .80 to detect a regression coefficient of small effect size, .10, (the smaller the actual effect size the larger the sample necessary to detect it) the minimum sample needed to achieve statistical significance would be 218.

To reach the sample, data were collected with the assistance of (1) graduates and (2) current students of Penn State's Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Management (HRIM) program who are currently employed in table-service restaurants. To access the alumni, a mailing list was obtained from the Penn State Alumni Office and a set of 25 with current data indicating restaurant employment were contacted by telephone and asked to participate. Twenty graduates agreed to participate; five could not be reached or chose not to participate. Those who agreed to participate were mailed packets of survey materials. Seventeen packages were returned, representing 85% of the 20 distributed and 68% of the original 25.

The second means of access was students enrolled in a junior-level hospitality management class who also work in table-service restaurants. The students were offered extra credit if they would arrange with their restaurant managers for survey distribution and return. (Students not working in restaurants were offered alternative extra credit). The students also provided the managers' name and address information so results of the study could be mailed to them. Of 20 survey packages distributed, ten were returned by students who collected data in out-of-town restaurants, and seven were returned by students who collected data in local restaurants. These 17 packages represent an 85% response rate. The total response was 34 of 40 packages distributed, 85%. Out of 340 questionnaires distributed to the employees in these 34 restaurants, 326 surveys were returned, a 96% response rate.

#### Data Collection Protocol

The packages of materials distributed to the restaurant managers included (1) a cover letter including survey distribution protocol (Appendix C), (2) eleven four-page



questionnaires, (3) eleven envelopes for return of the individual surveys, and (4) a large stamped and self-addressed envelope for returning the surveys. To allow data collection with as little intrusion as possible, managers had the option to (1) have a group of employees fill out the survey at the same time (for example, before or after a shift or at an employee meeting), or (2) have employees fill out the survey on a break at some point during their shift and return when it was completed.

In either case, managers were instructed to randomly select five front- and five back-of-the-house employees. After the sample was selected, the managers explained the study's purpose and provided instructions for filling out the questionnaire. Employees were assured their decision to participate or not participate had no impact on their employment. Then, those who chose to participate completed the survey, sealed it in a letter envelope, and returned it to the manager. To guarantee anonymity no personally identifying information was requested. When all questionnaires were returned, the manager sealed them in the larger envelope and mailed it to the researcher or returned it to the student contact.

To increase participation the managers themselves were also asked to complete a survey. The researcher hoped that this demonstrated support from the managers would encourage employees to participate as well. Further, managers who assisted with data collection were promised an executive summary of the study results. The employee respondents were encouraged by management to participate, and received a Penn State pen as a small incentive.

## Variables

The operationalization of control, independent, and dependent variables is described in the next three sections.

### The Control Variables

To determine the unique contribution of organizational culture, individual values, and P-O fit, the following demographic and organizational variables were measured and controlled.

Gender	0=Female 1=Male
Age	__ __ Actual age (two digits)
Marital status	1= Single                      3= Divorced or Separated 2= Married                     4= Widowed
	Married and singles were coded 0 and 1 respectively for correlation and regression analysis. (Because only 4.3% of the sample was divorced or widowed, they were combined with singles.)
Educational degree achieved	1= Less than high school 2= High school diploma or GED 3= Associate's degree 4= Bachelor's degree 5= Master's degree or more
	For correlation and regression, education was coded as a dummy variable: 0= post high school degrees and 1= high school degree or less.
Tenure	__ # of years and __ # of months Number of months (years were converted to months)
Restaurant Type	0=Independent 1=Chain

Survey asked  
for Job title \_\_\_\_\_

Average number of hours  
worked per week

This was coded as

0= Back-of-the-house (Kitchen employees)

1= Front-of-the-house (Customer contact employees)

— —

For correlation and regression, hours was entered as a continuous variable. For comparison to the population hours  $\leq 32$  were coded as part-time, hours  $\geq 33$  were coded as full-time.

The number -99 was used to indicate missing data. The negative sign was thought to be helpful in visually examining the data.

### The Independent Variables

The independent variables in this study are organizational culture, individual values and P-O fit. After the final survey data were factor analyzed, *organizational culture* and *individual value* factor scores were calculated as the mean of the item scores in each factor, and thus could range from one to seven. For example, the item and scale below was one of the 36 items used to assess organizational culture. The same 36 items were used to assess desired culture, but with anchors from “very undesirable” to “very desirable.”

#### Giving customers what they expect

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
Very Uncharacteristic	Uncharacteristic	Slightly Uncharacteristic	Neutral	Slightly Characteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic

The study assessed both perceived and calculated fit. In *perceived* or *direct* P-O fit, respondents themselves estimate the extent their values are similar to those of their organization. This method is simple and allows the researcher to assess value congruence at

a perceptual level, but may or may not coincide with calculated or indirect P-O fit in which the match between respondent's value profiles is assessed. In this study respondents' perceived fit was measured with an adapted version of the three-item 7-point scale developed by Cable and Judge (1996):

My values match those of this organization.

My values match those of current employees in this organization.

The values and personality of this organization reflect my own values and personality.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7  
 Strongly Disagree Slightly Neutral Slightly Agree Strongly  
 Disagree disagree agree agree

Responses to these three items were averaged to obtain an overall measure of perceived P-O fit. The calculation of *indirect* P-O fit is detailed in the upcoming data analyses section of this chapter.

### The Dependent Variables

As shown in Figure 3.1, this study examines 3 dependent variables. Overall job satisfaction was measured using a three-item global satisfaction scale adapted from Cammann et al. (1983):

In general, I don't like working here.

All things considered, I like my job.

I am satisfied with my job.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7  
 Strongly Disagree Slightly Neutral Slightly Agree Strongly  
 disagree disagree agree agree

The first item was reverse coded, and responses to the three items were then averaged to obtain an overall measure of employee job satisfaction.

Intent to quit is a measure of an employee's likelihood (behavioral intention) of leaving his or her job in an organization. The variable is called intent to quit because of its relationship to actual turnover, but it seemed inappropriate to suggest "quitting" in the survey. Thus, because intent to quit and intent to remain are opposites on a continuum, the study used a three-item "intention-to-remain" scale adapted from O'Reilly et al. (1991):

I intend to remain with this organization.

If I were to have my own way, I would be working for this organization three years from now.

I have thought seriously about changing organizations since I have worked here.

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

The third item was reverse coded (so that higher scores indicate higher intent to "remain") and the three items were averaged to obtain an overall measure of intent to remain.

An employee's willingness to recommend his or her organization as a good place to work were measured using the two-item scale developed by Cable and Judge (1996):

I would recommend this organization to my friends as a good place to work.

I would tell my friends NOT to work for this organization.

1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree

The second item was reverse coded and the two items were averaged to obtain an overall measure of willingness to recommend the organization.

## Data Analysis

Responses to the questionnaires were coded and entered into the SPSS (Norusis, 1999), and most of the analyses used SPSS. SPSS-Amos (Arbuckle & Werner, 1999) was used for Confirmatory Factor Analyses. In addition to descriptive statistics, the analyses included (1) confirmatory factor analyses to test the proposed nine factor model, (2) exploratory factor analysis of the organizational and individual value sets to test alternative factor structures, (3) reliability assessment of the values scales identified in the factor analyses, and of perceived fit and the dependent scales, (4) calculation and reliability assessment of the aggregate (cross-level) culture profile of each restaurant, (5) calculation of multiple indirect fit scores, and (6) hierarchical regression analyses to assess the influences of individual values, organizational culture, and P-O fit on employee attitudes and intentions. These analyses are detailed in the following sections.

### Factor Analyses of Organizational and Individual Values

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using SPSS-Amos to determine whether the data supported the proposed nine-factor structure for perceived and desired organizational values. The overall model fit was assessed statistically by the chi-square ( $X^2$ ) test, and heuristically using two goodness-of-fit indices. To compensate for shortcomings of any one of the methods, researchers often use at least three methods to evaluate a data sets' fit to the model (Hair et al., 1998, p. 621).

Exploratory factor analyses followed the same steps completed with the pilot data, using Principal Components Factor Analysis. To confirm whether the factoring procedure

was appropriate, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic—also called the measure of sampling adequacy—was referenced. Based on Hair et al. (1998, p. 99), a KMO value of .60 or above is acceptable to justify the appropriateness of factor analysis. From a scree test, factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were extracted. Within these factors, items with factor loadings of at least .50 were retained.

#### Reliability Assessment of the Factor Scales and Dependent Variables Used in the Study

After an acceptable factor structure for perceived and preferred values was identified, the internal consistency reliability of the value scales, perceived fit, and the dependent variable scales was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha. Hair et al. 1998 (p.118) suggest an alpha value greater than .60 is acceptable for a newly developed instrument, and that standard was applied for this study. SPSS also calculates a reliability score if items are deleted, and items that reduced scale reliability were eliminated. After reliability was confirmed, items in each scale were averaged to obtain a composite scale score for use in the subsequent analyses.

#### Calculation and Reliability Assessment of the Aggregate Culture Profiles of Restaurants

To obtain an aggregate culture profile for each restaurant, the perceived culture profiles of employees in that restaurant were averaged. For this aggregate to be meaningful, however, a majority of employees should be in agreement. Reliability of the aggregate profile of a firm culture shows the degree of consensus about the patterning of values within each organization.

There is ongoing debate in psychology regarding pros and cons of reliability indices (James, Demaree, Wolf, 1993; Kozlowski & Hattrup, 1992; Schmidt & Hunter, 1989). Chatman (1991) suggests using interrater and coefficient alpha reliability indices to compensate either one's shortcomings. Thus, reliability was assessed using both methods. To calculate average interrater reliability, the perceived culture profile of every respondent from a restaurant was correlated with the profile of every other respondent from that restaurant ( $10 \times 9 / 2 = 45$  correlation). The average of these 45 interrater correlations is the reliability of a firm profile. Second, coefficient alphas were used to compare each restaurant employee's rating of the restaurant to the aggregate restaurant profile. For both interrater and coefficient alpha reliability, a score of at least .70 (Chatman, 1991; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) is acceptable for aggregating a composite firm profile. If either reliability score of any restaurant did not reach this standard, that restaurant was not included in the cross-level analysis.

#### Calculation of Person-Organization Fit Scores

Two issues affect indirect fit calculation. First, P-O fit can be assessed at the individual-level or cross-level. As Chapter Two explained, individual-level assessment compares an individual's preferred culture to their own assessment of the organization. The cross-level technique compares individuals' preferred culture to the aggregate of organizational culture as assessed by all individuals in that organization.

The second issue is the calculation measure used. For individual-level and cross-level analyses, difference scores, correlations, and polynomial regression can be used to calculate fit. Again, the theoretical arguments for each of these methods are detailed in



Chapter Two, but none has conclusively been demonstrated to be superior. Rather than choosing any one measure a priori, in this study as many measures as possible are collected and compared. Because polynomial regression requires scales to be equivalent at the individual and organization level, it was not appropriate and could not be used. The three methods remaining include (1) the sum of the absolute value of the differences ( $|D|$ ), (2) the sum of the squared differences ( $D^2$ ), and (3) profile correlations ( $Q$ ). Each was calculated at the individual-level and cross-level.

1) The sum of the absolute value of the differences ( $|D|$ ): For individual-level, each employee's score for each value statement in the "perceived culture" profile was subtracted from his or her score for the same value statement in the "preferred culture" profile. For cross-level, each employee's score for each value statement in the "preferred culture" profile was subtracted from the aggregate perceived culture profile of his or her restaurant. P-O fit were calculated as the sum of the absolute values of the 36 differences. Using absolute values assumes that unit differences are equally influential regardless of their direction or sign.

2) The sum of the squared differences ( $D^2$ ): In this method, the 36 individual and cross level differences for each employee are squared before they are summed. This method gives larger differences a proportionally greater impact on the fit score.

3) The correlation between the two profiles ( $Q$ ): In this method, individuals preferred culture profiles were correlated with their individual level perceived profile and with the aggregate perceived profile. The  $Q$  score is the correlation of the two 36-point profiles.

In total, fit is measured four ways. As indicated earlier, perceived fit was measured with a three-item scale. Calculated fit was assessed at two levels of analyses, as the sum of

the absolute value of the differences, the sum of the squared differences, and as the correlation of perceived and preferred profiles. All four measures of fit were tested for their ability to predict the dependent variables.

### Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Hierarchical Regression Analyses were used to ascertain the relative contribution of the control variables and each of the independent variables (organizational culture, individual values, and P-O fit). In the first step of the hierarchical regression procedure, the control variables (gender, age, marital status, education, tenure, restaurant type, position employed, and number of work hours) were entered to determine the variance they explain in employee satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization.

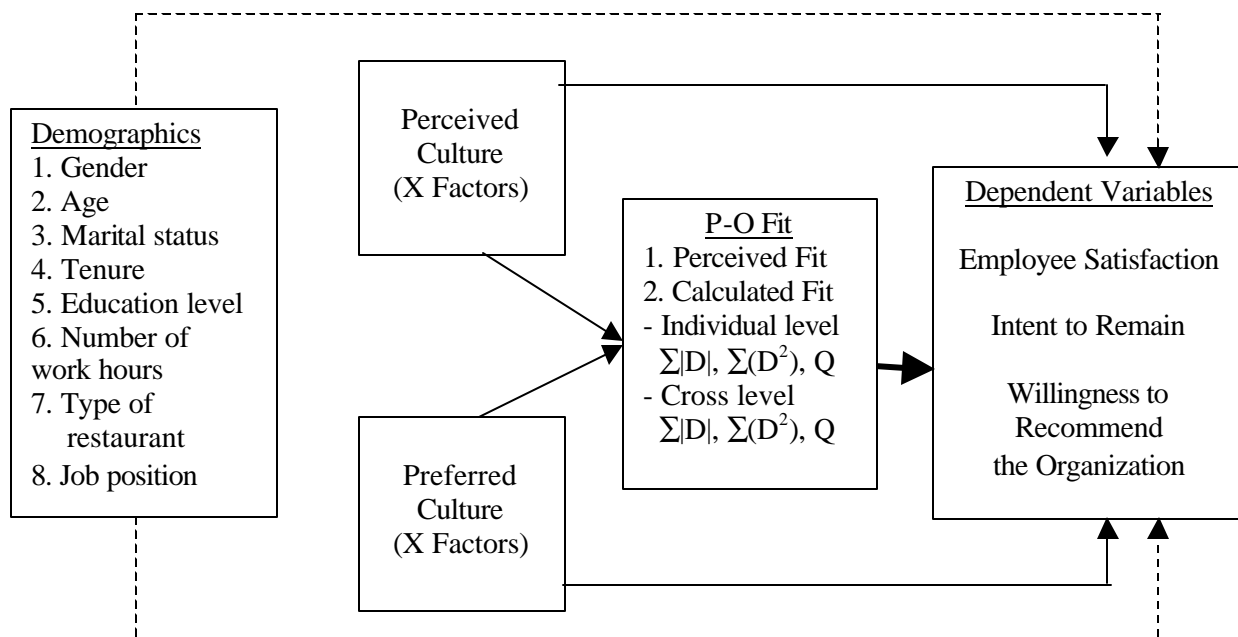
Next, the perceived organizational culture and then individual value factors were entered as separate sets to determine their influence on the dependent variables. Finally, each of the four measures of P-O fit was each entered into the regression model to determine if they explain additional variance in the three dependent variables. The four-step hierarchical regression procedure made it possible to determine whether P-O fit contributes to the outcome variables over and above organizational culture and individual characteristics.

### Revised Model

After introducing all variables in the study, and explaining their operationalization and calculation, the revised hypothesized model is illustrated in detail in Figure 3.2. As

shown in the figure, demographic control variables are added to the model, and the different types of fit and their calculation methods are listed.

Figure 3. 2  
Revised Model



### Strength and Limitations of the Study's Design

This study has several strengths. First, it is conducted in real organizational settings, so external validity is enhanced. Second, the sampling strategy allows research findings to be generalized across restaurant organizations. Third, the HICP instrument is appropriate to hospitality and enables respondents to report their perceptions more accurately than with the 54-item/Q-sort OCP. Finally, multiple measures and levels of analysis provide detailed assessment of the P-O fit construct and allow different perspectives to be compared.

This study also has certain shortcomings. First, real organizations and settings may be a limitation in that one cannot rule out alternative explanations for findings. For instance,

such factors as the labor market, pay, management type, or work design could influence individual outcomes. Second, because this study collects data at one point in time, there is no assurance that the data are stable. Third, the employees sampled from each restaurant may or may not be representative of the organization as a whole. Fourth, because data were collected in multiple operations, data collection may not have been precisely the same for all employees and restaurants. Overall, the benefits appear to outweigh the limitations, as the results presented in Chapter Four will show.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **ANALYSIS OF THE DATA**

This chapter presents the results of the study. First, data collection and representativeness of the sample is evaluated. Next, results of confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses that determined the factor dimensions are presented. Third, the cross-level sample is determined so individual-level and cross-level analyses can be conducted. Then P-O fit and dependent variable scores are provided, and differences in these scores based on demographic categories are presented and compared to historical findings. Finally, Hierarchical Regression Analyses show the relative contribution of the (1) control variables, (2) organizational culture dimensions, (3) individual value dimensions, and (4) P-O fit in explaining the dependent variables.

Prior to the data analysis, several issues were resolved to ensure reliability. These issues were (1) accuracy of data entry, (2) missing values, (3) fit of the data set with multivariate assumptions of normality, linearity, independence of error terms, and homoscedasticity. Accuracy of the data was verified through examination of descriptive statistics (minimum and maximum values) and graphic representations of the variables. For missing values, just 13 out of 23,472 data points were missing for the value items, and these were replaced with the individual restaurant mean value for that particular item. Nine of 2,608 data points for the dependent variable items were missing. Seven were replaced with the mean scores of the other two items measuring the same dependent variable for that respondent. Because one individual did not respond to 2 of three items in the intent to remain scale, this entire score was not included, so one of the 978 possible dependent scales was

missing. Eighteen of 2,608 data points were missing among demographic variables. Missing demographic variables were not replaced. Deletion was preferred to estimation for those missing values because there was no information to reliably estimate the scores or categories (e.g., male and female). As a result of these decisions, the sample size varied slightly.

Normality of variables was assessed by statistical methods: skewness and kurtosis. Skewness and kurtosis values were, on average, smaller than one, and deviations from normality were very minor. Logarithm, square, and square root transformations of the data did not lessen these deviations, so data were retained in their original form. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) say the impact of small skewness and kurtosis deviations from zero disappears in a sample of 200 or more. Since the current sample size is over 300, slight skewness and kurtosis should not influence the overall analyses and results. Linearity was assessed based on residual plots from the regression analyses. Normally and independently distributed residuals indicated independence of error terms. Bivariate scatterplots between variables showed relationships were homoscedastic and evenly distributed. In combination, these analyses indicate the data are reliable and appropriate for further analyses.

#### Representativeness of the Sample

The final sample included responses from 34 table-service restaurants, a mix of 28 “full service” (e.g., Olive Garden) and 6 “family dining” (e.g., Denny’s) restaurants. The sample included 326 restaurant employees: 173 employees working in front-of-the-house (dining room) positions and 153 working in back-of-the-house (kitchen) positions (managers responded to the survey, but data collected from them were not included in the analyses).

The Penn State graduates and students who *assisted* in the data collection clearly do not represent a random sample of restaurant employees. There is no reason, however, that their employees and coworkers from whom data were collected, in 34 distinct and geographically dispersed restaurants, would not be representative. Although characteristics of the table-service restaurant employee population are difficult to determine because available data combine table-service and quick-service restaurant employees, compared to a national profile of restaurant employees overall (Restaurant Industry Employee Profile, 2000) the sample was similar on most dimensions (Table 4.1). Fifty-eight percent of the restaurant employee population is female; while males and females are almost equally represented in this sample (50.6% versus 49.4%). In comparing age, the sample is underrepresented in the-less-than- 18 and over 45 categories, but this is probably because fast food restaurants are excluded. Carlino (1999) notes that many fast food companies utilize older workers as a labor source. Note that when “all employees less than 24” and “all employees over 24” are compared, the sample and population are nearly equal.

In terms of marital status, the sample is nearly equal to the population in proportion of married people, but somewhat higher in singles and lower in the proportion who are separated, divorced, or widowed. The sample is more highly educated than the restaurant employee population, but this would be expected because the sample excluded fast-food restaurants in which many high school students are employed. In fact, when the “less than high school” and “high school graduates” categories are combined, the difference of sample (66.3%) to population (70%) is far less evident. Similarly, when post high school degrees are combined the sample (33.1%) and population (30%) again compare favorably.

Table 4.1  
Comparisons of Sample and Population Characteristics

Demographic Variables	Categories	Sample Frequency (%)	Population* Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	165 (50.6)	(42.0)
	Female	161 (49.4)	(58.0)
Age	<18	7 (2.2)	(14.0)
	18 to 24	151 (46.4)	(35.0)
	25 to 29	59 (18.2)	(10.0)
	30 to 34	42 (12.9)	(9.0)
	35 to 39	24 (7.2)	(9.0)
	40 to 44	19 (5.7)	(7.0)
	45 to 49	13 (3.9)	(5.0)
	50 and over	8 (2.4)	(12.0)
Marital Status	Single	220 (67.5)	(57.0)
	Married	86 (26.4)	(28.0)
	Divorced	14 (4.3)	(14.0) <sup>a</sup>
Education	Less than high school	14 (4.3)	(37.0)
	High school diploma	202 (62.0)	(33.0)
	Associate degree	43 (13.2)	(4.0)
	Bachelor's degree	63 (19.3)	(25.0) <sup>b</sup>
	Master's or more	2 (0.6)	(1.0)
Restaurant Type	Chain	162 (49.7)	-----
	Independent	164 (50.3)	-----
Positions employed	Front-of-the-house	173 (53.1)	-----
	Male	58 (33.5)	(41.0)
	Female	115 (66.5)	(59.0)
	Back-of-the-house	153 (46.9)	-----
	Male	107 (69.9)	(59.0)
	Female	46 (30.1)	(41.0)
Full-time versus part-time status	Female Full-time	63 (38.6)	(34.0)
	Part-time	93 (60.1)	(66.0)
	Male Full-time	100 (68.8)	(51.0)
	Part-time	47 (29.6)	(49.0)
Tenure <sup>c</sup>	Tenure with employer	1.8 years	1.3 years

\* Only percentage scores for population are available (Restaurant Industry Employee Profile, 2000). Because of missing values and rounding, percentages may not total 100 percent.

<sup>a</sup> divorced/separated and widowed (11% and 3% respectively in the population).

<sup>b</sup> Some college and bachelor's degree in the population.

<sup>c</sup> Median.



Employees working in chain and independent restaurants were almost equally represented in the sample. Slightly more employees work in front-of-the-house (53.1%) than in back-of-the-house positions (46.9%), and the population pattern of more females working in front-of-the-house positions and more males in back-of-the-house positions is even more pronounced in the current sample. Consistent with the restaurant employee population, females are more likely to be part-time and males are more likely to be full-time. The sample reports slightly longer employment terms (1.8 years) than the population average (1.3 years), which may again be due to the exclusion of fast-food restaurants. Compared to other industries, all employed persons in the U.S. had a median of 3.6 years employment tenure (Restaurant Industry Employee Profile, 2000). Considering all the similarities between the sample and the population employees, the findings of this study can be cautiously generalized to the overall population of table-service restaurant employees.

### Factor Analyses

Factor analyses were conducted to determine the factor structure among the value-items. Confirmatory factor analysis seeks to “confirm” whether a proposed factor structure is supported by the data. Exploratory factor analysis does not specify any structure a priori but constructs a model that best fit the data (Hair et al., 1998).

This study developed the 36-item HICP instrument to assess 9 hypothesized factor-dimensions of perceived and preferred restaurant culture. To investigate whether the data confirmed the proposed 9-factor structure, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted for both the perceived culture and preferred culture ratings. The overall model fit was assessed

by the chi-square ( $X^2$ ) test and two other goodness-of-fit indices (Table 4.2). The significant  $X^2$  statistic indicates the data do not support the nine factor model for perceived or preferred culture. Because the  $X^2$  test is sensitive to sample size (Hair et al., 1998), two heuristic measures of model fit (the *Root Mean Square Error of Approximation* and *Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index*) were also calculated. As the table indicates, none of the values met the specified threshold to demonstrate fit, indicating the nine factor model is not supported for perceived or preferred culture.

Table 4.2  
Goodness-of-Fit Measures For Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Goodness-of-Fit Measures	Perceived Culture	Preferred Culture
<sup>1</sup> Chi-square ( $X^2$ ) test (df= 597)	3872.70 (p< .000)	4088.33 (p< .000)
<sup>2</sup> <i>Root Mean Square Error of Approximation</i> (RMSEA)	.130 n.s.	.134 n.s.
<sup>3</sup> <i>Parsimonious Comparative Fit Index</i> (PCFI)	.828 n.s.	.836 n.s.

1. The significant  $X^2$  statistic indicates the data do not support the nine factor model.
2. A RMSEA less than .05 has been suggested as an indicator of fit
3. Minimum recommended level for accepting the model is .90 (Hair et al., 1998, p. 623)

#### Factor Dimensions of *Perceived* Restaurant Culture

Because the nine-factor model was not confirmed, exploratory factor analyses were conducted to determine a factor structure that better fit the data. Principal components analysis, with varimax (orthogonal) rotation, was used to assess how the 36 value items were grouped for both perceived and preferred culture. For the *perceived* culture data, the Keiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of overall sampling adequacy was 0.923, which supported factor analysis of the data (Hair et al., 1998). The analysis yielded seven distinct factors with

eigenvalues greater than one, and the solution accounted for 66.5% of the total variance among the data.

Table 4.3 presents the item loadings in each factor along with their respective eigenvalue, percent of variance explained, reliability scores, scale means and standard deviations. The items *precise* and *accuracy* did not load on any factor, but thirty-four of the 36 value items loaded above .50 on a single factor. The proposed Honesty and People Orientation factors combined in the analysis, as did the proposed Team Orientation and Results Orientation factors. Recall that in pilot study three, Team Orientation and People Orientation combined, and Honesty and Results Orientation emerged separately. The factor structure that emerged for the final sample is appropriate with this sample, but the inconsistency of the factor structure between the pilot and the main study indicate that more work needs to be done to identify the most appropriate set of organizational culture factors.

As Table 4.3 shows, with the final sample the Honesty and People Orientation factor comprised eight items and explained 37% of the variation in the data. Team and Results Orientation, also eight items, explained over 8% of the variance. Four factors each emerged with the proposed four items, including Fair Compensation, Valuing Customers, Innovation, and Employee Development. The seventh factor, Attention to Detail, comprised just two items. Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) for culture dimensions were generally high (.79 to .90), indicating respondents answered these items consistently. Alphas were also calculated with each individual item in a scale deleted. Elimination of the *job training* item from the Employee Development factor increased the scale reliability from .8326 to .8660 so a three-item scale was used for this factor. The other scores were maintained with all items.

Table 4. 3 - Factor Analysis Scores for the Perceived Organizational Culture Dimensions

Factors and Items	Item Loadings	Eigenvalue (Variance %)	Scale Alpha	Scale Mean <sup>1</sup>	Standard Deviation
<i>Factor 1: Honesty and People Orientation</i>		13.31 (36.97)	.9079	5.26	.98
Honesty	.802				
Integrity	.755				
Truthfulness	.754				
Respect for individual's right	.685				
Fairness with employees	.670				
Keeping promises	.636				
Caring about employees	.631				
Support for employees	.546				
<i>Factor 2: Team and Results Orientation</i>		2.96 (8.21)	.8831	5.78	.83
Team orientation	.713				
Results orientation	.705				
Cooperating with coworkers	.687				
Team atmosphere	.683				
Working in collaboration with others	.662				
Task accomplishment	.557				
Hard work	.523				
Focus on getting the job done	.513				
<i>Factor 3: Fair Compensation</i>		2.04 (5.68)	.8705	4.86	1.20
Fair compensation	.781				
Good financial rewards	.746				
High pay for good performance	.719				
Equitable pay	.716				
<i>Factor 4: Valuing Customers or Service Quality</i>		1.64 (4.57)	.8207	6.32	.69
Giving customers what they expect	.766				
Valuing customers	.749				
Emphasis on service quality	.707				
Relationship with customers	.688				
<i>Factor 5: Innovation</i>		1.50 (4.17)	.7985	4.72	1.03
A willingness to experiment	.775				
Creativity	.717				
Risk taking	.689				
Innovation	.664				
<i>Factor 6: Employee Development</i>		1.35 (3.75)	.8326 (.8660)**	4.97	1.29
Advancement opportunities	.675				
Promotion from within	.662				
Personal / career development	.644				
Job training*	.545				
<i>Factor 7: Attention to detail</i>		1.14 (3.17)	.8358	5.64	1.02
Paying attention to detail	.693				
Detail oriented	.691				
<i>Total variance explained (66.52)</i>					

Notes: Principal Component Analysis  
 Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.  
 \* item deleted; \*\* alpha after item deleted.

<sup>1</sup> 7-point scales.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy= .915.  
 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000 (Chi-Square 7267.75, df=630).

As stated in Chapter Three, sampling both front- and back-of-the-house employees enabled the study to investigate whether organizational culture dimensions were organization wide or function specific. Cooke and Rousseau (1988) and Rousseau (1990) found that organizations developed strong subcultures within specific functional areas such as marketing. Woods (1989), however, found agreement between front- and back-of-the-house restaurant employees regarding their deeply rooted cultural values and assumptions, and P-O fit research suggests pivotal values are shared throughout organizations (Chatman, 1991).

To investigate whether perceived culture was organization wide in this sample, separate principal components analyses were conducted for front-of-the-house (n=173) and back-of-the-house (n=153) employees. Appendices D1 and D2 present the item loadings in each factor along with their respective eigenvalues, variance explained by each factor, reliability scores of the factors, scale means and standard deviations. Both factor analyses reveal the same seven dimensions as with the overall sample and most of the scale means for front- and-back-of-the-house employees were very close. Although the variance explained by each factor and the item loadings are somewhat different, the data support Woods (1989) in that values were shared organization wide and did not vary by functional specialty.

#### Factor Dimensions of *Preferred* Restaurant Culture

A separate factor analysis was conducted to assess the factor structure of the 36 items measuring *preferred* organizational culture. The KMO measure for this data was 0.909. The analysis again produced seven distinct factors with eigenvalues greater than one, and the resulting solution accounted for 64.5 % of the total variance among the data.

Table 4.4 shows the item loadings in each factor along with their respective eigenvalue, percent of variance explained, reliability scores, scale means and standard deviations. The items *emphasis on service quality*, *keeping promises*, *support for employees*, and *caring about employees* did not load on any factor, but 32 of 36 items loaded above .50 on a single factor. In this data set the Fair Compensation and Employee Development factors combined into a 7-item scale explaining over 32% of the variation in the data. The Honesty and People Orientation factors again loaded together, which in this case explained over 10% of the variance. Four four-item factors emerged as proposed, including Team Orientation, Attention to Detail, Innovation, and Results Orientation. Valuing Customers comprised three items.

Alphas ranged from .74 to .89, all higher than the .60 minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1998). Again, alphas were calculated with each item in a scale deleted. Elimination of the *job training* item increased reliability of the Team Orientation scale from .8061 to .8078 (though only a small increase, elimination is also appropriate because this item was not proposed as part of Team Orientation). Elimination of the *risk taking* item increased reliability of the Innovation scale from .7742 to .7797. Therefore, three-item scales of these factors were used in final regression analyses. The relatively narrow range of mean scores (5.75 - 6.53) suggests all of these factors are desired in the preferred culture.

#### Comparability of Perceived and Preferred Culture Profiles

Although the hypothesized nine-factor structure did not emerge for perceived culture or preferred culture, 34 of the 36 value items loaded above .50 on a single factor for perceived culture, 32 of 36 loaded above .50 for preferred culture, and 28 of 36 value items

Table 4.4 - Factor Analysis Scores for the Preferred Culture (Individual Value) Dimensions

Factors and Items	Item Loadings	Eigenvalue (Variance %)	Scale Alpha	Scale Mean <sup>1</sup>	Standard Deviation
<i>Factor 1: Fair Compensation/Emp. Development</i>		11.63(32.31)	.8921	6.38	.77
High pay for good performance	.849				
Good financial rewards	.794				
Fair compensation	.785				
Equitable pay	.753				
Advancement opportunities	.632				
Personal / career development	.597				
Promotion from within	.561				
<i>Factor 2: Honesty and People Orientation</i>		3.74 (10.38)	.8653	6.52	.66
Truthfulness	.707				
Fairness with employees	.685				
Honesty	.661				
Integrity	.628				
Respect for individual's right	.547				
<i>Factor 3: Team Orientation</i>		2.08 (5.77)	.8061 (.8078)**	6.37	.69
Working in collaboration with others	.720				
Team orientation	.679				
Team atmosphere	.648				
Job training*	.568				
<i>Factor 4: Attention to detail</i>		1.79 ( 4.98)	.8267	5.83	.77
Detail oriented	.851				
Attention to detail	.843				
Precise	.704				
Accuracy	.580				
<i>Factor 5: Innovation</i>		1.42(3.96)	.7742 (.7797)**	5.75	.84
A willingness to experiment	.836				
Risk taking*	.726				
Creativity	.719				
Innovation	.589				
<i>Factor 6: Results Orientation</i>		1.27 (3.54)	.7936	6.00	.75
Focus on getting the job done	.769				
Results orientation	.741				
Task accomplishment	.713				
Hard work	.688				
<i>Factor 7: Valuing Customers or Service Quality</i>		1.12 (3.11)	.7361	6.53	.60
Valuing customers	.776				
Giving customers what they expect	.743				
Relationship with customers	.661				
<i>Total variance explained</i>		(64.05)			

Notes: Principal Component Analysis  
 Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.  
 \* item deleted; \*\* alpha after item deleted.  
<sup>1</sup> 7-point scales.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy= .909.  
 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000 (Chi-Square 6593.07, df=630).

loaded above .50 on the same dimension. The factor loadings indicate a seven-factor structure that is similar but not identical in the two analyses (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5  
Perceived and Preferred Culture Dimensions Identified in the Study

<u>Perceived Culture Dimensions</u>	<u>Preferred Culture Dimensions</u>
(1) Honesty and people orientation	(1) Honesty and people orientation
(2) Attention to detail	(2) Attention to detail
(3) Valuing customers	(3) Valuing customers
(4) Innovation	(4) Innovation
(5) Fair compensation	(5) Fair compensation and
(6) Employee development	employee development
(7) Team and results orientation	(6) Team orientation
	(7) Results orientation

This overlap between perceived and preferred cultural dimensions increases the potential meaningfulness of P-O fit, but because the factors combined differently and slightly different items make up each dimensions, direct comparison of perceived and preferred factors is not possible. Nonetheless, recall in the O'Reilly et al. (1991) study that just 20 of 54 value-items loaded at .40 or above for both the perceived and preferred culture dimensions, and four value items loaded on different factors in the perceived and preferred culture dimensions. In this study just one item (*job training*) loaded on different factors in the two analyses. These results may indicate that, compared to O'Reilly et al's heterogeneous sample of accountants, government employees, and MBA students, a homogenous restaurant employee sample may lead to better correspondence between individual and organizational values, and in turn may be more conducive to studying P-O fit.

Analysis of the scale means for the factors provides interesting insights. In perceived culture, the factor perceived to exist at the highest level was Valuing Customers or Service Quality (6.32), which would be expected in service businesses. The combined Team and



Results Orientation factor—emphasis on getting the job done—was also high (5.78). Factors that might indicate valuing individual employees, however, were perceived to exist at much lower levels, including Innovation (4.72), Fair Compensation (4.86), and Employee Development (4.97). Apparently, employees perceive that “getting the job done” takes precedence over their needs. The assumption that employees desire more attention is borne out in the factor means for preferred culture. The Valuing Customers or Service Quality factor still has the highest mean score (6.53), but that score is only .21 higher than that factor’s score on the perceived scale. For the factors indicating concern for individuals, however, the perceived and preferred differences are dramatic. For the combined Fair Compensation and Employee Development factor, the preferred factor score (6.38) was a full 1.52 points above perceived Fair Compensation (4.86) and 1.41 points above perceived Employee Development (4.97). For Honesty and People Orientation, the perceived level was 5.26 while the preferred level was 6.52, a 1.26 difference. In combination these comparisons indicate employees’ perceived and preferred organizations are relatively close on customer service and productivity dimensions, but are much further apart on factors of concern to individual employees.

### The Cross-Level Sample

As described in Chapter Two, individual-level fit compares each employee’s preferred organizational characteristics with their individual perception of the existing organization. Hence, calculation of individual-level indirect fit relies on the individual as the unit of analysis. Cross-level assessment of P-O fit aggregates employee perceptions of the

organization to determine the organizational profile, and compares each employee's preferred values to this aggregate.

Thus, cross-level fit analysis required aggregation of the perceived culture responses from each restaurant unit. To do this, means of the 9 or 10 respondents from each restaurant were calculated for each of the 36 value-items, and a culture profile was constructed for that restaurant. Consistent with Chatman (1991), reliability of the aggregate profiles was assessed by interrater reliability and coefficient alpha (Table 4.6). These statistics indicate consensus about the patterning of values in 27 of the 34 restaurants in this sample. Seven restaurants (1, 14, 16, 18, 21, 26, and 34) had aggregate reliability below .70 on either or both of the two measures, and were excluded from the cross-level analysis.

Table 4.6 - Reliability Scores of Aggregate Culture Profile For Each Restaurant

	Interrater Reliability	Coefficient Alpha		Interrater Reliability	Coefficient Alpha
Restaurant 1.*	.6400	.3644	Restaurant 18.*	.7350	.6480
Restaurant 2.	.9336	.9120	Restaurant 19.	.8278	.9155
Restaurant 3.	.9084	.9579	Restaurant 20.	.9182	.9505
Restaurant 4.	.7021	.7147	Restaurant 21.*	.7897	.6232
Restaurant 5.	.8323	.9573	Restaurant 22.	.8393	.8576
Restaurant 6.	.8791	.8271	Restaurant 23.	.8146	.8951
Restaurant 7.**	.8880	.9422	Restaurant 24.	.8636	.8822
Restaurant 8.	.9182	.9069	Restaurant 25.	.8385	.9158
Restaurant 9.	.8592	.8048	Restaurant 26.*	.2862	.3720
Restaurant 10.	.8202	.8775	Restaurant 27.	.8979	.8874
Restaurant 11.	.7689	.7624	Restaurant 28.	.8095	.7974
Restaurant 12.	.8780	.9273	Restaurant 29.	.8027	.9843
Restaurant 13.	.8950	.9046	Restaurant 30.	.8929	.9633
Restaurant 14.*	.4915	.7649	Restaurant 31.	.7580	.7467
Restaurant 15.	.7877	.8016	Restaurant 32.	.8500	.9255
Restaurant 16.*	.4319	.7338	Restaurant 33.	.7820	.9437
Restaurant 17.	.7481	.8586	Restaurant 34.*	.5170	.4765

\* Seven restaurants with (one) asterisk did not have consensus within.

\*\* Although restaurant number 7 had consensus about the patterning of values within, it was relatively different from the others. All 8 were excluded in the cross-level analysis.

After restaurants with low internal reliability were excluded, the 36 item firm profile for each restaurant was correlated with the profile for every other restaurant ( $27 \times 26 / 2 = 351$  profile correlations). Table 4.7 shows that the correlations among the 27 restaurants were generally high, suggesting that restaurant culture is shared industry-wide. Despite internal reliability, restaurant number 7 was relatively different from the others, and excluding it as well increased the average correlation from .64 to .67 among the remaining 26 restaurants. This compared favorably with Chatman (1991), who found a .66 average correlation among eight accounting firms. Thus, only the 26 restaurants that demonstrated consensus of values within the organization and a culture profile similar to the other organizations were included in the cross-level analyses.

Because the sample was changed, exploratory factor analyses were conducted again to determine if the factor dimensions and scores were changed. For perceived and preferred culture, the analyses yielded the same seven dimensions that were found with the overall sample. No items changed factors, but there were minor changes in the items that loaded. Internal consistency reliabilities of all dimensions exceeded the minimum recommended level of .60 (Hair et al., 1998). Thus, factor scores were calculated for these dimensions and used for cross-level correlation and regression analyses. Most analyses are conducted separately at the individual-level (34 restaurants, 326 employees) and the cross level (26 restaurants, 250 employees).

Table 4.7 - Correlations Among Restaurant Culture Profiles

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	15	17	19	20	22	23	24	25	27	28	29	30	31	32	33		
Restaurant 2	—																												
Restaurant 3	.73	—																											
Restaurant 4	.53	.75	—																										
Restaurant 5	.62	.67	.66	—																									
Restaurant 6	.30	.53	.68	.63	—																								
Restaurant 7	.27	.20	.43	.24	.25	—																							
Restaurant 8	.31	.45	.70	.64	.72	.51	—																						
Restaurant 9	.80	.70	.45	.66	.45	.01	.32	—																					
Restaurant 10	.50	.48	.53	.66	.65	.32	.62	.69	—																				
Restaurant 11	.42	.52	.42	.72	.53	.07	.64	.61	.66	—																			
Restaurant 12	.65	.69	.62	.74	.68	.16	.55	.66	.59	.65	—																		
Restaurant 13	.63	.82	.64	.61	.51	.07	.50	.62	.42	.56	.73	—																	
Restaurant 15	.56	.57	.72	.82	.64	.32	.64	.62	.73	.64	.59	.38	—																
Restaurant 17	.52	.68	.74	.76	.63	.34	.68	.63	.74	.66	.59	.52	.81	—															
Restaurant 19	.39	.56	.79	.63	.71	.30	.70	.47	.68	.39	.47	.42	.75	.79	—														
Restaurant 20	.23	.45	.55	.64	.73	.29	.73	.45	.72	.64	.56	.40	.69	.81	.68	—													
Restaurant 22	.62	.78	.78	.82	.72	.24	.65	.64	.63	.61	.79	.75	.70	.78	.72	.71	—												
Restaurant 23	.61	.73	.73	.83	.68	.12	.70	.67	.66	.68	.71	.69	.77	.83	.80	.68	.87	—											
Restaurant 24	.80	.71	.49	.75	.45	.20	.52	.83	.68	.69	.77	.73	.63	.64	.46	.57	.76	.71	—										
Restaurant 25	.57	.75	.64	.80	.64	.05	.59	.66	.60	.71	.66	.80	.64	.71	.60	.65	.83	.79	.77	—									
Restaurant 27	.64	.61	.58	.63	.49	.19	.59	.61	.61	.75	.74	.63	.62	.73	.53	.57	.69	.73	.77	.68	—								
Restaurant 28	.50	.68	.66	.81	.78	.20	.71	.63	.69	.71	.71	.61	.70	.85	.76	.79	.83	.85	.65	.79	.70	—							
Restaurant 29	.41	.68	.84	.69	.75	.25	.65	.49	.61	.46	.65	.58	.71	.79	.84	.70	.80	.83	.49	.62	.60	.75	—						
Restaurant 30	.63	.72	.57	.72	.55	.03	.61	.75	.56	.72	.68	.70	.57	.71	.58	.60	.78	.87	.78	.77	.72	.78	.61	—					
Restaurant 31	.57	.78	.78	.77	.69	.23	.70	.69	.69	.66	.72	.68	.76	.83	.78	.69	.79	.86	.67	.76	.68	.81	.83	.77	—				
Restaurant 32	.74	.75	.70	.73	.57	.28	.58	.79	.73	.59	.69	.62	.77	.85	.74	.64	.79	.79	.80	.72	.77	.79	.71	.71	.81	—			
Restaurant 33	.70	.76	.78	.76	.66	.24	.63	.67	.60	.68	.78	.72	.77	.76	.68	.60	.84	.83	.75	.75	.77	.77	.71	.76	.82	.80	—		

Correlations greater than .45 are significant at the 0.01 level and those greater than .34 are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

### Calculation of Person-Organization Fit

As described in Chapter Three, P-O fit is calculated four different ways in this study. Separate fit scores were calculated for the 34-unit individual level sample and the 26-unit cross-level sample. Table 4.8 reports means, standard deviations, and minimum and maximum values for each of the resulting eight measures.

Table 4.8 – Descriptive Statistics for Person-Organization Fit Scores

	Individual-Level				Cross-Level			
	D	D <sup>2</sup>	Q	Perceived Fit	D	D <sup>2</sup>	Q	Perceived Fit
Mean	42.60	100.81	.16	5.02	42.08	79.32	.52	4.97
Standard Deviation	21.23	86.76	.31	1.17	11.24	41.03	.20	1.16
Minimum	3	5	-.53	2	3	13	-.20	1.67
Maximum	118	486	.97	7	76	237	.96	7

For |D| and D<sup>2</sup> smaller numbers indicate greater fit.

The first measure is direct or perceived fit, a three-item scale from the survey. The internal consistency reliability of the three-item perceived fit scale was .79 in both samples, and responses to the three items were averaged to obtain a composite score for perceived fit. The mean perceived fit scores of 5.02 and 4.97 in the samples indicate employees perceive at least moderate fit with their organizations.

Indirect fit was calculated three ways (|D|, D<sup>2</sup> and Q) at the individual-level and cross-level. For |D| and D<sup>2</sup>, larger numbers indicate lower fit, while for Q larger numbers indicate higher fit. Squaring the differences before summing led to large differences between the |D| and D<sup>2</sup> fit scores. All of the calculated P-O fit mean scores show higher fit in the cross-level

sample than in the individual-level sample, and the correlation (Q-score) is dramatically higher. Standard deviations in cross-level scores are also smaller than in individual-level scores, indicating smaller variability of P-O fit values. Minimum and maximum values of fit are also provided in the table to show the range or how the largest and smallest values differ.

### The Dependent Variables

Table 4.9 reports reliabilities, means, and standard deviations for the three dependent variable scales. Separate values are indicated for the entire sample, and for the cross-level sample. The reliability of all three scales was high, and justified combining the items into a composite measure for each dependent variable. Thus, mean scores were calculated for the items in each scale. The mean scores suggest the majority of employees were satisfied with their jobs and willing to recommend their organization to others. Intent to remain scores were somewhat lower, indicating employees may be satisfied and willing to recommend their organizations yet intend to leave for other reasons, or are leaving their options open. Possible reasons include better pay or career opportunities elsewhere, or family responsibility.

Table 4.9 – Alphas, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Dependent Variables

	Individual-Level			Cross-Level		
	Alpha	Mean	S. D.	Alpha	Mean	S. D.
Job Satisfaction (3 item)	.89	5.62	1.25	.88	5.53	1.28
Intent to Remain (3 item)	.80	4.64	1.59	.79	4.57	1.58
Willing to Recommend (2 item)	.88	5.72	1.34	.88	5.63	1.39

### Comparison of Fit and Outcome Scores According to Demographics

After the dependent variable and P-O fit scores were calculated, the analyses continued by investigating if differences in P-O fit or the dependent variables existed as a function of the demographic variables. As detailed in Table 4.10, mean scores for each demographic category were compared using t-tests. Excluding part of the sample did not make sense for this analysis, so the tests were conducted with the entire sample only.

Women experienced significantly higher levels of job satisfaction ( $t= 2.18, p < .05$ ). Comparing by age, the older group had higher calculated fit for  $|D|$  ( $t= 2.37, p < .05$ ) and  $D^2$  ( $t= 2.15, p < .05$ ), higher satisfaction ( $t= -2.31, p < .05$ ), and higher intent to remain ( $t= -3.30, p < .01$ ). The significant differences for satisfaction and intent to remain supported Tidball (1988). For marital status, married people had higher job satisfaction ( $t= 2.00, p < .05$ ) and intent to remain ( $t= 2.43, p < .05$ ). The significant difference in intent to remain is consistent with Bretz and Judge (1994). None of the differences based on education, restaurant type, or position employed were significant.

Full-time employees experienced higher levels of fit for  $|D|$  ( $t= 2.90, p < .01$ ) and  $D^2$  ( $t= 2.75, p < .01$ ). This is expected because when employees work together and interact with each other, there is more opportunity to increase similarity between employees and organizations. Similarly, full-time employees reported higher intent to remain than part-time employees ( $t= -2.49, p < .05$ ), which may be due to full-time employees viewing their jobs as a career while part-time employees accept restaurant jobs as temporary employment.

Table 4. 10  
Fit and Dependent Variable Mean Scores, Compared According to Demographic Categories

	D  <sup>a</sup>	D <sup>2a</sup>	Q	Perceived Fit	Job Satisfaction	Intent to Remain	Willingness to Recommend
<u>Gender</u>							
Female	43.7	104.0	.15	5.14	5.77	4.76	5.86
Male	41.5	97.7	.16	4.91	5.47	4.51	5.60
t-value	.977	.651	.446	1.80	2.18*	1.39	1.81
<u>Age</u>							
24 and less	45.5	111.7	.14	4.90	5.46	4.34	5.65
25 and above	39.9	90.9	.18	5.14	5.78	4.92	5.81
t-value	2.37*	2.15*	-1.17	-1.79	-2.31*	-3.30**	-1.08
<u>Marital Status</u>							
Single	43.0	102.7	.13	4.97	5.53	4.49	5.67
Married	41.7	96.8	.19	5.13	5.81	4.95	5.86
t-value	.500	.572	1.42	1.12	2.00*	2.43*	1.22
<u>Education</u>							
High school or less	43.4	105.9	.16	4.98	5.57	4.67	5.68
Associate or more	40.9	91.2	.15	5.11	5.73	4.59	5.83
t-value	-1.01	-1.43	-.400	.942	1.14	-.400	-.984
<u>Restaurant type</u>							
Independent	44.4	109.8	.16	4.97	5.61	4.48	5.67
Chain	40.8	91.7	.15	5.07	5.64	4.80	5.79
t-value	1.55	1.90	.300	-.808	.247	-1.84	-.785
<u>Position Employed</u>							
Front	41.9	96.1	.16	5.12	5.69	4.65	5.77
Back	43.4	106.2	.16	4.91	5.55	4.63	5.69
t-value	.667	1.05	.055	-1.68	-1.00	-.066	-.536
<u>Hours of work</u>							
Full-time	39.4	88.5	.17	5.10	5.69	4.85	5.85
Part-time	46.3	115.3	.14	4.94	5.55	4.41	5.61
t-value	2.90**	2.75**	-.743	-1.21	-1.02	-2.49*	-1.59

<sup>a</sup> For |D| and D<sup>2</sup> larger numbers indicate lower degree of fit.

\*\* p < .01 and \* p < .05 (two-tailed).



### Relationships Among Variables in the Study

To begin detailing relationships of the P-O fit scores with one another and with other variables, correlation matrices of all twenty-nine variables at the individual level (Table 4.11) and cross-level (Table 4.12) are provided. Because all independent variables in regression analysis (including demographics) are intercorrelated to some extent, the correlation matrix allows one to see relationships among variables and interpret the regression results accordingly (Pedhazur, 1997; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Measures of correlation indicate both the strength and the direction of the relationship between variables. For example, as can be seen in Table 4.11, job satisfaction and willingness to recommend are highly and positively correlated (.78). That is, high values on job satisfaction are associated with high values on willingness to recommend. Because larger  $|D|$  and  $D^2$  values indicate a lower degree of fit, however, the relationships between these two measures and the other variables are interpreted in reverse in both levels of analyses. For example, the -.41 correlation between  $|D|$  and job satisfaction is actually a positive association.

### Relationships Among Person-Organization Fit Scores

Of particular interest in this study were the relationships among the different measures of P-O fit, which are shown in Tables 4.11 and 4.12. Since  $|D|$  and  $D^2$  are derivations of the same numbers, the correlation between them is quite high at the individual (.96) and cross (.82) levels. P-O fit calculated by the Q method had relatively low correlation with  $|D|$  and  $D^2$  in

Table 4.11 – Correlations Among All Variables in Entire Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Gender (male=1)	.08																
2. Age	.09	-.60															
3. Marital Status (single=1)	-.11	-.24	.15														
4. Education ( $\leq$ high school degree=1)	.04	.47	-.32	-.04													
5. Tenure	.34	.33	-.23	-.31	.26												
6. Number of hours worked	.09	-.10	-.03	.03	-.16	.03											
7. Restaurant Type (chain=1)	-.36	-.08	.10	-.05	-.11	-.33	.04										
8. Job Position (front-of-the-house=1)																	
9. Honesty/People Orientation	-.02	.15	-.01	-.08	.12	.13	-.01	.07									
10. Team/Results Orientation	-.02	-.00	.02	.03	.03	.01	.12	.07	.54								
11. Fair Compensation	.02	.17	-.14	-.15	.14	.29	.09	.05	.57	.39							
12. Valuing Customers	-.13	.05	-.03	-.06	.02	.03	.05	.19	.41	.58	.36						
13. Innovation	.03	.05	.02	.04	.08	.11	.01	.07	.51	.48	.39	.37					
14. Employee Development	.03	.12	-.06	-.10	.03	.23	.24	.02	.51	.41	.61	.36	.39				
15. Attention to Detail	-.01	.06	-.03	-.05	-.02	.09	.13	.08	.52	.62	.40	.54	.42	.39			
16. Preferred Fair Comp./Emp. Develop.	-.12	-.01	-.03	-.08	-.06	-.01	.11	.11	.18	.21	.31	.21	.14	.25	.19		
17. Preferred Honesty/People Orientation	-.14	.06	-.06	-.09	-.03	-.02	.01	.13	.23	.14	.20	.21	.17	.13	.19	.68	
18. Preferred Team Orientation	-.19	.02	.01	-.03	-.07	-.06	.03	.11	.18	.29	.14	.23	.13	.15	.24	.51	.53
19. Preferred Attention to Detail	-.09	.13	-.02	-.10	.03	.12	-.03	.10	.24	.18	.22	.15	.32	.19	.29	.18	.30
20. Preferred Innovation	-.03	.15	-.02	-.04	.07	.11	.08	.02	.19	.28	.17	.30	.41	.18	.29	.35	.41
21. Preferred Results Orientation	-.03	.13	-.02	.04	.06	.13	-.06	.01	.21	.13	.12	.09	.26	.15	.13	.15	.29
22. Preferred Valuing Customers	-.17	.09	-.12	-.05	.02	-.03	.04	.22	.23	.26	.18	.26	.16	.19	.31	.31	.39
23. Individual-Level  D	-.05	-.10	.03	.06	-.09	-.16	-.09	-.04	-.75	-.61	-.63	-.45	-.55	-.64	-.48	.09	.13
24. Individual-Level (D) <sup>2</sup>	-.04	-.08	.03	.08	-.07	-.16	-.11	-.06	-.73	-.58	-.63	-.41	-.51	-.67	-.45	.05	.11
25. Individual-Level Q	.03	.11	-.08	.02	.09	.07	-.02	-.00	.37	.02	.20	.09	-.06	.18	.03	-.38	-.24
26. Perceived Fit	-.10	.10	-.06	-.05	.07	.07	.05	.09	.59	.53	.45	.42	.36	.38	.41	.19	.19
27. Job Satisfaction	-.12	.15	-.10	-.06	.07	.11	.01	.06	.54	.35	.35	.35	.34	.34	.35	.15	.24
28. Intent to Remain	-.08	.21	-.13	.02	.10	.21	.10	.00	.43	.22	.41	.21	.25	.40	.25	.12	.18
29. Willingness to Recommend	-.10	.06	-.07	-.01	.04	.13	.04	.03	.56	.35	.40	.31	.31	.38	.36	.12	.25

Table 4.11 - Continued

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
18. Preferred Team Orientation	.36											
19. Preferred Attention to Detail	.34	.33										
20. Preferred Innovation	.32	.48	.37									
21. Preferred Results Orientation	.51	.31	.29	.26								
22. Preferred Valuing Customers												
23. Individual-level  D	.07	-.17	-.03	-.09	-.06							
24. Individual-level (D) <sup>2</sup>	.07	-.13	-.01	-.06	-.03	.96						
25. Individual-level Q	-.10	.12	-.29	.16	.12	-.49	-.39					
26. Perceived Fit	.26	.17	.18	.13	.28	-.52	-.53	.14				
27. Job Satisfaction	.18	.17	.19	.18	.21	-.41	-.40	.17	.61			
28. Intent to Remain	.15	.11	.15	.17	.19	-.39	-.39	.24	.54	.69		
29. Willingness to Recommend	.18	.21	.18	.15	.17	-.43	-.44	.20	.64	.78	.66	

Note: 1. Correlations greater than .14 are significant at the 0.01 level and those greater than .10 are significant at the 0.05 level.

2. For |D| and D<sup>2</sup> larger numbers indicate lower degree of fit.

Table 4.12 – Correlations Among All Variables in High Consensus Restaurants

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Gender (male=1)	-.03																
2. Age	.01	-.60															
3. Marital Status (single=1)	-.11	-.26	.15														
4. Education ( $\leq$ high school degree=1)	.12	.42	-.27	-.05													
5. Tenure	.36	.32	-.25	-.30	.21												
6. Number of hours worked	.09	-.14	.00	.02	-.17	-.05											
7. Restaurant Type (chain=1)	-.37	-.06	.09	-.10	-.03	-.33	.05										
8. Job Position (front-of-the-house=1)																	
9. Honesty/People Orientation	-.00	.05	-.08	-.08	-.01	.06	.05	.07									
10. Team/Results Orientation	-.03	-.10	.07	.00	.00	-.09	.07	.08	.64								
11. Fair Compensation	.00	.08	-.11	-.11	.02	.18	.05	.10	.53	.43							
12. Valuing Customers	-.13	-.03	.02	-.04	-.01	-.04	.01	.16	.42	.49	.35						
13. Innovation	.02	-.01	.05	-.05	.05	.11	.02	.11	.56	.49	.42	.39					
14. Employee Development	.01	.05	-.01	-.06	-.03	.11	.19	.07	.55	.45	.57	.38	.43				
15. Attention to Detail	-.01	-.00	.03	-.07	-.05	.02	.10	.07	.61	.67	.43	.49	.50	.49			
16. Preferred Fair Comp./Emp. Develop.	-.16	-.05	-.01	.04	-.11	-.06	.09	.09	.20	.19	.31	.17	.13	.26	.19		
17. Preferred Honesty/People Orientation	-.16	-.01	-.04	-.06	-.10	-.04	.03	.11	.23	.13	.24	.24	.18	.20	.20	.74	
18. Preferred Team Orientation	-.20	.03	-.02	-.04	-.05	-.04	-.01	.08	.25	.26	.23	.21	.17	.25	.26	.55	.54
19. Preferred Attention to Detail	-.12	.10	-.00	-.08	-.01	.03	-.05	.13	.25	.16	.21	.15	.33	.19	.28	.22	.31
20. Preferred Innovation	-.02	.09	.03	-.06	.06	.06	.01	.06	.19	.20	.16	.27	.45	.20	.22	.28	.39
21. Preferred Results Orientation	-.08	.12	-.04	.06	.02	.09	-.10	.03	.22	.09	.09	.09	.25	.14	.12	.19	.29
22. Preferred Valuing Customers	-.19	.09	-.14	-.08	-.03	-.03	.05	.22	.27	.26	.26	.31	.19	.28	.31	.35	.36
23. Cross-level  D	-.13	-.04	-.04	.07	.02	-.22	-.12	.14	-.16	-.07	-.14	.11	-.19	-.14	-.06	.28	.27
24. Cross-level (D) <sup>2</sup>	-.14	-.09	-.00	.06	-.02	-.22	-.01	.09	-.14	-.05	-.10	.04	-.19	-.07	-.11	.21	.20
25. Cross-level Q	-.13	-.07	.03	.07	-.10	-.23	.02	-.01	-.24	.07	-.44	.23	-.33	-.28	.02	-.04	-.04
26. Perceived Fit	-.09	.00	-.02	-.02	-.04	-.01	.05	.13	.60	.53	.43	.38	.46	.40	.38	.18	.32
27. Job Satisfaction	-.13	.10	-.10	-.09	.00	.10	.06	.08	.50	.38	.36	.32	.33	.39	.36	.17	.23
28. Intent to Remain	-.13	.14	-.13	.05	-.02	.12	.13	.02	.33	.25	.33	.17	.25	.34	.25	.14	.17
29. Willingness to Recommend	-.11	-.01	-.05	-.07	-.04	.09	.08	.06	.53	.37	.39	.33	.33	.42	.40	.18	.27

Table 4.12 - Continued

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
18. Preferred Team Orientation	.36											
19. Preferred Attention to Detail	.32	.37										
20. Preferred Innovation	.34	.47	.40									
21. Preferred Results Orientation	.54	.34	.26	.30								
22. Preferred Valuing Customers												
23. Cross-level  D	.30	-.04	.03	.01	.18							
24. Cross-level (D) <sup>2</sup>	.20	-.18	-.07	-.11	.11	.82						
25. Cross-level Q	.04	-.12	-.01	-.12	.06	.21	.09					
26. Perceived Fit	.15	.25	.11	.18	.10	-.10	-.10	-.05				
27. Job Satisfaction	.22	.18	.14	.17	.26	.02	.04	-.06	.62			
28. Intent to Remain	.21	.08	.09	.14	.21	-.05	-.01	-.09	.53	.68		
29. Willingness to Recommend	.22	.20	.15	.14	.21	-.03	.00	-.06	.65	.81	.66	

Note: 1. Correlations greater than .16 are significant at the 0.01 level and those greater than .12 are significant at the 0.05 level.

2. For |D| and D<sup>2</sup> larger numbers indicate lower degree of fit.

both levels of analyses. The most likely reason for this is that respondents gave relatively high scores to the preferred culture survey items, so the data were restricted in range (see mean scores and standard deviations for preferred culture dimensions in Table 4.4). Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) and Norusis (1999) claim a narrow range of scores on a variable limits potential correlation with other variables. Thus, in this data set the Q method did not provide meaningful information about P-O fit.

At the individual level, *perceived* fit correlated moderately with individual-level |D| ( $r = .52, p < .01$ ) and  $D^2$  ( $r = .53, p < .01$ ), but less strongly with Q ( $r = .14, p < .05$ ). Perceived fit did not correlate significantly with the calculated fit measures at the cross-level, which is inconsistent with other cross-level analyses. Cable and Judge (1996, 1997) found a limited correlation between perceived fit and the Q measurement of calculated fit ( $r = .26, p < .01$ ;  $r = .25, p < .01$  respectively) in cross-level analysis. Enz (1988) used the |D| method to calculate P-O fit and found a correlation of .37 between perceived and calculated fit ( $p < .05$ ) in cross-level analysis. The inconsistency of individual-level and cross-level findings in this study, and the inconsistency of this study's cross-level finding with past research, indicate a continuing question about the relationship of perceived and calculated fit, and further research in both levels of analysis is needed.

### Hierarchical Regression Analyses

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the role of person-organization fit in explaining employee job satisfaction, intent to quit, and willingness to recommend the organization as a good place to work. Of particular interest was whether fit explained

variance beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values. To assess these relationships, hierarchical regression analyses were used to determine the contribution of each independent variable over and above variables already entered in the equation. Individual-level and cross-level relationships were assessed separately.

### Individual-Level Hierarchical Regression Analysis

In this analysis, the independent variables were entered into regression analyses in four steps to examine their effect on the three dependent variables. As Table 4.13 shows, the independent variables in four steps were 1) demographics, 2) perceived culture factors, 3) preferred culture (or individual values) factors, and 4) P-O fit.

The demographic or control variables were entered into the equation first, as a set. The first row in the table shows the variance explained ( $R^2$ ) in each of the three outcomes by the entire set of demographic variables. Adjusted R square values are provided in parenthesis. Because adding more independent variables to the model can only increase  $R^2$  and never reduce it, adjusted  $R^2$  controls for this effect by recognizing the number of independent variables in the model (Hair et al., 1998; Norusis, 1999). Adjusted  $R^2$  thus provides a more conservative estimate of variance explained. The beta for each individual variable shows the significance and relative importance of that variable in the equation. As perceived culture, preferred culture, and P-O fit are added, the row in the table shows the total  $R^2$  to that point, the change in  $R^2$  as a result of that variable, and the F statistic showing the significance of the change.

Table 4.13 – Individual-Level Hierarchical Regression Results for the Effects of Demographic Variables, Culture, Preferred Culture, and Person-Organization Fit on the Dependent Variables

	Job Satisfaction				Intent to Remain				Willing to Recommend			
	Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	<u>Change</u> R <sup>2</sup>	F	Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	<u>Change</u> R <sup>2</sup>	F	Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	<u>Change</u> R <sup>2</sup>	F
<i>Step 1: Demographics</i>		.05 (.03)	.05	1.94*		.11 (.09)	.11	4.60**		.04 (.02)	.04	1.57
Gender (male=1)	-.14*				-.12				-.13*			
Age	.10				.13*				.11			
Marital Status (single=1)	.00				.05				.03			
Education (≤ high=1)	-.01				.14*				-.02			
Tenure	.02				.01				-.02			
Hours of work	.13				.13*				.08			
Restaurant type (chain=1)	.02				.09				.03			
Job position (front=1)	.04				.02				.06			
<i>Step 2: Perceived Culture</i>		.33 (.30)	.28	17.59**		.31 (.27)	.20	11.73**		.35 (.31)	.31	19.4**
Honesty/ People Orient	.40**				.18*				.42**			
Team/Result Orient.	.03				-.08				.01			
Fair Compensation	.00				.14				.07			
Valuing customers	.10				-.04				.03			
Innovation	.06				-.01				-.04			
Employee Development	.07				.13				.10			
Attention to Detail	.00				-.01				.03			
<i>Step 3: Preferred Culture</i>		.34 (.30)	.01	.813		.33 (.27)	.02	.019		.38 (.33)	.03	1.93*
Fair Comp./Emp. Devel.	-.09				-.07				-.20*			
Honesty/People Orient.	.13				.16*				.22*			
Team Orientation	.01				.02				.04			
Attention to detail	-.05				-.10				.03			
Innovation	-.01				.00				.04			
Result Orientation	.05				.07				-.02			
Valuing customers	.02				.05				-.04			
<i>Step 4: P-O Fit</i>												
D	.03	.34 (.29)	.00	.063	-.13	.33 (.27)	.00	.003	-.03	.38 (.33)	.00	.044
D <sup>2</sup>	.00	.34 (.29)	.00	.001	-.16	.33 (.27)	.00	1.21	-.08	.38 (.33)	.00	.463
Q	.00	.34 (.29)	.00	.013	.02	.33 (.27)	.00	2.53	.13	.38 (.32)	.00	.049
Perceived Fit	.45**	.45 (.41)	.11	58.4**	.43**	.43 (.38)	.10	51.5**	.49**	.51 (.47)	.13	74.7**

Note: R<sup>2</sup> values in parenthesis are adjusted R-square.

N= 326; \*\* p< .01 and \* p< .05.



For job satisfaction, demographics explained 5% of the variance ( $F=1.94, p < .05$ ). The beta coefficients indicate gender accounted for much of that 5%. Perceived organizational culture explained an additional 28% ( $F=17.59, p < .01$ ). In this case the Honesty and People Orientation dimension ( $Beta = .40, p < .01$ ) was largely responsible. Preferred culture did not add significantly to the explanation of variance.

To determine if P-O fit contributed to explanation of satisfaction over and above that explained by demographics, perceived culture, and preferred culture, fit was entered into the equation last. Each of the four individual-level fit measures was entered and tested separately. None of the three measures of indirect fit added to the variance explained, but perceived fit explained an additional 11% of the variance ( $Beta = .45; F = 58.4, p < .01$ ) and increased the total variance explained in job satisfaction to 45% (41% for adjusted R-square). This is much higher than the average 25% that organizational researchers explained using single sets of variables (Agho et al., 1993).

For intent to remain, demographic variables explained 11% of the variance ( $F=4.60, p < .01$ ) indicative of the role that external influences play in retention. Older people, less educated people, and those who worked more hours all expressed significantly higher intention to remain. Perceived organizational culture explained an additional 20% of the variance in intent to remain ( $F=11.73, p < .01$ ). The factor dimension of Honesty and People Orientation ( $Beta = .18, p < .05$ ) was significant individually. This supports Sheridan (1992), who found firms emphasizing “interpersonal relationship” values had lower turnover than firms emphasizing “work task” values. Preferred culture dimensions did not add significantly to the explanation of variance, and none of the indirect P-O fit calculation methods explained additional variance. Perceived fit was again significant, contributing an

additional 10% to the variance explained ( $Beta = .43$ ;  $F = 51.5$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The total variance explained in intent to remain is 43% (38% for adjusted R-square).

For willingness to recommend the organization to others, demographic variables explained a nonsignificant 4% of the variance. Organizational culture explained an additional 31% of the variance ( $F = 19.4$ ,  $p < .01$ ), with Honesty and People Orientation significant individually ( $Beta = .42$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Preferred culture added 3% to the explanation of variance ( $F = 1.93$ ,  $p < .05$ ); the Fair Compensation and Employee Development ( $Beta = -.20$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and Honesty and People Orientation ( $Beta = .22$ ,  $p < .05$ ) factors were influential here. The results indicated once again that none of the indirect P-O fit calculation methods explained additional variance but that perceived fit was significant, contributing an additional 13% to the variance explained ( $Beta = .49$ ;  $F = 74.7$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and increasing the total variance explained to a remarkable 51% (adjusted R-square 47%).

Following the model of Chatman (1991), the previous analysis assessed the predictive value of fit beyond that explained by culture and preferred culture (values). Most fit research, however, has assessed the role of fit without that constraint (Boxx et al., 1991; Cable & Judge, 1996, 1997; Enz, 1988; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly, 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). To test such a model with this data, a separate regression analysis was conducted. Demographic variables were entered first, and then each of the fit measures was entered and tested.

As can be seen in Table 4.14, in this analysis all four measures of P-O fit contributed significantly to the explanation of variance in all three independent variables. Among the calculated fit measures,  $|D|$  and  $D^2$  were very similar in the variance they explained. Correlation (Q) was also significant, but explained much less variance than the difference

scores. Consistent with the previous analyses, for all the outcomes perceived fit explained much more variance than did calculated fit. Adjusted R-square values are provided in parenthesis.

Table 4.14 – Individual-Level Hierarchical Regression Results for the Effects of Fit on the Dependent Variables Without Controlling for Perceived and Preferred Culture

	<u>Job Satisfaction</u>			<u>Intent to Remain</u>			<u>Willing to Recommend</u>		
	<u>R<sup>2</sup></u>	<u>Change</u>		<u>R<sup>2</sup></u>	<u>Change</u>		<u>R<sup>2</sup></u>	<u>Change</u>	
		R <sup>2</sup>	F		R <sup>2</sup>	F		R <sup>2</sup>	F
<i>Demographics</i>	.05 (.02)	.05	1.94*	.11 (.09)	.11	4.75**	.04 (.01)	.04	1.51
<i>Individual Level P-O fit</i>									
<i> D </i>	.21 (.18)	.16	58.9**	.23 (.21)	.12	46.6**	.23 (.20)	.19	70.8**
<i>D<sup>2</sup></i>	.20 (.17)	.15	53.9**	.23 (.21)	.12	45.4**	.22 (.20)	.18	68.4**
<i>Correlation (Q)</i>	.07 (.04)	.02	7.6**	.15 (.12)	.04	14.9**	.08 (.05)	.04	13.5**
<i>Perceived Fit</i>	.39 (.37)	.34	165.3**	.35 (.33)	.24	111.1**	.41 (.40)	.37	190.5**

Note: R<sup>2</sup> values in parenthesis are adjusted R-square.  
N= 326; \*\* p< .01 and \* p< .05.

Thus, although calculated P-O fit did not add to the explanation of variance in the three dependent variables beyond that explained by perceived and preferred culture, without that constraint both calculated and perceived P-O fit were significant predictors of the three dependent variables used in this study. Because perceived fit and the dependent variables are all perceptual measures, this relationship would be expected (Kristof, 1996). Nevertheless, these results indicate that both perceived and calculated P-O fit could be used to predict the three individual outcomes.

### Cross-Level Hierarchical Regression Analysis

The cross-level analyses, reported in Table 4.15, were conducted in the same way that the individual-level analyses were done. The table format is the same, and adjusted R-square values are again provided in parenthesis. For job satisfaction, demographics explained a nonsignificant 6% of the variance. Perceived organizational culture explained an additional 26% ( $F= 11.96, p < .01$ ). The Honesty and People Orientation ( $Beta= .37, p < .01$ ) accounted for much of that 26%. Preferred culture did not add significantly to the explanation of variance. As with the individual-level analysis, each of the four cross-level fit measures was entered last and tested separately. P-O fit calculated as  $D^2$  ( $Beta= .14 p < .05$ ) added 1% to the variance explained ( $F=4.53, p < .05$ ), but P-O fit calculated by  $|D|$  and Q did not add to the variance explained. Perceived fit explained an additional 14% of the variance ( $Beta= .51; F= 56.3, p < .01$ ).

For intent to remain, demographic variables explained 10% of the variance ( $F=3.25, p < .01$ ). Women, older people, less educated people, those who worked more hours, and those working in chain restaurants were all significantly more likely to remain. Perceived organizational culture explained an additional 15% of the variance in intent to remain ( $F=6.29, p < .01$ ). The factor dimension of Honesty and People Orientation ( $Beta= .19, p < .01$ ) was significant individually. Preferred culture dimensions did not add significantly to the explanation of variance. None of the three measures of calculated fit added to the variance explained, but perceived fit explained an additional 13% of the variance ( $Beta= .48; F= 45.3, p < .01$ ).

Table 4.15 – Cross-Level Hierarchical Regression Results for the Effects of Demographic Variables, Culture, Preferred Culture, and Person-Organization Fit on the Dependent Variables

	Job Satisfaction				Intent to Remain				Willing to Recommend			
	Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	<u>Change</u> R <sup>2</sup>	F	Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	<u>Change</u> R <sup>2</sup>	F	Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	<u>Change</u> R <sup>2</sup>	F
<i>Step 1: Demographics</i>		.06 (.03)	.06	1.75		.10 (.07)	.10	3.25*		.05 (.01)	.05	1.43
Gender (male=1)	-.17*				-.17*				-.15*			
Age	.06				.16*				.07			
Marital Sta. (single=1)	.03				.01				.04			
Education (≤ high=1.)	-.06				.14*				-.04			
Tenure	.04				.05				.05			
Hours of work	.15*				.20*				.17*			
Rest. type (chain=1)	.10				.18*				.11			
Job position (front=1)	.04				.02				.02			
<i>Step 2: Perceived Culture</i>		.32 (.27)	.26	11.96**		.25 (.20)	.15	6.29**		.33 (.28)	.28	13.18**
Honesty/ People Or.	.37**				.19**				.39**			
Team/Result Or.	.07				.06				-.05			
Fair Compensation	.03				.14				.07			
Valuing customers	.07				-.03				.08			
Innovation	.01				.07				.01			
Employee develop.	.10				.13				.11			
Attention to Detail	-.04				-.12				.05			
<i>Step 3: Preferred Culture</i>		.33 (.26)	.01	.608		.27 (.19)	.02	.116		.35 (.28)	.02	1.10
Fair Comp./Emp. Dev.	.15				.39*				.20*			
Honesty/People Or.	.28*				.10				.31*			
Team Orientation	.15				.03				.04			
Attention to Detail	-.07				-.10				.02			
Innovation	.03				.06				.02			
Result Orientation	.00				.01				.08			
Valuing customers	.03				-.06				-.05			
<i>Step 4: P-O Fit</i>												
D	.13	.34 (.27)	.01	3.84	.03	.27 (.18)	.00	.140	.05	.35 (.28)	.00	.634
D <sup>2</sup>	.14*	.34 (.27)	.01	4.53*	.06	.27 (.19)	.00	.690	.08	.35 (.29)	.00	1.69
Q	.11	.33 (.26)	.00	1.54	.11	.27 (.19)	.00	1.55	.15	.35 (.29)	.01	3.27
Perceived Fit	.51**	.47 (.41)	.14	56.3**	.48**	.40 (.33)	.13	45.3**	.52**	.50 (.45)	.15	64.7**

Note: R<sup>2</sup> values in parenthesis are adjusted R-square.

N= 250; \*\* p< .01 and \* p< .05.

For willingness to recommend the organization, demographic variables explained a nonsignificant 5% of the variance. Organizational culture explained an additional 28% ( $F=13.18, p < .01$ ), with Honesty and People Orientation ( $Beta = .39, p < .01$ ) significant individually. Perceived culture did not add significantly to the explanation of variance. None of the three measures of calculated fit added to the variance explained on this criterion variable. Again, perceived fit was a powerful predictor and explained an additional 15% of the variance ( $Beta = .52; F = 64.7, p < .01$ ).

The role of the individual factors comprising perceived and preferred culture is noteworthy in these analyses. For perceived culture, despite the fact that factor analysis identified seven factors, Honesty/People Orientation is the only one that emerges with a significant Beta in the regression analysis, in the individual level or cross level analyses, for any of the three outcomes. Thus, although perceived culture may be multifaceted, only one facet is significantly related to the dependent variables. These findings suggest that the essence of this factor—caring about employees and telling them the truth—is critical if management is to enhance job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization.

Among preferred culture factors, two were significant. Honesty/People Orientation was again the primary individual predictor, but the combined Fair Compensation/Employee Development factor also demonstrated a significant Beta for willingness to recommend at the individual level and for intent to remain at the cross level. These findings provide further evidence that focusing on external customers may benefit revenue, but that maximizing individual level employee outcomes requires attention to these internal customer issues, as well.

To test the role of fit without controlling for perceived and preferred culture, a separate regression analysis was also conducted at the cross-level. As Table 4.16 shows, none of the calculated P-O fit measures contributed significantly to the explanation of variance in any of the three dependent variables. These findings support the claims of Kristof (1996) and Nisbett and Ross (1980) that because individual-level differences are more real for the individual, individual-level fit may have a stronger effect on individuals' attitudes than does fit with the organization's aggregate. Consistent with the individual level results, however, perceived fit had a strong effect on the dependent variables.

Table 4.16 – Cross-Level Hierarchical Regression Results for the Effects of Fit on the Dependent Variables Without Controlling for Perceived and Preferred Culture

	Job Satisfaction			Intent to Remain			Willing to Recommend		
	R <sup>2</sup>	<i>Change</i> R <sup>2</sup>	F	R <sup>2</sup>	<i>Change</i> R <sup>2</sup>	F	R <sup>2</sup>	<i>Change</i> R <sup>2</sup>	F
Demographics	.06 (.02)	.06	1.75	.10 (.07)	.10	3.25*	.05 (.01)	.05	1.43
Cross Level P-O fit									
D	.06 (.02)	.00	.339	.10 (.07)	.00	.248	.05 (.01)	.00	.113
D <sup>2</sup>	.06 (.02)	.00	.574	.10 (.07)	.00	.000	.05 (.01)	.00	.000
Correlation (Q)	.06 (.02)	.00	1.20	.10 (.07)	.00	1.28	.05 (.01)	.00	1.39
Perceived Fit	.42 (.40)	.36	143.4**	.35 (.32)	.25	88.5**	.43 (.01)	.38	153.3**

Note: R<sup>2</sup> values in parenthesis are adjusted R-square.  
N= 250; \*\* p< .01 and \* p< .05.

The findings in Table 4.16 are consistent with Enz (1988) that perceived fit is a better predictor than calculated fit, but contradict studies that did find effects for calculated P-O fit in cross-level analysis (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). This contradiction might be attributed to the normative instrument format, the restaurant setting, or the restaurant specific HICP instrument. The findings in

Table 4.16 seem surprising because calculated P-O fit measured by  $D^2$  did contribute additional explanation in analysis shown in the Table 4.15. Given the meager change, however, the 1% increase in job satisfaction and in the cross-level hierarchical regression may have been an anomaly rather than a meaningful effect.

Thus, only perceived fit contributed significantly to the explanation of outcome variance beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values. However, as Kristof (1996) and Edwards (1993, 1994) pointed out, because the perceived fit scale does not explicitly describe what values to consider, it is impossible to ensure that respondents considered commensurate dimensions. A consistency bias (“I think that I fit well, so I must be satisfied with my job.”) could potentially inflate the correlation (Kristof, 1996, p.11).



## **CHAPTER V**

### **CONCLUSION**

This chapter reviews the purposes and need for this study, and briefly discusses the procedures used in the investigation. Then, results of the study are summarized, and the theoretical and practical implications of the results are considered. Finally, limitations are addressed and suggestions are offered for future research in the area of organizational behavior and hospitality management.

#### Restatement of the Problem

As discussed in Chapter One and Two, organizational researchers tend to explain employee attitudes and behavioral intentions in terms of either organizational characteristics (situationalists) or individual characteristics (personalists). Many researchers agree, however, that neither perspective sufficiently explains behavior in organizations (Chatman, 1989, 1991; House et al., 1996; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Schneider et al., 1995). They conclude that behavior in organizations can better be explained as a function of personal and situational attributes in interaction, or person-organization fit.

Indeed, Chatman (1991) found P-O fit to be a better predictor of individual outcomes than either personal characteristics or organizational characteristics, or both combined. The current study attempted to replicate Chatman's findings in table-service restaurants where high person and organization interaction occurs. Specifically, this study investigated whether person-organization fit contributed to explanation of employee job satisfaction, intent to quit,

and willingness to recommend an organization beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values.

### Summary of Procedures

The population for the study consisted of all front- and-back-of-the-house employees working in table-service restaurants in the U.S. With the help of graduates and current students of Penn State's Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Management program, surveys were distributed at 40 table-service restaurants. The final sample included 173 front-of-the-house and 153 back-of-the-house employees from 34 restaurants. The sample and population characteristics compared favorably.

Factor analyses determined the factor structure for perceived and preferred culture at the individual level and cross-level. P-O fit scores were compared using correlation analysis, and hierarchical regression analyses investigated the effect of organizational culture, individual values, and P-O fit on the dependent variables.

### Summary of Findings and Conclusions

This study provided information about restaurant culture, measurement of P-O fit, and the value of fit in predicting attitudes and behavioral intentions. The findings in each area are summarized and discussed in the following sections.

## Development of the Hospitality Industry Culture Profile (HICP) and Objective Measurement of Restaurant Culture

As suggested by Chatman (1991), instruments for assessing P-O fit should use commensurate dimensions to measure persons and organizations. However, no instruments were available to assess restaurant culture and individual values, nor the fit between the two. In addition, instruments that used ipsative techniques (paired-comparisons and Q-sort) were problematic in assessing organizational and individual values.

Thus, the normative HICP instrument was developed to assess comparable dimensions of employee values and organizational cultures in hospitality. The use of quantitative measurement allowed comparison of data from multiple operations, and pilot studies showed that the HICP consistently assessed the same culture and value dimensions. Reliability checks of the culture dimensions and comparability of the dimensions for perceived and preferred culture provided evidence of its construct validity.

Factor analyses conducted for (1) all employees in the sample, (2) front- or-back-of-the-house employees, and (3) the twenty-six restaurant cross-level sample consistently found seven restaurant culture dimensions, as shown in Table 5.1. Many of the culture factors defined by this study approximate dimensions previously identified in hospitality and service

Table 5.1  
Culture and Individual Value Dimensions Identified in the Study

<u>Culture Dimensions</u>	<u>Individual Value Dimensions</u>
(1) Honesty and people orientation	(1) Honesty and people orientation
(2) Attention to detail	(2) Attention to detail
(3) Valuing customers	(3) Valuing customers
(4) Innovation	(4) Innovation
(5) Fair compensation	(5) Fair compensation and
(6) Employee development	Employee development
(7) Team and results orientation	(6) Team orientation
	(7) Results orientation

industry literature (NCS and National Food Service Security Council, 1999; Pizam, 1993; Withiam, 1996; Woods, 1989). The factor structure was similar for preferred culture, which was interpreted as individual values. Restaurant organizations prefer and invest time and resources to attract employees who have such personal values (Hayes, 1991; Samenfink, 1992; Schneider & Bowen, 1995).

The .67 correlation among 26 restaurant organizations suggests this table-service restaurant culture exists industry-wide. This finding is one of the most important contributions of this study because previous culture research in the restaurant industry was limited to only a few organizations and used qualitative research methods such as interviews and observations (Fintel, 1989; Woods, 1989).

#### Multiple Measures of Person-Organization Fit

This research contributed to understanding relationships among various measures of P-O fit. The high correlations between  $|D|$  and  $D^2$  in both levels of analyses indicates their similarity. The correlations between difference scores and the Q method were moderate in individual-level analysis, but very low in cross-level analysis. This may be attributed to restricted range in the sample because many respondents indicated nearly all of the preferred culture value items were very desirable. These findings suggest aggregation of individual-level scores may not be appropriate (James, 1982; Nisbett & Ross, 1980). The moderate correlations between individual-level calculated fit and perceived fit indicate that they are somewhat related, but nonetheless distinct. Finally, no significant relationship between cross-level calculated and perceived fit indicates they are also distinct constructs as

measured. Further research is needed to investigate the relationship between calculated and perceived fit, and their relative veracity in predicting outcomes.

Edwards (1993, 1994) argued that items comprising profile similarity indices represent conceptually distinct dimensions and should not be added to get a profile score. He suggested polynomial regression might overcome the shortcomings of difference scores and correlations, but polynomial regression could not be investigated in this study because the perceived culture and preferred culture factor dimensions were different. Given the meager effect of correlation and difference scores in the cross-level analyses Edwards' perspective appears to have been accurate. Moreover, the moderate correlations of calculated and perceived fit at the individual-level increases the predictive potential for an alternative calculation method such as polynomial regression.

#### Culture, Individual Values, and Person-Organization Fit as Predictors of Attitudes and Behavioral Intentions

Comparing the four independent variables, perceived fit explained the most outcome variance, followed by culture, calculated fit, and individual values. In individual-level and cross-level analyses, perceived P-O fit explained additional variance in employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend beyond the effects accounted for by organizational culture and individual values. When perceived fit was used as the only independent variable, it explained more variance in all three outcomes than organizational culture did it when it was entered into the equation first. Although perceived P-O fit alone consistently predicted the dependent variables, however, similarity of the scales that assessed

perceived fit and the dependent variables may have contributed to the relationships (Kristof, 1996). Research using more distinct measures might help clarify this issue.

Since organizational culture demonstrated an important effect for all three outcome variables, situationists' belief that behavior is predicted by characteristics of organizations is supported. The low impact of individual values suggests individuals adapted to organizational settings (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; Mischel, 1968; Sheridan, 1992). The organizational culture dimension of Honesty and People Orientation was most influential in explaining employee outcomes. Restaurant managers had better invest more time and resources for emphasizing such values as integrity, truthfulness, and support for employees. The most critical individual value dimensions were Fair Compensation and Employee Development, and Honesty and People Orientation. Thus, restaurant managers should also compensate their employees fairly and develop socialization and training programs for improving fit.

At the *individual-level* results indicated that P-O fit calculated as  $|D|$ ,  $D^2$ , or Q did not add to the explanation for any of the outcome variables. In *cross-level* analysis, calculated P-O fit demonstrated very minor additional explanation, but these results are inconclusive. When used as the only independent variable at the individual-level, calculated fit was a significant predictor of individual outcomes (consistent with Boxx et al., 1991). In cross-level analyses, however, calculated P-O fit did not explain significant variance in the dependent variables even though this direct cross-level relationship is relatively well-established (Cable & Judge, 1996, 1997; Chatman, 1991; Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Vandenberghe, 1999). However, this finding is consistent with Enz (1988) who found calculated cross-level P-O fit did not account for significant variance in power.

### Implications

This research has implications for hospitality management researchers and industry managers. For research, the study developed an instrument to assess organizational culture, individual values, and P-O fit in hospitality organizations. A seven-factor structure of restaurant culture is identified that represents the critical culture and individual value dimensions influencing employee attitudes and intentions. Moderately high correlations (.67) among 26 restaurants indicated that table-service restaurant culture is generalizable.

The instrument development process indicated that normative Likert-type scaling yielded more reliable results than previously used ipsative measures, and the construct and predictive validity of the HICP instrument support the use of normative scales for assessing values. Because normative scaling permitted value profiles to be high or low on any or all values, however, the normal distribution of organizational and individual values remains in question.

The study contributes to interactional research by bringing the person-organization debate into an organizational setting where high person-organization interaction occurs. Findings provided substantial support for perceived fit as a predictor of organizational outcomes, but limited and mixed results for the role of calculated fit. Results of the study overall indicate that organizational culture and P-O fit were significant predictors of employee job satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend an employee's organization. Individual values were relatively unimportant in explaining individual outcomes.

For practice, several potentially relevant contributions for hospitality managers are offered. First, the HICP may be used by hospitality firms to gather information about their culture and generate profiles of their ideal organizational culture. Once “actual” and “ideal” culture profiles are specified, they can be compared to see where discrepancies and similarities exist. Then, managers can decide what they want their culture to be and take specific actions to achieve that profile. Given that the only individual factors to predict the employee outcomes were Honesty/People Orientation and Fair Compensation/Employee Development, and that the mean scores for these factors in perceived culture were rather low, attention to these issues is clearly warranted.

For selection, in addition to matching applicants’ knowledge, skills, and abilities with job requirements, an ideal process might also seek to match applicants’ values with the organization’s culture. Selection based on P-O fit potentially improves effectiveness because employees who feel they belong to the organization are satisfied, intend to remain, and are willing to recommend their organizations.

Finally, in addition to selecting employees with high P-O fit, restaurant organizations can develop socialization programs to improve fit (Bowen et al., 1991; Chatman, 1991). This may be more appropriate early in an organization’s life cycle when P-O fit would enhance coordination, communication, and employees’ sense of belonging. As suggested by Schneider et al. (1995), later in an organization’s life individuals with low P-O fit may bring new ideas and a competitive edge.



### Limitations

At least three limitations of the study are apparent. First, it did not address the possibility of reverse causality between fit and employee outcomes. It is plausible, for example, that job satisfaction might cause an employee to alter their values toward better fit. In a longitudinal study, Chatman (1991) found that when employees' values became more closely aligned with the organization's values over the first year, corresponding increases in satisfaction and intent to stay also occurred. Although this is not evidence of causal direction (Cook & Campbell, 1979), there are theoretical reasons to believe that value congruence is responsible for changes in attitudes, as opposed to the reverse. For example, Chatman (1989) and Rokeach (1973) argue that values and beliefs influence attitudes and behavioral intentions because they are more general and stable while attitudes and behavioral intentions are more time specific and directed more toward particular objects.

A second limitation of the study is the use of a relatively homogenous sample. While homogeneity of the sample provided better correspondence between perceived and preferred culture compared to O'Reilly et al. (1991), it reduced the outcome variance and provided a conservative test of the impact of P-O fit. The potentially higher variance in a heterogeneous sample might allow calculated P-O fit to explain outcome variance beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values.

Finally, while the sampling strategy provided a broad spectrum of restaurants, it is not assured that managers chose employees *randomly*. They might have given the surveys to more cooperative employees, who would likely have higher P-O fit. Moreover, though the data collection procedure should have guaranteed anonymity, employees might have altered their responses out of concern that managers would see them.

### Recommendations for Future Research

This study investigated the influence of P-O fit on employee attitudes and intentions in the restaurant industry. The results suggest a number of additional research questions and topics.

(1) Restaurant organizations were selected for this study because they seemed more conducive to P-O fit studies than previous settings. Such homogenous work settings might decrease the predictive ability of P-O fit, however. Research incorporating more heterogeneous settings would aid understanding of P-O fit.

(2) The most appropriate method of measuring values remains to be resolved. As discussed in this paper, both ipsative and normative instruments may be theoretically and statistically appropriate. Although a normative instrument was selected in this study, multiple approaches are suggested for future research, possibly in a study comparing the two.

(3) The most appropriate measure of fit also remains unresolved. Further research should utilize alternative measures of perceived fit and continue to use multiple measures of calculated fit, including correlations, difference scores, and polynomial regression, to better understand the influence or predictive power of P-O fit in two levels of analysis.

(4) P-O fit research could be improved through greater use of longitudinal analysis. Longitudinal data collection could shed light on the long-term effects of P-O fit on employee attitudes and behaviors, and also provide evidence as to the causal direction of P-O fit and individual outcome relationships.

(5) Although P-O fit has been found related to attitudes and behavioral intentions, relationships with behavioral outcomes such as performance have not been investigated.

In conclusion, this study provides support for the ability of P-O fit to predict employee satisfaction, intent to remain, and willingness to recommend the organization. In an analysis that included four different assessments of fit, only perceived fit contributed significantly to explanation of variance beyond that explained by organizational culture and individual values. This study has provided an important first step in determining the role of P-O fit in table-service restaurants. The proposed seven-factor structure of hospitality culture and preferred culture is interesting in itself, and warrants further testing. Both personalist and situationalist hospitality researchers should consider interactional theories to contribute to the literature and to industry practice.

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APPENDIX A: FACTOR LOADINGS OF 39 VALUE ITEMS ON PERCEIVED AND  
PREFERRED ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE (O'Reilly et al., 1991)

Value Dimensions	Perceived Culture	Preferred Culture
(1) Innovation		
Being innovative	<b>.76</b>	<b>.51</b>
A willingness to experiment	<b>.76</b>	<b>.59</b>
Risk taking	<b>.76</b>	<b>.65</b>
Being careful	-.48	-.42
Being rule oriented	-.45	-.43
<sup>1</sup> Being quick to take advantage of opportunities	.50	
Being highly organized		.47
<sup>2</sup> Stability		-.66
<sup>2</sup> Security of employment		-.53
(2) Outcome Orientation		
Being results oriented	<b>.71</b>	<b>.49</b>
Achievement orientation	.73	.62
Having high expectations for performance	.41	.65
Action orientation	.49	
Being calm		-.46
Being demanding		.57
(3) Attention to detail		
Being precise	<b>.74</b>	<b>.75</b>
Paying attention to detail	<b>.70</b>	<b>.75</b>
Being analytical	.55	.56
(4) Aggressiveness		
Being aggressive	.42	.75
Being competitive	.49	.55
Being socially responsible	-.63	-.51
<sup>1</sup> Being quick to take advantage of opportunities		.55
(5) Team orientation		
Being team oriented	<b>.69</b>	<b>.75</b>
Working in collaboration with others	<b>.58</b>	<b>.70</b>
Being people oriented	.48	
Autonomy		-.45
(6) Stability		
<sup>2</sup> Stability	.75	
<sup>2</sup> Security of employment	.63	
<sup>3</sup> Predictability	.55	
Not being constrained by many rules	-.41	
(7) Respect for people		
Respect for the individual's right	<b>.75</b>	
Fairness	.68	
Tolerance	.49	

## APPENDIX A CONTINUED

Value Dimensions	Perceived Culture	Preferred Culture
Supportiveness (6)		
Being supportive		<b>.63</b>
Offers praise for good performance		.54
Working long hours		-.53
Sharing information freely		.44
Emphasis on Rewards (7)		
Opportunities for professional growth		.68
High pay for good performance		<b>.66</b>
Fitting in		.41
Decisiveness (8)		
Decisiveness		.65
Low level of conflict		.56
<sup>3</sup> Predictability		.44

<sup>1</sup> *Being quick to take advantage of opportunities* loaded on Innovation among organizational culture dimension, and on Aggressiveness among preferred culture (or individual value) dimension.

<sup>2</sup> *Stability and security of employment* loaded on Stability among organizational culture dimension, and on Innovation among individual value dimension.

<sup>3</sup> *Predictability* loaded on Stability among organizational culture dimension, and on Decisiveness among individual value dimension.

Notes: Items selected for 36-item OCP were marked with bold font in Appendix A. Only loadings above .40 are shown in the table.



## Section B: Characteristics of Current Organization

This part of the survey asks you to evaluate your current organization as it **actually exists**. Some attributes will describe your organization, and some will not. For each item, please circle the number that describes how characteristic that item is of your organization.

	Very Uncharacteristic	Characteristic	Slightly Uncharacteristic	Neutral	Slightly Characteristic	Characteristic	Very Characteristic
	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
1. Focus on getting the job done	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
2. Innovation	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
3. Training is important	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
4. Trust	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
5. Respect for individual's right	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
6. Detail oriented	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
7. Emphasis on service quality	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
8. Promotion from within	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
9. Good financial rewards	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
10. Support for employees	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
11. Paying attention to detail	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
12. Risk taking	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
13. Giving customers what they expect	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
14. Hard work	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
15. Empathy for employees	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
16. Integrity	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
17. Equitable pay	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
18. Honesty	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
19. Cooperating with coworkers	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
20. Valuing customers	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
21. Fair compensation	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
22. Achievement orientation	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
23. A willingness to experiment	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
24. Precise	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
25. Advancement opportunities	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
26. Caring about employees	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
27. Accuracy	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
28. Team atmosphere	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
29. Results orientation	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
30. High pay for good performance	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
31. Creativity	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
32. Keeping promises	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
33. Personal / career development	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
34. Team orientation	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
35. Relationship with customers	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
36. Working in collaboration with others	1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----

\*\* CHARACTERISTICS OF CURRENT ORGANIZATION \*\*



### Section C: Characteristics of Ideal Organization

This part of the survey asks you to evaluate the attributes you desire in your **IDEAL restaurant organization**. Again, some attributes will describe your ideal organization, and some will not. For each item, please circle the number that describes how desirable that item in your **ideal**

	Very Undesirable	Undesirable	Slightly Undesirable	Neutral	Slightly Desirable	Desirable	Very Desirable
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Focus on getting the job done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Innovation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Training is important	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Trust	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Respect for individual's right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Detail oriented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Emphasis on service quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Promotion from within	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Good financial rewards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Support for employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Paying attention to detail	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Risk taking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Giving customers what they expect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Hard work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Empathy for employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Integrity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Equitable pay	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Honesty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Cooperating with coworkers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Valuing customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Fair compensation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Achievement orientation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. A willingness to experiment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Precise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Advancement opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Caring about employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Accuracy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Team atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Results orientation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. High pay for good performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Creativity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Keeping promises	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Personal / career development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Team orientation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Relationship with customers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Working in collaboration with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

\*\*\*\* CHARACTERISTICS OF IDEAL ORGANIZATION\*\*\*\*

### Section D: Individual and Organizational Perceptions

Finally, listed below are a number of statements that describe your feelings about your current job. Please circle the number on the scale below each question that best represents your feelings about the organization for which you presently work. Please respond to all questions in this page. Though they **seem similar**, the repetition is for statistical purposes.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1-----	2-----	3-----	4-----	5-----	6-----	7-----
My values match those of this organization.						
In general, I don't like working here.						
I intend to remain with this organization.						
My values match those of current employees in this organization.						
All things considered, I like my job.						
I would recommend this organization to my friends as a good place to work.						
If I were to have my own way, I would be working for this organization three years from now.						
The values and personality of this organization reflect my own values and personality.						
I am satisfied with my job.						
I have thought seriously about changing organizations since I have worked here.						
I would tell my friends NOT to work for this organization.						

If you have any comments or suggestions regarding the questionnaire content, clarity, or administration please share them in space provided below.

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Please return to: Mustafa Tepeci, 201 Mateer Building. School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Recreation Management. The Pennsylvania State University. University Park, PA. 16802.

**Thank you very much for supporting this research effort.**

## APPENDIX C: COVER LETTER

Date

Dear Restaurant Manager,

I am a doctoral student at The Pennsylvania State University. For my dissertation, I am investigating how the match between restaurant employees' values and restaurant organizations' culture affects employee attitudes and behaviors.

To help us gain a broad sample of restaurant operations for the study, I have elicited the help of Penn State students who work in restaurants, one of whom brought you this package. We will very much appreciate if you will help by allowing us to collect data from ten of your employees. Your support is essential to the success of this study.

Surveys and individual envelopes are enclosed. Completing the survey should take employees about ten minutes. You may want to distribute them at an employee meeting, or simply give them out during a shift and have them complete when they have time. We are requesting that you as a manager will also complete a survey, so we have enclosed a total of eleven.

When you administer the survey, please assure employees that their participation is voluntary and will have no impact on their employment. Then, distribute the surveys **to five randomly chosen front-of-the-house** and **five randomly chosen back-of-the-house** employees in your operation. If someone does not want to complete the survey, please find someone else so you still have a total of ten.

We will be happy to send you a copy of the overall study results, but it is important that employees know **you will not see their individual questionnaires or know how they have answered**. To protect employees' anonymity, please give them an envelope when you give them the survey and have them seal the survey in the envelope before returning to you. Then you just need to put the ten sealed envelopes in the big envelope and return to the student who brought them to you.

Again, thanks so much for your help.

Sincerely,

Mustafa Tepeci  
Doctoral Candidate

A. L. "Bart" Bartlett  
Dissertation Advisor

APPENDIX D1: ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE DIMENSIONS AND VALUE ITEMS  
FOR FRONT- OF- THE-HOUSE SAMPLE

Value Items / Factors	Team/ Results Orien tation	Honesty/ People Orien tation	Fair Compen sation	Emplo ye Develo pment	Valuing Custo mers	Innova tion	Atten tion to Detail
Team orientation	.823						
Team atmosphere	.787						
Working in collaboration with others	.733						
Results orientation	.681						
Accuracy	.646						
Cooperating with cowork.	.621						
Focus on getting the job done	.550						
Fairness with employees		.781					
Honesty		.752					
Truthfulness		.712					
Respect for individual		.703					
Caring about employees		.681					
Keeping promises		.648					
Integrity		.638					
Support for employees		.599					
Equitable pay			.779				
Fair compensation			.697				
Financial rewards			.696				
High pay for good perf.			.691				
Advancement opportuni.				.820			
Promotion from within				.779			
Personal/career develop.				.649			
Valuing customers					.828		
Giving customers what they expect					.684		
Relationship with custo.					.680		
Cooperating coworkers					.610		.520
Emphasis on servquality						.780	
Willingness to experime.						.730	
Risk taking						.614	
Creativity						.579	
Innovation							
Detail oriented							.584
Paying attention to detail							.542
<u>Scale Reliability</u>	.8919	.8961	.8526	.8316	.7570	.7349	.8051
<u>Eigenvalue</u>	11.80	3.02	2.52	1.94	1.60	1.35	1.24
<u>Variance Explained</u>	32.77	8.38	7.01	5.38	4.45	3.74	3.45
<u>Scale Mean</u>	5.71	5.26	4.86	4.97	6.32	4.72	5.64
<u>Standard Deviation</u>	.90	.98	1.20	1.29	.69	1.03	1.02

Notes: Total Variance Explained: 65.18

Principal Component Analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.= .879 Varimax with  
Kaiser Normalization Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000 (Chi-Square 3736.36, df=630)

APPENDIX D2: ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE DIMENSIONS AND VALUE ITEMS FOR  
BACK- OF- THE-HOUSE SAMPLE

Value Items / Factors	Honesty/ People Orienta tion	Fair Compen sation	Results/ Team Orienta tion	Valuing Custo mers	Innova tion	Atten tion to Detail	Emplo yee Develop ment
Integrity	.822						
Honesty	.807						
Truthfulness	.769						
Respect for individual	.681						
Caring employees	.596						
Keeping promises	.594						
Fairness with employees	.537	.517					
Support for employees	.507						
High pay for good perf.		.794					
Good financial rewards		.785					
Equitable pay		.770					
Fair compensation		.754					
Advancement opportuni.		.551					.527
Results orientation			.755				
Cooperating coworkers			.715				
Working in collaboration			.647				
Team orientation			.645				
Team atmosphere			.624				
Task accomplishment			.585				
Hard work			.540				
Giving customers what they expect				.802			
Emphasis on servquality				.701			
Valuing customers				.662			
Relationship with custo.				.652			
Creativity					.796		
Willingness to experime.					.767		
Innovation					.684		
Risk taking					.629		
Paying attention to detail						.760	
Detail oriented						.716	
Precise						.612	
Job training							.622
Promotion from within		.541					.558
Personal career develop.							.542
<u>Scale Reliability</u>	.9121	.8892	.8818	.8344	.8465	.8434	.6672
<u>Eigenvalue</u>	14.75	3.15	1.91	1.63	1.49	1.35	1.11
<u>Variance Explained</u>	40.96	8.75	5.31	4.51	4.13	3.76	3.07
<u>Scale Mean</u>	5.26	4.87	5.73	6.32	4.72	6.00	5.11
<u>Standard Deviation</u>	.98	1.16	.87	.69	1.03	.98	1.10

Notes: Total Variance Explained: 70.49

Principal Component Analysis.

Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.= .912

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: p=.000 (Chi-Square 3995.86, df=630)

## Vita of Mustafa Tepeci

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- Education**
- Ph.D. in Man-Environment Relations**, May 2001. Concentration area: Management and Organizational Behavior. School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Recreation Management, The Pennsylvania State University.
- M.S. in Hospitality and Tourism**, May 1996. School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Travel Administration. University of New Haven, West Haven, CT.
- B.S. in Tourism and Hotel Management**, May 1991. School of Tourism and Hotel Management. Uludag University, Balikesir, Turkey.
- Publications**
- Tepeci, M.**, Seo, W., Upneja, A., & DeMicco, F. (2001). Supply and Demand for Hospitality/Tourism Management Faculty in the United States. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 12 (4), (in press).
- Tepeci, M.** (1999). Increasing brand loyalty in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11 (5), 223-229.
- Tepeci, M.** (1999). Selecting service-oriented employees based on person-organization fit. In K. S. (Kaye) Chon (Ed.), *The Practice of Graduate Research in Hospitality and Tourism*. (pp. 3-21). Binghamton, NY: The Haworth Hospitality Press.
- Experience**
- Teaching and Research Assistant**, School of Hotel, Restaurant, and Recreation Management, The Pennsylvania State University. August 2000-May 2001.
- Research Assistant**. School of Hospitality and Tourism Administration. Mersin University, Mersin. Turkey, July 1993-January 1994.
- Awards**
- The Edward R. and Helen Skade Hintz Graduate Educational Enhancement Fellowship. The Pennsylvania State University, 1999-2000.
- Marvin Ashner Graduate Student Scholarship Award. The Pennsylvania State University, 1998-1999.
- Graduate Scholarship Award. Mersin University, Turkey, 1994-2000.
- Certification**
- Learning to teach, teaching to learn, **Instructional Development Certificate** (Spring 2000). Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching. The Pennsylvania State University.