

Running head: COMPREHENSIVE VALUE MODEL

In Search of a Comprehensive Value Model for Assessing Supplementary Person-
Organization Fit

Stefaan De Clercq, Johnny R.J. Fontaine, and Frederik Anseel

Ghent University

In press at Journal of Psychology

Keywords: supplementary person-organization fit, values

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to test the comprehensiveness of the Schwartz value model as a conceptual framework for assessing supplementary person-organization fit. An extensive literature search was conducted in which 42 value instruments or typologies were identified that are used to measure life, work, or organizational values. Experts judged whether each of 1578 items from these 42 instruments could be regarded as an indicator of one of the 10 value types identified by Schwartz (1992). We found that (a) 92.5% of the items could be classified into one of the 10 value types, (b) the remaining items suggested two possible new types (goal-orientedness and relations). There are also indications that two value types can be split up in order to obtain a more univocal meaning. Overall, these findings suggest that the Schwartz value model might be an appropriate comprehensive framework for studying supplementary person-organization fit.

In Search of a Comprehensive Value Model for Assessing Supplementary Person-Organization Fit

Introduction

When trying to understand and predict the attitudes and actions of employees with regard to their organizations, many scholars have taken a closer look at the fit between the individual and the organization (for a review, see Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Defining person-organization (P-O) fit is not easy as there exist a multitude of conceptualizations and operationalizations in the domain. According to Kristof (1996), most researchers define P-O fit as the compatibility between individuals and organizations. This compatibility, however, can be defined in a variety of ways. In this paper, we focus on supplementary P-O fit. *Supplementary fit* occurs when a person “supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals” in an environment or organization (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 269). Supplementary fit can be differentiated from *complementary fit*, which occurs when a person’s characteristics “make whole” the environment or add to it what is missing (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 271). A second notable feature of P-O fit research is the use of different methodologies for assessing P-O fit. Whereas subjective measures of fit are designed to capture individuals’ perceptions about the extent to which they *feel* like they fit into their organization (for a review of this approach, see Piasentin & Chapman, 2006), objective measures of fit are obtained by calculating the similarity or correspondence between the characteristics of an individual and his/her organization. While both approaches seem viable and are frequently used, it seems that subjective measures of fit might be more prone to measurement problems such as common method variance and reliability issues (Edwards, 1991; Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). In addition, empirical research suggests that objective measures of P-O fit are more strongly related to behavioral outcomes (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; van

Vianen, De Pater, & Van Dijk, 2007). Therefore, in the current paper we focused on the study of objective P-O fit wherein independent measures of individual and organizational characteristics are collected and correlated (for a recent excellent treatment of different measurement approaches in P-O fit, see Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006).

While different characteristics of P-O fit have been defined and researched (e.g., values, needs, KSAs, goals, or personality), the majority of empirical studies have concentrated on the congruence between employee and organizational values (e.g., Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Siegall & McDonald, 2004). A prerequisite for studying objective supplementary P-O value fit is that one uses the same model for individual and organizational values. Only if the same value dimensions can be used to describe characteristics of both individuals and organizations, it is meaningful to investigate how they converge or diverge from one another and how this congruence pattern impacts on individual attitudes and behavior. As a consequence, the purpose of the present paper is to explore and provide such a shared and comprehensive model for individual and organizational values.

A brief review of P-O value fit models

It is clear that the study of P-O fit has become a key factor for increasing our understanding of employee attitudes and behavior in organizations. For instance, in their recent meta-analysis Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner (2003) found that P-O fit was related to job attitudes such as turnover intentions ($\rho = -.18$), and organizational commitment (.28). Similarly, other meta-analytic evidence shows that P-O fit was related to behavioral outcomes such as job performance ($\rho = .26$), organizational citizenship behavior ($\rho = -.21$), and actual turnover ($\rho = -.26$) (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006).

Despite the apparent importance of P-O fit for explaining organizational behavior, a closer look at the P-O value fit literature reveals that a number of

shortcomings prevent an optimal integration and understanding of research findings. These limitations mostly pertain to the manner in which value congruence has been assessed. First, a number of studies have used measures that include a mix of values, KSA, and personality dimensions (e.g., Bretz & Judge, 1994; Vigoda & Cohen, 2002) making it difficult to ascertain which constructs are responsible for any congruence effects observed. Second, the majority of studies on P-O value fit examined overall fit across a wide variety of organizational values. Researchers generally took a cataloguing approach to values rather than starting from a well-developed theoretical structure (Kalliath et al., 1999). For example, researchers often compared the profile of an individual's work values to the organization's profile of espoused values. Sometimes these measures contained 30 or more different values and an overall index of fit across all these values was used in the study. The problem with this approach is that it does not allow researchers to examine if fit is more or less important for different types of organizational values. This is an important limitation because past studies revealed differential relationships among organizational values and a host of individual, group, and organizational outcomes (Cooke & Szumal, 1993; Zammuto, Gifford, & Goodman, 2000). Third, when scrutinizing the P-O value fit literature, it becomes clear that there does not exist one dominant value framework or value measure. For illustrative purposes but without being exhaustive, we have summarized in Table 1 the most prevalent value models that have previously been used for assessing value fit. From this table, one can conclude that various conceptual models exist, each consisting of different value dimensions which, in turn, are operationalized by a wide range of different measures. Furthermore, making things even more complicated, a number of studies not included in this table have used ad-hoc scales made up of a mix of different value instruments or organization-specific value items (e.g., Ostroff, 1993).

Insert Table 1 about here

These observations might pose a problem and raise several questions for the P-O value fit literature. Most importantly, it will prove to be difficult to integrate research findings across research studies when we do not have a common framework to map specific value dimensions and their associated interrelations with job-related outcomes. Furthermore, from a theoretical point of view, several urgent questions remain unaddressed: Which of the theoretical perspectives summarized in Table 1 represents the most complete and parsimonious model of values? Have all relevant value constructs related to P-O fit been identified? Do the dimensions identified in each theoretical model refer to similar underlying constructs? How are these value dimensions interrelated?

The Schwartz value framework

To address the above mentioned questions, we propose to use the well-established Schwartz value model as an integrative framework that might increase our understanding of the interplay between different values in determining P-O fit and its outcomes (see Schwartz, 1992). Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, p. 551) define values as “concepts or beliefs, about desirable end states or behaviors, that transcend specific situations, guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and are ordered by relative importance”. According to Schwartz, values stem from a need for individuals to cope with three universal requirements within the reality of their social contexts. These three requirements are: needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and requirements for the smooth functioning and survival of groups. These three requirements lead to a universal taxonomy of values that distinguishes among 10 value types (listed in Table 2). Schwartz validated this taxonomy on the basis of empirical evidence from 97 samples in 44 countries (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995). His value structure closely resembles

structures derived empirically by other researchers (Braithwaite & Law, 1985; Crosby, Bitner, & Gill, 1990).

The usefulness of Schwartz' taxonomy is that it proposes an internally consistent framework. This framework postulates that values form a continuum of related motivations that gives rise to a circular structure (see Figure 1). Within this structure, adjacent value types are closely related; as stated by Schwartz (1994; p. 25): "the motivational differences between value types are continuous rather than discrete, with more overlap in meaning near the boundaries of adjacent value types". As a result, values that are in opposition in the structure are competing and have consequences that are incompatible with each other (Schwartz, 1994).

Insert Figure 1 about here

According to Schwartz, the 10 values can be grouped along four dimensions, organized along two main axes. Along the first axis, the opposed dimensions are labeled 'openness to change' and 'conservation'. 'Openness to change' includes stimulation and self-direction and pertains to the extent to which values motivate people to follow their own intellectual and emotional interests in an unpredictable and uncertain direction. 'Conservation', which includes tradition, conformity, and security, pertains to the preservation of the status quo and the certainty this provides for relationships with close others, institutions, and traditions (Schwartz, 1992; p. 43). Thus, this axis opposes values emphasizing one's own independent thought and action against those emphasizing submissive self-restriction, protection of stability, and preservation of tradition.

Along the second axis, the dimensions are 'self-enhancement' and 'self-transcendence'. 'Self-enhancement' includes power and achievement and captures the extent to which values motivate people to enhance their own personal interests (even

at the expense of others). 'Self-transcendence' includes universalism and benevolence and refers to the extent to which values motivate people to transcend selfish concerns and promote the welfare of close and distant others, as well as that of nature (Schwartz, 1992; p. 44). This axis opposes values emphasizing acceptance of others as equals and concern for their welfare against those emphasizing the pursuit of one's own relative success and dominance over others. As can be seen in Figure 1, the 10th value, hedonism, crosses the boundaries of two different axes, 'openness to change' and 'self-enhancement'. Thus, hedonism is related to both openness to change and self-enhancement.

The crucial content aspect that distinguishes values is the type of motivational goal they express. The theory identifies a comprehensive set of 10 different value types that are each defined by a central motivational goal and that can be identified across cultures (Schwartz, 1992) (see Table 2).

Insert Table 2 about here

In conclusion, the Schwarz value model meets our needs for thoroughness, comprehensiveness, and a cross-culturally validated theoretical value structure. The key question, then, that the present study aims to address is to what extent the Schwartz value model can be generalized to work and organizational values, and can be used as an overarching framework to map the different labels of values that have been used in P-O fit value research. In other words, the question is whether and to what extent the multitude of value conceptualizations (i.e., in the life, work, and organizational value domains) can be integrated into the Schwartz value model. Given the multitude of value theories, it would be a daunting task to compare these theories at a conceptual level, a task moreover complicated by the lack of equivocal meaning of

abstract value dimensions. However, what can be done more straightforwardly, and what is done in the present study, is to investigate whether and to what extent the operationalizations proposed by the multitude of value theories can be accounted for by the Schwartz value theory. If this is the case, the Schwartz value theory would indeed be a good candidate for an overall comprehensive theory for studying supplementary P-O fit. So, the first and main research question of this study is:

Research Question 1: Can values and value categories found in the literature be categorized into the 10 motivational types of Schwartz (1992)?

A second research question we are exploring is whether we can find some support for the circular structure and higher-order factors of the Schwartz model. Recall that Schwartz advanced a circular structure in which closely related value types are situated adjacent and conflicting value types oppose one another. According to the Schwartz value model, it is hypothesized that more overlap in meaning near the boundaries of adjacent value types can be found. Based on this model, one could expect that raters would have more trouble categorizing value items, as reflected by agreement indices, in adjacent (closely related) value dimensions than categorizing value items in orthogonal or conflicting value dimensions. In sum, on the basis of interrater agreement indices, we aim to seek some preliminary evidence for the circular structure of the Schwartz value model in an organizational context. Furthermore, as the two orthogonal dimensions or four higher-order factors group the closely related adjacent value dimensions together, categorizing value items in the four higher-order factors may turn out be less troublesome. Therefore, we expect that value items can be more easily categorized in the higher-order factors, as indicated by agreement indices, than in the 10 value dimensions.

Research Question 2: Do interrater agreement indices offer some preliminary support for the circular and higher-order structure of the Schwartz value mode?

Next, we will look at potential items or value categories that cannot be categorized into these motivational types. It has been shown that Schwartz' value model is comprehensive for assessing life values (see Schwartz, 2006; Schwartz et al., 2001), but it remains an open question whether this also applies for work and organizational values. In 1992, Schwartz demonstrated that there was no evidence for expanding his value structure with other motivational types than those already distinguished. However, he left open the possibility that future theorizing could suggest additional types. Especially when extending the focus from life to work and organizational values, it is important to investigate this possibility. Therefore, we will content analyze possible items that do not fit the Schwartz value structure to search for potential additional value types that are characterized by specific motivational goals. This leads us to our third research question:

Research Question 3: Is the value theory of Schwartz (1992) comprehensive for assessing life, work, and organizational values or is there a need to expand the number of value types identified?

The last research question is whether further refinements with respect to the 10 value types are suggested by the work and organizational value literature. The 10 value types are conceptualized at a rather high level of abstraction (see Schwartz et al., 2001), which allows for the possibility that there is still quite some heterogeneity within the separate value types. It will be investigated for each value type whether or not the items from that type have a unique and equivocal meaning. If this is not the case, it will be investigated how the value type can be split up in more specific value types with a unique and univocal meaning across the work and organizational values literature. Thus, our fourth research question is:

Research Question 4: Is the conceptual meaning of the 10 motivational types of Schwartz (1992) univocal or is there a need to split up certain value types into two or more distinct subtypes?

The answers to these four research questions might provide some initial support for the viability of the proposed comprehensive value model as a framework for the measurement of both personal and organizational values, and in addition for measuring supplementary P-O fit in future research.

Method

Sample and procedure

A computer-aided literature search was conducted using both sociological and psychological databases to identify studies on individual (life and work values) and organizational values. Keyword searches in these databases were intentionally made broad to avoid exclusion of studies. Furthermore, additional research was identified by scrutinizing the reference sections of those articles found from the database search. Two decision rules were used to decide whether a study was included or not. First, only studies that defined a value typology or instrument were taken into consideration. Second, items had to be available from the author, either in the article or on request. The final sample consisted of 42 instruments or typologies (for an overview, see Table 3); the total number of items was 1578.

Five experts (including the first and third author), all well-acquainted with the Schwartz value theory, content analyzed the items. After an introductory training by the first author, they had to judge for each item whether it corresponded with the definition of one of the 10 value types proposed by Schwartz (1992). Across the five experts, an item could be: (a) in the category 'not categorizable' if it could not be placed into one of the 10 types of Schwartz or if it did not comply with the definition of values as transsituational goals; (b) in the category 'not assigned' if it was consistently placed into one of the 10 types of Schwartz, but without substantial agreement between judges on which type; or (c) into one of the 10 value types of Schwartz if it was assigned to that value type by at least three of the five expert judges.

Analyses

Pair-wise comparisons were made between the evaluations of the expert judges. Cohen's kappa was calculated to measure the degree of interrater agreement (Cohen, 1968). First, this was done for assessing the interrater agreement concerning the 10 motivational types. Second, this was also done for assessing the interrater agreement at the level of the four higher-order value types.

Furthermore, all items were content analyzed to explore the meaning of the underlying motivational goals. We looked at the items that were not categorized into one of the 10 motivational types (the category 'not categorizable') in order to see if additional motivational goals could be identified above the 10 of Schwartz (1992). Moreover, on the basis of the assigned value items, we compared the 10 value types with the value dimensions proposed in the life, work, and organizational value literature in order to determine whether their meaning was unique and univocal.

Results and discussion

Research Question 1: Categorization into the Schwartz value types

In total, 1459 (92.5%) items were placed into the 10 motivational types of Schwartz (1992). This means that only for 119 (7.5%) items, there was no substantial agreement between the expert judges on fitting the items into one of the 10 motivational types (see Table 3). Close inspection of Table 3 shows that particularly two value instruments produced a lot of non categorizable items: the Materialism Scales (Belk, 1985) and the Scale of Personal Values (Drenth & Cornelisse-Koksma, 1970). When scrutinizing these instruments, we noted that the former scale typically measured materialism values and the latter scale had a separate value dimension called goal-orientedness. It seems that these value scales, materialism and goal-orientedness, could not be unambiguously categorized into the 10 types of Schwartz (1992), which provides a first indication that it might be necessary to further refine the

Schwartz value model in order to provide a comprehensive value framework for assessing P-O value fit in an organizational context.

Insert Table 3 about here

Table 4 shows the amount of interrater agreement for the items that were classified into these 10 motivational types. More particularly, all table entries represent the average relative frequencies of items for which there was agreement (diagonal entries) or no agreement (non-diagonal entries) between the five judges (e.g., 7.94% of the 1459 items were consistently placed into the power type, whereas for 1.32% of the 1459 items there was no agreement whether they represented the power motive or the achievement motive). As can be seen in Table 4, for most of the items there was agreement concerning their matching value type. Furthermore, the overall pattern of Table 4 suggests that highest levels of disagreement were found between adjacent value types.

On average across the 10 pair-wise comparisons (based on five expert judges) there was 62.22% agreement between judges (sum of the diagonal entries). Cohen's kappa had an average value of .58 (range from .53 to .61). According to Landis and Koch (1977) this represents a moderate agreement. We also calculated Cohen's kappa for each of the 10 values and each of the four higher-order values separately. The Cohen's kappa's ranged between .41 (security) and .62 (power) for the 10 lower-order value types, and between .52 (conservation) and .67 (self-enhancement) for the four higher-order value types.

Thus, regarding our first research question, our analyses seem to suggest that most items can be categorized into the 10 motivational types with moderate to good agreement. This seems to support our initial proposition that the Schwartz framework

might be a good candidate for future research to act as a comprehensive value model spanning previous value typologies.

Insert Table 4 about here

Research Question 2: Circular and higher-order structure

Recall that our second research question aimed to explore whether the categorizing of value items and the resulting agreement indices (i.e., the relative frequencies reported in Table 4) provided some indirect evidence for the circular and higher-order structure of the Schwartz value model. To this end, we first conducted a one-way ANOVA with value type position (adjacent vs. orthogonal vs. opposite) as independent variable and agreement scores as dependent variables. Our expectation was that categorizing value items in adjacent value types would prove to be more troublesome than categorizing value items in orthogonal value types, which in turn would be more difficult than categorizing value items in opposite value types. Results of our analysis generally supported our expectation. There was a significant difference in agreement indices for the different value type positions, $F(2, 42) = 9.42, p < .001$. Post-hoc analyses further revealed that the observed pattern of results supported our expectations. The agreement indices for the adjacent value types differed significantly from the agreement indices for the orthogonal and opposite value types ($p < .01$), indicating that the raters had more trouble placing value items in adjacent value types than in the other two types. Although the pattern was in the predicted direction, no significant differences were found between the agreement indices of the orthogonal and opposite value types.

Next, to explore the higher-order structure of the Schwartz model, we also calculated the amount of interrater agreement for the same 1459 items, now categorized into the four higher-order value types of Schwartz (1992). We expected

slightly higher agreement indices for the higher-order value types as people would have less trouble categorizing items in the correct higher-order group instead of the sometimes overlapping value types. On average across the 10 pair-wise comparisons (based on five expert judges) there was 76.36% agreement between judges (sum of the diagonal entries). Cohen's kappa had an average value of .69 (range from .65 to .74). According to Landis and Koch (1977) this represents a substantial agreement. Thus, as expected, agreement indices for the higher-order value types were higher than for the value types (62.22% and average kappa of .58).

In summary, this indirect test on the basis of agreement indices provides some preliminary evidence for the circular and higher-order structure of the Schwartz value model. In most cases, the highest disagreement between judges was found for adjacent value types, which is in line with the theoretically expected and empirically confirmed circular order of the value types (see Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). In addition, higher agreement was found for the higher-order factors than the value types plausibly because they encompass adjacent value types. One implication of this finding is that, although our findings indicate that the Schwartz value framework holds relatively well at the level of value types, we found stronger evidence for the higher-order factor structure. Thus, in future research, we should be cautious in interpreting results in terms of the 10 value types as the higher-order factors may be a more robust avenue for drawing conclusions about P-O fit.

Research Question 3: Additional types

In order to answer our third research question, we have looked at the 119 items that were not classified into one of the 10 value types. A number of items were ambiguous [e.g., "integrate action, enjoyment, and contemplation" (Morris, 1956)] or too specific and therefore not in line with the definition of values as transsituational goals [e.g., "I never discard old pictures or snapshots" (Belk, 1985)]. These items were not taken into account. Content analysis of the remaining items revealed two possible

new value categories. The first category is a typical work or organizational value and has a focus on living and working to fulfill a purpose, not giving up, and taking initiative. We label this value type *goal-orientedness*. It is found in six of the instruments under investigation, for example: “work towards a clear goal” (Drenth & Cornelisse-Koksma, 1970); “taking initiative” (O’Reilly et al., 1991); and “having clear goals” (van Muijen, Koopman, & De Witte, 1996). The second category is focused on having good interpersonal relations with other people and valuing true friendship. As an organizational value, this value type encompasses issues like being team-oriented, working in collaboration with others, developing friends at work, etc. Therefore we label this value type *relations*. It is found in 13 of the instruments under investigation, for example: “having a job where I can easily make friends” (Coetsier & Claes, 1990); “working in collaboration with others” (O’Reilly et al., 1991); and “coworkers in my work unit are like family” (Zeitz, Johannesson, & Ritchie, 1997). Thus, our mapping of previous value instruments onto the 10 value types and subsequent content analyses of non-categorized items suggests that it might be necessary to extend the Schwarz value model with two additional value types to provide a comprehensive P-O value fit framework.

Research question 4: Testing the univocality of the Schwartz value types

Finally, to answer our last research question, we looked at the conceptual meaning of the items that were consistently classified into one of the motivational types of Schwartz (1992). For most of them (achievement, benevolence, conformity, hedonism, security, self-direction, stimulation, and tradition), the existing value literature does not suggest multidimensionality, pointing to the univocal meaning of these value types. However, for two value types, this was not the case.

The first value type is power. Sagiv and Schwartz (2000, p. 179) defined power as “social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources”. In this definition, there is already an indication of three different subtypes. However, these

subtypes are not treated together in the literature. The first (social status and prestige) is found in 10 value instruments, and more importantly, in most of these, it already comprised a separate value category (e.g., Braithwaite, 1997; Manhardt, 1972; Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss, 1999). Therefore, we propose to label this value type *prestige* and define it as “striving for admiration and recognition”. The second subtype of power (control and dominance over resources) is found in nine value instruments. Two instruments are even exclusively devoted to this particular value type (i.e., Belk, 1985; Richins & Dawsons, 1992). As a result, we propose to label this value type *materialism* and define it as “attaching importance to material goods, wealth, and luxury”. Finally, the third subtype of power (control and dominance over people) is now a more pure representation of the original value type (see Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000) and therefore we continue to label it *power*.

On the basis of our content analyses, the second value type that seems to be a compilation of different subtypes is universalism. Sagiv and Schwartz (2000, p. 179) defined this value type as “understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and nature”. However, this type seems to be a mix of various items (e.g., equality, wisdom, broadminded). Because we found 10 value instruments with subtypes focusing on human-heartedness and solidarity (e.g., Calori & Sarnin, 1991; Chinese Culture Connection, 1987; Ros et al., 1999), we suggest splitting up this value type in two subtypes: *social commitment* and *universalism*. Social commitment is distinguished from benevolence due to its focus on the welfare of all people instead of a focus on the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact. Universalism on the other hand, contains items focusing on wisdom, broadmindedness, etc. These findings are in line with recent analyses done by Schwartz and Boehnke (2004), who found support for the existence of social concern as a subtype of universalism.

In sum, content analyses of the items in each value type indicate that for most value types of Schwartz (1992), the conceptual meaning is univocal. However, we also found some evidence that two value types seemed to consist of a number of subtypes. Based on close examination of the items falling under these value subtypes, we propose splitting up power into *prestige*, *materialism*, and *power*, and universalism into *social commitment* and *universalism*.

Towards a refined comprehensive value framework

Overall, the results of our four research questions suggest that the Schwarz value framework might be a good candidate to act as a guiding framework for assessing P-O fit in future research as we found reasonable rater agreement that it encompasses the majority of existing value items. Furthermore, our analyses offered some indirect evidence for the circular and higher-order structure of this framework. Finally, on the basis of content analyses, two extensions and two refinements in value types seem necessary to meet the need for comprehensiveness and accuracy as we specified in the introduction. In Figure 2, we therefore depicted a tentative model of how this refined comprehensive value framework might look like. Note that in comparison to Figure 1, we added the value types (a) goal-orientedness, materialism, and prestige in the higher-order factor self-enhancement, and (b) relations and social commitment in the higher-order factor self-transcendence. We like to stress that this is a tentative framework awaiting further empirical testing. Future research has to be conducted to assess the viability of the 15 motivational types of values, especially for testing the newly identified value types. Up to now, no evidence is found for the idea that additional, universal, motivational types of values are still missing from the theory (Schwartz, 2006). Therefore, an instrument is needed that assesses these 15 value types. Given that the value theory of Schwartz (1992) forms the base of this comparative inquiry, a good avenue to start seems to construct an adapted version of the Schwartz Value Scale. Items should be constructed to assess the newly suggested

value types (goal-orientedness and relations) and the 'subtypes' of power and universalism. These new items might best be formulated in the same way as in the original scale (i.e., each single value followed in parentheses by a short explanatory phrase). One challenge for future research will be to construct an unambiguous and unbiased set of items that targets each of the values. The fact that our analyses indicated that there was a notable disagreement when categorizing value items in value types indicates that items used in previous research are far from straightforward. Finally, it is up to future empirical studies to indicate whether the proposed model holds across contexts or that further refinements and modifications are necessary.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Limitations

Although we found 42 instruments and 1578 items in the literature, we cannot say that this sample is exhaustive. Some instruments could not be obtained because the items were not freely available (e.g., Cooke & Lafferty, 1983) or because they were too old and therefore not traceable (e.g., Scott, 1960). However, we do believe it is doubtful that these instruments would reveal more value types than those identified in our research. A second limitation of this study is the limited number of expert judges that rated the items. Furthermore, the judges were all employed in the same department. In this way, they did not only have the same cultural background, but also the same vocational background which possibly might have influence their ratings.

Conclusion

The results of this study show that the Schwartz value framework presented may help in integrating previous work and may provide a more fine-grained framework for studying values in future P-O fit research. Cross-cultural psychological research suggests that the extensive value nomenclature used in previous P-O value fit research

might be simplified and that values fall into four broad overarching categories: self-enhancement, conservation, self-transcendence, and openness to change. Thus, the Schwartz model might present not only a more comprehensive and parsimonious account of value types than traditional perspectives; additionally, in the long run it might also lead to a standard “big four” vocabulary of values, with 15 associated value types, that is folded into P-O fit literature and other work-related domains.

References

- Adkins, B., & Caldwell, D. (2004). Firm or subgroup culture: Where does fitting in matter most? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25*, 969-978.
- Adkins, C. L., Russell, C. J., & Werbel, J. D. (1994). Judgments of fit in the selection process: The role of work value congruence. *Personnel Psychology, 47*, 605-623.
- Beach, L. R. (1993). *Making the right decision: Organizational culture, vision, and planning*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Belk, R. W. (1985). Materialism: Trait aspects of living in the material world. *Journal of Consumer Research, 12*, 265-280.
- Blau, G., & Ryan, J. (1997). On measuring work ethic: A neglected work commitment facet. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 51*, 435-448.
- Boxx, W. R., Odom, R. Y., & Dunn, M. G. (1991). Organizational values and value congruency and their impact on satisfaction, commitment, and cohesion: An empirical examination within the public sector. *Public Personnel Management, 20*, 195-205.
- Braithwaite, V. (1982). The structure of social values: Validation of Rokeach's two-value model. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 21*, 203-211.
- Braithwaite, V. (1997). Harmony and security value orientations in political evaluation. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23*, 401-414.
- Braithwaite, V. A., & Law, H. G. (1985). Structure of human values: Testing the adequacy of the Rokeach Value Survey. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49*, 250-263.
- Bretz, R. D., & Judge, T. A. (1994). Person-organization fit and the theory of work adjustment: Implications for satisfaction, tenure, and career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 44*, 32-54.
- Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A. (1996). Person-Organization fit, job choice

- decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67, 294-311.
- Caldwell, D. F., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1990). Measuring person-job fit with a profile-comparison. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 648-657.
- Calori, R., & Sarnin, P. (1991). Corporate culture and economic performance: A French study. *Organization Studies*, 12, 49-74.
- Chinese Culture Connection. (1987). Chinese values and the search for culture-free dimensions of culture. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 18, 143-164.
- Coetsier, P., & Claes, R. (1990). *Belang van levensrollen en waarden [Importance of life roles and values]*. Oostende: Infoservice.
- Cohen, J. (1968). Weighted kappa: Nominal Scale agreement with provision for scaled disagreement or partial credit. *Psychological Bulletin*, 70, 213-220.
- Cooke, R. A., & Szumal, J. L. (1993). Measuring normative beliefs and shared behavioral expectations in organizations: The reliability and validity of the Organizational Culture Inventory. *Psychological Reports*, 72, 1299-1330.
- Cooke, R. A., & Lafferty, J. C. (1983). *Level V: Organizational cultural inventory-form I*. Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics.
- Crace, R. K., & Brown, D. (1991). *Life Values Inventory: An assessment of values for adult development and transition*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Crosby, L. A., Bitner, M. J., & Gill, J. D. (1990). Organizational structure of values. *Journal of Business Research*, 20, 123-134.
- Drenth, P. J. D., & Cornelisse-Koksma, H. G. Y. (1970). *Schaal voor Persoonlijke Waarden [Survey of Personal Values]*. Amsterdam: Swets & Zeitlinger.
- Drenth, P. J. D., & Kranendonk, L. J. (1973). *Schaal voor Interpersoonlijke Waarden [Survey of Interpersonal Values]*. Amsterdam: Swets & Zeitlinger.

- Edwards, J. R. (1991). Person-job fit: A conceptual integration, literature review, and methodological critique. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 6, pp. 283-357). New York: Wiley.
- Edwards, J. R., Cable, D. M., Williamson, I. O., Lambert, L. S., & Shipp, A. J. (2006). The phenomenology of fit: Linking the person and environment to the subjective experience of person-environment fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*, 802-827.
- Elizur, D. (1991). Work values and job satisfaction. *Psychological Reports, 69*, 386-386.
- Elizur, D., & Sagie, A. (1999). Facets of personal values: A structural analysis of life and work values. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 48*, 73-87.
- England, G. W. (1967). Personal value systems of American managers. *Academy of Management Journal, 10*, 53-68.
- Erdogan, B., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. (2004). Work value congruence and intrinsic career success: The compensatory roles of leader-member exchange and perceived organizational support. *Personnel Psychology, 57*, 305-332.
- Finegan, J. E. (2000). The impact of person and organizational values on organizational commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 73*, 149-169.
- Goodman, S. A., & Svyantek, D. J. (1999). Person-organization fit and contextual performance: Do shared values matter. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 55*, 254-275.
- Gorlow, L., & Noll, G. A. (1967). A study of empirically derived values. *Journal of Social Psychology, 73*, 261-269.
- Hammill, J. P., Segal, D. R., & Segal, M. W. (1995). Self-selection and parental

- socio-economic status as determinants of the values of West Point cadets. *Armed Forces and Society*, 22, 103-115.
- Herche, J. (1994). *Measuring social values: A multi-item adaptation to the List of Values (MILOV)* (Working Paper Report Number 94-101). Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.
- Hoffman, B. J., & Woehr, D. J. (2006). A quantitative review of the relationship between person-organization fit and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68, 389-399.
- Hofstede, G. (1998a). Attitudes, values and organizational culture: Disentangling the concepts. *Organization Studies*, 19, 477-492.
- Hofstede, G. (Ed.). (1998b). *Masculinity and femininity: The taboo dimension of national cultures* (Cross-cultural psychology series, Vol. 3). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G., Bond, M. H., & Luk, C. (1993). Individual perceptions of organizational cultures: A methodological treatise on levels of analysis. *Organization Studies*, 14, 483-503.
- Inglehart, R. (1981). Post-materialism in an environment of insecurity. *American Political Science Review*, 75, 880-900.
- Judge, T. A., & Bretz, R. D. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 261-271.
- Kahle, L. R. (1983). *Social values and social change: Adaptation to life in America*. New York: Praeger.
- Kalliath, T. J., Bluedorn, A. C., & Strube, M. J. (1999). A test of value congruence effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 1175-1198.
- Kim, B. S. K., Atkinson, D. R., & Yang, P. H. (1999). The Asian Values Scale: Development, factor analysis, validation, and reliability. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 46, 342-352.

- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology, 49*, 1-49.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology, 58*, 281-342.
- Landis, J. R., & Koch, G. G. (1977). Measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics, 33*, 159-174.
- Litwin, G. H., & Stringer, R. A. (1968). *Motivation and organizational climate*. Boston: Harvard University.
- Manhardt, P. J. (1972). Job orientation of male and female college graduates in business. *Personnel Psychology, 25*, 361-368.
- McDonald, P., & Gandz, J. (1992). Getting value from shared values. *Organizational Dynamics, 20*(3), 64-77.
- Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., & Adkins, C. L. (1989). A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and its relationship to individual outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*, 424-432.
- Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., & Adkins, C. L. (1991). Value congruence and satisfaction with a leader: An examination of the role of interaction. *Human Relations, 44*, 481-495.
- Morris, C. W. (1956). *Varieties of human values*. Chicago: University Press.
- Muchinsky, P. M., & Monahan, C. J. (1987). What is person-environment congruence? Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 31*, 268-277.
- O'Reilly, C. A., III, Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal, 34*, 487-516.

- Ostroff, C. (1993). Relationships between person-environment congruence and organizational effectiveness. *Group and Organization Management, 18*, 103-122.
- Ostroff, C., Shin, Y., & Kinicki, A. J. (2005). Multiple perspectives of congruence: Relationships between value congruence and employee attitudes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 591-623.
- Pasa, S. F., Kabasakal, H., & Bodur, M. (2001). Society, organisations, and leadership in Turkey. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 50*, 559-589.
- Peters, T., & Waterman, R. H. (1982). *In search of excellence*. HarperCollins Publishers.
- Piasentin, K. A., & Chapman, D. S. (2006). Subjective person-organization fit: Bridging the gap between conceptualization and measurement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 69*, 202-221.
- Priest, R. F., & Beach, J. (1998). Value changes in four cohorts at the U.S. Military Academy. *Armed Forces and Society, 25*, 81-102.
- Quinn, R. E., & Spreitzer, G. M. (1991). The psychometrics of the competing values culture instrument and an analysis of the impact of organizational culture on quality of life. *Research in Organizational Change and Development, 5*, 115-142.
- Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1987). Effect of values on perception and decision-making: A study of alternative work values measures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 72*, 666-673.
- Renner, W. (2003). Human values: A lexical perspective. *Personality and Individual Differences, 34*, 127-141.
- Richins, M. L., & Dawson, S. (1992). Materialism as a consumer value:

- Measure development and validation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19, 303-316.
- Robert, C., & Wasti, S. A. (2002). Organizational individualism and collectivism: Theoretical development and an empirical test of a measure. *Journal of Management*, 28, 544-566.
- Rokeach, M. (1973). *The nature of human values*. New York: Free Press.
- Ros, M., Schwartz, S. H., & Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic individual values, work values, and the meaning of work. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 48, 49-71.
- Ryan, J. J. (2002). Work values and organizational citizenship behaviors: Values that work for employees and organizations. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17, 123-132.
- Sagiv, L., & Schwartz, S. H. (2000). Value priorities and subjective well-being: Direct relations and congruity effects. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 30, 177-198.
- Saville & Holdsworth Ltd. (1993). *Corporate culture questionnaire manual and user's guide*. London: SHL.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 25, pp. 1-65). Orlando, FL: Academic Press.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. In U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. C. Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method and applications* (pp. 85-119). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Schwartz, S. H. (2006). Basic human values: Theory, measurement, and applications. *Revue Française de Sociologie*, 45, 929-968.

- Schwartz, S. H., & Bilsky, W. (1987). Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *53*, 550-562.
- Schwartz, S. H., & Boehnke, K. (2004). Evaluating the structure of human values with confirmatory factor analysis. *Journal of Research in Personality*, *38*, 230-255.
- Schwartz, S. H., Melech, G., Lehmann, A., Burgess, S., Harris, M., & Owens, V. (2001). Extending the cross-cultural validity of the theory of basic human values with a different method of measurement. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *32*, 519-542.
- Schwartz, S. H., & Sagiv, L. (1995). Identifying culture-specifics in the content and structure of values. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *26*, 92-116.
- Scott, W. A. (1960). International ideology and interpersonal ideology. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *24*, 419-435.
- Siegall, M., & McDonald, T. (2004). Person-organization value congruence, burnout and diversion of resources. *Personnel Review*, *33*, 291-301.
- Singelis, T. M. (1994). The measurement of independent and interdependent self-construals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *20*, 580-591.
- Singelis, T. M., Triandis, H. C., Bhawuk, D. P. S., & Gelfand, M. J. (1995). Horizontal and vertical dimensions of individualism and collectivism: A theoretical and measurement refinement. *Cross-Cultural Research*, *29*, 240-275.
- Super, D. E. (1970). *Work Values Inventory*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Tang, T. L. P., Kim, J. K., & O'Donald, D. A. (2000). Perceptions of Japanese organizational culture: Employees in non-unionized Japanese-owned and unionized US-owned automobile plants. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *15*, 535-559.

- Van Dyne, L., Graham, J. W., & Dienesch, R. M. (1994). Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *37*, 765-802.
- van Muijen, J., Koopman, P., & De Witte, K. (1996). *Focus op organisatiecultuur [Focus on organizational culture]*. Schoonhoven: Academic Service.
- van Vianen, A. E. M. (2000). Person-organization fit: The match between newcomers' and recruiters' preferences for organizational cultures. *Personnel Psychology*, *53*, 113-149.
- van Vianen, A. E. M., De Pater, I. E., & Van Dijk, F. (2007). Work value fit and turnover intention: Same source or different-source fit. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*, 188-202.
- Veiga, J., Lubatkin, M., Calori, R., & Very, P. (2000). Measuring organizational culture clashes: A two-nation post-hoc analysis of a cultural compatibility index. *Human Relations*, *53*, 539-557.
- Verquer, M. L., Beehr, T. A., & Wagner, S. H. (2003). A meta-analysis of relations between person-organization fit and work attitudes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *63*, 473-489.
- Vigoda, E., & Cohen, A. (2002). Influence tactics and perceptions of organizational politics: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Business Research*, *55*, 311-324.
- Wollack, S., Goodale, J. G., Wijting, J. P., & Smith, P. C. (1971). Development of the Survey of Work Values. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *55*, 331-338.
- Zammuto, R. F., Gifford, B., & Goodman, E. A. (2000). Managerial ideologies, organization culture and the outcomes of innovation: A competing values perspective. In N. Ashkanasy, C. Wilderom, and M. Peterson (eds.), *The Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate* (pp. 263-280). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Zeitz, G., Johannesson, R., & Ritchie, J. E., Jr. (1997). An employee survey

measuring total quality management practices and culture: Development and validation. *Group and Organization Management*, 22, 414-444.

Table 1. A summary of person-organization value fit models.

Value model	Operationalization	# Items	Value dimensions	References
Organizational climate	Litwin and Stringer's Organizational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) (1968)	50	Structure, responsibility, reward, risk, warmth, support, standards, conflict, identity (9)	Goodman & Svyantek (1999)
Organizational culture	Saville and Holdsworth's Corporate Culture Questionnaire (CCQ) (1993)	126	Customer orientation, decision making effectiveness, vertical and lateral relationships between groups, interpersonal cooperation, communication effectiveness (6)	Goodman & Svyantek (1999)
Organizational culture	O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell's Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) (1991)	54 – 40	Detail, stability, innovation, team orientation, respect for people, outcome orientation, aggressiveness (7)	Adkins & Caldwell (2004); Cable & Judge (1996); Caldwell & O'Reilly (1990); Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden (2004); O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991)
Organizational culture	Ravlin and Meglino's Comparative Emphasis Scales (CES) (1987)	24	Achievement, fairness, honesty, helping and concern (4)	Adkins, Russel, & Werbel (1994); Judge & Bretz (1992); Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins (1989); Meglino, Ravlin, Adkins (1991)
Rokeach's terminal values	McDonald and Gandz's taxonomy of values (1992)	17	Humanity values, adherence to convention, bottom-line values, vision values (4)	Finegan (2000); McDonald & Gandz (1992)

Peters and Waterman's excellence model	Peters and Waterman's organizational values (1982)	7	Being the best, details in execution, people as individuals, quality and service, informality to enhance communication, innovator, goal accomplishment (7)	Boxx, Odom, & Dunn (1991)
Competing values model	Quinn and Spreitzer's competing values instrument (1991)	16	Internal process, open systems, rational goal, human relations values (4)	Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube (1999); Van Vianen (2000); Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki (2005)
Work values	Elizur's work values (1991)	21	Cognitive, affective, and instrumental perceived work values (3)	Vianen, De Pater, & Van Dijk (2007)
Protestant work ethic	Blau and Ryan's PWE scale (1997)	12	Hard work, leisure avoidance, independence from others, ascetism (4)	Ryan (2002)

Table 2

Definitions of motivational types of values in terms of their goals (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000, p. 179).

Achievement	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms
Hedonism	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources
Security	Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self
Self-direction	Independent thought and action-choosing, creating, and exploring
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life
Tradition	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and nature

Table 3

Overview of value instruments and typologies encompassing 1578 items, categorized into the 10 value types of Schwartz (1992).

	Author	Instrument/typology	Items	PO	AC	HE	ST	SD	UN	BE	CO	TR	SE	NA	NC
1.	Beach (1993)	Organizational Culture Survey	15	1	5	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	0	2	2
2.	Belk (1985)	Materialism Scales	27	1	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	0	2	5	12
3.	Braithwaite (1982)	Social Values Inventory	18	1	0	1	0	1	7	0	0	1	5	2	0
4.	Braithwaite (1997)	Goal, Mode and Social Values Inventory	58	3	5	3	0	6	12	4	3	4	11	5	2
5.	Braithwaite & Law (1985)	Mode Values Inventory	51	0	8	0	1	8	1	15	6	3	1	6	2
6.	Calori & Sarnin (1991)	Questionnaire on Work-related Values	58	1	9	0	4	5	5	10	6	1	2	11	4
7.	Chinese Culture Connection (1987)	Chinese Value Survey	40	4	3	1	0	1	3	2	3	4	1	16	2
8.	Coetsier & Claes (1990)	Values Scale	106	10	10	6	14	16	5	1	0	3	12	23	6
9.	Crace & Brown (1991)	Life Values Inventory	22	0	1	0	1	3	0	1	0	2	2	7	5

10.	Drenth & Cornelisse-Koksma (1970)	Scale of Personal Values	90	0	11	1	20	18	0	0	2	0	0	11	27
11.	Drenth & Kranendonk (1973)	Scale of Interpersonal Values	90	28	0	0	0	16	8	6	12	0	3	16	1
12.	Elizur & Sagie (1999)	Life and Work Values	42	8	5	1	1	5	2	4	0	0	6	9	1
13.	England (1967)	Personal Values Questionnaire	49	10	8	2	2	3	3	5	3	1	3	4	5
14.	Gorlow & Noll (1967)	Empirically Derived Value Constructions	75	6	4	2	3	5	5	7	1	7	5	23	7
15.	Hammill, Segal, & Segal (1995)	Personal Values Inventory	60	5	7	0	0	2	8	2	20	0	0	15	1
16.	Herche (1994)	Multi-Item Operationalisation of the List of Values	44	1	5	10	3	0	0	6	0	0	12	7	0
17.	Hofstede (1998a)	Employee Survey Questionnaire	23	2	4	0	2	1	0	3	0	0	4	6	1
18.	Hofstede (1998b)	Work Goal Importance Questionnaire	22	0	5	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	3	8	2
19.	Hofstede, Bond, & Luk (1993)	Organizational Culture Values	50	7	8	2	3	2	0	3	3	0	2	14	6
20.	Inglehart (1981)	Materialism - Post Materialism Scale	12	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	6	2	0
21.	Kahle (1983)	List Of Values	9	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	3	2	0

22.	Kim, Atkinson, & Yang (1999)	Asian Values Scale	36	1	3	0	0	1	0	3	14	5	0	8	1
23.	Manhardt (1972)	Work Values Inventory	21	4	1	2	2	3	1	0	0	0	1	7	0
24.	McDonald & Gandz (1992)	Shared Values	24	0	2	1	1	4	3	4	3	1	0	4	1
25.	Morris (1956)	Ways To Live	13	0	0	1	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	5	1
26.	O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991)	Organizational Culture Profile	54	2	8	0	2	10	2	7	2	0	3	11	7
27.	Pasa, Kabasakal, & Bodur (2001)	Organisational Values	27	0	3	0	0	0	2	7	7	0	0	4	4
28.	Priest & Beach (1998)	Army Year of Values Survey	16	0	3	1	0	2	2	0	0	1	3	4	0
29.	Renner (2003)	Lexical Perspective on Human Values	125	14	8	2	2	8	16	13	3	35	0	18	6
30.	Richins & Dawson (1992)	Material Values	18	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	4
31.	Robert & Wasti (2002)	Organizational Culture Scale	13	0	2	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	0	6	0
32.	Rokeach (1973)	Rokeach Value Survey	36	1	3	5	1	5	5	2	3	0	4	6	1
33.	Ros, Schwartz, & Surkiss (1999)	Work Value Survey	10	2	0	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	0
34.	Singelis (1994)	Self-Construal Scale	24	1	0	0	0	7	0	4	5	0	1	5	1

35.	Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand (1995)	Vertical and Horizontal Individualism and Collectivism Scale	32	0	8	0	0	6	0	8	5	2	0	3	0
36.	Super (1970)	Work Values Inventory	45	6	3	0	9	6	2	2	0	0	8	9	0
37.	Tang, Kim, & O'Donald (2000)	Japanese Organizational Culture Scale	15	1	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	0	0	8	1
38.	Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch (1994)	Perceived Importance of Workplace Values	12	0	2	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	5	2
39.	van Muijen, Koopman, & De Witte (1996)	FOCUS'95-Questionnaire	29	1	4	0	0	1	1	5	6	0	1	10	0
40.	Veiga, Lubatkin, Calori, & Very (2000)	Culture Compatibility Index	23	2	4	0	3	2	1	4	0	0	1	4	2
41.	Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith (1971)	Survey of Work Values	18	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	7	0
42.	Zeitz, Johannesson, & Ritchie (1997)	Total Quality Management Survey	23	0	2	0	4	5	0	4	2	0	1	3	2

Note. PO = power; AC = achievement; HE = hedonism; ST = stimulation; SD = self-direction; UN = universalism; BE = benevolence; CO = conformity; TR = tradition; SE = security; NA = not assigned: item fits into Schwartz' value model, but no agreement concerning which specific type; NC = not categorizable into Schwartz' typology.

Table 4

Average data set based on 10 pair-wise comparisons of 5 judges which shows 62.22% agreement between judges for the 10 value types of Schwartz (1992).

	PO	AC	HE	ST	SD	UN	BE	CO	TR	SE
PO	7.94									
AC	1.32	8.98								
HE	.16	.16	2.81							
ST	.12	.72	.32	4.89						
SD	.32	.92	.12	1.28	9.14					
UN	.08	.08	.16	.12	.56	5.45				
BE	.16	.16	.08	.04	.16	1.76	7.30			
CO	.36	.24	.16	.16	.64	.32	.92	5.61		
TR	.16	.16	.08	.08	.16	.36	.28	1.04	4.33	
SE	.44	.24	.36	.24	.48	.48	1.44	.80	.44	5.77

Note. PO = power; AC = achievement; HE = hedonism; ST = stimulation; SD = self-direction; UN = universalism; BE = benevolence; CO = conformity; TR = tradition; SE = security. All table entries represent the average relative frequencies of items for which there was agreement (diagonal entries) or no agreement (non-diagonal entries) between the five judges.

Figure captions

Figure 1. Theoretical model of relations among 10 motivational types of values
(Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000, p. 180).

Figure 2. Graphical representation of the extended value model of Schwartz
(1992).

Figure 1

Theoretical model of relations among 10 motivational types of values (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000, p. 180).

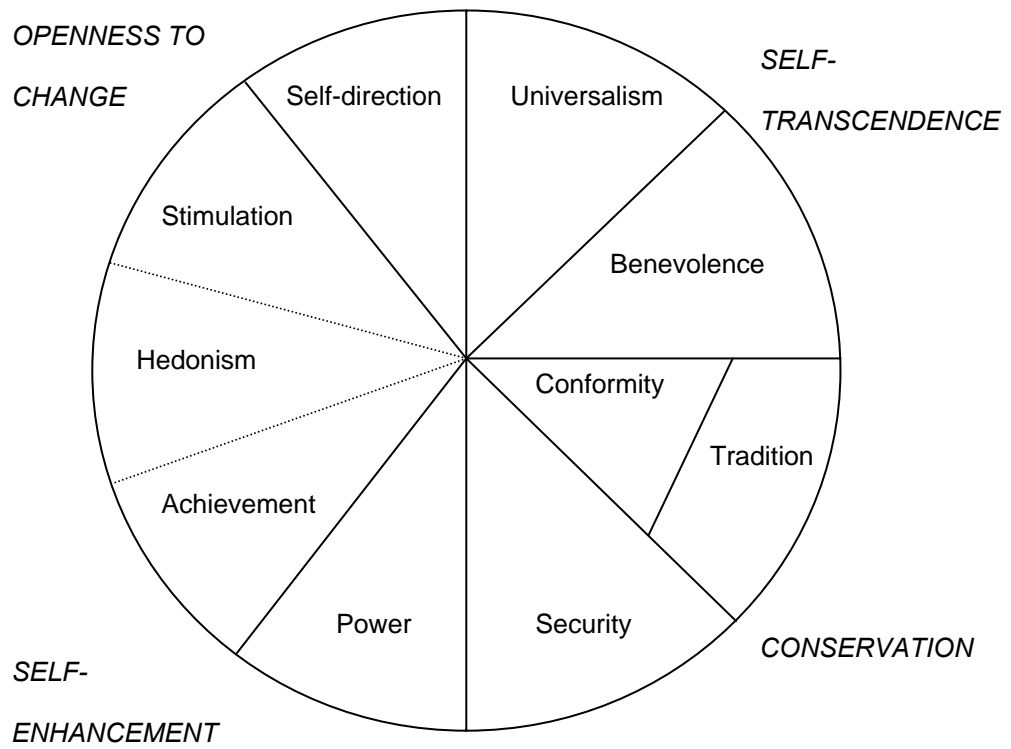


Figure 2

Graphical representation of the extended value model of Schwartz (1992).

