T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: THE ROLE OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

YASİN ÖZDEMİR

İstanbul, 2015

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İŞLETME ANABİLİM DALI
YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON (İNGİLİZCE) BİLİM DALI

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: THE ROLE OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

YASİN ÖZDEMİR

DANIŞMAN: DOÇ.DR. H. SİNEM ERGUN

İstanbul, 2015

T.C.
MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

TEZ ONAY BELGESİ

İŞLETME (İNGİLİZCE) Anabilim Dalı YÖNETİM VE ORGANİZASYON (İNGİLİZCE) Bilim Dalı TEZLİ YÜKSEK LİSANS öğrencisi Yasin Özdemir'nin THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: THE ROLE OF PERSON - ENVIRONMENT FIT adlı tez çalışması, Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 15.06.2015 tarih ve 2015-21/21 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oy birliği / ~~oy çokluğu~~ ile Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Tez Savunma Tarihi 26 / 06 / 2015

Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı			**İmzası**
1.	Tez Danışmanı	Doç. Dr. HANDE SİNEM ERGUN	
2.	Jüri Üyesi	Doç. Dr. MÜJDELEN İPEK YENER	
3.	Jüri Üyesi	DOÇ. DR. PINAR BÜYÜKBALCI	

ÖZET

Örgütsel Sosyalleşme ile Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı Arasındaki İlişki: Kişi-Çevre Uyumunun Rolü

Örgütsel sosyalleşme çalışan uyumunu kolaylaştırması dolayısıyla hem çalışanlar hem de işverenler açısından önemli bir kavramdır. Başarılı sosyalizasyon uygulamalarıyla örgütlerin işe alma, eğitim ve işten ayrılma maliyetleri azalacaktır. Başarılı sosyalleşmenin çeşitli sonuçlarına ek olarak, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı örgütsel sosyalleşmenin önemli bir sonucu olarak adlandırılmaktadır. Ayrıca, kişi-çevre uyumu bir çalışan için doğru çevrede çalışmanın önemini vurgulamaktadır.

Bu çalışma örgütsel sosyalleşme ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasındaki ilişkide kişi-çevre uyumunun aracı rolünü incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu ilişkileri analiz etmek için bir model geliştirilmiştir ve modelden yola çıkılarak bir anket hazırlanmıştır. Anket, demografik sorularla birlikte örgütsel sosyalleşme, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ve kişi-çevre uyumuyla alakalı önermelerden oluşmaktadır. İstanbul'daki 202 beyaz yakalı çalışan üzerinde kesitsel araştırma yapılmıştır.

Çalışmanın bulguları örgütsel sosyalleşme ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasında bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca kişi-çevre uyumu, örgütsel sosyalleşme ile örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı arasındaki ilişkinin şiddetini arttırmaktadır.

Araştırma sonuçlarının işverenlere işe alma ve eğitim süreçlerinin şekillendirilmesinde ve araştırmacılara ileriki çalışmalarında katkıda bulunması beklenmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Örgütsel Sosyalleşme, Örgütsel Vatandaşlık Davranışı, Kişi-Çevre Uyumu

ABSTRACT

The Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Role of Person-Environment Fit

Organizational socialization is a crucial concept for both employees and employers in terms of facilitating the process of employee adjustment. Hiring, training and turnover costs of organizations will decrease with successful socialization practices. In addition to various results of successful socialization, organizational citizenship behavior is regarded as an important consequence of organizational socialization. Moreover, person-environment fit emphasizes the significance of working at the right environment for an employee.

This study aims to examine the mediating role of person-environment fit on the relationship between organizational socialization and organizational citizenship behavior. A model was developed so as to analyze these relationships. Therefore, a questionnaire was constituted based on the model. The questionnaire was consisted of demographics questions and statements about organizational socialization, organizational citizenship behavior and person- environment fit. A cross-sectional study was conducted on 202 white collar employees in Istanbul.

The findings of the study demonstrated that there was a significant relationship between organizational socialization and organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, person-environment mediated the relationship between organizational socialization and organizational citizenship behavior.

The results are anticipated to contribute employers so as to shape their hiring and training processes and researchers for further studies.

Keywords: Organizational Socialization, Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Person-Environment Fit

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would not have completed this thesis without the contribution, support and encouragement of several people. I would like to thank my advisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hande Sinem Ergun for her invaluable guidance through this study.

I want to give special thanks to Prof. Dr. Gülruh Gürbüz, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Müjdelen İpek Yener and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pınar Büyükbalcı for their inputs, comments and helpful suggestions.

I am deeply grateful to Kenan Emik, Birol Baysak, Barış Hatunoğlu, Ahmet Emre Dizlek, Osman Konca and Ahmet Erdoğan for their friendship.

I dedicated this study to my mother, Nurten Özdemir and my father, Şevket Özdemir.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ÖZET i
ABSTRACT ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT iii
LIST OF TABLES vii
LIST OF FIGURES ix
ABBREVIATIONS x
1. INTRODUCTION 1
1.1. Background of the Study 3
1.2. Theoretical Framework of the Study 4
1.3. The Purpose and Contributions of the Study 7
2. ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION 9
2.1. History and Definitions of Organizational Socialization 9
2.2. Socialization Tactics 12
2.3. Institutionalized and Individualized Tactics 15
2.3.1. Context-Related Organizational Socialization Tactics 17
2.3.1.1. Collective versus Individual Socialization Tactics 18
2.3.1.2. Formal versus Informal Socialization Tactics 18
2.3.2. Content- Related Organizational Socialization Tactics 19
2.3.2.1. Sequential versus Random Socialization Tactics 19
2.3.2.2. Fixed versus Variable Socialization Tactics 20
2.3.3. Social-Related Organizational Socialization Tactics 20
2.3.3.1. Serial versus Disjunctive Socialization Tactics 20
2.3.3.2. Investiture versus Divestiture Socialization Tactics 21
2.4. Socialization Content 22
2.5. Group Socialization 25
2.6. Means of Socialization 27
2.6.1. Orientation Training Program 27
2.6.2. Self-Socialization 28
2.6.3. Technology Deployment 30
2.6.4. Mentoring Process 30
2.7. Organizational Socialization Process 31
2.8. Theories of Organizational Socialization 33

2.8.1. Uncertainty Reduction Theory 33
2.8.2. Social Cognitive Theory 34
2.8.3. Cognitive Sense Making Theory 35
2.9. Person - Environment Fit and Organizational Socialization 37
3. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR 39
3.1. History and Definitions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior 39
3.2. Types of Citizenship Behavior 44
3.3. Theories of Organizational Citizenship Behavior 55
3.3.1. Social Exchange Theory 55
3.3.2. Leader-Member Exchange Theory 56
3.3.3. The Norm of Reciprocity 59
3.3.4. Equity Theory 60
4. PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT 62
4.1. History and Definitions of Person-Environment Fit 62
4.2. Types of Person-Environment Fit 63
4.2.1. Person – Job Fit 63
4.2.2.Person – Organization Fit 64
4.2.3.Person-Group Fit 67
4.2.4.Person-Supervisor Fit 68
4.2.5. Person-Vocation Fit 70
4.3.Studies of Person-Organization and Person-Job Fit 70
4.4. Studies of Person-Group, Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit 72
4.5. Studies of Needs-Supplies, Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit 72
4.6. Studies of Person-Organization Fit and Demands-Abilities Fit 73
4.7. Perceived and Actual Fit 74
5. RESEARCH METHOD 76
5.1. Research Design 76
5.2. Sample 77
5.3. Instrument 79
5.3.1. Organizational Socialization Scale 79
5.3.2. Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale 79
5.3.3. Person-Environment Fit Scale 80
5.3.4. Demographics 80

5.4. Data Analysis Methodology 80
6. RESEARCH FINDINGS 81
6.1. Reliability and Factor Analysis 81
6.1.1. Reliability and Factor Analysis of Organizational Socialization Scale 81
6.1.2. Reliability and Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale 84
6.1.3. Reliability and Factor Analysis of Person-Environment Fit Scale 86
6.2. Revised Model of the Study 88
6.3. Independent Sample t-Test 88
6.3.1. Independent Sample t-Test for Organizational Socialization 89
6.3.2. Independent Sample t-Test for Person-Environment Fit 94
6.3.3. Independent Sample t-Test for Organizational Citizenship Behavior 94
6.4. Hierarchial Regression Analyses 98
6.4.1. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Civic Virtue 98
6.4.2. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Courtesy 99
6.4.3. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Altruism 100
6.4.4. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Sportsmanship 101
7. CONCLUSION 103
7.1. Evaluation of the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Organizational Citizenship Behavior 103
7.2. Evaluation of the Combined Effect of Organizational Socialization and Person-Environment Fit on Organizational Citizenship Behavior 104
7.3. Demographic Variables and Organizational Socialization 105
7.4. Demographic Variables and Person – Environment Fit 106
7.5. Demographic Variables and Organizational Citizenship Behavior 106
7.6. Recommendations 107
7.7. Limitations of the Study 108
REFERENCES 109
APPENDIX 127

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Operational Definitions of Organizational Socialization Dimensions 5

Table 2: Operational Definitions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Dimensions . 6

Table 3: Operational Definitions of Person–Environment Fit Dimensions..... 7

Table 4: Summary of Helping Behavior Dimension by Authors 47

Table 5: Summary of Sportsmanship Dimension by Authors 48

Table 6: Summary of Organizational Loyalty Dimension by Authors..... 49

Table 7: Summary of Individual Initiative Dimension by Authors 49

Table 8: Summary of Organizational Compliance Dimension by Authors..... 50

Table 9: Summary of Civic Virtue Dimension by Authors 51

Table 10: Summary of Self-Development Dimension by Authors..... 52

Table 11: Sample distribution by Age, Education Level, Total Work Experience, Tenure at Current Organization and Salary 78

Table 12: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Performance Proficiency 82

Table 13: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Organizational Goals and Values 82

Table 14: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for People 83

Table 15: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Job Knowledge 83

Table 16: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Language 84

Table 17: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Civic Virtue 85

Table 18: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Courtesy..... 85

Table 19: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Altruism..... 86

Table 20: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Sportsmanship 86

Table 21: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Person-Organization Fit 87

Table 22: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Person-Supervisor Fit 87

Table 23: Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Demands-Abilities Fit 88

Table 24: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Job Knowledge According to Having Children 89

Table 25: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Organizational Goals and Values According to Having Children..... 90

Table 26: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Job Knowledge According to Having a Position Change 91

Table 27: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Organizational Goals and Values According to Having a Position Change 91

Table 28: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Performance Proficiency According to Having a Position Change 92

Table 29: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Language According to Having a Position Change 92

Table 30: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Performance Proficiency According to Having Orientation Training 93

Table 31: Independent Sample t-Test Results for People According to Having Orientation Training 93

Table 32: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Person-Organization Fit According to Having Children 94

Table 33: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Courtesy According to Gender 95

Table 34: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Civic Virtue According to Having Children 96

Table 35: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Courtesy According to Having Children 96

Table 36: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Civic Virtue According to Having a Position Change 97

Table 37: Independent Sample t-Test Results for Sportsmanship According to Orientation Training 97

Table 38: Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Civic Virtue 99

Table 39: Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Courtesy 100

Table 40: Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Altruism 101

Table 41: Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Sportsmanship 102

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Summary of Dimensions of Organizational Socialization by Authors……...11

Figure 2: Proposed Research Model……...76

Figure 3: Revised Model of the Study……88

ABBREVIATIONS

ASA	Attraction-Selection-Attrition
KSA	Knowledge, Skills and Abilities
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
MBA	Master of Business Administration
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OS	Organizational Socialization
P-E	Person - Environment
P-G	Person - Group
P-J	Person - Job
P-O	Person - Organization
POB	Pro-social Organizational Behavior
P-S	Person - Supervisor
P-T	Person -Team
P-V	Person -Vocation
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory
SET	Social Exchange Theory
URT	Uncertainty Reduction Theory

1. INTRODUCTION

When an employee begins to work at an organization, a unique chance occurs in order to set the tone and build a firm foundation which will last through the working relationship (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004, p. 52; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 1). Organizational socialization is one of the processes through which the employee learns the necessary information to make a successful transition in terms of becoming an integrated member of the organization after getting hired (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211). The employee will learn the required knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviors for adapting to the new job, role or culture of the workplace through successful organizational socialization process (Chao et al., 1994, p. 730). Organizational socialization literature has demonstrated that Chao et al. (1994, p. 731)'s six socialization content (organizational goals and values, history, performance proficiency, language, politics, and people) dimensions have a direct correlation with successful assimilation of employees into the organizations (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 6).

Noe et al. (2003; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 3) asserted that turnover costs can range from 50-200 % of an employee's salary while time was spent for hiring, training and orienting employees. Therefore, organizations have responded in terms of performing a stronger emphasis on the processes of on-boarding and socialization in order to facilitate employee adjustment and learning. The organizations provide necessary tools, information and resources for the responds of their employees to the changes in the environment (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 1). Moreover, ineffective organizational socialization which fails to socialize employees may result in a raise of training and turnover costs (Bodoh, 2012, p. 3). In addition, Ineffective organizational socialization leads to uncertainty that hinders newcomer experiences and the extent that newcomers learn specific socialization contents while being oriented to the organization (Bodoh, 2012, p. 1). The costs of ineffective socialization have vast second and third order impacts on newcomer adaptation in an organization. Organizations spend nearly 7% of their annual training budgets on new employee orientation (Bodoh, 2012, p. 3).

Organizational citizenship behavior defined as "the voluntary behavior of the employee affecting the competitiveness of the organization and its performance

positively, by exceeding the expectations from the role that the undertaken" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 513). Organizational socialization research has revealed a positive relationship between organizational socialization and organizational citizenship behaviors (Feldman, 1981, p. 317). Organizational citizenship behaviors express that an employee is acting as an integrated member of the organization (Bodoh, 2012, p. 2).

When considering organizational viewpoint, determining the correct employee fit is substantial for long-term business viability. Rapid change in the environment demands perpetual cultural and attitudinal alterations in both the employer and employee mindset. Thus, new organizational members require the accurate tools and information so as to measure up to business expectations. Moreover, organizations anticipate newcomers to hit the ground running and organizational newcomers have greater expectations for their entry experience (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 5).

As a response of these growing demands, human resources departments have modified their recruitment processes. Morley (2007; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 5) emphasized that organizational recruiters have altered their main focal point on knowledge, skills and abilities in order to include hiring for organizational compatibility (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 5). Compatibility is shown through a person-environment fit that occurs between an individual's beliefs and values and the organization's culture, norms and values (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 6).

Person-environment (P-E) fit is a multidimensional concept comprehensively defined as "the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well-matched" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 281; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 34). Socialization research is related with person-environment (P-E) fit because the aim of socialization is to assure the acceptance of organizational goals and values (Cable & Parsons, 2001, p. 20). The greater the degree to which socialization practices accomplish a good P-E fit, employees will be more likely to be committed to the organization and less likely to terminate their membership (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 876; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 6).

In the following parts, background and theoretical framework of the study was demonstrated. After these parts, literature reviews of organizational socialization (OS), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and person-environment (P-E) fit are provided. The study results with the methodology and the results of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Looking at the OS literature, various disciplines utilized and studied OS such as psychology, sociology, educational sciences, information systems and business administration. In spite of the fact that the relationship between OS and organizational commitment was measured in a sufficient number of studies, the study of the relationship between OS and OCB was limited when comparing with organizational commitment. Bodoh (2012, p. 59) studied the relationships between socialization content, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in a public sector organization. According to Bodoh (2012, p. 175)'s study, socialization content was a significant predictor of organizational commitment and OCB. Moreover, the relationship between socialization content and organizational commitment was significant in terms of using age and pay grade as control variables. Bodoh (2012, p. 174)'s study is crucial for filling the gap of examination the relationship between socialization content with commitment and job behavior.

Watchfogel (2009, p. 60) examined the relationships between OS content domains with P-E fit and affective organizational commitment in recent college graduates. Watchfogel (2009, p. 147) revealed positive and significant relationships between person-organization fit with history and organizational goals and values domains of socialization content. Furthermore, negative and significant relationships between person-organization fit with performance proficiency domain of socialization content were found (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 148). In addition, positive and significant relationships between needs-supplies fit with language, people and performance proficiency was demonstrated in the study. Demands-abilities fit had positive and significant relationships with language, people and performance proficiency. According to findings of Watchfogel (2009, p. 150)'s study, politics domain of organizational

content had slightly significant relationship with both needs-supplies fit and demands-abilities fit.

Considering OS studies in Turkey, it can be seen that OS is a new concept for Turkish researchers and Turkish cultural setting. The number of studies of OS are scant and mostly in educational sciences. Moreover, a few studies about OS in Turkey are about business administration, psychology and labor economics. Therefore, this study endeavors to make a crucial contribution to OS studies in Turkey in terms of studying at private sector employees. Zonana (2011, p. 75) examined the impact of job stress on organizational socialization in banking sector. Zonana (2011, p. 108) found that job stress had a significant influence on OS. In addition to Zonana (2011, p. 75)'s study, Aliyev (2014, p. 103) studied the relationship between OS and organizational identification in banking sector. Aliyev (2014, p. 126) found that there was a significant and positive relationship between organizational socialization and organizational identification.

1.2. Theoretical Framework of the Study

The process and the content of organizational socialization consist of two distinct types of OS literature (Chao et al., 1994, p. 730; Woo, 2006, p.15). The stages which employees pass through for being an integrated insider are the focal points of the OS process studies (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 243; Wachtfogel, 2009, p.39). The studies which concentrate upon the content of OS, are interested in "What needs to be learned for effective socialization to occur?" (Schein, 1971, p. 421; Feldman, 1981, p. 309; Wachtfogel, 2009, p. 39).

The socialization content model was developed by Chao et al. (1994, p. 731) and involved the domains of people, politics, organizational goals and values, performance proficiency, history and language. In this study, Chao et al. (1994, p. 731)'s content model was used in order to measure OS because the socialization content model emphasizes learning content and provide a direct measure of OS (Bauer et al., 1998; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 10). Mitus (2006, p. 2) stated that "presently, Chao et al. (1994, p. 731) has the most widely established and empirically supported

Socialization Content Model" (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 10). Operational definitions of organizational socialization dimensions were demonstrated in Table 1:

Table 1
Operational Definitions of Organizational Socialization Dimensions

Variable	Operational Definition	Source
Performance Proficiency	the degree to which an employee learns the tasks, skills and abilities required for the job	Chao et al., 1994, p. 731; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43
People	refers to an understanding of who the key players are in the organization that can help the employee adjust to the organization and the job	Chao et al., 1994, p. 731; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43
Politics	concerned with obtaining knowledge about formal and informal networks as well as an understanding of the power structures within the organization	Chao et al., 1994, p. 731; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43
Language	includes the individual's understanding of the profession's technical language as well as the jargon, slogans and acronyms particular to that organization	Chao et al., 1994, p. 731; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43
Organizational Goals and Values	focus on the individual's knowledge about the formal and informal goals and values of the organization	Chao et al., 1994, p. 731; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43
History	concerned with the individual understanding the organizations traditions, myths, customs and rituals that foster a particular work culture	Chao et al., 1994, p. 731; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43

When considering OCB, it can be understood that the first presentation of OCB was in the study of Bateman and Organ (1983, p. 588) and explained in depth in the book of Organ (1988; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 18) named Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome (Burton, 2003, p. 18). Organ (1988; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 32) proposed five dimensions in their OCB studies: (a) altruism, (b) conscientiousness, (c) sportsmanship, (d) courtesy and (e) civic virtue (Davis, 2006, p. 32). Organ's five taxonomies of OCB were used in this study so as to measure OCB domains. Operational definitions of organizational citizenship behavior dimensions were demonstrated in Table 2:

Table 2
Operational Definitions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Dimensions

Variable	Operational Definition	Source
Altruism	voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem—instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a coworker catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague needs and cannot procure on his own	Organ, 1988, p. 96; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 518
Courtesy	subsumes all of those foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem—touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work	Organ, 1988, p. 96; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 518
Sportsmanship	a citizen- like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without whining and grievances	Organ, 1988, p. 96; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 518
Conscientiousness	is a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance	Organ, 1988, p. 96; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 522
Civic virtue	is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization	Organ, 1988, p. 96; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 522

The P-E fit research was started for deciding good fit perceptions during the employee hiring process where employers and applicants begin to find a reciprocal relationship, self - selecting into and out of the process depending upon perceived fit (Chatman, 1989, p. 333; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 37). The researchers have studied different types of supplementary and complementary fit in relation to several dependent variables (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 880), the significance of the characteristics on which fit is evaluated and levels of perceived person-organization fit at organizational entry and at distinct stages during socialization (e.g., Lauver & Kristof – Brown, 2001, p. 461). Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 876)'s P-E fit model was utilized in this study in order to measure P-E fit. In addition to Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 876)'s P-E fit model, Yen (2012) modified the statements of Cable & DeRue (2002)'s P-O fit in order to measure person-group fit. Greene-Shortridge (2008) added person-supervisor fit statements through modifying Cable & DeRue (2002)'s P-O fit statements. Therefore,

P-E fit domains of this study include person-organization fit, needs-supplies fit, demands-abilities fit, person-group fit and person-supervisor fit. Operational definitions of person - environment fit dimensions were demonstrated in Table 3:

Table 3
Operational Definitions of Person–Environment Fit Dimensions

Variable	Operational Definition	Source
Person - Organization Fit	the compatibility between employees and organizations or judgments of congruence between an employee's personal values and an organization's culture	Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 285; Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 35
Demands - Abilities Fit	the degree to which the individual's knowledge, skills and abilities overlap the necessities of the job	Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 284; Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 34
Needs - Supplies Fit	the degree to which the individual's needs are fulfilled by their service on the job	Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 284; Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 34
Person - Supervisor Fit	supervisor-subordinate value congruence, goal congruence, and personality similarity	Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 287; Greene-Shortridge, 2002, p. 15
Person - Group Fit	compatibility between individuals and their work groups	Kristof, 1996, p. 7; Greene-Shortridge, 2002, p. 8; Yen, 2012, p. 10

1.3. The Purpose and Contributions of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional study is to reveal the mediating role of person-environment fit on the relationship between organizational socialization and organizational citizenship behavior. Multiple hierarchical regression analyses were conducted so as to determine these relationships.

Organizational socialization research is still young and developing (Ge et al., 2010; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 19). In spite of the fact that there were various studies about the relationship between socialization outcomes (e.g. OCB and organizational commitment) and, socialization practices, the number of researches which examine the relationship between socialization outcomes and socialization contents were limited (Bodoh, 2012, p. 19). In addition to examining the relationship between OS and OCB, this study involves P-E fit as a mediator variable. In the manner of business

administration and related fields, organizational socialization researches were scant in Turkey. Most of the studies were analyzed the socialization between teachers and students. Therefore, this study aims to make a crucial contribution to Turkish scholars in terms of conducting analysis to white collar employees. Moreover, this study aims to enable employers to analyze their employees in order to measure their socialization levels. With the help of this study, the employers can determine the lacking aspects of socialization contents of their employees and organize their orientation programs according to these results. Organizations can reduce their hiring and turnover costs in terms of benefiting from this study.

2. ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION

2.1. History and Definitions of Organizational Socialization

Organizational socialization is "a process by which employees learn about and adapt to the new jobs, roles, and the culture of the workplace" (Klein & Weaver, 2000, p. 47). The definition of Klein and Weaver (2000, p.47) reinforces the previous definitions of Van Maanen (1978; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 25) and Jones (1986; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 25). Additionally, Feldman explained organizational socialization as “the process by which employees are transformed from organization outsiders to participating and effective members” (Feldman, 1981, p. 309). Organizational socialization is the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211; Taormina, 1997, p. 29).

Organizational socialization can be defined as a process by which a person secures relevant job skills, acquires a functional level of organizational understanding, attains supportive social interactions with coworkers, and generally accepts the established ways of a particular organization (Taormina, 1997, p. 29). It can also be defined temporally as the period of time in which an individual comes to learn the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge necessary for undertaking an organizational role and participating as an organizational member (Louis, 1980, p. 229; Malamut, 2002, p. 26). Various dimensions of organizational socialization were summarized in Figure 1 (Woo, 2006, p. 19).

The process of switching from an outsider to an intergrated insider at the organization is another defition of organizational socialization (Wachtfogel, 2009, p. 38). Organizational socialization occurs at any time an employee experiences an alteration of organizational boundary (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 215). The changes in individual attitudes, perceptions, behaviors, knowlegde, skills and sense-making frameworks consist of organizational socialization (Cooper-Thomas &Anderson, 2006, p. 492; Wachtfogel, 2009, p. 38).

The organizational socialization literature has two different types of research areas which originate from the process and the content of organizational socialization (Chao et al., 1994, p. 730; Woo, 2006, p.15). The studies on the dimension of the process of organizational socialization concentrate upon the stages which individuals experience as they passes from organizational outsider to integrated insider (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 243; Wachtfogel, 2009, p.39) . The researches about the content of socialization are concerned with "What needs to be learned for effective socialization to occur?" (Schein, 1971, p. 421; Feldman, 1981, p. 309; Wachtfogel, 2009, p.39).

The stage model of organizational socialization can be trace back the study of Schein (1961; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 39) whose socialization model of three-stage process of change that propounded by Kurt Lewis (1947; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 39). On the other hand, a framework for constructing organizational socialization embarked on to have a strong interest in literature in 1970's (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 246; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 39;).

Many organizational socialization researches have underlined adapting normative attitudes, values and culture of an organization from the organization's viewpoint according to Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992; as cited in Woo, 2006, p.16). Nevertheless, latest studies about organizational socialization, have started to give importance to a newcomer's learning process which takes place as new employees internalize to the organization according to individual's standpoint. In spite of the fact that conventional perspective to organizational socialization presumed that newcomers were passive or reactive recipients of socialization practices, recent approaches assume that newcomers perform actively to diminish uncertainty of their work environment (Woo, 2006, p.16).

Authors	Individual	People	Organization/Group	Work Task
Adkins (1995)	• Realistic expectations • Role clarity	• Interpersonal relationship		• Task competence
Anakwe and Greenhaous (1999)	• Personal learning • Role Clarity		• Knowledge and acceptance of culture • Functioning within group	• Task mastery
Chao et al. (1994)		• People	• Goals/values • History • Politics • Language	• Performance proficiency
Eldredge (1997)		• People	• History • Language • Politics • Belongingness • Goals and values	• Performance proficiency
Feldman (1989)			• Organizational attributes • Group process	• Job-related task • Work roles
Fisher (1986)	• Identity • Self-image • Motive structure	• Friendships	• Organizational values • Goals • Culture • Work group values & Norms	• Knowledge and skills
Holton (1996)	• Attitudes • Expectations • Breaking-in	• Impression management • Relationship • Supervisor	• Culture • Savvy • Organizational roles	• Work savvy • Task knowledge • General K.S.A.
Morrison (1993)	• Role clarification	• Social integration	• Acculturation	• Task mastery
Saks & Ashforth (1997)	• Role clarity • Motivation • Personal change • Role orientation	• Social integration • Social identification	• Person-organization fit	• Person-job fit • Skills acquisition
Ostroff & Kozlowski (1992)			• Organizational attributes • Group process	• Job-related task • Work roles

Figure 1:Summary of Dimensions of Organizational Socialization by Authors

Reference: Woo, Ha-Young (2006). Identification and Validation of New Employees' Organizational Socialization Dimensions within a Large Bank in Korea. PhD Thesis. University of Minnesota, p.19.

Many scholars propounded various macro structures about dimensions of organizational socialization. Feldman (1989, p. 376) came up with four domains of the learning process: job-related tasks, work roles, the group process, and organizational attributes. Fisher (1986; as cited in Woo, 2006, p. 17) offered three similar domains while putting in two more domains: (1) preliminary learning, whereby newcomers realize that learning is needed and identify what and from whom they need to learn; (2) learning about the organization; (3) learning to function in a work group; (4) how to do the job; and (5) personal learning and change, whereby newcomers learn more about

themselves. In addition to Feldman and Fisher, Holton (1996, p. 236) suggested extensive dimensions about organizational socialization that a newcomer must finalize and an organization enable to succeed a covetable level performance throughout organizational socialization period. Holton (1996, p. 236) defined organizational socialization with the help of four domains that consist of twelve dimensions: individual domain (attitudes, expectations, and breaking-in), people domain (impression management, relationships, and supervisor), organization domain (culture, savvy, and roles), and work task domain (work savvy, task knowledge, and knowledge, skills, and abilities) (Woo, 2006, p. 17).

Feldman (1976; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 39) asserted that the organizational socialization process consists of three distinct stages: anticipatory socialization, accommodation and role management. Anticipatory socialization implies the learning which originates prior to taking part in an organization that involves generating opinions, assessing information with workers and determining recruitment decisions. The accommodation defined as an employee's exposure to environment and endeavors to become a member. The role management stage consists of resolution to problems and reconciling conflicts among organizational members (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 39).

Van Maanen & Schein (1979, p. 245) formed a taxonomy of six socialization tactics which express the "ways in which the experiences of individuals in transition from one role to another are structured for them by others in the organization" for understanding the process of socialization (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 40).

2.2. Socialization Tactics

Van Maanen & Schein (1979, p. 245) have suggested a theoretical definition about how methods of socialization affect on specific outcome of socialization, role orientation. Since the socialization tactics applied by organizations compose the information that newcomers receive, employees react discretely to their roles according to Van Maanen & Schein (1979, p. 212; Miller, 2006, p.14). In terms of giving and concealing or purveying information in certain ways, workers of an organization can

foster newcomers so as to figure out and react to circumstances in a foreseeable way. Van Maanen and Schein's typology of socialization tactics portrays a group of interrelated theoretical proffers with respect to framework of organizational socialization processes. Van Maanen and Schein's theory indicates the connections among particular socialization variables and the resultant attitude reactions (Miller, 2006, p. 14).

Van Maanen and Schein emphasized that the number of organizational tactics can be infinite. There were several reasons why Van Maanen and Schein chose these specific tactics such as the visible presence of a tactic, the apparent importance and power of a tactic on workers (Miller, 2006, p. 16).

The term of tactics of organizational socialization implies the practices in which other organizational members constitute the experiences of employees in transition from one role to another (Van Maanen, 1978; as cited in Miller, 2006, p.16). In spite of the fact that seperate and different socialization tactics can occur in an organization, any tactic expresses discernable set of events which affect the employee in transition (Miller, 2006, p. 17).

Van Maanen and Schein (1979, p. 245)'s organizational socialization tactics are grouped into six categories as: collective versus individual, which points out whether employees are subjected to a common or unique series of experiences; formal versus informal, that used to define the degree to which employees are seperated from other workers during socialization period; sequential versus random, contains the degree to which steps for presuming a role are designated and identifiable; fixed versus variable, demonstrates the degree to which a determined timetable for the stages included so as to posit a role is provided; serial versus disjunctive, defined as whether or not, a role model is provided in order to help newcomer during transition; investiture versus divestiture, which implies to the degree of an organization's evaluation of conformity or creativity and entrepreneurship (Watchfogel, 2009, p.40).

Individual versus collective socialization arises during organizations classify newcomers in order to enable them to have common experiences rather than

distinguishing newcomers so as to pass through diverse experiences. Formal versus informal socialization implies the approach of separating a newcomer from regular workers during a determined time period that regarded as socialization timeframe (Ashforth et al., 2007, p. 450; Bodoh, 2012, p. 26). Fixed versus variable socialization expresses the stages about the assumption of new role exact knowledge of time it will originate. Conversely, the variable socialization process doesn't demonstrate explicit knowledge (Xiang et al., 2006; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p.26).

Sequential versus random socialization contains intermittent and frankly defined steps that processing for the assumption of new job role, in contradiction to undetermined or constantly altering sequence (Simosi, 2010, p. 304, Bodoh, 2012, p. 26). The serial versus disjunctive socialization takes place with an agent member of organization who serves as a role model for a newcomer. The alternative process does not include the usage of a mentor as a role model (Gruman et al., 2006, p. 92; Bodoh, 2012, p. 26). Investiture versus divestiture socialization tactic fosters a newcomer's personal characteristics and values rather than not supporting them (Bodoh, 2012, p. 27).

Demographic variables have used as a suggestive of accomplished socialization as an indication of an employee's degree of socialization by many scholars after Van Maanen and Schein's (1979, p. 245) conceptualization of socialization. Norris and Riebuhr (1984; as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 27) put forward that an employee's relationship with job and organization alters in the wake of socialization during consequtive steps of organizational tenure. Therefore, organizational tenure have studied by various researchers so as to demonstrate the external inclusion dimension of socialization (Malamut, 2002, p. 27).

Studies using tenure for expressing the external-inclusion dimension of organizational socialization have revealed positive results. In 1975, Van Maanen made a research on newcomers to a police department. According this study, there was a positive relationship between the tenure of police officers and veteran police officer attitudes and behaviors (Van Maanen, 1975, p. 215). Gomez-Mejia (1983, p. 496)'s study of occupational socialization yielded that distinctions between the work values of

men and women in the same occupations diminished with tenure (Malamut, 2002, p. 27).

Several researchers have found that organizational tenure was negatively related with information-seeking behaviors that required for being effectively socialized (Ashford, 1986, p.477). Moreover, job and organizational tenure was found positively correlated to employee performance and knowledge of organization's history due to Chao et al. (1994, p. 736)'s study (Malamut, 2002, p. 28).

2.3. Institutionalized and Individualized Tactics

The theoritical framework of Van Maanen and Schein (1979, p. 246)'s socialization tactics was furthered by Jones (1986, p. 264) in terms of grouping socialization tactics into three measurable dimensions by means of a factor analysis. Jones (1986, p. 264)'s classification of organizational socialization tactics consists of context-related tactics which contains the collective versus individual and formal versus informal tactics; content-related tactics which involves sequential versus variable and fixed versus random tactics and social-related tactics which includes serial versus disjunctive and investiture versus divestiture tactics. Jones (1986, p. 264)'s categorization enabled researchers to empirically test the organizational socialiazation tactics (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 41).

Institutionalized tactics decrease a newcomer's uncertainty through presenting structured information which defined as collective, formal, fixed, sequential, serial, and investiture socialization (Jones, 1986, p. 272). By contrast with instutionalized tactics, individualized tactics that defined as the random, informal, individual, divestiture, variable, and disjunctive tactics, enhance a newcomer's uncertainty. Individualized tactics compel the newcomer to socialize by default rather than by design (Saks et al., 2007, p. 416). In spite of the fact that every tactic creates information in several ways, some tactics probably have a powerful connection with newcomer adaptation than others (Bodoh, 2012, p. 27).

The extent of a newcomer's control over socialization is the essential difference between individual and institutional socialization tactics. In spite of the fact

that individualized tactics enables employees to make differentiated and innovative reactions to organizational socialization process, institutionalized tactics raises the inclination of newcomers to acknowledge the descriptions of conditions that suggested by others in the organization. Institutionalized tactics are assumed to augment the degree to which newcomers share norms, valus and attitudes of colleagues (Malamut, 2002, p. 37).

Jones (1986, p. 264) examined his taxonomy of socialization tactics in terms of making a longitudinal study which analyzes MBA students from graduation to nearly first five months of their work experiences. According to Jones (1986, p. 263)'s study, individualized and institutionalized socialization tactics caused to occur discrete effects on the role orientations assimilated by newcomers. Institutionalized tactics constituted a custodial role orientation in which employees embraced standardized responses to circumstances and admitted dictated borders of a role in the organization. However, individualized tactics seek for an innovative role orientation that newcomers endeavor to change procedures for carrying out a role (Malamut, 2002, p. 38).

Several researchers studied and found support about the effects of socialization tactics on role orientation and various individual outcomes following the study of Jones (1986, p. 270). For instance, the positive relationship between individualized socialization tactics and attempted and factual role innovation uncovered by Ashforth & Saks (1996, p. 170). When considering institutionalized socialization tactics, the positive relationship was found with job satisfaction and organizational commitment and also negative ralationship was seen with role ambiguity, role conflict, and intentions to quit (Ashforth & Saks, 1996, p. 165; Saks & Ashforth, 1997a, p. 412). Additionally, Ashforth and Saks (1996, p. 169) revealed that individualized tactics were connected with superior self appraised performance. However, institutionalized tactics were associated with lower stress and higher organizational identification. Baker (1992; as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 38) also found that institutionalized tactics were positively related with working conditions, quality of supervision, autonomy union support (Malamut, 2002, p. 38).

Various researchers not only studied the relationship between socialization tactics and role orientation, but also they examined the relationship between organizational socialization and sensemaking. Successful socialization is contingent upon newcomer's ability of uncertainty reduction in terms of obtaining required information and socialization tactics which are crucial antecedent for information seeking period according to Mignerey et al. (1995; as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 38) 's study (Malamut, 2002, p. 38).

Baker (1995; as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 39) explored that institutionalized tactics were positively related to increased interaction with job incumbents and role certainty. In another study, the positive relationship was found between institutionalized tactics and frequency which boundary newcomers engaged in feedback seeking and observation by Saks & Ashforth (1997c, p. 54; Malamut, 2002, p. 39).

2.3.1. Context-Related Organizational Socialization Tactics

These first two tactics which consists of collective versus individual and formal versus informal diversify about the context of providing information to organizations. Collective and formal socialization tactics enable organizations to provide more structured and formal experiences to newcomers in term of using an orientation program in a group setting which separates newcomers from existing employees (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 246). Additionally, formal and collective socialization tactics are carried out by organizations so as to give a common massage to newcomers about the organization's values and ways of reacting to situations in the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 43; Miller, 2006, p. 19).

On the other hand, individual and informal socialization tactics propose informal and ad hoc learning practices and employees socialize individually. Individual socialization tactics force newcomers for altering their self-identities and including more variable career process (Miller, 2006, p. 19).

2.3.1.1. Collective versus Individual Socialization Tactics

Newcomers pass through common learning experiences which formed to create standardized responses to circumstances with collective socialization tactics. In addition, interactions between newcomers and experiences colleagues, potential mentors and supervisors are restricted (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 246). For establishing a cost-effective training system, organizations benefitted from collective socialization tactics (Miller, 2006, p. 19).

Contrary to collective socialization tactics, individual socialization tactics provide newcomers a unique set of learning experiences which induce distinct and differentiated responses. Therefore, employees can determine to change their ways of doing tasks and also missions. The specific outcomes that coveted by the socialization process agents are mostly produced through individual socialization tactics (Miller, 2006, p. 20).

2.3.1.2. Formal versus Informal Socialization Tactics

Formal socialization tactics defined as the processes in which new employees is seperated from experienced employees while passing through a set of experiences especially for newcomers. The newcomer's particular role is generated by formal processes from the organization's point of view (Wheeler, 1966; as cited in Miller, 2006, p. 21).

Formal socialization tactics are founded where the nature of work and the values compassing the work to be performed in the target role are seen to comprise high levels of risk for newcomers, organizations and clients of organizations (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 251). Formal socialization tactics endeavor to minimize risks in terms of providing new recruits with standard training practices which underline appropriate and acknowledged ways for achieve tasks in the organization (Miller, 2006, p. 22).

When comparing formal and informal socialization tactics, we'll see that informal tactics don't seperate and examine the newcomer's role particularly. Moreover, informal tactics don't aim to distinguish the newcomers from more

experienced colleagues. Informal socialization processes tend to regard the newcomers as a part of work group and training activities occurs on the job (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 252; Miller, 2006, p. 22).

Informal socialization tactics generate the potential of creating extreme reactions both in custodial or innovative ways than formal socialization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 257). With the mixture of individual and informal socialization tactics, employees have a great latitude for expressing differentiated and innovative responses (Miller, 2006, p. 22).

2.3.2. Content- Related Organizational Socialization Tactics

The next category of Jones (1986, p.264)'s taxonomy of socialization tactics are content-related socialization tactics which consist of sequential versus random and fixed versus variable socialization tactics. Content-related tactics handle with the content of socialization which given to new employees through organizational socialization. Socialization content refers to "what is learned during socialization" (Chao et al., 1994, p. 730; Miller, 2006, p. 23) or "what is being imparted to the newcomer by the organization through job rotation" (Louis, 1980, p. 229; Miller, 2006, p. 23). Sequential and fixed socialization tactics involve a specific order of assignments or positions which newcomers move through according to a timetable. Conversely, random and variable tactics don't include any set pattern of positions or schedules for newcomers to being socialized (Miller, 2006, p. 23).

2.3.2.1. Sequential versus Random Socialization Tactics

Sequential socialization expresses the degree to which the organization delineates a given sequence of distinct and identifiable stages which leads to a targeted role (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 259; Miller, 2006, p. 23). Additionally, sequential socialization tactics give explicit information to newcomers about the stages of activities and experiences which they will face during their tenure in the organization. In contrast, random socialization takes place when the steps leading to a targeted role is unknown, ambiguous and constantly altering (Miller, 2006, p. 24).

2.3.2.2. Fixed versus Variable Socialization Tactics

Fixed socialization tactics enable the newcomer to have a exact knowledge of time which will take so as to accomplish a given passage (Roth, 1963; as cited in Miller, 2006, p. 25). In spite of the fact that organizations may specify diverse career paths which have distinct timetables, majority of these paths are fixed while considering the degree to which the newcomer should comply with the determined period of time connected with a specific career (Miller, 2006, p. 25).

Looking at the variable socialization tactics, we can't see any or little information in order to achieve a certain stage in a learning process of the newcomer. Therefore, the newcomer has little control over the socialization process. In addition, the socialization agents are deciding about the newcomer's readiness to progress (Miller, 2006, p. 25).

2.3.3. Social-Related Organizational Socialization Tactics

The last category of Jones (1986, p. 264)'s taxonomy of socialization tactics are social-related organizational socialization tactics which involve serial versus disjunctive and investiture versus divestiture socialization tactics. Social-related tactics demonstrate the social or interpersonal sides of the organization socialization. In spite of the fact that serial socialization tactics occur when the newcomer socializes with the help of a mentor or an experienced colleague for serving as a role model, disjunctive socialization tactics take place without using a mentor or a more experienced job incumbent for newcomers (Miller, 2006, p. 26). Divestiture versus investiture socialization tactics are interested in the degree to which the organizational socialization stages are constituted to either approve or refuse the entering identity of the newcomer (Miller, 2006, p. 27).

2.3.3.1. Serial versus Disjunctive Socialization Tactics

Serial socialization tactics include experienced employees of the organization to serve as mentors or role models for newcomers who are on the verge of undertaking a similar role in the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 267). The effect of role

model's or mentor's values, beliefs and attitudes on the improvement of the newcomer, is a drawback of serial socialization tactics. Moreover, if the role model or mentor is quite motivated and a role innovator themselves, the newcomer is probably to improve the same orientation (Miller, 2006, p. 27).

In comparison with the serial tactics, disjunctive tactics don't require a role model or a mentor for helping to adjust to the new role of the newcomer (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 277). Since there isn't any experienced member who is made suitable for adjustment to new role, newcomers must create their own descriptions of circumstances in disjunctive socialization tactics. Thus, disjunctive socialization tactics yield more active, innovative role orientations (Jones, 1986, p. 265). For instance, entrepreneurs and people who work for newly formed roles in the organization, pass through a distunctive process of socialization as there are few mentors and role models (Miller, 2006, p. 27).

2.3.3.2. Investiture versus Divestiture Socialization Tactics

Investiture socialization tactics ratify the personal characteristics and arriving identity of the newcomer (Ashforth & Saks, 1996, p. 150). Investiture processes approve and document the viability and effectiveness of the personal characteristics of the newcomer provides to the organization (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 273). Furthermore, investiture socialization tactics pertain to acknowledge the newcomers as they are. Therefore, an organization doesn't endeavor to change the newcomer while applying investiture socialization strategies. An organization which implements investiture socialization tactics tends to utilize and develop the skills and values of a newcomer. Additionally, investiture socialization processes are in favor of adapting a new role as smooth as possible (Miller, 2006, p. 28).

In contrast, divestiture socialization processes look for disallowing and striping away precise personal characteristics of the newcomer (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 275). Looking at the divestiture socialization tactics, Van Maanen & Schein (1979, p. 275) contended that divestiture tactics conclude with custodial responses because organizations frankly intend such tactics to shape newcomers into forms which

organizations desire. By contrast, Jones (1986, p. 265) argued by proposing that divestiture tactics may enable employees to examine situations offered by others and foster innovative orientations (Miller, 2006, p. 28).

2.4. Socialization Content

Organizational socialization's second research area concerns with the content of socialization. Cooper-Thomas & Anderson (2006, p. 502) emphasized that "As the OS literature has come of age, learning has been acknowledged as the crux of OS". The researchers who study about the content of socialization argue that the conceptualization of socialization has been limited. Therefore, the question of what is actually being learned during socialization must be answered to define and measure the extent of socialization properly. (Chao et al, 1994, p. 731; Feldman, 1981, p. 309; Klein & Weaver, 2000, p. 49; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 42). In addition; socialization learning and content studies have focused concurrently on three essential subjects: identification of the content domain or dimensions of learning, the socialization process and interventions which affect learning and the relationship between learning and socialization outcomes (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 248).

Researchers used various criterias which regarded as outcomes such as tenure for a measure of the degree of organizational socialization success (Fisher, 1986; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 42). Employees with longer tenure were supposed to have a more successful socialization level (Chao et al., 1994, p. 739; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 42). Chao et al. (1994, p. 731) combined three classic sources which involve Schein (1971, p. 415)'s, Feldman (1981, p. 310)'s and Fisher (1986; as cited in Chao et al., 1994, p. 731)'s studies for defining and measuring the content dimensions of socialization in order to address the conceptualization gap in the literature. Currently, Chao et al. (1994, p. 731)'s Socialization Content Model is the most established and empirically supported framework of organizational socialization (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 42; Klein et al., 2006, p. 103; Mitus, 2006, p. 15; Klein & Weaver, 2000, p. 55; Allen et al., 1999, p. 460). Various researchers have urged the use of Chao et al. (1994)'s model (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006, p. 508) and some researchers have affirmed the scale (Allen et al., 1999, p. 460; Klein & Weaver, 2000, p. 55; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43).

With the help of Feldman (1976, p. 12)'s and Van Maanen & Schein (1979, p. 245)'s study, Fisher (1986; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43) suggested that the process of socialization is explained by four content areas: organizational values, goals and culture; work group values, norms and relationships; job tasks, needed skills and knowledge; and personal change relating to identify self-images and motives (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43).

Chao et al. (1994, p. 731) extended Fisher (1986; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43)'s study by enlarging the content domains and by proposing a scale for measurement. Chao et al.(1994, p. 731)'s study involves six content dimensions: performance profiency, which is the degree to which a new employee learns the tasks, skills and abilities required for the job; people, refers to an understanding of who the key players are in the organization that can help the newcomer adjust to the organization and the job; politics, is concerned with obtaining knowledge about formal and informal networks as well as an understanding of the power structures within the organization; language, includes the individual's understanding of the profession's technical language as well as the jargon, slogans and acronyms particular to that organization; organizational goals and values focus on the individual's knowledge about the formal and informal goals and values of the organization; and, history, which is concerned with the individual understanding the organizations traditions, myths, customs and rituals that foster a particular work culture (Chao et al., 1994, p. 731; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 43).

Chao et al. (1994, p. 730) carried out three phases of study to evaluate the particular content dimensions of learning which alters according to organizational tenure, switching jobs and organizations and the relationship between the dimensions and the outcomes. Chao et al. embarked on their study with developing and testing a measure of the content dimensions. These six dimensions were indicated by a factor analysis: (1) performance profiency, (2) people, (3) politics, (4) language, (5) organizational goals and values and (6) history (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 249).

Secondly, Chao et al. (1994, p. 733) explored the effects of socialization process on learning in terms of comparing job incumbents with job changers and

organization changers. Chao et al.(1994, p. 736) found crucial differences on five of six content dimensions. Looking at their study's phase 2, job incumbents had the highest level of socialization on five of six content dimensions. Moreover, according to their level of socialization, job changers held the second order after job incumbents and organization changers held the last position (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 249).

Organizational goals and values dimension affects turnover and career affectiveness according to Chao et al. (1994, p.740)'s study. The findings of Chatman (1989, p. 335)'s study which person-organization fit is higher if there is a congruence between individual's and organization's goals and values, strengthened by the results of Chao et al. (1994, p. 740)'s study. In addition, Schein (1971, p. 412)'s study alleged that socialization takes place at all stages of an individual's career. Nevertheless, Chao et al. (1994, p. 739) explored that socialization occurs during all career of an employee but socialization is most crucial during intense socialization stages which shapes the newcomer's experience. Moreover, Chao et al. (1994, p. 736)'s findings demonstrated that emloyees who change jobs or organizations passed through significant changes across all six dimensions expressing the need of "learning the ropes" of the new organization. Chao et al. (1994, p. 736)'s six dimensions of content of socialization have validated by these results (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 44).

Chao et al. (1994, p. 739) found that organizational values are learnt by newcomers in the first year of working. These result coincides with Ashforth & Saks (1996, p. 165) who contended that socialization prevails for the first ten months. Chao et al. (1994, p. 739)'s findings didn't seperate a distinction about the effect of socialization on newcomers at four and ten months (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 44). Conversely, studies of Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004, p. 59) and Klein & Weaver (2000, p. 63) demonstrated that first 3-4 months of working experience at an organization are pivotal for long term success (Watchfogel,2009, p. 45).

After Chao et al.'s conceptualization of the Socialization Content Model, various researchers used the model for measuring organizational socialization. For instance, Allen et al. (1999, p. 460) benefited from the model to assess the effect of peer mentoring for first year MBA's. Klein & Weaver (2000, p. 55) studied an

organizational level new employee orientation program. Wesson & Gogus (2005; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 45) focused on the effect of computer-based and social-based orientation programs. Additionally, Taormina (2004, p. 92) explored the convergent validity between his content model and Chao et al.(1994, p. 733). Taormina (2004, p. 92) expressed that "the model could be used in research that focuses on employee understanding of specific aspects of their organizations" (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 45).

2.5. Group Socialization

Moreland & Levine (1982; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 250) suggested a model of group socialization that defines the passage of individuals through groups. According to Moreland & Levine (1982; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 250)'s model, the relationship between the group and individuals is presumed to alter in systematic ways over time. Both individuals and the group are regarded as active social influence agents (Levine & Moreland, 1994, p. 305). Wanous et al.(1984, p. 671) propounded suggestions to integrate the organizational socialization and group development in terms of the temporal and conceptual similarities of these processes. Major et al. (1995; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 250) put down that socialization is a process which takes place mutually within the context of groups. Anderson & Thomas (1996, p. 434) affirmed that the proximal work group is the main point for the transmission of an organization's culture. Moreover, Anderson & Thomas (1996, p. 426) argued that the socialization of new members into groups is crucial for group functioning and performance (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 250).

Many findings of organizational socialization research vicariously signify support for the importance of work group socialization and proximal work group's impact on the socialization of newcomers (Anderson & Thomas, 1996, p. 440). Despite having strong support from researches, the study of group socialization in organizational socialization literature was ignored. Anderson & Thomas (1996, p. 423) observed that researchers were mainly interested in individual and organizational level of analysis (Saks &Ashforth, 1997b, p. 250).

Most researches on group socialization were influenced by Moreland & Levine (1982; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 250)'s model which assumed three psychological processes emphasising group socialization: (1) individuals and groups deal with ongoging assessments of their relationships, (2) according to these assessments, they improve feelings of commitment toward one another that rise and fall relative to established decision criteria and (3) when a decision criteria is reached, a role change occur in which the individual embark on a new stage of group membership and the relationship is transformed (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 250). The processes of assessment, commitment and role transition perseverate itself (Moreland & Levine, 1994, p. 309; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 251).

Looking at the process of group socialization, we see that the process involves five phases of group membership – investigation, socialization, maintenance, resocialization and remembrance- in which sequential stages are distinguished by certain role transitions – entry, acceptance, divergence and exit (Moreland & Levine, 1994, p. 309). After the investigation phase and the entry transition, the group endeavors to alter the individual so as to conduce to the group's aims and the individual tries to shift the group in an effort to fullfil his personal needs. Finishing this phase successfully, the individual passes through assimilation and the group experiences accommodation. If levels of commitment reach the acceptance criteria, an individual goes through the role transition of acceptance and turns into a full member of the group. Individuals and groups discuss their roles (maintenance), endeavor to renovate commitment if it decreases and active membership isn't assured (resocialization) and leave the group if commitment maintains to lower and group membership finishes (remembrance) on the upcoming stages (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 251).

Conversely, Anderson & Thomas (1996, p. 439) contended that Moreland and Levine's model depends on socialization into social groups. Since Moreland and Levine's model doesn't deliberate the characteristics of the individual, group and organization which can influence the socialization process and outcomes, the practicability of the model for work groups is restricted. They created a three-stage process model of work group socialization in which individual and work group deal

with mutual effect. The model includes the phases of anticipation, encounter and adjustment. Moreover, it looks like earlier stage models of organizational socialization. In contradiction with earlier stage models, Anderson & Thomas (1996, p. 441) proposed that their model concentrates upon work group socialization in terms of emphasising bidirectional nature of the process while involving outcomes for the individual and work group (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 251).

2.6. Means of Socialization

In this part, orientation training program, self-socialization, technology deployment and mentoring process will be emphasized as tools and methods for facilitating organizational socialization process.

2.6.1. Orientation Training Program

Organizations commonly derived benefit form employee orientation training programs so as to facilitate employees about learning of the organizational environment and the responsibilities of their new roles. A kind of newcomer orientation training was utilized by roughly % 64 - % 93 of organizations (Wesson & Gogus, 2005; as cited in Bodoh, 20012, p. 40). Orientation programs are interim and mostly concern about the first days of employment (Bodoh, 20012, p. 40).

According to Klein & Weaver (2000, p. 48) orientation programs are regarded as a socialization tactic by organizations. In the light of a general agreement, newcomer orientation is assumed as a type of training program which executed to ease the process of organizational socialization. Organizational leader who intend to invest in and constantly develop orientation programs, are probably experience lower turnover and increased productivity (Wesson & Gogus, 2005; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 40).

Orientation programs which fall short to involve opportunities and debates for employees so as to learn the cultural norms, expectations and strategic plans, are less likely generate a culture with employees correspond to strategic organizational goals (Sims, 2011; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 41). Additionally, newcomer orientation programs which are not comply with organizations strategically, cause a decline in

organizational performance (Dunn & Jasinski, 2009, p. 115). Furthermore, orientation programs are positively related with job satisfaction and employee socialization (Akdere & Schmidt, 2007; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 41).

Various researchers have utilized formal training to scrutinize the effect of institutionalized and individualized tactics on sense – making through the organizational socialization process. As a reason of using formal training for the socialization of the newcomers, Reichers (1987, p. 286) suggested that formal training and orientation programs raise social interaction and consequently the obtaining of pertinent role behavior, work skills and abilities, adjustment to work group and values, and finally the sense-making of organizational norms, practices and procedures (Malamut, 2002, p. 40). Saks (1996; as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 41) supported this rationale in terms of founding that a newcomer's insight of amount of training he or she received was positively related to ratings of training helpfulness and work outcomes. Saks (1996, as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 41) expressed that training influences work outcomes by decreasing the anxiety related with role ambiguity. In addition, Klein & Weaver (2000, p. 47) provided support for this rationale with the result that employees received an orientation training program were markedly more socialized in terms of their relationships with colleagues and had a greater knowledge of the organization's goals, values and history than employees didn't attend the training (Malamut, 2002, p. 41).

2.6.2. Self-Socialization

The aim of Gruman et al. (2006, p. 90)'s study was to assess the interaction and outcomes of organizational and individual socialization according to interactionist perspective (Bodoh, 2012, p. 41). Gruman et al. (2006, p. 93) suggested that tactics utilized by the organizations and individual's self-efficacy result in the extent he or she will comply with proactivity. Furthermore, Gruman et al. (2006, p. 90) found that socialization tactics and self-efficacy were primary predictors of feedback seeking proactive behavior (Bodoh, 2012, p. 42).

Researchers claimed that if interactionist perspective of socialization is perceived by employees, the organizations probably have more satisfied employees

(Griffin et al., 2000, p.454; Gruman et al., 2006, p. 93). The purpose of interactionist perspective is looking for combining self (individualized) and organizational (institutionalized) socialization in order to affect socialization outcomes appropriately (Bodoh, 2012, p. 42)

The newcomer pursues information, engage in relationship building, behavioral self- management, positive framing and endeavors to decrease the knowledge gap in terms of taking action for integrating and socializing after self – socialization takes place (Gruman et al., 2006, p. 90). In addition, a newcomer heuristically benefit from his own initiative to self-socialize during transitioning into a new organization and job role. Moreover, the self-directed propensity of a newcomer for pursuing information through socialization has been approved by researchers that newcomers facilitate to brace the socialization process (Saks et al., 2011, p. 36). Most repeatedly researched behaviors of proactive socialization have been involved information seeking, feedback seeking, boss – relationship building, general socializing, job change negotiation and relationship building (Saks et al., 2011, p. 37; Bodoh, 2012, p. 42). Information seeking is regarded as the most studied behavior of proactive socialization (Saks et al., 2011, p. 37; Bodoh, 2012, p. 43).

The proactive behaviors are descriptive of the newcomer's eagerness to have their socialization experiences and ease the process of socialization. Innovative employees who are unfavorable of the status quo, likely consequences of individualized tactics (Griffin et al., 2000, p. 462). In spite of the fact that each of socialization tactics gives information through various ways, some tactics will likely have a stronger relationship with newcomer adjustment than others (Bodoh, 2012, p. 43).

Ashforth et al. (2007, p. 447) found that a newcomer's proactive behavior for self – socializing and majority of the institutionalized tactics are positively related to newcomer learning. Additionally, proactive behaviors and socialization tactics were significantly related to socialization outcomes (Ashforth et al., 2007, p. 447). Furthermore, the findings of Ashforth et al.'s study demonstrated that socialization content had a more powerful relationship with proactive behaviors than socialization tactics. Ashforth et al. (2007, p. 456)'s emprical study supported the idea of why

socialization content may be regarded as an antecedent of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. Ashforth et al. (2007, p. 451) claimed that few practical applications of socialization theory have evaluated how proactive behaviors and socialization tactics reciprocally influence newcomer learning, socialization content and newcomer adaptation after onboarding the organization (Bodoh, 2012, p. 43).

2.6.3. Technology Deployment

The transfer of knowledge utilizing information technology and communications has become a crucial aspect of combining employees among various views to facilitate the socialization process. The current economic growth across industries is fostered by innovation during a time called as "information age" (Rothwell, 2011, p. 119; Bodoh, 2012, p. 44).

The exchange of information inadvisably will urge newcomers for learning organizational processes and business rules. The use of technology for facilitating onboarding and socialization of newcomers raises compliance with regulations, internal policies and employee retention (Brodie, 2006; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 44). Newcomers exploit organizational portal pages, intranet sites and electronic databases during seeking information at initial organizational entry with an increasing utility (Brodie, 2006; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 45).

Prior to entering an organization, the usage of internet sites and organizational portal pages which are proposed myopic methods, give critical information to a newcomer. In addition, automating human resource forms and procedures and in-processing paperwork is a cogent approach for decreasing the ramp-up time and diminishing introduction (Snell, 2006, p. 35; Bodoh, 2012, p. 45).

2.6.4. Mentoring Process

Mentorship can be a precious resource for organizational newcomers (Bodoh, 2012, p. 45). Continuous learning is a perpetual area of interest in the organizational setting as organizational membership becomes more varied, a paradigm change in the employee contracts takes place and the emergence of technological innovations

(Reynolds & Brannick, 2009, p. 233). The aspect of continuous learning may encompass one-on-one interactions for personal improvement using a mentor. A mentor is defined as somebody who has an expert knowledge with experiences and committed to help a protege (Reynolds & Brannick, 2009, p. 233). There is a switch of various benefits between the mentor and mentee while the role of mentor includes psychological and career support in a mentor-mentee relationship. The integration and socialization of the newcomer are intentionally eased by the mentor. Considering the mentorship research, we see that newcomers who were assigned a mentor knew more about practices and issues in the organization (Reynolds & Brannick, 2009, p. 236; Bodoh, 2012, p. 46).

The process of mentorship is acknowledged as an antecedent of affective and continuance organizational commitment (Morrow, 2011, p. 27; Richard et al., 2009, p. 1111). Mentors can mainly provide particular information to the newcomer in a systematic way so as to assist with uncertainty reduction during transitioning into a new organization. Comparing supervisory mentors and non-supervisory mentors, we understand that supervisory mentors have a greater effect for promoting organizational commitment (Morrow, 2011, p. 27). In addition, positive outcomes which consist of socialization, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and career development are consequences of mentored employees (Bodoh, 2012, p. 46).

2.7. Organizational Socialization Process

Probable recruits can adjust to new organization through the process of socialization (Klein & Weaver, 2000, p. 50; Chao et al., 1994, p. 732; Bodoh, 2012, p. 29). The nature of the relationship between socialization processes, newcomer information acquisition, strategies and tactics, proactive behavior and adaptation outcomes was examined by Saks & Ashforth (1997b, p. 234) and Ashforth et al. (2007, p. 447). In spite of the fact that Chao et al. (1994, p. 730) proposed what a newcomer learns to become a successful member of organization holds significance, Ashforth et al. (2007, p. 447) claimed that how a newcomer is socialized demonstrates a much greater value proportion than what the newcomer learns. Newcomers may pass through a series of stages prior to becoming fully integrated organizational members.

Furthermore, socialization theory asserted that socialization takes place at all stages of an individual's career (Schein, 1971, p. 442). Jones (1986, p. 262) constituted a stage model which includes three distinct phases of entry, encounter and the appreciative (Bodoh, 2012, p. 30).

The entry phase is defined as the point where the newcomer is faced with unknown and endeavors to make sense of the ambiguous organizational context. The newcomer's behavior is dependent on the level of information provided by the organization. The newcomer will try to decrease the knowledge gap between self and other perceptions in terms of cognitively mapping and interpreting the organizational rules and procedures during entry phase (Jones, 1986, p. 262). Theoretically, the organization will utilize socialization tactics as a means for decreasing knowledge gap which wil affect the newcomer's beliefs and attitudes (Jones, 1986, p. 262). Considering proactive behaviors in newcomer adaptation, newcomers will discern events based on their own individual and others' perceptions and may interpret events discretely from how the organization has purposed (Kammeyer – Mueller et al., 2011, p. 1; Bodoh, 2012, p. 30).

After surpassing the element of surprise within the entry phase, the newcomer will advance to the encounter phase which is depend on feedbacks the newcomers obtains from the entry phase. A newcomer should be able to realise the opportunities and restraints in the context of organization through the encounter phase (Jones, 1986, p. 263). In addition, the perceptual gap between the newcomer and colleagues begins to decrease which may emphasize that the newcomer's anticipation of the organization are more aligned with what the organization is offering in reality during the encounter phase. The appreciative phase is prejudged as outcomes of the previous phases which involves the entry and the encounter phase (Jones, 1986, p. 263). Van Maanen & Schein (1979, p. 238) presumed that the assimilation of the newcomer into the organization or innovative behaviors are sparked off by three components: (Bodoh, 2012, p. 31).

1. The nature in which the organization utilizes socialization tactics to portray the organizational context to newcomers (Bodoh, 2012, p. 31).

2. The manner in which the initial orientation influences the newcomer's assuring attitude toward the organization (Bodoh, 2012, p. 31).

3. The ability of organization's employees for regulating the relationship between self and other perceptions (Bodoh, 2012, p. 31).

Newcomers will learn the coveted organizational attitudes and behaviors and finally adjust to their new surroundings through this discourse (Fisher, 1986; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 31).

2.8. Theories of Organizational Socialization

The socialization research has been stimulated by three theoretical perpectives which involves uncertainty reduction theory, social cognitive theory and cognitive and sense making theory.

2.8.1. Uncertainty Reduction Theory

Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) postulates that individuals will persue information during job transitions when they go through uncertainty in the organization as a means for decreasing the uncertainty response (Miller & Jablin, 1991, p. 93; Bodoh, 2012, p. 38). In an attempt to reduce uncertainty, individuals interested in information-seeking behaviors so as to learn the formal and informal rights, duties and privileges based on their new roles (Berger & Calabrese, 1975; as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 30). When the organizational leader doesn't provide or retains particular information, the outcome of the newcomer's behavior is negatively influenced (Bodoh, 2012, p. 6).

Following URT, newcomers pass through high levels of uncertainty during the organization entry process. Newcomers endeavor to decrease their uncertainty in order to have a more foreseeable, comprehensible and finally controllable work environment. Uncertainty is lowered by providing information in terms of several communication channels, obviously social interactions with superiors and peers. After having a reduced uncertainty, newcomers become more adept at performing tasks, satisfied with job and

more likely to maintain to work in their organization (Morrison, 1993, p. 564; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 236).

Socialization programs affect newcomers' adaptation with decreasing their high levels of uncertainty and anxiety (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 236). Considering the socialization tactics, training and information seeking, uncertainty reduction theory has been the tacit basis for research on these areas. According to Mignerey et al (1995; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237)'s study, socialization tactics affect the availability and obtaining of information and the feedback which newcomers necessitate for lowering their high levels of uncertainty. Saks (1996; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237) revealed that the amount and helpfulness of entry training were connected with lower anxiety, and anxiety mediated the relations between entry training and work outcomes. In addition, Miller & Jablin (1991, p. 102)'s model of newcomer information seeking has its basis in newcomers' endeavors for decreasing uncertainty (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237).

2.8.2. Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's (1986, 1997; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237) social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory were another theoritical basises for organizational socialization research. Human behavior and psychological functioning can be clarified in terms of triadic reciprocal causation in which behavior, cognitive and personal factors and environmental events interact and affect each other birectionally according to Bandura (1986, 1997; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237)'s social cognitive theory. Three aspects of SCT which involves vicarious learning and modeling systems, goal systems and self-regulatory mechanisms of self-efficacy, have been acknowledged as especially pertinent for organizational functioning (Wood & Bandura, 1989a, p. 362; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237).

Self- efficacy has been described as "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Wood & Bandura, 1989b, p. 408). Self- efficacy theory defines four sources of information which affect self-efficacy perceptions (enactive mastery

experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and psychological and affective states) and the impacts it has on individual behavior and psychological well-being (Bandura, 1986, 1997; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237).

Moreover, self-efficacy theory has been utilized for combining the socialization and training literatures (Saks, 1995; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237). Ostroff & Kozlowski (1992; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237) clarified their findings as correspond to social cognitive theory. Ostroff & Kozlowski (1992; as cited in Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237) found that newcomer obtained information from role models such as supervisors and co-workers through observation and experimentation accomplished a sense of mastery of their task and role. Saks & Ashforth (1996, p.301)'s research on behavioral self-management concentrated upon the self-regulatory component of social cognitive theory (Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 237).

2.8.3. Cognitive Sense Making Theory

Congitive sense making theory of Louis (1980, p. 226) is the most widely studied model of information – acquisition and learning during socialization. Louis (1980, p. 235) asserted that while newcomers made objective changes inside the organizational boundaries, they subjectively discern contrasts among new and old settings. These contrasts are regarded as demonstrations of the cognitive processing of surprises which faced during boundary transition. Furthermore, surprises express distinctions between an individual's anticipations and following experiences in the new setting as well as the individual's affective responses to these changes. Contrasts which based on surprises have significant importance in the ability of an individual's definition of a new situation (Malamut, 2002, p. 32).

Considering various forms of surprises which include both pleasant and unpleasant ones, we see that they frequently originate during a newcomer's encounter with a boundary transition and necessitate adaptation. The first form of surprise arises when conscious job expectations are undermet or overmet. The second form takes place as both conscious and unconscious expectations about oneself are unmet (Malamaut,

2002, p. 32). In addition, the third form of surprise occurs when a newcomer unconsciously fails to expect the significance of particular features of the job. Moreover, the fourth form of surprise arises out of a failure to anticipate internal affective responses to a certain new experience. The fifth form of surprise occurs when a newcomer unsuitably uses the cultural assumptions of a former work setting in order to guide behaviors in the new setting (Malamut, 2002, p. 33).

Individuals deal with surprises through sense-making processes according to Louis (1980, p. 234). Sense- making is a process which utilized by newcomers so as to describe and interpret surprises experienced in the work environment. Sense-making is accomplished through interactions with insiders, attributional processes and the change of cognitive scripts (Louis, 1980, p. 245; Saks & Ashforth, 1997b, p. 238; Reichers, 1987, p. 278). The attainment of information which is necessary to frame definitions of organizational reality is directly affected by sense-making process (Malamut, 2002, p. 33).

The empirical studies of sense-making during socialization have mostly concentrated on the information seeking behaviors enacted by newcomers while they adjust to new and ambigious organizational situations. Ashforth (1986, p. 474) revealed that job tenure was negatively related to the monitoring of work environment, inquiries about the work environment and the value placed on feedback by employees. Additionally, feedback seeking was negatively correlated to the uncertainty which employees encountered regarding appropriate behaviors and prospective evaluations (Malamut, 2002, p. 34).

In spite of the fact that Ashford & Cummings (1985; as cited in Malamut, 2002, p. 34) found a negative relationship between job tenure and feedback seeking, there was a positive correlation between feedback seeking and role clarity according to their study. Moreover, Morrison (1993, p. 581) revealed that newcomers acquired technical information through inquiry. However, Morrison (1993, p. 581) found that other types of information (referent, normative, performance feedback and social feedback) were attained by monitoring. In addition, newcomers were found to use distinct sources of information for different types of information. Newcomers sought to

acquire referent, performance and technical information from supervisors. In contrast, newcomers obtain normative and social information from peers (Malamut, 2002, p. 34)

2.9. Person - Environment Fit and Organizational Socialization

A couple of studies have examined newcomer values during organizational socialization (Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2006, p. 493). Chatman (1991, p. 459) studied entry-level auditors and revealed that P-E fit is generated by socialization tactics. Researchers particularly examined the congruence of their values and the organization's values. The results indicated that P-E fit is affected by a greater or lesser degree depending on the intensity of the socialization experience. Moreover, they found that employees who demonstrate a congruence of values with the organization are more satisfied and willing to work longer in the organization (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 45).

Cooper – Thomas et al. (2004, p. 52) studied the effect of socialization tactics on changes in perceived and actual fit perceptions of newcomers (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 45). Their findings demonstrated that socialization tactics impact perceived fit, job satisfaction and organizational commitment but not actual fit. Cooper – Thomas et al. (2004, p. 63)'s this result is coincide with Cable & Parsons (2001, p. 19) who found that "perceived congruence is more predictive of decisions than actual congruence" (Cable & Judge, 1997, p. 558; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 46).

Cable & Parsons (2001, p. 12) ascertained that perceived person – organization (P-O) fit is connected with Jones (1986, p. 263)'s content and social dimensions of socialization tactics and not with the context dimension. Cable & Parsons (2001, p. 14)'s study demonstrated that newcomers who encountered collective and formal socialization tactics didn't report greater fit perceptions than newcomer who experienced individualized and informal socialization tactics (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 46).

Saks et al. (2007, p. 417) executed a meta-analysis of six socialization tactics, several indicators of newcomer adjustment, the moderating effects of study design (i.e. cross sectional vs. longitudinal), measurement scale (i.e. complete or modified scales) and type of newcomer (i.e. recent garduates vs. other newcomers). The findings indicated that institutionalized socialization tactics foretell proximal demonstraters of

newcomer fit perceptions among others, which in turn predict distal indicators of organizational commitment among others (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 46). Moreover, they revealed that the type of newcomer explained a substantial portion of residual variance. The relationship between tactics and outcomes were the strongest for new graduates among intentions to quit and social, content and serial tactics which may have been due to greater vulnerability of this group through organizational entry and raised sensitivity, or lack of former exposure (Saks et., 2007, p. 413). Comparing longitudinal studies and cross sectional designs, Saks et al. found that cross sectional studies indicated stronger relationships between tactics and outcomes during first six months of newcomer's organizational entry. This results support for researches assert that less tenured newcomers are more receptive to institutionalized socialization tactics (Saks et al., 2007, p. 439; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 47).

3. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

3.1. History and Definitions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The notion of organizational citizenship behavior is a social psychological construct. The first presentation of OCB (Organizational Citizenship Behavior) was in the study of Bateman & Organ (1983, p. 588) and explained in depth in the book of Organ (1988; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 18) named Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Good Soldier Syndrome (Burton, 2003, p. 18).

In spite of the fact that "organizational" is a part of the notion, OCB is an individual level construct (Burton, 2003, p. 18). The basis of OCBs had been decribed in studies from the field of organization science. Chester Barnard and Daniel Katz are two researchers who noticed the potential of pro-organization behaviors. Barnard defined cooperation as a crucial indicative of organizational success in the book of The Functions of the Executive (1938; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 21). According to Barnard, having employees who are willing to contribute to their workplace is essential for the survival of the organization, as the contribution is "something different from effectiveness, ability, or value of personal contributions" (Barnard, 1938, p. 84). Cooperation can differ from person to person and provides support for the formal authority system. In addition, cooperation is intermittent and fluctuating withing each person (Organ, 1988; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 21).

Daniel Katz made a similar definition about the resulting benefit of participating employees in "The Motivational Basis of Organizational Behavior" (Katz, 1964, p. 132). Katz's study had three essentials which involved "people must be induced to enter and remain with the system", "they must carry out their role assignments in a dependable fashion" and "there must be innovative and spontaneous activity in achieving organizational activities which go beyond the role specifications" (Katz, 1964, p. 132; Burton, 2003, p. 22).

Organizational citizenship behaviors are discretionary behaviors often used in psychological and social context so as to support performance measurement and recruiting which collectively foster the effective functioning of the organization

(Skinner et al., 2009, p. 230; Bodoh, 2012, p. 50). In 1983, Dennis Organ and colleagues first coined the term of "Organizational Citizenship Behavior" (Bateman & Organ, 1983, p. 588; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 513).

Drawing on Chester Barnard (1938; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 32)'s concept of "willingness to cooperate" and Daniel Katz (1964; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 32)'s distinction between dependable role performance and "innovative and spontaneous behaviors", Organ (1988, p. 4) and his colleagues (Smith et al., 1983; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 32) defined OCB as;

> *"Individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate, promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable."*

Organizational citizenship behaviors are pro – social or extra – role behaviors carried out outside the scope of a job description or ordinary job - specific tasks (Morrison, 1994, p. 1543; Davis, 2006, p. 32). In addition, Organizational Citizenship Behavior defined as "the valuntary behavior of the employee affecting the competitiveness of the organization and its performance positively, by exceeding the expectations from the role that the undertaken" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 513). The primary argument of this approach is that the OCB is assumed to contribute to various areas such as organizational productivity, organizational performance, organizational commitment and motivation (Gürel, 2012, p. 2).

Two comprehensive dimensions of OCB known as altruism (helping particular individuals) and general compliance (usually doing what good employees should do) was defined by Smith et al. (1983; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 51). Organ (1988; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 51) extended the dimensions of altruism and general compliance in order to develop five taxonomies of OCB. Organ (1988; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 51) sustained altruism and general compliance (which was renamed conscientiousness) and added civic virtue (contributing responsibly to corporate

governance by staying), courtesy (maintaining others informed of matters which may influence them with regard to politics) and sportsmanship (not complaining about minor problems) to the OCB dimensions (Motowidlo, 2000, p. 119). Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 516) ‘s study of OCB suggested seven dimensions but as the nature of OCB maintained to be studied, studies rarely utilized all seven dimensions (Bodoh, 2012, p. 51).

Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 516) summed up their research with expressing seven dimensions: (a) helping behavior, (b) sportsmanship, (c) organizational loyalty, (d) organizational compliance, (e) individual initiative, (f) civic virtue and (g) self development. Helping behavior involves helping colleagues about work-related problems. Demonstrating sportsmanship includes not complaining when inconvenienced and showing a positive attitude in the face of adversity. Organizational loyalty consists of protecting the organization, supporting organizational efforts and advocating on behalf of the organization in public. Organizational compliance means sticking to norms, policies and procedures which formed by the organization. Individual initiative is labeled with conscientiousness and the inclination to engage in work-related behaviors at a level far surpassing the expected. Civic virtue is adopting responsibility and commitment as well as active organizational participation. Self development involves behaviors which performed by individuals independently in order to improve their knowledge, skills ans abilities (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517; Davis, 2006, p. 32).

Organ (1988; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 32) and Podsakoff et al. (1990; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 32) proposed five dimensions in their OCB studies: (a) altruism, (b) conscientiousness, (c) sportsmanship, (d) courtesy and (e) civic virtue (Davis, 2006, p. 32). Altruism consists of helpful behaviors directed at an other person without reciprocation. Conscientious behaviors transcend job requirements in various areas such as attandance, workload or the taking of breaks. Sportsmanship expresses readiness to acklowledge less-than-ideal situations without complianing and willingness to rise above the occasion. Courtesy is the inclination to consult with others and combine perspectives before taking action. Civic virtue is being well versed and up-to-date on issues which influence the organization (Davis, 2006, p. 33).

According to Organ (1988; as cited in Bodoh, 2012, p. 52)'s study, new employees are willing to engage in OCBs as they enter the organization with assuming a social exchange relationship where there is an unknown about the mutual obligations between the employee and the organization (Bodoh, 2012, p. 52).

In spite of the fact that the notion of OCBs didn't have a crucial effect on the field in the beginning, interest in it or connected topics such as extra-role behavior (Van Dyne et al., 1995; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 514), prosocial organizational behaviors (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986, p. 711; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986, p. 492), organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992, p. 311) and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 99) has raised significantly (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 514). In addition, interest in citizinship-like behaviors enlarged from the field of organizational behavior to a variety of different disciplines such as human resource management (Podsakoff et al., 1993; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 515), marketing (McKenzie et al., 1993;1998; Netemeyer et al., 1997; Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1994b; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 515), hospital and health administration (Organ,1990b; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 515), community psychology (Burroughs & Eby, 1998; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 515), industrial and labor law (Cappelli & Rogovsky, 1998, p. 633), strategic management (Kim & Mauborgne, 1993, p. 502), international management (Farh et al., 1997, p. 425; Kim & Mauborgne, 1996, p. 499), military psychology (Deluga, 1995; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 515), economics (Tomer, 1998; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 515) and leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1996, p. 259; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 515).

Van Dyne et al. (1995; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 20) described extra-role behaviors as behavior that benefits and/or is purposed to benefit the organization, is discretionary and goes beyond the current role expectations. Van Dyne et al. (1995; 1995; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 20) acknowledged the overlap between various OCB-like constructs and proposed to subsume OCB under extra-role behavior. While reviewing this research Organ (1997, p. 85) clarified that apparent resemblance between the extra-role and organizational citizenship behaviors' requirement to be "beyond the

job requirement" but Organ (1997, p. 85) disagreed with the proposition that extra-role behavior should be the universal label (Burton, 2003, p. 20).

Brief and Motowidlo (1986, p. 711) defined prosocial organizational behavior (POB) as a behavior that is;

> *"Performed by an individual directed toward an individual, group or organization with whom he or she interacts while carrying out his or her organizational role, and performed with the intention of promoting the welfare of the individual, group, organization"*

The primary distinctions between POBs and OCBs are that POBs can be functional or dysfunctional to the organization and can involve prescribed work tasks versus only those that are considered to be beyond one's responsibilities. For example, whistle blowing may provide a long-term benefit to the organization in terms of exposing harmful practices. Conversely, whistle blowing is distinct from OCBs because it disrupts the workplace (Burton, 2003, p. 19).

Having departed from his original position that OCBs are beyond the job and having excluded the notion that they can be defined as extra-role, Organ (1997, p. 85) turned to contextual performance as suggested by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 20). They portrayed contextual performance in contrast to task performance: stipulating that the focus of contextual performance is to promote the organization's social and psychological environment rather than its core business. Organ (1997, p. 90) acknowledged that the content of contextual performance is a better definition of how he regards OCB in the modern organization. However, Organ (1997, p. 90) still prefered the extra-role behaviors label because it implied a bland and a lifeless concept. With choosing to maintain the OCB label, he explained organizational citizenship behaviors as behaviors that "contribute to the maintenance and/or enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance" (Organ, 1997, p. 90). Moreover, the OCB label seems to be understood by practitioners and scholars because "citizenship" conveys the underlying purpose of this behavior (Burton, 2003, p. 21).

Various researchers (MacKenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994a; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 33) have scrutinized on OCB in terms of evaluating its relationship with work attitudes and organizational outcomes. Several studies have been carried on at the individual, work-group, management and organizational levels. Citizenship behaviors of individual employees ordinarily are stated in terms of behaviors which observed by work-group members and supervisors. Antecedents such as general satisfaction, organizational commitment and intention to quit are generally described with selfreport (Davis, 2006, p. 33).

Podsakoff et al.(1997; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 33)'s study scrutinized the effects of OCBs on the quantity and quality of work-group performance at a paper mill. Podsakoff et al.(1997; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 33) piled up self-reported data on alturism, conscientiousness, sportmanship, courtesy and civic virtue and then the data was combined to the group level. They revealed that a combination of OCBs justified for nearly 25% of the variance in quantity and 16% variance in performance quality. According to Podsakoff et al. (1997; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 33)'s study, helping behavior had crucial positive influences on both performance quantity and performance quality. Sportsmanship and helping behavior explained for roughly 25% of the variance in quantity of output (Davis, 2006, p. 33).

LePine and Erez (2002; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 34) studied an OCB meta-analysis which consisted of 133 studies. They focused on associations between individual aspects of OCB as well as relationhips with outcome variables. Their study revealed strong relationships between most of the OCB aspects. Additionally, they found that the aspects (altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy) were related to various variables such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, teamwork, leadership, justice, support and performance both individually and collectively (Davis, 2006, p. 34).

3.2. Types of Citizenship Behavior

Regardless of the increasing interest in citizenship-like behaviors, there is a lack of consensus about the dimensions of this area. Almost 30 potentially distinct

forms of citizenship behavior have been identified in terms of examining the OCB literature. Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 516) organized their study with seven OCB dimensions: (1) helping behavior, (2) sportsmanship, (3) organizational loyalty, (4) organizational compliance, (5) individual initiative, (6) civic virtue and (7) self development.

Helping behavior has been regarded as a significant form of citizenship behavior by almost everyone whohas studied OCB (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100; George & Brief, 1992, p. 316; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526; Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 601). Helping behavior includes voluntarily helping others with or hindering the emergence of work-related problems (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 516). The first part of this definition (helping others with work-related problems) involves Organ's altruism, peacemaking and cheerleading dimensions (Organ, 1988, 1990b; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517); Graham's interpersonal helping (Graham, 1989; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517); Williams and Anderson's OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 602) and helping others constructs from George and Brief (1992, p. 313) and George and Jones (1997; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517). The second part of the definition (hindering the emergence of work-related problems) includes Organ (1988,1990b; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517)'s dimension of courtesy which involves assisting others in terms of taking steps so as to prevent the occurrence of problems for coworkers. Empirical research (MacKenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994b; Podsakoff et al., 1997; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517) has usually ratified the fact that all of these various forms of helping behavior load on a single factor (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517).

Sportsmanship is a dimension of organizational citizenship behavior that has drawn less attention in the OCB literature. Organ (1990b, p. 96) defined sportsmanship as "a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining". According to Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 517), Organ (1990b, p. 96)'s definition appears narrower than the label of this dimension would refer. Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 517) argued that "good sports" are people who don't complain when they are inconvenienced by others. Additionally, "good sports" are people who

sustain a positive attitude when things don't beneficial for them, aren't offended when others don't follow their suggestions, are prone to sacrifice their interests for the benefit of work group and don't take the refusal of their suggestions personally. Empirical studies (Podsakoff et al., 1996, p. 275) which have involved this construct in the context of other forms of citizenship behavior has demonstrated it to be different from them and to have somewhat distinct antecedents (Podsakoff et al., 1996, p.275) and results Podsakoff et al., 1997; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994b; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517).

Table 4
Summary of Helping Behavior Dimension by Authors

Smith et al., 1983	Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)	Graham (1989); Moorman & Blakely (1995)
Altruism: capture(s) behavior that is directly and intentionally aimed at helping a specific person in face-to-face situations (e.g., orienting new people, assisting someone with a heavy workload) (pg. 657).	**Altruism:** voluntary actions that help another person with a work problem— instructing a new hire on how to use equipment, helping a coworker catch up with a backlog of work, fetching materials that a colleague and cannot procure on his own (pg. 96).	**Interpersonal Helping:** focuses on helping coworkers in their jobs when such help was needed (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130).
	Courtesy: subsumes all of those foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem—touching base with people before committing to actions that will affect them, providing advance notice to someone who needs to know to schedule work (pg. 96).	
	Peacemaking: actions that help to prevent, resolve or mitigate unconstructiveinterpersonal conflict (pg. 96).	
	Cheerleading: the words and gestures ofencouragement and reinforcement of coworkers' accomplishments and professional development (pg. 96).	

Reference: Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26(3),p.518-525

Table 5
Summary of Sportsmanship Dimension by Authors

Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)	**Sportsmanship:** a citizen-like posture of tolerating the inevitable inconveniences andimpositions of work without whining and grievances (pg. 96).	
Williams & Anderson (1991)	**OCB-I:** behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization (e.g., helps others who have been absent, takes a personal interest in other employees). . . Prior research has labeled the OCB-I dimension as altruism. . . (pg. 602).	
George & Brief (1992); George & Jones (1997)	**Helping coworkers:** includes all voluntary forms of assistance that orgnizational members provide each other to facilitate the accomplishment of tasks and attainment of goals. Helping coworkers includes behaviors ranging from helping a coworker with a heavy workload and sharing resources, to calling attention to errors and omissions and providing instruction in the use of new technology when one is not required to do so (George & Jones, pg. 154).	
Borman&Motowidlo (1993,1997)	**Helping and Cooperating With Others:** [Including] assisting /helping coworkers. . . assisting/ helping customers. . . [and] altruism (pg. 82).	**Helping and Cooperating With Others:** [Including] organizational courtesy and not complaining. . . (pg. 82).
Van Scotter& Motowidlo(1996)	**Interpersonal Facilitation:** consists of interpersonally oriented behaviors that contribute to organizational goal accomplishment (pg. 526).	

Reference: Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26(3),p.518-52

Table 6
Summary of Organizational Loyalty Dimension by Authors

Graham (1989); Moorman & Blakely (1995)	**Loyalty Boosterism:** the promotion of the organizational image to outsiders (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130).
Graham (1991)	**Organizational Loyalty:** identification with and allegiance to organizational leaders and the organization as a whole, transcending the parochial interests of individuals, work groups, and departments Representative behaviors include defending the organization against threats; contributing to its good reputation; and cooperating with others to serve the interests of the whole (pg. 255).

Reference: Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26(3), p. 518-525

Table 7
Summary of Individual Initiative Dimension by Authors

Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)	**Conscientiousness:** is a pattern of going well beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance (pg. 96).	
Graham (1989); Moorman & Blakely (1995)	**Personal Industry:** the performance of specific tasks above and beyond the call of duty (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130).	**Individual Initiative:** communications to others in the workplace to improve individual and group performance (Moorman & Blakely, pg. 130).

Reference: Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26(3), p. 518-52

Table 8
Summary of Organizational Compliance Dimension by Authors

Smith et al.,1993	**Generalized Compliance:** pertains to a more impersonal form of conscientiousness that does not provide immediate aid to any one specific person, but rather is indirectly helpful to others involved in the system. The behavior (e.g., punctuality, not wasting time) seems to represent something akin to compliance with internalized norms defining what a "good employee ought to do" (pg. 657).	
Graham, 1991	**Organizational Obedience:** An orientation toward organizational structure, job descriptions, and personnel policies that recognizes and accepts the necessity and desirability of a rational structure of rules and regulations. Obedience may be demonstrated by a respect for rules and instructions, punctuality in attendance and task completion, and stewardship of organizational resources (pg. 255).	
Williams & Anderson (1991)	**OCB-O:** behaviors that benefit the organization in general (e.g., gives advance notice when unable to come to work, adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order). . . Prior research has labeled. . . the OCB-O dimension as generalized compliance. . . (pp. 601–602).	
Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)	**Endorsing, Supporting, and Defending Organizational Objectives:** [Including] organizational loyalty . . . concern for unit objectives . . . staying with the organization during hard times and representing the organization favorably to outsiders (pg. 82).	**Following Organizational Rules and Procedures:** [Including] following orders and regulations and respect for authority . . . complying with organizational values and policies . . . conscientiousness . . meeting deadlines (pg. 82).
Van Scotter & Motowidlo (1996)	**Job Dedication:** centers on selfdisciplined behaviors such as following rules. . . It encompasses Smith et al.'s (1983) generalized compliance dimension. . . (pg. 526).	

Reference: Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26(3), p. 518-52

Table 9
Summary of Civic Virtue Dimension by Authors

Organ (1988, 1990a, 1990b)	**Civic Virtue:** is responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization (pg. 96).	
Graham (1991)	**Organizational Participation:** Interest in organizational affairs guided by ideal standards of virtue, validated by keeping informed, and expressed through full and responsible involvement in organizational governance. This includes attending nonrequired meetings, sharing informed opinions and new ideas with others, and being willing to deliver bad news and support an unpopular view to combat groupthink (pg. 255).	
George & Brief (1992); George & Jones (1997)	**Making Constructive Suggestions:** includes all voluntary acts of creativity and innovation in organizations. Such suggestions can range from the relatively mundane (a more efficient way to handle paperwork) to the more monumental (reorganization of an entire unit to better serve a changing customer base). . . workers who engage in this form of organizational spontaniety . . . actively try to find ways to improve individual, group, or organizational functioning (George & Jones, pg. 155).	**Protecting the Organization:** includes those voluntary acts organizational members engage in to protect or save life and property ranging from reporting fire hazards, securely locking doors, reporting suspicious or dangerous activities, to taking the initiative to halt a production process when there is the potential for human injury (George & Jones, pg. 155).
Borman & Motowidlo (1993, 1997)	**Persisting with Enthusiasm and Extra Effort:** as necessary to complete own task activities successfully. [Includes] perseverance and conscientiousness . . . [and] extra effort on the job . . . (pg. 82).	**Volunteering to Carry Out Task Activities:** that are not formally part of own job. . . [Includes] suggesting organizational improvements. . . [and] initiative and taking on extra responsibility (pg. 82).

Reference: Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26(3), p. 518-525

Table 10
Summary of Self-Development Dimension by Authors

George & Brief (1992); George & Jones (1997)
Developing Oneself: includes all the steps that workers take to voluntarily improve their knowledge, skills, and abilities so as to be better able to contribute to their organizations. Seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organization . . . (George & Jones, pg. 155).

Reference: Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. Journal of Management, 26(3), p. 518-5

Organizational loyalty comprises of loyal boosterism and organizational loyalty (Graham, 1989, 1991; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517), diffusing goodwill and protecting the organization (George & Brief, 1992, p. 316) and approving, supporting and defending the construct of organizational objectives (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 102). Organizational loyalty fundamentally requires promoting the organization to outsiders, protecting it against external threats and maintaining committed to it under adverse circumstances. Initial research by Moorman and Blakely (1995, p. 135) has expressed that the dimension of organizational loyalty is distinct from various other forms of citizenship behavior. However, a confirmatory factor analysis in a subsequent study which conducted by Moorman et al. (1998, p. 354) failed to validate this (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517).

Organizational compliance has a long history of research in the field of organizational citizenship behavior. The dimension of organizational compliance has been called with different terms by various researchers. For example, Smith et al. (1983;

as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517) refered organizational compliance as generalized compliance, Graham (1991; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517) called it as organizational obedience, William & Anderson (1991, p. 601) termed it as OCB-O. In addition, organizational compliance involves some aspects of Van Scotter & Motowidlo's construct of job dedication (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526). Organizational compliance seems to seize a person's internalization and admittance of the organization's rules, regulations and procedures, which conclude with a scrupulous obedience to them, even when nobody observes or monitors compliance. Even though every employee in the organization is anticipated to obey regulations, rules and procedures of organization at all times, many employees don't obey them. Therefore, organizational compliance is regarded as a dimension of organizational citizenship behavior. Moreover, an employee who conscientiously obeys rules and procedures, even when nobody is monitoring, is called as a "good citizen" (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 517).

Individual initiative includes engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is so far beyond minimally necessiated or generally anticipated levels that it takes on a voluntary flavor. These behaviors consist of voluntary acts of creativity and innovation formed to improve one's task or the organization's performance, insisting with extra enthusiasm and endeavor to succeed one's job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities and fostering others in the organization so as to behave in the same way. Additionally, the idea that the employee is going "above and beyond" the call of duty, is shared by these behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524)

Individual initiative is similar to Organ's dimension of conscientiousness (Organ, 1988; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524), Graham and Moorman & Blakely's personal industry and individual initiative constructs (Graham, 1989; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524; Moorman & Blakely, 1995, p. 128), George's making constructive suggestions construct (George & Brief, 1992, p. 311), Borman and Motowidlo's persisting with enthusiasm and volunteering to carry out task activities constructs (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997, p. 100), Morrison and Phelps' dimension of taking charge at work (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403) and some facets of Van

Scotter and Motowidlo's job dedication construct (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 526). According to Organ (1988, as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524), this form of behavior is among the most difficult to seperate from in-role behavior, because it varies more in degree than in kind. Thus, it is not surprising that some researchers have not involved individual initiative construct in their OCB studies (MacKenzie et al., 1991; MacKenzie et al., 1993; as cited in Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524) or they found that this construct is difficult to seperate empirically from in-role or task performance (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996, p. 528; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524).

The next construct is stemmed from Graham's arguement of the responsibilities that employees have as "citizens" of an organization (Graham, 1991; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 525). Civic virtue demonstrates a macro-level interest in or commitment to the organization as a whole. This is expressed by an inclination to participate actively in its governance (e.g, attend meetings, engage in policy debates) so as to monitor its environment for threats and opportunities and to search for its interests, even at high personal cost. These behaviors indicate a person's recognition of being a part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and acknowledge the responsibilities which that entails. This construct has been referred with different names by various researchers. For example, Organ (1988, 1990b; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 525) called it as civic virtue, Graham (1989; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 525) labelled it as organizational participation and George & Brief (1992, p. 311) entitled it as protecting the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 525).

The final dimension of OCB is self development. Depending on the study of Katz (1964; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 525), George and Brief (1992, p. 311) described developing oneself as a significant dimension of citizenship behavior. Self-development involves voluntary behaviors which employees focus on so as to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities. According to George and Brief (1992, p. 155) this might contains,

> *"Seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organization."*

Self development construct seems to be a discretionary form of employee bevior that is conceptually distinct from other organizational citizenship behavior constructs and might be expected to develop organizational effectiveness by means of somewhat different mechanisms than the other forms of citizenship behavior (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 525).

3.3. Theories of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In this part of the study; social exchange theory, leader-member exchange theory, the norm of reciprocity and equity theory will be explained.

3.3.1. Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory expresses that individuals focus on relationships and interact with others, not only monetary reasons, but because each party affirms to suggest a non-monetary item of value to the other at some time in the future. Social exchange theory was defined and tested in terms of utilizing a two-person relationship. Because of the difficulty of implementing the dyad to more sophisticated social systems and because of the move to perform alternate theories in novel ways, various conceptual framworks has been proposed in the field of OCBs such as Gebbia (1999; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 30)'s cooperation theory, Robinson and Morrison (1995; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 30)'s psychological contracts and Graham (1991; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 30)'s political philosophy (Burton, 2003, p. 30).

In spite of the fact that the dyad structure is a basis for the definition, contemporary exchange theory adapts complex organizational dynamics and utilizes multiple dyad relationships so as to define social exchange between members of work groups (Cook et al., 1999; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 30). Emerson (1981; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 30)'s conceptualization of dyads, while involving either individual actors or agents acting on behalf of the group, provides transactions to occur across levels of analysis. According to Emerson (1981; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 30), an employee can focus on social exchange not only with another person but also with a group through group's representative (Burton, 2003, p. 30).

Productive exchange is a kind of social exchange that taking place within groups (Emerson, 1981; as cited in Burton, 2003, p. 30), where piled up resources net rewards that can be allocated to members. Productive exchange based on the principle that individual members provide a variety of precious contributions to the group and together they produce the group aim. Similarly, benefits returned in exchange for members' contributions also vary (Burton, 2003, p. 30).

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005, p. 874) asserted that "social exchange theory (SET) is among the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behavior." SET delineates the adjustment of social relations according to a vigorous and prevailing premise which called as "the norm of reciprocity" (Gouldner, 1960, p. 161). In spite of the fact that the reciprocation ideology appears to be extensively shared among individuals, levels of mutuality differ depending on individual orientation (Eisenberger et al., 1987; Eisenberger et al., 1986; as cited in Raineri et al., 2012, p. 150). Comparing with economic trade, social exchange is discretionary and the form, degree or time of reciprocation are neither specified nor enforceable (Blau, 1964; as cited in Raineri et al., 2012, p. 150). Although the norm proposes equivalence with regard to help received and returned, the value placed on the exchange relationship is idiosyncratic. This states that a person will feel obligated to a donor (e.g., a colleague, supervisor or an organization) solely when he or she is freely provided with she/he minds (Schaninger & Turnipseed, 2005; as cited in Raineri et al., 2012, p. 150). In summary, people are prone to reward volitional and positive dispositions toward themselves in terms of returning the benefits they discern having received (Raineri et al., 2012, p. 150).

3.3.2. Leader-Member Exchange Theory

Another factor for employees so as to exhibit OCB is the attitudes of the managers which employees work together. The reason of the emergence of this opinion is described by leader-member exchange theory which is taking its support from social exchange theory (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 531). Leader-member exchange theory asserts that the roles of the members of the organization evolve in compliance with their interaction with their subordinates and following this process, the interaction developed

among the superiors and subordinates may be in distinct characters. This interaction can occur both at low and high levels of the organization. Within the low level interaction, the Standard performance is rewarded with standard organizational benefits. The subordinates can be willing to demonstrate extra role behavior beyond the expectations from himself within the high level interactions where reciprocal trust, loyalty and support is dominant because they are rewarded by some practices such as promotion, raising in salary and more positive performance evaluations (Deluga, 1994, p. 316; Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 552). Furthermore, this fact expresses that the reciprocity is a distinguishing factor for the employees in order to show OCB in the leader-member exchange in a similar way with social exchange theory (Gürel, 2012, p. 9).

Leader-member exchange theory is based on the notions of role making (Graen, 1976; as cited in Wang et al., 2005, p. 421), social exchange, reciprocity and equity (Deluga, 1994, p. 316). Leaders transmit role expectations to their followers and provide both tangible and intangible awards to followers who fulfill these expectations. Similarly, followers hold role expectations of their leaders in connection with how they are to be treated and the awards they are to obtain in order to satisfy leader expectations. Followers are not passive role recipients. Thus, they may refuse, acknowledge or renegotiate roles which defined by their leaders. There is a mutual process in the dyadic exchanges among leader and follower, where every party brings distinct types of resourcs for exchange. Role negotiation takes place over time that defines the quality and maturity of a leader-member exchange and leaders improve relationships of altering quality with different followers over time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 225; Wang et al., 2005, p. 421).

In high- quality leader-member exchange relationships, obligations are generally dispersed and undetermined. In addition, no standard or value against which gifts, favors or contributions can be evaluated is present (Blau, 1964; as cited in Wang et al., 2005, p. 422). A positive alliance between leader-member exchange and OCB is anticipated because OCB aims to satisfy the reciprocity obligations of followers and demonstrates an exchange currency that is dispersed, unspecified and weakly time-bound (Wang et al., 2005, p. 422).

Leader-member exchange theory defines the quality of relationships among leaders and their followers (Bowler et al., 2010, p. 310). Additionally, leader-member exchange theory initially conceptualized as the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership and suggested as an alternative to an average leadership style (Collins, 2007, p. 18). Graen et al. (1975; as cited in Farahbod et al., 2012, p. 895) have revealed that in almost all units leaders differ among their subordinates in the sense of leader behavior. Leader-member exchange theory states that particular subordinates selected according to their competence and skill, extent to which they can be trusted and motivation so as to presume higher responsibility within the unit are given privileged treatment by the leader. These chosen subordinates make contributions which exceed their formal job requirements and take on responsibility so as to accomplish the tasks that are most crucial for the achievement of the unit (Liden et al., 1980, p. 451). Dienesch and Liden (1986; as cited in Farahbod et al., 2012, p. 895; Liden et al., 1998, p. 45) asserted that work behaviors emphasized by Graen and colleagues are significant. However, leader-member exchanges may develop and proceed in various ways. They proposed that leader-member exchange can be distinguished into three types of exchanges which called as contribution, loyalty and affect (Sin et al., 2009, p. 1049; Farahbod et al., 2012, p. 895).

- Contribution: Contribution means the perception of the amount and the quality of work that members of the dyadic relationship bring into the dyadic relationship (Amah, 2010, p. 40).

- Loyalty: Loyalty was described as the extent to which leader and member publicly support their actions and character (Liden et al., 1998, p. 46).

- Affect: Affect was defined by Dienesch and Liden (1986; as cited in Farahbod et al., 2012, p. 895; Liden et al., 1998, p. 46) as “the mutual affection members of the dyad have for each other based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values” (Farahbod et al., 2012, p. 895).

Liden and Maslyn (1998; as cited in Farahbod et al., 2012, p. 895) assisted to improve this idea in terms of proposing an instrument of multidimensional leader-member exchange. They defined professional respect as the fourth dimension of leader-member exchange.

- Professional respect: Professional respect means the reciprocal respect which both parties have for their professional capabilities (Sin et al., 2009, p. 1049).

The significance of high-quality leader-member relationships in organizations was demonstrated by leader-member exchange researches. Leaders and followers in these high leader-member exchange relationships generally reveal increased levels of satisfaction, effectiveness, reciprocal influence, more open and honest communication, greater access to resources and more extra-role behaviors (Maslyn et al., 2001, p. 697; Farahbod et al., 2012, p. 895).

3.3.3. The Norm of Reciprocity

The norm of reciprocity runs through the mutual exchange of gratifying outcomes like social exchange. Individuals have a deep need so as to respond good to those who they discern have done good to them. Reciprocity is hinged on the understanding that all humans have the salient value for repaying good for good. The norm of reciprocity operates because people believe that one ought to respond in kind to one's neighbor for the sake of society and so each act to sustain the cycle (Burton, 2003, p. 31).

Central to social exchange and reciprocity is the fact that individuals are related to each other by reciprocal dependency. Dependent relationships are widespread and indispensible for most organizations. Reciprocity can go beyond formal lines of authority or take place at the same level. A typical example is when a senior worker suggests allegiance to a junior in exchange for helpful advice (Burton, 2003, p. 31).

Exchange transactions are labelled by inexplicit rewards concerning substance and timing. Whatever is regarded as valuable to a social actor – e.g., deference, friendship or expedited service in an emergency - can be a means of exchange. A

reward can be suggested in exchange for one beneficial act taking place at a single point in time or exchange and reciprocity can be the consequence of a series of past exchanges (Burton, 2003, p. 31).

The timing of rewards is also uncertain. In spite of the fact that an individual may have a general expectation of when a reward should be suggested, these details go unexpressed. Additionally, there is the possibility that return may come from someone different from the one in the original transaction in productive exchange (Burton, 2003, p. 31).

3.3.4. Equity Theory

Equity theory sustains that subordinates and supervisors are more satisfied when the ratio between the benefits obtained and the contributions made is similar as compared with the discerned ratio of their co-workers (Messick & Cook, 1983; as cited in Deluga, 1994, p. 315). Therefore, central to an understanding of equity theory is perceived fairness (Deluga, 1994, p. 315). When unfairness is assumed to occur, equity theory foretells that subordinates react to eradicate inequities in terms of decreasing contributions and/or anticipating supplementary rewards (Adams, 1965; as cited in Deluga, 1994, p. 315).

Equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965; as cited in Huseman et al., 1987, p. 222) utilizes from exchange, dissonance and social comparison theories so as to make predictions about how individuals handle their relationships with others. Four propositions which is stated below, demonstrate the objections of the equity theory (Huseman et al., 1987, p. 222):

1. Individuals assess their relationships with others through measuring the ratio of their outcomes from and inputs to the relationship against the outcome/input ratio of a comparison other (Huseman et al., 1987, p. 222).

2. If the outcome/input ratios of the individual and comparison other are discerned to be unequal, the inequity exists (Huseman et al., 1987, p. 222).

3. If the individual perceives the greater inequity in the forms of overreward or underreward, he or she feels more distress (Huseman et al., 1987, p. 222).

4. The greater the distress an individual feels, the harder he or she will endeavor to restore equity and therefore, decrease the distress. Equity restroration techniques involve changing or cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes, acting on or altering the comparison other or ceasing the relationship (Huseman et al., 1987, p. 222).

4. PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

4.1. History and Definitions of Person-Environment Fit

Person-environment (P-E) fit is a multidimensional concept comprehensively defined as "the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well-matched" (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 281; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 34). The main concept of P-E fit expresses that attitudes and behaviors are the results of a bidirectional relationship in which the individual and organization affect each other (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 37). Kristof (1996; as cited in Greene – Shortridge, 2008, p. 5) asserts that these three criterias must be met in order to obtain high P-E fit results: (1) one entity which can be a person or some aspect of the work environment, provides what the other requires, (2) the person and the environment have similar characteristics or (3) both criterias which stated above are experienced (Greene – Shortridge, 2008, p. 5).

The P-E fit research was started for determining good fit perceptions during the employee selection process where employers and applicants begin to find a reciprocal relationship, self - selecting into and out of the process depending upon perceived fit (Chatman, 1989, p. 333; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 37). Obtaining desirable work outcomes and preserving corporate culture are the reasons why organizations endeavor to succeed a high degree of P-E fit (Morley, 2007, as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 38; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 38).

P-E fit was shown an intense interest by researchers because of its positive affects on employee attitudes and behaviors (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001, p. 454). A great number of studies have revealed positive relationships between P-E fit and individual outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment and also negative correlations with turnover (Bretz & Judge, 1994, p. 40; Chatman, 1991, p. 471; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 34).

Various researchers have seeked to find out workplace fit perceptions (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a, as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 18). The researchers have studied different types of supplementary and complementary fit in relation to several dependent variables

(e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 880), the significance of the characteristics on which fit is evaluated and levels of perceived person-organization fit at organizational entry and at distinct stages during socialization (e.g., Lauver & Kristof – Brown, 2001, p. 461). Some researchers have focused only one type of fit perception at a time during studying organizational outcomes (e.g., Bocchino et al., 2003; Brkick et al., 2002; Sheffey, 1995; Stevens & Ash, 2001, as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 18). Conversely, Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 880) and Saks & Ashforth (1997a, as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 19) have scrutinized interactions between organizational outcomes and multiple levels of fit perceptions (Davis, 2006, p. 19).

4.2. Types of Person-Environment Fit

In this part, person-job fit, person-organization fit, person-group fit, person-supervisor fit and person-vocation fit will be clarified.

4.2.1. Person – Job Fit

Person-Job (P-J) fit and Person-Organization (P-O) fit were the most widespread types of fit which studied in the P-E fit literature (Behery, 2009, p. 179; Lauver & Kristof – Brown, 2001, p. 454). P-J fit perceptions indicate mainly to judgments of compatibility between an employee's skills and the demands of a job (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875). Two conceptualizations of P-J fit were defined by researchers as needs-supplies fit and demand-abilities fit. Demand-abilities fit means the degree to which the individual's knowledge, skills and abilities overlap the necessities of the job. Needs-supplies fit refers to the degree to which the individual's needs are fulfilled by their service on the job (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 284; Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 34). The notion of P-J fit can be traced back to the preliminary works of scientific management where the processes for meeting individual knowledge, skills and abilities to the job were first constituted (Sekiguchi, 2004; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 37).

Needs- supplies fit perceptions are judgments of congruence between employees' needs and the awards they obtain because of their contributions to the job. Since the fundamental motivation for people to enter the labor market and accept jobs is

to gain access to the rewards which organizations offer as inducements (Simon, 1951, as cited in Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875), needs – supplies fit may be the most crucial type of fit from an employee standpoint (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875).

According to Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 876), the fit between an employee's needs and the rewards stem from a job is quite different from the types of perceived fit which studied in the past research. Thus, they anticipated that needs-supplies fit to be a crucial and discrete factor of employees' fit perceptions. In spite of the fact that P-O fit, needs-supplies fit and demand-abilities fit seem to be three qualitatively distinct ways of fit conceptualization, these three perceptions have not been integrated (Kristof, 1996, as cited in Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 876).

P-J fit is an inventory evaluation of both the needs-supplies and the KSA's associated with the job rather than an assessment of organizational or vocational characteristics. Kristof (1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 22) compactly distinguish P-J fit from the other forms of fit. Although many job requirements can be similar to some characteristics of the organization, a conceptual difference prevails among these forms of fit in the work environment. P-F fit holds characteristics which should regarded as distinct from vocation and organizational characteristics inasmuch as the job is a separate aspect of the work environment (Mosley, 2002, p. 22).

4.2.2.Person – Organization Fit

Person-Organization (P-O) fit perceptions emphasize the compatibility (Cable & Parsons, 2001, p. 54) between employees and organizations or judgments of congruence (O'Reilly, 1991, p. 488) between an employee's personal values and an organization's culture (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 285; Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 35). The concept of P-O fit is based on the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework which grounded in the interactionist theory of behavior (De Cooman et al., 2009, p. 102; Chatman, 1989, p. 338; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 37).

Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 876) suggested that P-O fit perceptions should be connected with citizenship behaviors or prosocial behaviors which not clearly indicated

in job descriptions and that mainly benefit the organization. Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 877) estimated that if an individual shares the organization's values, he or she would more likely assist the greater causes of an organization. Additionally, Chatman (1989, p. 343) indicated that people who share an organization's values should more likely contribute to the organization in constructive ways. Moreover, Lauver & Kristof-Brown (2001, p. 454) revealed that employees' extra-role behaviors were predicted by perceived P-O fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 877).

In spite of the fact that P-O fit is generally regarded as the compatibility between individuals and organizations, various defitinitions of P-O fit exist. For instance, Kristof (1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 19) differenriates between supplementary and complementary fit. Complementary fit takes place when an individual's characteristics add something to enlarge the environment. Supplementary fit occurs when a person's characteristics are similar to those of others in the environment (Kristof, 1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 19).

Considering multiple definitions which were produced by researchers in the literature of P-O fit, this concept has been conceptualized in four different ways. One conceptualization which measures P-O fit through congruence of individual and organizational values, generally concerns with supplementary fit. This form of conceptualization is also regarded as person-culture fit and presumes that organizations retain cultural elements that express essential, enduring values which conduct individual values (Chatman, 1991, p. 459; Mosley, 2002, p. 19).

Second conceptualization of P-O fit uses Schneider's (1987, p. 437) Attraction-Selection-Attrition framework in which P-O fit is based on congruence of goals. According to this conceptualization, organizations hire similar types of individuals whose goals are similar with the organization and will enable the organizations to succeed their goals (Kristof, 1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 20).

Third conceptualization have been seen mostly in needs-supplies studies and describes P-O fit as the compatibility between an individual's needs or preferences and the organization's structures and systems (Kristof, 1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p.

20). Furthermore, this conceptualization is connected with the theory of work adjustment (Davis & Lofquist, 1984; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 20). For example, the needs-supply perpective presumes that P-O fit leads to satisfaction which finally ends up with other crucial outcomes (Kristof, 1996; Mosley, 2002, p. 20).

Fourth and final conceptualization defines P-O fit as a match between individual personality characteristics and organizational climate. The basis of this type of perspective has diversified between supplementary and complementary fit (Kristof, 1996; Mosley, 2002, p. 20).

Kristof (1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 20) demonstrated a framework in order to combine the several conceptualizations and operationalizations of P-O fit. She asserted that supplementary fit includes a comparison of person and organizational characteristics. Organizational characteristics are studied in terms of cultural elements, values, goals and norms. Additionally, personal characteristics are measured through personality, values, goals and attitudes. Moreover, complementary fit integrates the needs-supplies and demand-abilities perspectives. Complementary fit is studied as an individual/organizational comparison of resources, opportunities and knowledge and abilities (KSA's) (Mosley, 2002, p. 20).

P-O fit has mostly been studied in relation with job satisfaction and organizational commitment while considering employee attitudes. In their meta-analysis which consists of 21 P-O fit studies, Verquer et al. (2003, p. 482) found that P-O fit was more strongly related to employee satisfaction and organizational commitment when P-O fit was operationalized as the congruence between individual's values and organizational values than non-value congruence such as personality or goal congruence (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 11).

Westerman and Cyr (2004, p. 257) found that P-O fit and job satisfaction had solely a significant relationship when P-O fit conceptualized as values congruence or as needs-supplies congruence –not personality congruence- (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 11). Moreover, P-O fit and organizational commitment had a similar relationship. When P-O fit was conceptualized as either of three definitions (value, personality or goal

congruence), P-O fit was seen to be significantly connected with the intentions to remain in the organization.However, the effect was generally mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Westerman & Cyr, 2004, p. 257; Greene – Shortridge, 2008, p. 12).

Saks & Ashforth (1997a, p. 415) revealed in their longitudinal investigation of employee perceptions of P-O fit and organizational outcomes that P-O fit was negatively related to intentions to quit and turnover ten months after employees were hired.Additionally, Saks & Ashforth (1997a, p. 403) failed to conceptualize fit in any manner which proposed by Kristof (1996; as cited in Greene – Shortridge, 2008, p. 12) such as value or goal congruence. Saks and Ashforth (1997a, p. 403) measured the perceptions of fit that participants of the study felt their new organization fulfilled their expectations of the organization they had hoped to be employed by. Therefore, if they would have operationalized fit as values congruence or goal congruence, relations between P-O fit and work ourcomes may have been stronger (Greene – Shortridge, 2008, p. 12).

4.2.3.Person-Group Fit

Since the number of teams that functioning in the work environment enhanced, Person-Group (P-G) fit was regarded as a more pertinent construct. P-G fit is defined as the resemblance among employees and their work groups (Kristof, 1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 22). The evaluation of P-G fit is ascertained in terms of role analysis which includes specifying the values, skills and proficiencies that required for accomplishing group effectiveness. The outcomes of P-G fit that implicitly or explicitly affect organizational effectiveness are advanced group performance and improved group cooperation. The construct of P-G fit is more complicated than other forms of fit (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 22). Werbel and Gillialand (1999; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 22) are considered P-G fit as a musical band. As a musical group may search for a new musician with particular characteristics or qualities, P-G fit solely takes place through an interaction with the candidate that may actually alter the nature of the group (Mosley, 2002, p. 22).

The compatibility between individuals and their work groups has been named as Person-Group or Person-Team (P-T) fit (Kristof, 1996; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2002, p. 8). The term of work groups can be signified with a number of immediate coworkers or an entire department of the organization. Although most of the research on P-G fit has focused on the compatibility of personality traits among team members, a handful of studies have interested with fit in terms of goal characteristics or values within a group (Kristof et al., 2005, p. 286). Considering all distinct P-E fit indices, P-G fit has recently received most attention in the literature (Greene – Shortridge, 2002, p. 8).

Ostroff and Rothausen (1997, p. 176) studied the influence of tenure on the relationship between teachers' personal orientation and their school culture (e.g. autonomy, structure, cooperation) at individual and group level. In spite of the fact that tenure failed to moderate the relationship between teachers' personal orientation and school culture at the individual level, Ostroff and Rothausen (1997, p. 176) revealed the moderating effect of tenure on personal orientation and culture at the group level. Teachers with longer tenure generally fit the school culture better than teachers with shorter tenure at the group level according to their results (Greene-Shortridge, 2002, p. 8).

4.2.4.Person-Supervisor Fit

Most research in the P-E fit literature has concentrated upon the relationships of P-O and P-J fit. On the contrary, only a few researches have been examined the effect of fit with supervisors. Comparing the types of fit, the dyadic relationship between employees and their supervisors is only studied by Person-Supervisor (P-S) fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 287; Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 14). The supervisor's characteristics demonstrate the level of environment in which fit is discerned (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 15).

P-S fit has been studied in terms of supervisor-subordinate value congruence, goal congruence and personality similarity in the past researches (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 287). Additionally, the concept of LMX also emphasizes the dyadic

relationship between supervisors and subordinates. While LMX concerns with the overall relationship that develops between a supervisor and subordinate, P-S fit investigates the underlying values and goals that are shared between supervisors and subordinates (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 287). For example, Witt (1998; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 15) studied among nearly 1000 employees from five different organizations and found that supervisor-subordinate goal congruence moderated the relationship between organizational politics and organizational commitment. In addition, Witt (1998; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 15) revealed that organizational politics had little effect on organizational commitment of employees whose goals were similar with their supervisors. Moreover, a similar moderated result was found between organizational politics and employee performance (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 15).

As previously mentioned, scant research has emphasized P-S fit and probable consequences. Most studies that claimed to assess P-S fit are literally studies of LMX. LMX has been regarded as a related construct with P-S fit. However, LMX and P-S fit are discrete concepts (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 15). LMX concentrates upon the relationships between leaders and their followers but not rigorously on the dyadic fit in terms of similar characteristics such as values and goals as P-S fit does (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 287; Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 16).

Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins (1991; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 16) studied about college students and found that congruence between participant's rated values and participants' perceived values of a leader were related to higher expected satisfaction with the leader. They evaluated anticipated P-S fit with college students who rated the values of a leader in terms of watching interactions of a video-taped leader with his or her followers. Moreover, this study measured P-S fit through correlating participant's own values with participants' ratings of a leader's values that they had watched (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 16).

4.2.5. Person-Vocation Fit

Holland (1973; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 6) endeavored to study P-E fit and made the first step in terms of coining the construct of "congruence" in the 1970s (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 6). Holland (1973; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 7) proposed that congruence is fulfilled when an individual's personality type is matched with the appropriate environment. The main purpose of asserting congruence theory was to facilitate persons in making vocational choices. Person-Vocation (P-V) fit has been regarded as the similarity between individuals' vocational interests and the careers that they choose (Holland, 1977; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 7).

Holland (1973; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 18) puts forward that P-V fit is based on the degree of congruence between six personality types and six model environments. Individuals look for vocational environments which are similar to their interests and competencies because these types of circumstances enable them to demonstrate their knowledge, skills and abilities Holland (1973; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 18). In spite of the fact that Holland's theory estimates vocational choice, it does not clarify why people prefer particular organizational types (Kristof, 1996; as cited in Mosley, 2002, p. 18).

4.3.Studies of Person-Organization and Person-Job Fit

As P-O fit perceptions have often referred to judgments of congruence between an employee's personal values and an organization's culture, P-J fit perceptions have mainly defined as judgments of congruence between an employee's skills and demands of a job (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 875).

Both P-J and P-O fit were connected with different congruencies within the environment and each one demonstrates a distinct impact on outcomes (Lauver & Kritof-Brown, 2001, p. 455). Shore & Martin (1989, p. 633) found that job related attitudes indicate the P-J fit construct and organizational related attitudes reflect the P-O fit construct. Moreover, O'Reilly et al. (1991, p. 508) validated that P-O and P-J fit constructs were distinct and weakly related (r = .16). Kristof (1996; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 35) suggested that the P-J fit should be evaluated in terms of the

tasks of a job and not within the larger context of the organization in which they exist. Lauver & Kristof-Brown (2001, p. 455) expressed that "an employee can possess the skills to be competent in a job, yet not share the organization's values and vice versa" (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 35).

Some researchers (e.g. Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001, p. 454) have studied the influence of both P-J and P-O fit on hiring employees. Studies have proposed that organizations are better positioned in order to understand the applicants and decide their limitations and opportunities in relation to achieving successful employment process through exploring the values, personalities, interests, skills and abilities of applicants. They asserted that recruiters should not align an applicant's knowledge, skills and abilities with organizational needs but also match the applicant's personality and values with the organization's values and culture (Davis, 2006, p. 21).

Bodenman (1996, as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 22) investigated the role of values in deciding the level of P-O fit during hiring process. Questionnaires reflected recruiters' and applicants' perceptions of values match, general fit and attraction. Moreover, respondents were asked which was more crucial so as to determine fit: values match or knowledge, skills and abilities. According to this study, both P-O and P-J fit accurately demonstrate the compatibility perceptions of the applicant and organization (Davis, 2006, p. 22).

Lauver & Kristof-Brown (2001, p. 454) assessed P-J and P-O fit distinctly from the perspective of the employee. Data were gathered from employees of a national trucking company. In spite of the fact that they revealed a low correlation between P-O and P-J fit, their findings demonstrated relationships with outcome variables, particularly job satisfaction. P-O fit was directly related to the amount of extra role behaviors of an employee. Additionally, they found that P-O fit had a stronger relationship with intent to quit than P-J fit (Davis, 2006, p. 22).

Saks & Ashforth (1997a, p. 396) evaluated perceived fit of job seekers with the organization and the job. They found a more considerable correlation of .56 (p .01). Nevertheless, their study measured P-O and P-J fit through single item scales which did

not ask respondents about fit. Although findings demonstrated that both P-O and P-J fit perceptions were related to outcomes such as job satisfaction and intentions to quit, this study found solely the change in R2 when both types of fit were entered into the regression at once. Therefore, it was not plausible to investigate the differential prediction of the two types of fit perceptions (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 876).

4.4. Studies of Person-Group, Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit

Haptonstahl (1998; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 22) studied workplace fit perceptions in three aspects: P-G, P-J and P-O fit. Results demonstrated that P-J fit tended to be referred as an individual's qualifications. Conversely, overall hiring processes considered additional factors such as P-G and P-O compatibility (Davis, 2006, p. 22). Haptonstahl's conclusions provide support about the view that organizations are looking for more than simply employees holding the required knowledge, skills abilities; they are also concerning about selecting employees for fit with the organizational culture (Davis, 2006, p. 23).

Kristof-Brown et al. (2002; as cited in Davis, 2006, p. 23) investigated the relationships between perceptions of person-group, person-job and person-organization fit. Data were gathered on outcomes such as citizenship behaviors, turnover, satisfaction, organizational support and commitment. Master's level business students responded how they react to vignettes depicting cues representative of varying levels of P-G, P-J and P-O fit. Considering simultaneously, P-G, P-J and P-O fit perceptions had crucial and independent impacts on work satisfaction (Davis, 2006, p. 23).

4.5. Studies of Needs-Supplies, Person-Job and Person-Organization Fit

Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 875) investigated perceptions of person-organization, person-job and person-group fit. Fit was conceptualized according to previous researches and various outcomes (e.g., affective commitment, citizenship behaviors, general career satisfaction, global job satisfaction, organizational identification, organizational support, pay raises, supervisor's perceptions of performance and turnover decisions) were involved. Surveys were conducted through mail to alumnis of a business school and employees of a telecommunications company (Davis, 2006, p. 24).

Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 880) revealed a high level of convergent and discriminant validity for their three-factor model of workplace fit perceptions with the help of confirmatory factor analyses. The findings were demonstrated that employees differentiate between types of fit based on values, job demands and compensation. Moreover, measures of fit were associated with several employee attitudes and behaviors such as organizational identification, perceived organizational support, peer-rated citizenship behaviors, turnover decisions, job satisfaction and pay increases. In spite of the fact that P-J and P-O fit considerably related with job satisfaction, this relationship decreased when needs-supplies fit was added in the equation. Comparing with P-O and P-J fit, needs-supplies fit was a better predictor of job satisfaction according to the results (Davis, 2006, p. 24). In addition, needs-supplies fit was the best predictor of career satisfaction and occupational commitment. Cable & DeRue (2002, p. 881) found that P-O fit was the best predictor of OCB (Davis, 2006, p. 25).

4.6. Studies of Person-Organization Fit and Demands-Abilities Fit

Cable and Judge (1996, p. 299) utilized one-item scales in order to measure P-O fit and demands-abilities fit for job seekers and newcomers. They found that the correlations between P-O fit and demands-abilities fit were slightly low for job seekers (r .35) and were lower for new entrants (r .16). When compared with demands-abilities fit, the findings were demonstrated that P-O fit perceptions were better predictors of various outcomes such as job choice intentions, organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 876).

Kristof-Brown (2000, p. 53) investigated interviews form distinct perceptions of applicants' P-J and P-O fit. In addition, P-J fit was evaluated as demands-abilities fit. In spite of the fact that the two types of fit were highly related according to the results (r .72, p .01), a confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated that a two-factor solution enabled a better fit with the data than a one-factor solution. Moreover, the findings showed that demands-abilities fit was a better predictor of hiring recommendations than P-O fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002, p. 876).

4.7. Perceived and Actual Fit

Perceived fit versus actual (objective) fit distinction is an additional construct of P-E fit. Perceived fit refers to the judgment that an individual adjusts well in the environment. Perceived fit is assessed in terms of asking the individual directly the degree to which they believe a fit so as to exist. Therefore, a good fit occurs as long as it is perceived to exist, regardless of the degree of similarity between individual and organization (Sekiguchi, 2004; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 35).

Actual fit refers to a judgment of distinct ratings of individuals and their environmental characteristics (Cable & Judge, 1996, p. 299; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 35). Actual fit is evaluated through comparing the personal and environmental characteristics. When comparing with actual fit, perceived fit allows for the greatest level of cognitive manipulation because the evaluation is done in the head of respondents allowing them to operate their own weighting scheme to several aspects of environment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 291; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 36).

According to Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004, p. 54), studies of fit persistently found that perceived fit of environmental characteristics is a better predictor of attitudes and behaviors than actual fit of environmental characteristics. Moreover, Cooper-Thomas et al. (2004, p. 55; Watchfogel, 2009, p. 36) emphasized that;

> *"Perceived fit is argued to be superior by some researchers on the basis that we act in accordance with our perceptions rather than reality and, therefore, they have a greater predictive power in terms of individual outcomes."*

French et al. (1982; as cited in Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 5) asserted that fit can be evaluated both objectively and subjectively. Subjective fit means the match between the individual and the environment as perceived by the individual. Objective fit is defined as the match between how an individual in reality and the environment as it exists independently from the perceptions of individual. Therefore, the comparison of the person and the environment need to be reported by different resources so as to evaluate objective fit (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 5).

Judge and Cable (1997, p. 368) investigated objective and subjective P-O fit which is the match between employee and organizational values. Objective P-O fit was measured through collecting data on cultural preferences of applicants (e.g., tolerance, working long hours) and then they compared these datas with the mean perception of an organization's culture across all job applicants. Moreover, objective fit could have been measured in terms of comparing organizational value preferences of applicants to incumbents' ratings of the current cultural values (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 5).

Subjective fit was measured through applicants' ratings of their own P-O fit in terms of considering the perceived match between their own values, goals and personality with that of the organization's (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 5). Judge and Cable (1997, p. 368) solely investigated the objective and subjective components of P-O fit. However, all fit indices can be evaluated both objectively and subjectively (Greene-Shortridge, 2008, p. 6).

5. RESEARCH METHOD

5.1. Research Design

The purpose of this study was to undermine the impact of P-E fit on the relationship between OS and OCB. Therefore, a cross-sectional study was conducted in order to measure these relationships. Since cross-sectional design method is widely-used in OS studies, cross-sectional design was preferred rather than using a longitudinal design (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 60). The questionnaires of the study were conducted through the sampling of a population. In addition, the responses were piled with using internet and hard copy. The responses were analyzed with IBM SPSS Statistics 20. The sample of the study was reviewed in the next part. This section ends with the instruments and data analysis methodology of the study.

In the light of the literature review of organizational socialization, organizational citizenship behavior and person-environment fit, the proposed research model is explained in Figure 2:

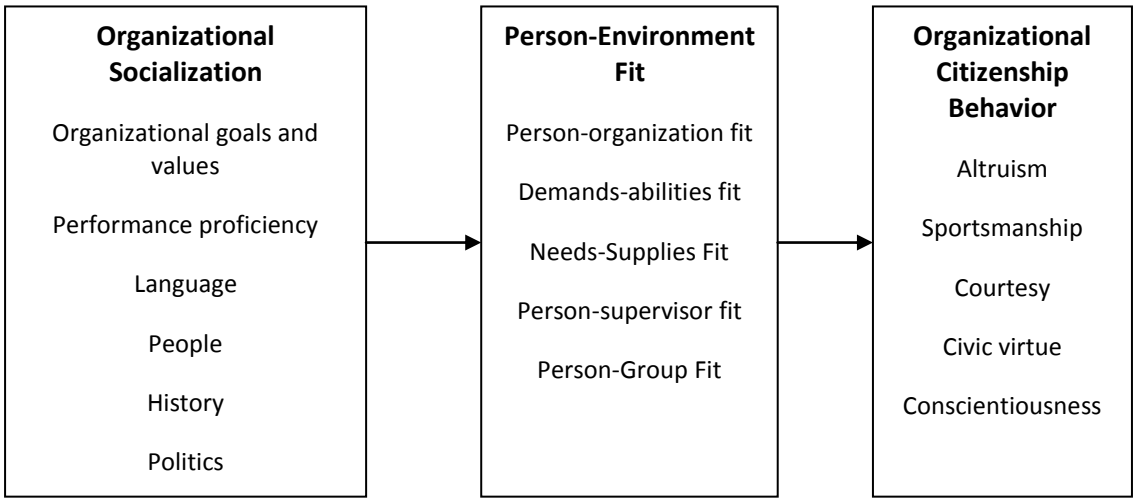

Figure 2: Proposed Research Model

In this study, it is presumed that the contents of OS have an effect on OCB and P-E fit mediates this relationship. The studies about OS in Turkey are limited and mostly based on education and teachers. Therefore, this study aims to contribute the OS

studies in Turkey with focusing on business level and white collar employees. The following hypotheses are developed and will be assessed.

H_1: OS has a positive relationship with OCB.

H_2: P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and OCB.

H_{2a}: P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and civic virtue.

H_{2b}: P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and courtesy.

H_{2c}: P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and altruism.

H_{2d}: P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and sportsmanship.

H_{2e}: P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and conscientiousness.

5.2. Sample

The data was compiled from 202 white collar office workers in Istanbul. The responses were obtained through internet and hard copy. Google documents application was utilized as an internet source. The respondents were asked to demonstrate their degree of agreement with OS, OCB and P-E fit scales' statements on a six-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 6. Since OS studies were scarce which examined office workers and white collar employees in Turkey, this study were aimed to contribute OS researches in the context of business administration in Turkey.

The sample of the study consists of 118 women (58.4 % of the sample) and 84 men (41.6 % of the sample). 72 of the respondents are married and 130 of them are single. 40 of the respondents have a kid or kids. Most of the sample work at automotive and FMCG sectors. 53 employees of the sample work at automotive industry and 46 respondents work at FMCG industry. In spite of the fact that the sample of the study is young (86.7 % respondents are under 36, 23.8 % respondents between the ages of 18-25), 50.5 % of respondents have 5 or more years of total work experience. Looking at the employees' tenure at their current job, 74 employees work at the same organization

for 1-3 years and 48 employees work at the same organization for 5 or more years. Moreover, 92 of the respondents experienced a role change in their organizations. 150 employees indicated that they had orientation training at the beginning of their job. 96 respondents earn between 2001-4000 TL, 49 respondents earn 4001-8000 TL and 47 employees earn less than 2000 TL. Furthermore, 188 respondents have a university degree.

Table 11
Sample distribution by Age, Education Level, Total Work Experience, Tenure at Current Organization and Salary

Age			**Education**		
	Frequency	**Percent**		**Frequency**	**Percent**
18-25	48	23,8	Primary School	1	0,5
26-35	127	62,9	High School	13	6,4
36-45	22	10,9	Associate's degree/ Undergraduate	155	76,7
46-55	5	2,5	Master's/ Ph.D	33	16,3
Total	202	100,0	**Total**	202	100,0
Total Work Experience			**Tenure at Current Job**		
	Frequency	**Percent**		**Frequency**	**Percent**
0-6 months	5	2,5	0-6 months	23	11,4
6 months-1 year	9	4,5	6 months-1 year	27	13,4
1-3 years	49	24,3	1-3 years	74	36,6
3-5 years	37	18,3	3-5 years	30	14,9
more than 5 years	102	50,5	more than 5 years	48	23,8
Total	202	100,0	**Total**	202	100,0

Salary		
	Frequency	**Percent**
0-2000 TL	47	23,3
2001-4000 TL	96	47,5
4001-8000 TL	49	24,3
8001-15000 TL	8	4
15001 TL-	2	1
Total	202	100

5.3. Instrument

The instrument of the study has 84 items that include demographic statements, OS, OCB and P-E fit statements. Each scale will be explained in the following parts.

5.3.1. Organizational Socialization Scale

OS scale was developed by Chao et al. (1994, p. 734) and translated into Turkish by Özçelik (2008, p. 129). OS scale has 34 items about Chao et al. (1994, p. 731)'s OS content dimensions. Chao et al. (1994, p. 731)'s content model was used in order to measure OS because the socialization content model emphasizes learning content and provide a direct measure of OS (Bauer et al., 1998; as cited in Watchfogel, 2009, p. 10). Mitus (2006, p. 2) stated that "presently, Chao et al. (1994, p. 731) has the most widely established and empirically supported Socialization Content Model" (Watchfogel, 2009, p. 10). Chao et al. (1994, p. 734) demonstrated their questionnaire's validity and reliability in terms of using a series of statistical tests and conducting studies (Bodoh, 2012, p. 68). The employees were asked to demonstrate their degree of agreement with OS scales' statements on a six-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 6.

5.3.2. Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

OCB scale was originally developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990, as cited in Güler, 2009, p. 123) and Podsakoff et al. utilized Organ (1988, p. 96)'s taxonomies of OCB as dimensions of OCB. Güler (2009, p. 123) modified and translated into Turkish the scale of Podsakoff et al. and Güler (2009, p. 123)'s OCB scale was used in this study. The scale has 23 items and includes statements about altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness. According to Güler (2009, p. 73)'s study, OCB scale's Cronbach's Alpha is .877. The employees were asked to demonstrate their degree of agreement with OCB scales' statements on a six-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 6.

5.3.3. Person-Environment Fit Scale

P-E fit scale was originally developed by Cable & DeRue (2002; as cited in Hinkle, 2005, p. 145). This scale has 9 items and includes statements about P-O fit and P-J fit. P-J fit was measured as needs-supplies fit and demands-abilities fit. Moreover, Yen (2012, p. 193) modified the statements of Cable & DeRue (2002; as cited in Hinkle, 2005, p. 145)'s P-O fit in order to measure P-G fit. Greene-Shortridge (2008, p. 94) added P-S fit statements through modifying Cable & DeRue (2002; as cited in Hinkle, 2005, p. 145)'s P-O fit statements. Therefore, P-E fit scale has 15 items in this study. The P-E fit scale was translated into Turkish by author. The employees were asked to demonstrate their degree of agreement with P-E fit scales' statements on a six-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 6.

5.3.4. Demographics

12 demographic questions were asked to respondents at the beginning of the questionnaire. Demographic questions consisted of gender, age, education level, marital status, number of children, total work experience, tenure at current job, industry they work, employees' position and pay grade. Moreover, employees answered whether they experienced a position change in their organization or did employees have orientation training at the beginning of their job.

5.4. Data Analysis Methodology

Firstly, the collected data was analyzed with factor and reliability analysis in terms of excluding items with low reliabilities and forming new factors. After eliminating items and creating new factors, further analyses were conducted with new factors.

Independent sample t-tests were conducted so as to measure the effects of gender, marital status, having children, position change at current organization and having orientation training on OS, P-E fit and OCB.

Hierarchial regression analyses were conducted in order to measure the mediating role of P-E fit on the relationship between OS and OCB.

6. RESEARCH FINDINGS

The results of the study were demonstrated in this section. This chapter starts with the results of reliability and factor analysis. After reliability and factor analysis, the findings of independent sample t-tests were presented so as to determine the impacts of demographic variables on OS, OCB and P-E fit. This chapter ends with the findings of hiearchial regression analyses which were conducted in order to test the model of the study.

6.1. Reliability and Factor Analysis

In order to decide the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO-MSA) were considered. KMO has to be more than 0.50 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity has to be significant (p value< 0.05) so as to conduct factor analysis. Principle components analysis and Varimax rotation were conducted for factor analysis. Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis was performed in order to measure the reliabilities of the scales. Cronbach's alpha value has to be more than 0.60.

6.1.1. Reliability and Factor Analysis of Organizational Socialization Scale

OS scale originally involved 34 items and 6 dimensions. Factor and reliability analysis were repeated so as to obtain the desired results for KMO and Cronbach's alpha value. After factor and reliability analysis 10 items were excluded from survey. Organizational goals and values, performance proficiency, people and language dimensions were remained in the study according to the results of factor and reliability analysis. In spite of the fact that history and politics dimensions were excluded from the study, a new dimension which labeled as "job knowledge" was added to the study due to considering remaining items. When all requirements were met, 5 dimensions were remained in this study. The KMO value of OS scale was 0,897 in this study. The reliabilites of job knowledge, organizational goals and values, performance profiency, people and language dimensions were respectively 0,904, 0,898, 0,762, 0,705 and 0,643. The results of factor and reliability analysis were demonstrated respectively for performance proficiency, organizational goals and values, people, job knowledge and

language in Table 12, Table 13, Table 14, Table 15 and Table 16. Total explained variance level of OS is % 64,585.

Table 12
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Performance Proficiency

PERFORMANCE PROFICIENCY	Factor Loading
I do not have a good understanding of the politics in my organization	,798
I am not always sure what needs to be done in order to get the most desirable work assignments in my area	,746
I have not fully developed the appropriate skills and abilities to successfully perform my job	,621
I have not yet learned "the ropes" of my job	,600
Number of Itens for Factor	**4**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,762**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**7,381**

Table 13
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Organizational Goals and Values

ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS AND VALUES	Factor Loading
I support the goals that are set by my organization	,830
The goals of my organization are also my goals	,767
I would be a good example of an employee who represents my organizations values	,754
I believe that I fit well with my organization	,741
I would be a good representative of my organization	,723
I understand the goals of my organization	,642
Within my work group, I would be easily identified as "one of the gang"	,539
Number of Items for Factor	**7**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,898**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**9,623**

Table 14
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for People

PEOPLE	Factor Loading
I am usually excluded in social get togethers given by other people in the organization	,837
I am usually excluded in informal networks or gatherings of people within this organization	,721
Number of Items for Factor	**2**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,705**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**5,510**

Table 15
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Job Knowledge

JOB KNOWLEDGE	Factor Loading
I understand specific meanings of words and jargon in my trade/profession	,780
I have learned how to successfully perform my job in an efficient manner	,773
I have not mastered the specialized terminology and vocabulary of this organization	,711
I have mastered the required tasks of my job	,710
I have learned how things "really work" on the inside of this organization	,697
I understand what most of the acronyms and abbreviations of my trade/profession mean	,693
I understand what all the duties of my job entails	,677
I know who the most influential people are in my organization	,637
I would be a good resource in describing the background of my work group/department	,529
Number of Items for Factor	**9**
Cronbach's alpha	**0,904**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**37,385**

Table 16
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Language

LANGUAGE	Factor Loading
I do not always understand what this organizations abbreviations and acronyms mean	,838
I have not mastered this organizations slang and special jargon	,800
Number of Items for Factor	**2**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,643**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**4,686**

6.1.2. Reliability and Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

OCB scale originally included 23 items and 5 dimensions. Factor and reliability analysis were repeated in order to achieve the required results for KMO and Cronbach's alpha value. After factor and reliability analysis 7 items were excluded from survey. The dimensions of civic virtue, courtesy, altruism and sportsmanship were remained in the study. Conversely, conscientiousness dimension removed from the study according to the results of factor and reliability analysis. In brief, 4 dimensions of OCB and 16 items remained in this study. The KMO value of OCB scale was 0,829 in this study. The reliabilities of civic virtue, courtesy, altruism and sportsmanship dimensions were respectively 0,847, 0,797, 0,786 and 0,615. The results of factor and reliability analysis were demonstrated respectively for civic virtue, courtesy, altruism and sportsmanship in Table 17, Table 18, Table 19 and in Table 20. Total explained variance level of OCB is % 61.896.

Table 17
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Civic Virtue

CIVIC VIRTUE	Factor Loading
I keep abreast of change in the organization	,746
I foster my colleagues in order to use new method while doing their jobs	,728
I encourage my colleagues who are shy for telling their opinions	,681
I defend my company when it is criticized	,679
I attend functions that are not required but help the company image	,678
I honestly express myself about critical topics even my colleagues don't agree with me	,671
Number of Items for Factor	**6**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,847**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**35,754**

Table 18
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Courtesy

COURTESY	Factor Loading
I inform my supervisor before taking any important actions	,731
I am always willing to cooperate with others to get a job done	,667
My attendance at work is above the norm	,665
I do not take extra breaks	,640
I do not abuse the rights of others	,637
I takes steps to prevent problems with other workers	,615
Number of Items for Factor	**6**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,797**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**9,246**

Table 19
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Altruism

ALTRUISM	Factor Loading
I help others who have been absent	,904
I help others who have heavy workload	,833
Number of Items for Factor	**2**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,786**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**8,947**

Table 20
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Sportsmanship

SPORTSMANSHIP	Factor Loading
I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side	,818
I am always punctual	,813
Number of Items for Factor	**2**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,615**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**7,949**

6.1.3. Reliability and Factor Analysis of Person-Environment Fit Scale

P-E fit scale originally consisted of 15 items and 5 dimensions. Factor and reliability analysis were repeated so as to obtain the desired results for KMO and Cronbach's alpha value. After factor and reliability analysis 4 items were excluded from survey. P-O fit, P-S fit and demands-abilities fit remained in the study according to the results of factor and reliability analysis. P-G fit and needs-supplies fit were excluded from the study due to low reliability. When all requirements were fulfilled, the P-E fit scale resulted in 3 dimensions with 11 items. The KMO value of P-E fit scale was 0,879. The reliabilites of P-O fit, P-S fit and demands-abilities fit were respectively 0,927, 0,971 and 0,905. The results of factor and reliability analysis were demonstrated respectively for P-O fit, P-S fit and demands-abilities fit in Table 21, Table 22 and Table 23. Total explained variance level of P-E fit is % 83,032.

Table 21
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Person-Organization Fit

PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT	Factor Loading
My personal values match my facility's values and culture	,840
My organization's values and cultures provide a good fit with the things that I value in life	,808
There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job	,801
The attributes that I look for in a job are well satisfied by my present job	,789
My current job gives me just about everything that I want from a job	,774
The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values	,713
Number of Items for Factor	**6**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,927**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**59,795**

Table 22
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Person-Supervisor Fit

PERSON-SUPERVISOR FIT	Factor Loading
My personal values match my supervisor's values and beliefs	,901
The things I value in life are very similar to the things my supervisor values	,882
My supervisor's values and beliefs provide a good fit with the things I value in life	,877
Number of Items for Factor	**3**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,971**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**13,567**

Table 23
Results of Factor and Reliability Analyses for Demands-Abilities Fit

DEMANDS-ABILITIES FIT	Factor Loading
My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job	,931
My abilities and education are in line with the demands that my job places on me	,928
Number of Items for Factor	**2**
Cronbach's Alpha	**0,905**
Variance Explained for Factor (%)	**9,670**

6.2. Revised Model of the Study

As a result of factor and reliability analysis, the proposed model of the study is revised. The revised model of the study is presented in Figure 3.

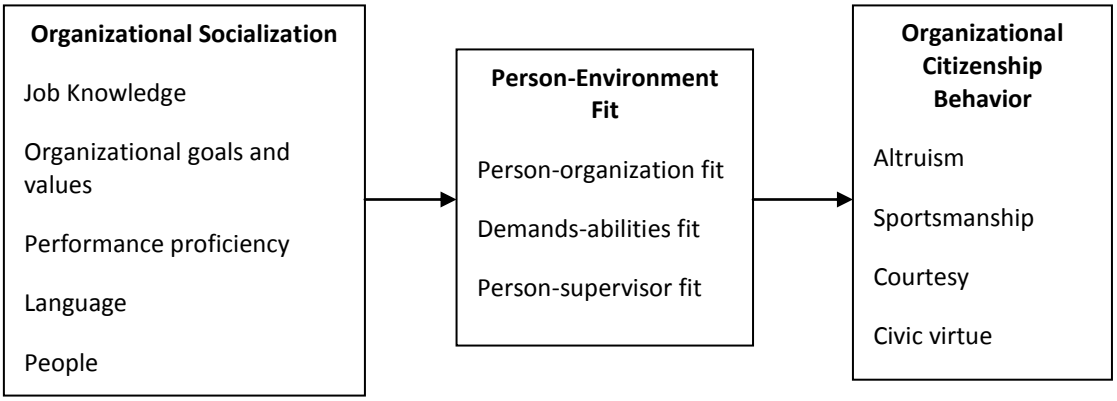

Figure 3: Revised Model of the Study

6.3. Independent Sample t-Test

Independent sample t-tests were conducted so as to measure the impacts of gender, marital status, having a child, position change at current organization and having orientation training on OS, P-E fit and OCB.

6.3.1. Independent Sample t-Test for Organizational Socialization

Independent sample t-test was conducted to OS for determining whether there is a relationship between gender, marital status, having a child, position change at current organization and having orientation training with OS. The findings of independent sample t-test revealed that OS level of employees alter in terms of having children, position change and orientation training. As can be seen in Table 24 and Table 25, an employee's levels of job knowledge (t=2,382; mean of having children=5,2972; mean of not having children= 4,9774) and organizational goals and values (t=2,087; mean of having children = 4,8188; mean of not having children=4,4321) increase if the employee has a child or children.

Table 24
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Job Knowledge According to Having Children

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Job Knowledge	**Having Children (YES)**	40	5,2972	,87104	**Equal Variances Assumed**		2,382	,018
	Having Children (NO)	162	4,9774	,73119	**Equal Variances Not Assumed**		2,143	,037
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			**F**		**p**	
					,562		,454	

Table 25
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Organizational Goals and Values According to Having Children

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Organizational Goals and Values	**Having Children (YES)**	40	4,8188	,88973	**Equal Variances Assumed**		2,087	,038
	Having Children (NO)	162	4,4321	1,08420	**Equal Variances Not Assumed**		2,351	,022
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				**F**	**p**	
						,643	,423	

Position change at an organization increases an employee's knowledge of job knowledge (t=4,192; mean of position change= 5,2717; mean of not having a position change= 4,8475), organizational goals and values (t=3,845; mean of position change=5,0311; mean of not having a position change=4,5974) , performance proficiency (t= 2,462; mean of position change=4,7065; mean of not having a position change= 4,3432) and language (t= 2,526; mean of position change= 4,4674; mean of not having a position change=3,9818). The independent sample t-test results according to position change for job knowledge, organizational goals and values, performance proficiency and language can be seen respectively in Table 26, Table 27, Table 28 and Table 29.

Table 26
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Job Knowledge According to Having a Position Change

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Job Knowledge	Position Change (YES)	92	5,2717	,57213	Equal Variances Assumed		4,050	,000
	Position Change (NO)	110	4,8475	,85748	Equal Variances Not Assumed		4,192	,000
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						10,002	,002	

Table 27
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Organizational Goals and Values According to Having a Position Change

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Organizational Goals and Values	Position Change (YES)	92	5,0311	,65202	Equal Variances Assumed		3,725	,000
	Position Change (NO)	110	4,5974	,94388	Equal Variances Not Assumed		3,845	,000
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						5,907	,016	

Table 28
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Performance Proficiency According to Having a Position Change

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Performance Proficiency	Position Change (YES)	92	4,7065	1,00110	Equal Variances Assumed		2,462	,015
	Position Change (NO)	110	4,3432	1,07987	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,478	,014
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						2,465	,118	

Table 29
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Language According to Having a Position Change

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Language	Position Change (YES)	92	4,4674	1,48769	Equal Variances Assumed		2,526	,012
	Position Change (NO)	110	3,9818	1,24504	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,486	,014
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						2,836	,094	

Having orientation training at the beginning of the job increases an employee's knowledge of performance proficiency (t= 2,978; mean of having orientation training= 4,6367; mean of not having orieantation training=4,1394) and people (t=2,127; mean of having orientation training= 5,2267; mean of not having orieantation training=4,8173)

according to independent sample t-test results. The independent sample t-test results for performace proficiency and people according to having orientation training can be seen respectively in Table 30 and Table 31.

Table 30
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Performance Proficiency According to Having Orientation Training

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Performance Proficiency	Orientation Training (YES)	150	4,6367	,99055	Equal Variances Assumed		2,978	,003
	Orientation Training (NO)	52	4,1394	1,16465	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,753	,007
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						1,276	,260	

Table 31
Independent Sample t-Test Results for People According to Having Orientation Training

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
People	Orientation Training (YES)	150	5,2267	,84660	Equal Variances Assumed		2,594	,010
	Orientation Training (NO)	52	4,8173	1,29490	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,127	,037
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						9,374	,003	

6.3.2. Independent Sample t-Test for Person-Environment Fit

Independent sample t-test was conducted to P-E fit for deciding whether there is a relationship between gender, marital status, having a child, position change at current organization and having orientation training with P-E fit. The results of independent sample t-test demonstrated that P-E fit level of employees alter in terms of having children.

When considering the findings of independent sample t-tests of P-E fit, it can be concluded that having children enabled to occur a significant difference for only P-O fit (t=2,448; mean of having children= 4,6083; mean of not having children=4,1780) . If an employee has a child, his P-O fit level is more than an employee who hasn't got a child. The results of independent sample t-test for P-O fit were demonstrated in Table 32.

Table 32
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Person-Organization Fit According to Having Children

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Person-Organization Fit	Having Children (YES)	40	4,6083	,86607	Equal Variances Assumed		2,448	,015
	Having Children (NO)	162	4,1780	1,02473	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,709	,009
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						,640	,425	

6.3.3. Independent Sample t-Test for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Independent sample t-test was conducted to OCB for determining whether there is a relationship between gender, marital status, having a child, position change at current organization and having orientation training with OCB. According to findings of independent sample t-test for OCB, it was revealed that gender, having a child, position

change and having orientation training caused a significant difference on various OCB dimensions.

Looking at the findings of independent sample t-test in terms of analyzing OCB with gender (t= 2,196; mean of women=5,2189; mean of men=4,9940) women's courtesy level is high than men. The results of independent sample t-test for courtesy according to gender were demonstrated in Table 33.

Table 33
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Courtesy According to Gender

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Courtesy	**Women**	118	5,2189	,66263	**Equal Variances Assumed**		2,196	,029
	Men	84	4,9940	,78790	**Equal Variances Not Assumed**		2,133	,034
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				**F**	**p**	
						3,445	,065	

Having a child enables to occur a significant difference on civic virtue and courtesy levels of employees. Having a child increases an employee's civic virtue (t=2,263; mean of having a child=5,0042; mean of not having a child=4,6914) and courtesy (t=2,380; mean of having a child=5,3667; mean of not having a child=5,0658) levels. The results of independent sample t-tests for civic virtue and courtesy according to having a child were demonstrated respectively in Table 34 and in Table 35.

Table 34
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Civic Virtue According to Having Children

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Civiv Virtue	Having Children (YES)	40	5,0042	,73330	Equal Variances Assumed		2,263	,025
	Having Children (NO)	162	4,6914	,79448	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,376	,021
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						,202	,654	

Table 35
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Courtesy According to Having Children

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Courtesy	Having Children (YES)	40	5,3667	,56260	Equal Variances Assumed		2,380	,018
	Having Children (NO)	162	5,0658	,74821	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,821	,006
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						1,640	,202	

Changing position at current job also has a significant impact on civic virtue. Position change increases an employee's civic virtue (t=2,790; mean of having a position change= 4,9203; mean of not having a position change= 4,6136). The findings of independent sample t-tests results for civic virtue according to having a position change can be seen in Table 36.

Table 36
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Civic Virtue According to Having a Position Change

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Civic Virtue	Position Change (YES)	92	4,9203	,68182	Equal Variances Assumed		2,790	,006
	Position Change (NO)	110	4,6136	,84982	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,845	,005
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						2,372	,125	

Having orientation training at the beginning of the job increases an employee's sportsmanship level (t=2,278; mean of having an orientation training=4,9333; mean of not having an orientation training=4,4904). The results of independent sample t-test for sportsmanhip according to having orientation training were demonstrated in Table 37.

Table 37
Independent Sample t-Test Results for Sportsmanship According to Orientation Training

		N	Mean	Std. Dev.			t	p
Sportsmanship	Orientation Training (YES)	150	4,9333	,95304	Equal Variances Assumed		2,627	,009
	Orientation Training (NO)	52	4,4904	1,28525	Equal Variances Not Assumed		2,278	,026
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				F	p	
						7,050	,009	

6.4. Hierarchial Regression Analyses

Hierarchial regression analyses' findings were demonstrated in this part. Hierarchial regression analysis was conducted so as to test the hypotheses and to determine the direction of relationships in this study.

Direct impacts of OS on OCB and combined effects of OS and P-E fit on OCB will be analyzed through hierarchial regression analysis in this study. The direct effect of each OS dimension on each OCB dimension and the combined effect of OS dimensions and P-E fit dimensions on each OCB dimension were explained in the following sections. Moreover, the findings for each OCB dimension were summarized with tables.

6.4.1. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Civic Virtue

The impacts of each OS dimension on civic virtue (Model 1A) and combined effect of OS and P-E fit dimensions on civic virtue (Model 1B) were demonstrated in Table 38. Model 1A states that OS have significant relationship with civic virtue (p=.000). When we look at OS dimensions, we understand that job knowledge (β=.157; p= .024) and organizational goals and values (β=.659; p=.000) have positive and significant relationships with civic virtue. When we include P-E fit dimensions to the model (Model 1B) in order to measure its mediator impact on civic virtue, it can be concluded that the model is still significant (p=.000) and R^2 increases to ,613 from ,543. Since the Model 1B is significant, we can understand that P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and civic virtue.

Table 38
Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Civic Virtue

	Model 1A			Model 1B		
Independent Variables	*B*	SE B	β	*B*	SE B	β
Job Knowledge	0,161	0,071	0,157*	0,130	0,067	0,126
Organizational Goals and Values	0,613	0,062	0,659*	0,455	0,063	0,489*
Performance Profiency	-0,071	0,045	-0,096	-0,091	0,042	-0,121*
People	-0,012	0,045	-0,015	0,005	0,043	0,007
Language	0,038	0,029	0,066	0,014	0,027	0,025
Person-Organization Fit				0,129	0,053	0,164*
Person-Supervisor Fit				0,032	0,043	0,047
Demands-Abilities Fit				0,170	0,047	0,196*
Adjusted R2	0,531			0,597		
R2	0,543			0,613		
R2 Change	0,543			0,070		
Significance of F Change	0,000			0,000		
F for Change in R2	46,514			11,669		
F for ANOVA	46,514			38,195		
Note: * p< 0,05						

6.4.2. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Courtesy

The effects of each OS dimension on courtesy (Model 2A) and combined effects of OS and P-E fit dimensions on courtesy (Model 2B) were stated in Table 39. Model 2A emphasizes that OS have a significant relationship with courtesy (p=.000). Model 2A demonstrates that job knowledge (β=.365; p=.000) and organizational goals and values (β=.353; p=.000) have a significant and positive contribution on courtesy. Moreover, performance proficiency (β=-.143; p=.045) have significant but negative impact on courtesy. When we include P-E fit dimensions to the model (Model 2B), it

can be seen that P-E fit mediates the relationship between OS and courtesy (p=.003). Adding P-E fit to the model increases R^2 to ,401 from ,356.

Table 39
Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Courtesy

	Model 2A			Model 2B		
Independent Variables	*B*	SE B	β	*B*	SE B	β
Job Knowledge	0,343	0,077	0,365*	0,309	0,076	0,328*
Organizational Goals and Values	0,301	0,067	0,353*	0,198	0,072	0,233*
Performance Profiency	-0,098	0,049	-0,143*	-0,106	0,048	-0,155*
People	-0,024	0,049	-0,034	-0,019	0,049	-0,026
Language	0,052	0,031	0,098	0,031	0,031	0,059
Person-Organization Fit				0,039	0,061	0,054
Person-Supervisor Fit				0,037	0,049	0,059
Demands-Abilities Fit				0,162	0,054	0,204*
Adjusted R2	0,340			0,376		
R2	0,356			0,401		
R2 Change	0,356			0,045		
Significance of F Change	0,000			0,003		
F for Change in R2	21,690			4,835		
F for ANOVA	21,690			16,165		
Note: * p< 0,05						

6.4.3. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Altruism

The impacts of each OS dimension on altruism (Model 3A) and combined effects of OS and P-E fit dimensions on altruism (Model 3B) were summarized in Table 40. The significant relationship between OS and altruism was revealed according to hierarchial regression results (p=.000). Organizational goals and values (β=.369; p=.000) have a significant and positive relationship with altruism (model 3A). When P-

E fit was included to the model (Model 3B), it can be seen that P-E fit mediated the relationship between OS and altruism (p=.000). Moreover, adding P-E fit to the model increases R^2 to ,235 from ,130.

Table 40
Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Altruism

	Model 3A			Model 3B		
Independent Variables	*B*	SE B	β	*B*	SE B	β
Job Knowledge	0,086	0,140	0,058	0,087	0,134	0,060
Organizational Goals and Values	0,486	0,121	0,369*	0,361	0,127	0,274*
Performance Profiency	-0,120	0,088	-0,114	-0,186	0,084	-0,176*
People	-0,152	0,089	-0,135	-0,098	0,085	-0,087
Language	0,030	0,056	0,037	-0,002	0,054	-0,003
Person-Organization Fit				-0,034	0,106	-0,031
Person-Supervisor Fit				0,357	0,086	0,370*
Demands-Abilities Fit				-0,016	0,095	-0,013
Adjusted R2	0,108			0,203		
R2	0,130			0,235		
R2 Change	0,130			0,105		
Significance of F Change	0,000			0,000		
F for Change in R2	5,847			8,763		
F for ANOVA	5,847			7,377		
Note: * p< 0,05						

6.4.4. Hierarchial Regression Analysis for Sportsmanship

The effects of each OS dimension on sportsmanhip (Model 4A) and combined effects of OS and P-E fit dimensions on sportsmanship (Model 4B) were demonstrated in Table 41. According to Model 4A, the relationship between OS and sportsmanship is significant (p=.000). Performance proficiency (β=.393, p=.000) and people (β=.242,

p=.001) have a significant and positive contribution to sportsmanship. When we include P-E fit to the model (Model 4B), it can be seen from the table that P-E fit didn't mediate the relationship between OS and sportsmanship (p=.171).

Table 41
Hierarchial Regression Analysis Results of the Mediator Effect of Person-Environment Fit on the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Sportsmanship

	Model 4A			Model 4B		
Independent Variables	*B*	SE B	β	*B*	SE B	β
Job Knowledge	0,082	0,115	0,059	0,038	0,117	0,028
Organizational Goals and Values	0,182	0,100	0,146	0,123	0,111	0,098
Performance Profiency	0,294	0,073	0,293*	0,300	0,074	0,298*
People	0,258	0,074	0,242*	0,251	0,075	0,235*
Language	0,004	0,047	0,006	-0,015	0,048	-0,020
Person-Organization Fit				-0,040	0,093	-0,037
Person-Supervisor Fit				0,029	0,076	0,032
Demands-Abilities Fit				0,180	0,083	0,154*
Adjusted R2	0,310			0,317		
R2	0,327			0,344		
R2 Change	0,327			0,017		
Significance of F Change	0,000			0,171		
F for Change in R2	19,067			1,688		
F for ANOVA	19,067			12,676		
Note: * p< 0,05						

7. CONCLUSION

In this part, the findings of the study will be summarized, interpreted and discussed. Another purpose of this chapter is the evaluation of the hypotheses. This section ends with implications of this study and recommendations of future researches.

7.1. Evaluation of the Relationship between Organizational Socialization and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Looking at the results of regression analysis, it can be understood that all OS dimensions expect language had an impact on OCB dimensions. Job knowledge and organizational goals and values have positive impacts on civic virtue. Job knowledge and organizational goals and values explain 54.3% of civic virtue. Moreover, job knowledge and organizational goals and values have positive effects on courtesy, too. Conversely, performance proficiency has a negative effect on courtesy. Job knowledge, organizational goals and values and performance proficiency explain 35.6% of courtesy. In spite of the fact that civic virtue and courtesy were affected by multiple OS dimensions, organizational goals and values is the only dimension which has a positive impact on altruism. Organizational goals and values explain 13% of altruism.

Performance proficiency and people have a positive impact on sportsmanship level of employees according to the results of study. Performance proficiency and people dimensions of OS explain 32.7% of sportsmanship. In other words, job knowledge affects civic virtue and courtesy; organizational goals and values have an impact on civic virtue, courtesy and altruism; performance proficiency positively affects sportsmanship but have a negative influence on courtesy; and people dimension of OS affects solely sportsmanship. When we consider all findings in this part, it can be concluded that H_1 was partially accepted.

Bodoh (2012, p.154) studied the relationships between socialization content, organizational commitment and OCB in public sector. Bodoh (2012, p.154) found that politics and organizational goals and values were predictors of OCB. In this study, some of the items which measure politics dimensions were involved in job knowledge and job knowledge predicted OCB. As consistent with the findings of Bodoh (2012, p. 154),

organizational goals and values were a predictor of OCB in this study, too. In addition to Bodoh (2012, p. 154)'s findings, performance proficiency and people dimensions of OS were also predicted OCB in this study.

7.2. Evaluation of the Combined Effect of Organizational Socialization and Person-Environment Fit on Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Hierarchial regression analyses were conducted in order to measure the mediating role of P-E fit on the relationship between OS and OCB. After analyzing the relationship between OS and OCB in the previous part, this section involves the evaluation of the combined effects of OS and P-E fit on OCB. As mentioned in the previous part, each OS dimensions except language have a significant impact on OCB. When we include P-E fit dimensions to the models for each OCB dimension, each OS dimensions except language maintain to affect OCB. Moreover, at least one P- E fit dimension have an impact on each OCB dimensions after adding P-E fit to the model as a mediator variable.

When we added P-E fit to the model for civic virtue, it was seen that organizational goals and values, P-O fit and demands-abilities fit had a positive impact on civic virtue. Conversely, performance proficiency had a negative impact on civic virtue when we added P-E fit to the model. Moreover, including P-E fit to the model increased the explanation level of civic virtue in terms of raising R^2 to 61.3% from 54.3%. It was seen that P-E fit mediated the relationship between OS and civic virtue. Therefore, H_{2a} was accepted.

Job knowledge, organizational goals and values and demands-abilities fit had a positive impact on courtesy when we included P-E fit to the model. Furthermore, performance proficiency had a negative impact on courtesy after adding P-E fit. Job knowledge, organizational goals and values, and performance proficiency explained 40.1% of courtesy. When we compared R^2 value before and after including P-E fit to the model, it was seen that including P-E fit increased R^2 to 40.1% from 35.6%. All things considered, it was understood that P-E fit mediated the relationship between OS and courtesy. Thus, H_{2b} was accepted.

Organizational goals and values, and P-S fit had a positive impact on altruism when we included P-E fit to the model. Conversely, performance proficiency had a negative effect on altruism. Organizational goals and values, performance proficiency and P-S fit explained 23.5% of altruism. When we compared R^2 value before and after including P-E fit to the model, it was seen that including P-E fit increased R^2 to 23.5% from 13%. It was seen that P-E fit mediated the relationship between OS and altruism. Therefore, H_{2c} was accepted.

The relationship between OS and sportsmanship was not significant after including P-E fit to the model as a mediator. Since P-E fit didn't mediate the relationship between OS and sportsmanship, H_{2d} wasn't supported. However, the relationship between OS and sportsmanship was significant before adding P-E fit. In spite of the fact that the model was not significant; performance proficiency, people and demands-abilities fit had a positive impact on sportsmanship. Moreover, including P-E fit to the model increased R^2 to 34.4% from 32.7%.

Since conscientiousness dimension of OCB was excluded from the study after factor and reliability analyses, H_{2e} can't be tested in the study. As previously mentioned above; $H_{2a,}$ H_{2b} and H_{2c} were accepted. Conversely, H_{2d} wasn't accepted. Therefore, H_2 was partially accepted.

7.3. Demographic Variables and Organizational Socialization

Independent sample t-tests were conducted in order to determine the impacts of gender, marital status, having children, position change and having orientation training on OS. Results of the independent sample t-tests revealed that there were significant differences on OS levels of employees according to having children, position change and having orientation training.

There were significant differences on job knowledge and organizational goals and values levels of employees according to having children. It was seen that having children increased the levels of job knowledge and organizational goals and values. Moreover, position change at current organization led to significant differences on job knowledge, organizational goals and values, performance proficiency and language

dimensions of OS. The independent sample t-test results demonstrated that position change increased an employee's job knowledge, organizational goals and values, performance proficiency and language. In addition, there were significant differences on performance proficiency and people dimensions of OS according to having orientation training at the beginning of their job. If an employee had orientation training at the beginning of his relationship with an organization, his performance proficiency and people levels were higher than employees who didn't have orientation training.

7.4. Demographic Variables and Person – Environment Fit

Independent sample t-tests were conducted so as to decide the effects of gender, marital status, having children, position change and having orientation training on P-E fit. Results of the independent sample t-tests revealed that there were significant differences on P-E fit levels of employees according to having children.

Looking at the results of independent sample t-test results, it was seen that there was a significant difference on employees' P-O fit level according to having children. The results demonstrated that if an employee had children, his P-O fit level was higher than an employee who didn't have any child.

7.5. Demographic Variables and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Independent sample t-tests were conducted in order to determine the impacts of gender, marital status, having children, position change and having orientation training on OCB. Results of the independent sample t-tests revealed that there were significant differences on OCB levels of employees according to gender, having children, position change and having orientation training.

There was a significant difference on courtesy levels of employees with respect to gender. The results of independent sample t-test emphasized that women's courtesy level was higher than men. Considering having children, there were significant differences on civic virtue and courtesy levels of employees according to having children. The results showed that having children increased the levels of civic virtue and courtesy.

Looking at the findings of independent sample t-tests, it was seen that there was a significant difference on civic virtue levels of employees with respect to position change at current organization. If an employee experienced a position change at his current organization, his civic virtue level was higher than colleagues who didn't change his position at the organization.

The results of independent sample t-tests demonstrated that there was a significant difference on sportsmanship level of employees according to having orientation training at the beginning of job. It was seen that if an employee had orientation training at the beginning of his tenure at an organization, his sportsmanship level was higher than employees who didn't experience orientation training.

7.6. Recommendations

This study used a cross - sectional design rather than benefiting from a longitudinal study. Since the socialization perceptions of employees can alter from time to time, researchers may use a longitudinal design so as to measure socialization dimensions. Therefore, the continuity of responses may be assessed over a period.

This study was conducted on 202 white collar employees in Istanbul. Most respondents were working at automotive and FMCG companies. In order to obtain more specific findings and suggest recommendations to companies, researchers may conduct a survey on a larger sample or a more narrow-scoped sample.

All questionnaires which used in the study were self-reported. Furthermore, all findings arose from perceptions of the respondents. If a supervisor evaluates his subordinate in order to measure the subordinate's OCB level, the OCB levels of employees can differ. Therefore, researchers can conduct a survey on supervisors of employees.

Organizational socialization studies were limited and mostly based on teachers and students in Turkey. Therefore, further researches must be done in this area. Employers can shape their human resources policies according to results of this study. New orientation programs or mentorship practices can be determined with considering

this study's results. Organizations can reduce their hiring and turnover costs in terms of benefiting from this study.

7.7. Limitations of the Study

The survey was conducted on 202 white collar employees in Istanbul. The sample size was involved with respondents who answered the questionnaire completely. In this study, simple random sampling method was used. Changing the sampling method can alter the findings of study.

Most respondents of the study were working at automotive and FMCG companies. However, there wasn't any restriction about positions or departments of employees. The respondents were selected from only service industry. The white collar employees, who worked at production sector, weren't included to the study. Moreover, the questionnaire was self-reported. The answers were formed by the perceptions of employees.

The study design was cross-sectional. The questionnaire was applied to employees only one time. The socialization or citizenship perceptions of employees can change during a period of time.

Looking at the OS and P-E fit literature, it can be seen that OS and P-E fit have an impact on each other. In spite of the fact that the effect of OS on P-E fit was involved to the model of the study, the effect of P-E fit on OS wasn't included to the model.

REFERENCES

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in Social Exchange, Berkowitz L. (Ed.), Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 267 – 299, New York: Academic Press.

Adams, J. S. (1963) Toward an understanding of inequity. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67, 422-436.

Akdere, M., & Schmidt, S. W. (2007). Measuring the effects of employee orientation training on employee perceptions of organizational culture: Implications for organization development. *The Business Review,* 5(1), 234-239.

Aliyev, Y. (2014). Örgütsel Sosyalleşme ve Örgütsel Özdeşleşme Arasındaki İlişki: Bir Araştırma. Master's Thesis. Atatürk Üniversitesi Institute of Social Sciences. Erzurum, Turkey.

Allen, T.D., McManus, S.E., & Russell, J.E. (1999). Newcomer Socialization and Stress: Formal peer relationships as a source of support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 54,* 453-470.

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63,* 1-18.

Amah, O.E. (2010)."Multi-dimensional leader member exchange and work relationship: The role of reciprocity", Asian Journal of Scientific Research, Vol. 3, No. 1, PP.39-50.

Anderson, N., & Thomas, H. D. C. (1996). Work group socialization. In M. A. West (Ed.), Handbook of work group psychology (pp. 423–450). Chichester, England: Wiley.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23(3), 267-286.

Ashford, S.J. (1986). The role of feedback seeking in individual adaptation: A resource perspective. Academy of Management Journal. 2 9 .465-487.

Ashford, S.J., & Cummings, L.L. (1985). Proactive feedback seeking: The instrumental use of the information environment. Journal of Occupational Psychology. 58. 67-79.

Ashforth, B. E., & Saks, A. M. (1996). Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal, 39,* 149-178.

Ashforth, B. E., Sluss, D. M., & Saks, A. M. (2007). Socialization tactics, proactive behavior, and newcomer learning: Integrating socialization models. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 70,* 447-462.

Baker, W. K. (1995). Allen and Meyer's 1990 longitudinal study: A reanalysis and reinterpretation using structural equation modeling. Human Relations, 48, 169–186

Baker, H.E., (1992). Employee socialization strategies and the presence of union representation. Labor Studies Journal. 17.5-17.

Bandura, A. (1997). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Barnard, C. I. 1938. The functions of the executive. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. 1983. Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship." Academy of Management Journal, 26: 587–595.

Benson, J., & Brown, M. (2011). Generations at work: Are there differences and do they matter? International Journal of Human Resource Management, 22(9), 1843-1865.

Behery, M.H. (2009). Person/organization job-fitting and affective commitment to the organization. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 16,* 179-196.

Berger, C.R., & Calabrese, R.J. (1975). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: Toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. Human Communication Research. 1. 99-112.

Bettencourt, L. A., & Brown, S. W. 1997. Contact employees: Relationships among workplace fairness, job satisfaction and prosocial service behaviors. Journal of Retailing, 73: 39–61.

Bishop, J. W., Scott, K. D., & Burroughs, S. M. (2000). Support, commitment, and employee outcomes in a team environment. Journal of Management, 26(6), 1113-1132.

Bishop, J. W., Scott, K. D., Goldsby, M. G., & Cropanzano, R. (2005). A construct validity study of commitment and perceived support variables: A multi-foci approach across different team environments. Group & Organization Management, 30(2), 153-180.

Blau, P. M. (1964). Exchange and power in social life. New York, NY: John Wiley.

Bocchino, C. C, Hartman, B. W., & Foley, P. F. (2003). The relationship between person-organization congruence, perceived violations of the psychological contract, and occupational stress symptoms. Consulting Psychology Journal, 55, 203-214.

Bodenman, J. R. (1996). Person-organization fit: How the communication of values is related to perception of “fit” during the screening interview. Dissertation Abstracts International, 56, 4606. (UMINo. 3010543)

Bodoh M. N., (2012). Mastery of Socialization Content and Citizenship Behavior Associated With Organization and Newcomer Commitment: A Correlational Analysis. PhD Thesis. Northcentral University Graduate Faculty of the School of Business and Technology Management. Prescott Valley, Arizona.

Bolon, D. S. 1997. Organizational citizenship behavior among hospital employees: A multidimensional-analysis involving job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Hospital & Health Services Administration, 42: 221–241.

Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. J. 1997. Task performance and contextual performance: The meaning for personnel selection research. Human Performance, 10: 99–109.

Bowler,W. M.; Halbesleben, J. R. B.; Paul, J. R. B. (2010)."If you're close with the leader, you must be a brownnose:the role of leader–member relationships in follower, leader and coworker attributions of organizational citizenship behavior motives", Human resource management Review, No. 20, PP. 309-316

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,* 43-54.

Brief, A. P., & Motowidlo, S. J. 1986. Prosocial organizational behaviors. Academy of Management Review, 11:710–725.

Brkick, M., Jeffs, D., & Carless, S. A. (2002). A global self-report measure of person-job fit. European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 18, 43-51.

Brodie, J. M. (2006). Getting managers on board: Technology can help ease the transition for new managers and help them generate value more quickly. *HR Magazine,* 105-108.

Brunetto, Y., Farr-Wharton, R., & Shacklock, K. (2011). Communication, training, well-being, and commitment across nurse generations. Nursing Outlook, 60(1), 7-15.

Buono, A. F., & Kamm, J. B. (1983). Marginality and the organizational socialization of female managers. Human Relations, 36(12), 1125-1140.

Burroughs, S. M., & Eby, L. T. 1998. Psychological sense of community at work: A measurement system and explanatory framework. Journal of Community Psychology, 26: 509–532.

Burton, C. H. 2003. An Empirical Investigation o f the Interrelationships o f Organizational Culture, Managerial Values, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. PhD Dissertation. George Washington University. Washington, D.C, U.S.

Cable D.M., & DeRue D.S. (2002). The convergent and discriminant validity of subjective fit perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87 (5),* 875-884.

Cable D.M., & Judge, T.A. (1997). Interviewers' perceptions of person-organization fit and organizational selection decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 562-577*

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.

Cable, D.M., & Parsons C.K. (2001). Socialization tactics and personorganization fit. *Personnel Psychology, 54,* 1-23.

Campbell, J. P., & Pritchard, R. D. Motivation theory in industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1976, 63-130.

Cappelli, P., & Rogovsky, N. 1998. Employee involvement and organizational citizenship: Implications for labor-law reform and lean production. Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 51: 633–653.

Chao, G. T., O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Wolfe, S., Klein, H. J., & Gardner, P. D. (1994). Organizational socialization: Its content and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 779(5),* 730-743.

Chatman, J.A. (1991). Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 36 (3),* 459-484.

Chatman, J.A. (1989). Improving interactional organizational research: A model of person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Review, 14,* 333-349.

Collins, M. D. (2007). "Understanding the relationships between leader-member Exchange (LMX),psychological empowerment, job satisfaction and turnover intent in a limited-service restaurant environment".PhD Dissertation. Ohio State University. Human nutrition and food management, PP. 1-169.

Cook, K. S., Fine, G. A., & House, J. S. (Eds.). (1995). Sociological perspectives on social psychology. Boston, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon. Reproduced

Cooper-Thomas, H. D., & Anderson, N. (2006). Organizational socialization: A new theoretical model and recommendations for future research and HRM practices in organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21* (5), 492-516

Cooper-Thomas, H.D., Vianen, A.V., Anderson, N. (2004). Changes in personorganization fit: The impact of socialization tactics on perceived and actual PO fit. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 13 (I),* 52-78.

Cosier R. A. & Dalton, D.R. (1983). Equity theory and time: a reformulation. Academy *of Management Review,* Vol 8, No 2, 311- 319.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. Journal of Management, 31(6), 874-900.

Davis, Victoria A. (2006). Relationships among workplace fit perceptions, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Phd Thesis. Alliant International University. San Diego, CA.

Dawis, R. V., & Lofquist, L. H. (1984). A Psychological Theory o f Work Adjustment, Minneapolis, MN: University o f Minnesota Press.

De Cooman,R., De Gieter, S., Perpermans, R., Hermans, S., Du Bois, C, Caers, R., Jegers, M. (2009). Person-Organization Fit: Testing Socialization and Attraction-Selection-Attrition Hypotheses. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 74,* 102-107.

Deluga, R. J. 1995. The relation between trust in the supervisor and subordinate organizational citizenship behavior. Military Psychology, 7: 1–16.

Deluga, R. J. (1994). Supervisor Trust Building, Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 67, 4, 315-326.

Dienesch,R.M., & Liden,R.C,. (1986). "Leader-member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development",Academy of management review,11,PP. 618-634.

Dubinsky, A. J., Howell, R. D., Ingram, T. N., & Bellenger, D. N. (1986). Sales force socialization. Journal o f Marketing, 50(4), 192-207.

Dunn, S., & Jasinski, D. (2009). The role of new hire orientation programs. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 46,*115-127.

Eisenberger, R., Cotterell, N., & Marvel, J. (1987). Reciprocation ideology. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53(4), 743-750.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71(3), 500-507.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(3), 565-573.

Emerson, R. M. (1981). Social exchange theory, in M. Rosenberg & R. H. Turner (Eds.), Social psychology: Sociological perspectives (pp. 30-65). New York: Basic Book Publishers, Inc.

Farahbod, F., Azadehdel, M., Rezaei – Dizgah, M., & Nezhadi-Jirdehi, M. 2012. Organizational citizenship behavior: The role of organizational justice and leader–member exchange. Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, Vol 3, No 9

Farh, J. L., Earley, P. C., & Lin, S. C. 1997. Impetus for action: A cultural analysis of justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese society. Administrative Science Quarterly, 42: 421–444.

Feldman, D. C. (1989). Socialization, resocialization, and retraining: Refraining the research agenda. In Goldstein, I. L (Ed.) Training and Development in Organizations (pp.376-416). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Feldman, D. C. (1981). The multiple socialization of organization members. *Academy of Management Review, 6,* 309-319. Retrieved from ProQuest database.

Feldman, D. C. (1976). A Contingency Theory of Socialization. PhD Dissertation. Yale University. New Hawen, CT.

Fisher, C. D. (1986). Organizational socialization: An integrative review. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management, 4,*101-145.

French, J. P., Caplan, R. D., & Harrison, R. V. (1982). *The mechanisms of job stress and strain.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Ge, J., Su, X., & Zhou, Y. (2010). Organizational socialization, organizational identification, and organizational citizenship behavior: An empirical research of Chinese high-tech manufacturing enterprises. Nankai Business Review International, 2(2), 166-179.

Gebbia, M. I. (1999). Transforming of work environment: Do norms influence organizational citizenship behavior? Dissertation Abstracts International, 60(4), 1895B. (UMI No. 9924808).

George, J. M. 1991. State or trait: Effects of positive mood on prosocial behavior at work. Journal of AppliedPsychology, 76: 299–307.

George, J. M. 1990. Personality, affect, and behavior in groups. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75: 107–116.

George, J. M., & Brief, A. P. 1992. Feeling good-doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship. Psychological Bulletin, 112: 310–329.

George, J. M., & Jones, G. R. 1997. Organizational spontaneity in context. Human Performance, 10: 153–170.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. American Sociological Review, 25(2), 161-178.

Graen, G. B. (1976). Role-making processes within complex organizations. In Dunnette MD (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp.1201- 1245). Chicago: Rand McNally.

Graen,G. & Cashman,J. (1975). "A role making model of leadership in formal organizations: A developmental approach", In j. Hunt & L.L. Larson (Eds), Leadership frontiers. Kent,Ohio: Kent state university press,PP. 143-165.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. 1995. Development of leader- member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. Leadership Quarterly, 6: 219–247.

Graham, J. W. 1991. An essay on organizational citizenship behavior. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 4: 249–270.

Graham, J. W. 1989. Organizational citizenship behavior: Construct redefinition, operationalization, and validation. Unpublished working paper, Loyola University of Chicago, Chicago, IL.

Greene-Shortridge, T. (2008). Proximal and longitudinal outcomes of person - environment fit: a positive psychological approach. PhD Thesis. Clemson University. Clemson, South Carolina.

Griffin, A. C., Colella, A., & Goparaju, S. (2000). Newcomer and organizational socialization tactics: An interactionist perspective. *Human Resource Management Review, 10(4),* 453-474.

Gruman, J. A., Saks, A. M., & Zweig, D. I. (2006). Organizational socialization tactics and newcomer proactive behaviors: An integrative study. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 69,*90-104.

Güler, B. (2009). Örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı ve örgüt içi çatışma arasındaki ilişki: Sağlık Sektörü Uygulaması. Master's Thesis. Marmara University Institute of Social Sciences. İstanbul, Turkey.

Gürel, H. (2012). The mediating role of individual responsibility on the relationship between corporate responsibility - organizational citizenship behavior and the role of corporate responsibility conceptions and organizational identification as moderators. PhD Dissertation. Marmara University. Istanbul, Turkey.

Hackett, R. D., Farh, J.-L., Song, L. J., & Lapierre, L. M. 2003. LMX and organizational citizenship behavior: Examining the links within and across Western and Chinese samples. In G. Graen (Ed.), Dealing with diversity: LMX leadership—The series, vol. 1: 219– 263. Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

Haptonstahl, D. E. (1998). Assessing applicant "fit" within the selection process: Which interviewer perceptions matter? Dissertation Abstracts International, 59, 0901. (UMI No. 9824483)

Haueter, J. A., Macan, T., & Winter, J. (2003). Measurement of newcomer socialization: Construct validation of a multidimensional scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63(1),* 20.
Hess, N., & Jepsen, D. M. (2009). Career stage and generational differences in psychological contracts. Career Development International, 14(3), 261-283.

Hinkle, R. K. (2005). The moderating effects of gender role on the relationship between person-environment fit and job satisfaction. PhD Dissertation. University of Louisville College of Education and Human Development. Louisville, Kentucky.

Holland, J. L. (1973). *Making vocational choices.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc. Holland, J. L. (1977). *The vocational preference inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Holton, E. F. III. (1996). New employee development: A review and reconceptualization. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 7(3), 233-252.

Howes, J. C., Cropanzano, R., Grandey, A. A., & Mohler, C. J. (2000). Who is supporting whom? Quality team effectiveness and perceived organizational support. Journal of Quality Management, 5(2), 207-223.

Huseman, R.C., Hatfield, J.D., Miles, E.W. 1987. A new perspective on equity theory: the equity sensitivity construct.Academy of Management Review, Vol 12, No:2, p. 222-234.

Jones, G. R. (1986). Socialization tactics, self-efficacy, and newcomers' adjustment to organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 29(2),* 262-279.

Judge, T. A., & Cable, D. M. (1997). Applicant personality, organizational culture, and organization attraction. *Personnel Psychology, 50,* 359-394.

Kammeyer-Mueller, J. D., Livingston, B. A., & Liao, H. (2011). Perceived similarity, proactive adjustment, and organizational socialization, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 7(2), 225-236.

Katz, R. (1980). Time and work: Toward an integrative perspective. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior (Vol. 2, pp. 81–127). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Katz, D. 1964. Motivational basis of organizational behavior. Behavioral Science, 9: 131–146.

Kelley, S. W., & Hoffman, K. D. 1997. An investigation of positive affect, prosocial behaviors, and service quality. Journal of Retailing, 73: 407–427.

Kim, T.Y., Cable, D.M., & Kim, S.P. (2005). Socialization tactics, employee proactivity, and person-organization fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90 (2), 232-241.*

Kim, W. C., & Mauborgne, R. A. 1996. Procedural justice and managers' in-role and extra-role behavior: The case of the multinational. Management Science, 42: 499–515.

Kim, W. C., & Mauborgne R. A. 1993. Procedural justice, attitudes, and subsidiary top management compliance with multinationals' corporate strategic decisions. Academy of Management Journal, 36: 502–526.

Klein, H. J., & Weaver, N. A. (2000). The effectiveness of an organizational-level orientation training program in the socialization of new hires. *Personnel Psychology,* 55(1), 47-66.

Konovsky, M. A., & Organ, D. W. (1996). Dispositional and contextual determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17,* 253- 266. Retrieved from ProQuest database.

Kristof-Brown, A. L. (2000). Perceived applicant fit: Distinguishing between recruiters' perceptions of person–job and person–organization fit. Personnel Psychology, 53, 643–671.

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., Jansen, K. J., & Colbert, A. E. (2002). A policy-capturing study of the simultaneous effects of fit with jobs, groups, and organizations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 985-993.

Kristof-Brown, A.L., Zimmerman, R.D., & Johnson, E.C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, personorganization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. Personnel Psychology, 58, 281-342.

Lauver, K.J., & Kristof-Brown, A.L. (2001). Distinguishing between employees' perceptions of person-job and person-organization fit. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 59, 454-170.

LePine, J. A., & Erez, A. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: A critical review and meta- analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 52-65.

Levine, J. M., & Moreland, R. L. (1994). Group socialization: Theory and research. In W. Stroebe & M. Hewstone (Eds.), European review of social psychology (Vol. 5, pp. 305– 336). Chichester, England: Wiley.

Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics: Concepts, method and reality in social sciences, social equilibria and social change. *Human Relations, 1,* 5-42.

Liden, R., & Graen, G. (1980).“Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership”, Academy of management journal,Vol. 23, PP. 451-65.

Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). “Multidimensionality of leader–member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development”,Journal of management, 24, PP.43–72.

Louis, M. R. (1980). Surprise and sense making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. Administrative Science Quarterly, 25, 226–251.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Ahearne, M. 1998. Some possible antecedents and consequences of in-role and extra-role salesperson performance. Journal of Marketing, 62: 87–98.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. 1993. The impact of organizational citizenship behavior on evaluations of sales performance. Journal of Marketing, 57: 70–80.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. 1991. Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons’ performance. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50: 123–150.

MacKenzie, S., Podsakoff, P., & Rich, G. (2001). Transformational and transactional leadership and sales person performance. Academy of Marketing Science, 29, 115-134.

Malamut, A. B.. (2002). Socialization and Perceptual Agreement: Testing a Bottom-up Emergence Model of Organizational Climate Formation.PhD Thesis. George Washington University. Washington, D.C., US.

Major, D. A., Kozlowski, S. W. J., Chao, G. T., & Gardner, P. D. (1995). A longitudinal investigation of newcomer expectations, early socialization outcomes, and the moderating effects of role development factors. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80, 418–431.

Maslyn, J. M.; Uhl-bien, M. (2001)."Leader-member exchange and its dimensions: Effects of self-effort and others effort on relationship quality", Journal of applied psychology,Vol. 86, No. 4, PP.697-708.

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.

Messick, D.M. & Cook, K.S. (Eds). (1983). Equity Theory: Psychological and Sociological Perspectives. New York. Praeger

Mignerey, J. T., Rubin, R. B., & Gorden, W. I. (1995). Organizational entry: An investigation of newcomer communication behavior and uncertainty. Communication Research, 22(1), 54–85.

Miller, A. E. (2006). Assessing The Relationship Between Organizational Socialization Tactics and Culture in High Technology Organizations. PhD Thesis. The University of Alabama in Huntsville, The Department of Industrial and Systems Engineering & Engineering Management

Miller, V. D., & Jablin, F. M. (1991). Information seeking during organizational entry: Influences, tactics, and a model of the firm. *Academy of Management Review,* 76(1), 92-120.

Mitus, J. S. (2006). Organizational socialization from a content perspective and its effect on the affective commitment of newly hired rehabilitation counselors. *Journal of Rehabilitation, 72(2),* 12-20.

Moorman, R. H., & Blakely, G. L. 1995. Individualism-Collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16: 127–142.

Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. 1998. Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior? Academy of Management Journal, 41: 351–357.

Moreland, R. L., & Levine, J. M. (1982). Socialization in small groups: Temporal changes in individual-group relations. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), Advances in experimental social psychology (Vol. 15, pp. 137–192). New York: Academic Press.

Morley, J.M. (2007). Person-Organization Fit. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 22,* 109-117.

Mosley Jr, Donald C. (2002). The influence of person-job fit, person - organization fit, ans self-efficacy perceptions on work attitudes, job performance and turnover. PhD Thesis. Mississippi State University. Mississippi, USA.

Morrison, E. W. (1993). Newcomer information seeking: Exploring types, modes, sources, andoutcomes. Academy of Management Journal, 36, 557–589.

Morrison, E. W., & Phelps, C. C. 1999. Taking charge at work: Extrarole efforts to initiate workplace change. Academy of Management Journal, 42: 403–419.

Morrison, E. W. (1994). Role definitions and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy o f Management Journal, 37,*1543-1567.

Morrow, P. C., (2011). Managing organizational commitment: Insights from longitudinal *research. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79(1),* 18-35.

Motowidlo, S. J. (2000). Some basic issues related to contextual performance and organizational citizenship behavior in human resource management. *Human Resource Management, 10,*115-126. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. 1994. Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79: 475–480.

Mowday, R. T. Equity theory predictions of behavior in organizations. In R. M. Steers & L. W. Porter (Eds.), Motivation and work behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979, 124-146.

Murphy, K. R., & Shiarella, A. H. 1997. Implications of the multidimensional nature of job performance for the validity of selection tests: Multivariate frameworks for studying test validity. Personnel Psychology, 50: 823–854.

Netemeyer, R. G., Bowles, J. S., MacKee, D. O., & McMurrian, R. 1997. An investigation into the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviors in a personal selling context. Journal of Marketing, 61: 85–98.

Noe, R. A., Hollenbeck, J. R., Gerhart, B., & Wright, P. M. (2003). Human resource management: Gaining a competitive advantage. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Norris, D.R., & Riebuhr, R.E. (1984). Organizational tenure as a moderator of the job satisfaction-job performance relationship. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 24, 169-178.

O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. (1991). People and organizational culture: A Q-sort approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal, 34 (3),* 487-516.

O'Reilly, C., & Chatman, J. 1986. Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification and internalization on prosocial behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71: 492–499.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. Human Performance, 10, 85-97.

Organ, D. W. 1990a. The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), Research in organizational behavior, Vol. 12: 43–72. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Organ, D. W. 1990b. The subtle significance of job satisfaction. Clinical Laboratory Management Review, 4: 94–98.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good Soldier syndrome.* Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D.W. ve K. Ryan (1995). A Meta-Analytic Review of Attitudinal and Dispositional Predictors Of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 4, 775–802.

Organ D.W. ve M. A. Konovsky (1989). Cognitive Versus Determinants of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 157- 164.

Ostroff, C, & Kozlowski, S.W. (1992). Organizational Socialization as a Learning Process: The role of information acquisition, *Personnel Psychology*, *45*, 849-874.

Ostroff, C., & Rothausen, T. J. (1997). The moderating effect of tenure in person environment fit: A field study in educational organizations. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, *70*, 173-188.

Özçelik, F. (2008). Örgütsel sosyalleşmenin örgütsel bağlılığa etkisi: Bir Uygulama. Master's Thesis. Marmara University Institute of Social Sciences. Istanbul, Turkey.

Paillé, P. (2012). Do coworkers make the service customer? A field study in the public sector. Review of Public Personnel Administration, 32(4), 1-30.

Pearce, C. G., & Herbik, P. A. (2004). Citizenship behavior at the team level of analysis: The effects of team leadership, team commitment, perceived team support, and team size. Journal of Social Psychology, 144(3), 293-310.

Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 262-270.

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. 1994a. An examination of the psychometric properties and nomological validity of some revised and reduced "substitutes for leadership" scales. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 702-713.

Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. 1994b. Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. Journal of Marketing Research, 3(1): 351–363.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. 1996. Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Journal of Management, 22: 259–298.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Hui, C. 1993. Organizational citizenship behaviors and managerial evaluations of employee performance: A review and suggestions for future research. In G. R. Ferris & K. M. Rowland (Eds.), Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management (Vol. 11): 1–40. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R., & Fetter, R. (1990). The impact of transformational leader behaviors on employee trust, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Leadership Quarterly, 1, 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management, 26(3),* 513-563.

Raineri, N., Paille, P., & Morin D. (2012). Organizational citizenship behavior: an intergenerational study. Presses univ. de Grenoble. *Revue internationale de psychologie sociale,* 2012/3 Tome 25, p. 147-177.

Reichers, A. E. (1987). An Interactionist Perspective on Newcomer Socialization Rates. *The Academy of Management Review,* 12 (2), 278-287.

Reynolds, R., & Brannick, M. T. (2009). Effect of communication media on developmental relationships: Self-reported and observed behaviors. *Computers in Human Behavior,* 25(1), 233-243

Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87(4), 698-714.

Richard, O. C., Ismail, K. M., Bhuian, S. N., & Taylor, E. C. (2009). Mentoring in supervisor-subordinate dyads: Antecedents, consequences, and test of a mediation model of mentorship. *Journal of Business Research, 62(1*1), 1110-1118.

Robinson, S. L., & Morrison, E. W. (1995). Psychological contracts and OCB: The effect of unfulfilled obligations on civic virtue behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16, 289-298.

Rothwell, W. J. (2011). *Invaluable knowledge: Securing your company's technical expertise.* New York, NY: American Management Association.

Roth, J. Timetables. Indianapolis, IN: The Bobbs-Merrill Co. Inc., 1963

Rurkkhum, S. 2010. The relationship between employee engagement and organizational citizenship behavior in Thai organizations. PhD Dissertation. University of Minnesota. Minnesota, USA.

Saks, A. M. (1996). The relationship between the amount and helpfulness of entry training and work outcomes. Human Relations, 49, 429–451.

Saks, A. M. (1995). Longitudinal field investigation of the moderating and mediating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between training and newcomer adjustment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 80, 211–225.

Saks, A.M., & Ashforth, B.E. (1997a). A longitudinal investigation of the relationships between job information sources, applicant perceptions of fit, and work outcomes. *Personnel Psychology, 50 (2),* 395-426.

Saks, A.M., & Ashforth, B.E. (1997b). Organizational Socialization: Making Sense of the Past and Present as a Prologue for the Future. *Journal of Vocational Behavior* ,51**,** 234–279

Saks, A.M., & Ashforth, B.E. (1997c). Socialization tactics and newcomer information acquisition. International Journal of Selection and Assessment. 5. 48-61.

Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1996). Proactive socialization and behavioral self-management. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 48, 301–323.

Saks, A. M., Gruman, J. A., & Cooper-Thomas, H. (2011). The neglected role of proactive behavior and outcomes in newcomer socialization. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79(1),* 36-46.

Saks, A. M., Uggerslev, K. L., & Fassina, N.E. (2007). Socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment: A meta-analytic review and test of a model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 70,* 413-446

Schaninger, W. S., & Turnipseed, D. L. (2005). The workplace social exchange network: Its effect on organizational citizenship behavior, contextual performance, job satisfaction, and intention to leave. In D. L. Turnipseed (Ed.), Handbook of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: A Review of 'Good Soldier' Activity in Organizations (pp. 209-242). New York, NY: Nova Science.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. Personnel Psychology, 40, pp. 437-453.

Schein, E. H. (1971). The individual, the organization, and the career: A conceptual scheme. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 7,104-426.

Schein, E. H. (1968). Organizational socialization and the profession of management *Industrial Management Review, 9,* 1-16.

Schein, E.H. (1961). Management Development as a Process of Influence. *Industrial Management Review*, pp. 59-77.

Sekiguchi, T. (2004). Person-Organization fit and person-job fit in employee selection: A review of the literature. *Osaka Keidai Ronshu, 54 (6)* 179-196.

Sheffey, S. C. (1995). Person-organization fit: A quantitative assessment of the match between actual and ideal culture. Dissertation Abstracts International, 55, 3065. (UMI No. 9426024)

Shore, L.M., & Martin, S.J. (1989). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment in relation to work performance and turnover intentions. *Human Relations, 42 (7),* 625-638.

Simon, H. A. (1951). A formal theory of the employment relationship. Econometrica, 19, 293–305.

Simosi, M. (2010). The role of social socialization tactics in the relationship between socialization content and newcomers' affective commitment. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 25(3),* 301-327.

Sims, D. M. (2011). *Creative onboarding programs: Tools for energizing your orientation programs.* New York, NY: McGraw Hill

Sin, H. P.; Nahrgang, J. D. ; Morgeson, F. P. (2009)."Understanding why they don't see eye to eye: An examination of leader–member exchange (LMX) agreement", Journal of Applied Psychology,Vol. 94,No. 4, PP.1048-1057.

Skinner, L. R., Autry, C. W., & Lamb, C. W. (2009). Some measures of interorganizational citizenship behaviors. *The International Journal of Logistics Management, 20(2),* 228-242. Retrieved from ProQuest database.

Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational Citizenship Behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68(A),* 653-663.

Snell, A. (2006). Researching on-boarding best practices. *HR Review, 5(6),* 32-35.

Stevens, C. D., & Ash, R. A. (2001). Selecting employees for fit: Personality and preferred managerial style. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 13,* 500-517.

Stinglhamber, F., de Cremer, D., & Mercken, L. (2006). Perceived support as a mediator of the relationship between justice and trust. Group & Organization Management, 31(4), 442-468.

Taormina, R.J. (2004). Convergent validation of two measures of organizational socialization. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 15 (I),* 76-94

Taormina, R.J. (1997). Organizational socialization: A multidomain, continuous process model. International Journal of Selection and Assessment. 5. 29-47.

Tomer, J. F. 1998. Organizational capital and joining-up: Linking the individual to the organization and to society. Human Relations, 51: 825–846.

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & Parks, J. M. 1995. Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (A bridge over muddied waters). In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), Research in Organizational Behavior (Vol. 17): 215–285. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Van Maanen, J. (1978). People processing: Strategies of organizational socialization. *Organizational Dynamics,* 7(1), 19-36.

Van Maanen, J. (1975). Police socialization: A longitudinal examination of job attitudes in an urban police department. Administrative Science Quarterly. 20. 207-228.

Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. H. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. In B. M. Staw (Ed.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (vol. 1, pp. 209-264). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Van Scotter, J. R., & Motowidlo, S. J. 1996. Interpersonal facilitation and job dedication as separate facets of contextual performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81: 525–531.

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.

Wachtfogel, M. (2009). Organizational Socialization, Person–Environment Fit and Commitment of Recent College Graduates. PhD Thesis. New York University Steinhardt School of Culture, Education, and Human Development

Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R.D., Wang, D., & Chen, Z.X. 2005. Leader - member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Academy of Management Journal 2005, Vol. 48, No. 3, 420–432.

Wanous, J. P., Reichers, A. E., & Malik, S. D. (1984). Organizational socialization and group development: Toward an integrative perspective. Academy of Management Review, 9, 670–683.

Weick, K. E. (1995). Sensemaking in organizations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Werbel, J. D., & Gilliland, S. W. (1999). Person-environment fit in the selection process. In ?, Research in Personnel and Human Resources.Management (Volume 17, pp. 209-243). JAI Press, Inc

Wesson, M. J., & Gogus, C. (2005). Shaking hands with a computer: An examination of two methods of organizational newcomer orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90(5),* 1018-1026.

Westerman, J. W., & Cyr, L. A. (2004). An integrative analysis of person-organization fit theories. International *Journal of Selection and Assessment, 12*, 252-261.

Wheeler, S. (1966). The Structure of Formally Oriented Socialization Settings. Socialization after Childhood. G. Brim and S. Wheeler. New York: John Wiley & Sons,1996,51-116.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. 1991. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Journal of Management, 17: 601–617.

Witt, L. A. (1998). Enhancing goal congruence: A solution to organizational politics. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83,* 666-674.

Woo, Ha-Young (2006). Identification and Validation of New Employees' Organizational Socialization Dimensions within a Large Bank in Korea. PhD Thesis. University of Minnesota.

Wood, R., & Bandura, A. (1989a). Social cognitive theory of organizational management. Academy of Management Review, 14, 361–384.

Wood, R., & Bandura, A. (1989b). Impact of conceptions of ability on self-regulatory mechanisms and complex decision making. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 56, 407–415.

Yen, Wen-Shen (2012). Person-Environment Fit: Work-related attitudes and behavioral outcomes in continuing care retirement communities. PhD Dissertation. Kansas State University. Kansas, USA.

Xiang, Y., & Jin Feng, U. (2006). Relationship between organizational socialization and organization identification of professionals: Moderating effects of personal work experience and growth need strength. *The Journal of American Academy of Business, Cambridge, 10(*1), 362-371.

Zonana, M. (2011). İş Stresinin İşgörenlerin Örgütsel Sosyalleşme Düzeylerine Etkileri ve Bir Araştırma. Master's Thesis. Marmara Üniversitesi Institute of Social Sciences. İstanbul, Turkey.

APPENDIX

THE QUESTIONNARIE OF THE STUDY

1.Cinsiyetiniz?	( ) Kadın		( ) Erkek		
2.Yaş aralığınız?	( ) 18-25	( ) 26-35	( ) 36-45	( ) 46-55	( ) 56-
3.En son mezun olduğunuz okul?	( ) İlköğretim	( ) Lise	( ) Önlisans/Lisans	( ) Yüksek Lisans/Doktora	
4.Medeni haliniz?	( ) Evli		( ) Bekar		
5.Çocuğunuz var mı?	( ) Evet		( ) Hayır		
6.Kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?	( ) 6 aydan az	( ) 6 ay – 1 yıl	( ) 1-3 yıl	( ) 3-5 yıl	( ) 5 yıldan fazla
7.Kaç yıldır şuan ki kurumunuzda çalışıyorsunuz?	( ) 6 aydan az	( ) 6 ay – 1 yıl	( ) 1-3 yıl	( ) 3-5 yıl	( ) 5 yıldan fazla
8.Şu an çalıştığınız kurumda herhangi bir pozisyon değişikliği yaşadınız mı?	( ) Evet		( ) Hayır		
9.Çalıştığınız Şirketin Sektörü?					
10.Çalıştığınız departman ve pozisyonunuz?					
11.Gelir Aralığınız?	( ) 500 - 2000 TL	( ) 2001-4000 TL	( ) 4001-8000 TL	( ) 8001-15000 TL	( ) 15001-
12.Şirketinizde oryantasyon programı uygulanıyor mu?		( ) Evet	( ) Hayır		

Aşağıdaki soruları cevap seçeneğinizin olduğu kutucuğa "x" işareti koyarak cevaplayınız. (1=Tamamen Katılmıyorum, 2=Çoğunlukla Katılmıyorum, 3=Kısmen Katılmıyorum, 4=Kısmen Katılıyorum, 5=Çoğunlukla Katılıyorum, 6=Tamamen Katılıyorum)

Soru	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
13.İçinde bulunduğum çalışma grubunun/ departmanın geçmişi hakkında çok az bilgiye sahibim.						
14.Çalıştığım şirketin geleneklerine, tören ve kutlamalarına aşina değilim.						
15.Çalıştığım şirketin uzun zamandır var olan geleneklerini biliyorum.						
16.İçinde bulunduğum çalışma grubunun/çalıştığım departmanın geçmişi hakkında bilgi verecek iyi bir kaynak olurum.						
17.Çalıştığım şirketin geçmişini biliyorum.						
18.İşimin/mesleğimin özel terimlerini ve kelime dağarcığını iyi biliyorum.						

19.Çalıştığım şirketin özel dilini çok iyi bilmiyorum.						
20.Şirket içerisinde kullanılan kısaltmaların ne anlama geldiğini her zaman anlamıyorum.						
21.Mesleğimdeki/işimdeki kelimelerin özel anlamlarını ve kullanılan özel dili anlayabiliyorum.						
22.Mesleğimde/işimde kullanılan kısaltmaların çoğunun ne anlama geldiğini biliyorum.						
23.Çalıştığım şirkette işlerin tam olarak nasıl yürüdüğünü öğrendim.						
24.Şirketimdeki en etkili insanların, kimler olduğunu biliyorum.						
25.Şirkette izlenen politikaları iyi anlamış değilim.						
26.Alanımda en çok arzu edilen görevlerin bana verilmesi için nelerin yapılması gerektiğinden her zaman emin olamıyorum.						
27.Şirkette çalışan diğer insanların eylemlerinin arkasında bulunan niyetleri iyi biliyorum.						
28.Bu şirkette işlerin bitirilmesini sağlayan en önemli kişilerin kimler olduğunu biliyorum.						
29.Çalıştığım kişilerin hiçbirini arkadaşım olarak görmüyorum.						
30.Genellikle, şirkette çalışan diğer bireylerin düzenlediği bir araya gelmelere davet edilmiyorum.						
31.Çalışma grubum içerisindeki diğer bireyler tarafından kolaylıkla "ekipten biri" olarak tanımlanabilirim.						
32.Genellikle bu şirkette çalışan diğer insanlar arasındaki gayri resmi iletişim ağları ve etkinliklerin dışında tutuluyorum.						
33.Şirkette oldukça popüler bir insanım.						
34.Çoğu iş arkadaşımın beni sevdiğini düşünüyorum.						
35.Şirketimin iyi bir temsilcisi olabilirim.						
36.Şirketimin amaçları aynı zamanda benimde amaçlarımdır.						
37.Şirketime iyi uyum sağladığımı düşünüyorum.						
38.Şirket tarafından belirlenen değerlere her zaman inanmıyorum.						
39.Şirketimin amaçlarını iyi biliyorum.						
40.Şirketimin değerlerini temsil eden bir çalışana iyi bir örnek olabilirim.						
41.Şirket tarafından belirlenen amaçları destekliyorum.						
42.Henüz işimi en ince ayrıntısına kadar öğrenmedim.						
43.İşimi etkin bir şekilde nasıl yerine getireceğimi biliyorum.						
44.İşimin gerektirdiği görevleri iyi biliyorum.						
45.İşimi başarılı bir şekilde yerine getirebilmek için gerekli yetenekleri ve becerileri tam olarak geliştirebilmiş değilim.						
46.İşimin gerektirdiği tüm ödev ve görevleri biliyorum.						
47.Yorucu bir iş yaparken veya özel bir sorunum varken dahi iş arkadaşlarıma içten ilgi ve nezaket gösteririm.						
48.Genellikle işlerim ile ilgili problemlerden yakınmam.						
49.Olaylara olumlu bakmam.						
50.Görevlerimi hatasız yaparım.						

51.Kurumumu dışarıda gururla temsil ederim.						
52.Ciddi sonuçlar doğurabilecek konularda diğerleri benimle aynı düşüncede olmasa bile fikirlerimi dürüstçe ifade ederim.						
53.İş arkadaşlarımı işlerini yaparken yeni ve daha etkin yöntemler denemeleri konusunda cesaretlendiririm.						
54.Kurum hakkında yapılan eleştirilerde kurumumu savunurum.						
55.Fikirlerini beyan etme konusunda çekingen davranan arkadaşlarımı konuşmaları için cesaretlendiririm.						
56.Kurumdaki değişimleri izler ve diğerlerinin değişimi kabul etmesinde aktif rol oynarım.						
57.İşe zamanında gelirim.						
58.Çay, kahve ve yemek aralarını uzatmam.						
59.İşe gelmemek konusunda geçerli sebeplerim olduğu günlerde bile devamsızlık yapmam.						
60.Görevim ile ilgili toplantılarda düzenli olarak yer alır ve tartışmalara aktif olarak katılırım.						
61.İşlerimi zamanında tamamlayamam.						
62.İş arkadaşlarım izne ayrıldıklarında onların yerini alacak şekilde kendi iş programlarımı düzenlerim.						
63.Kurumuma yeni katılan personelin işine intibakı konusunda yardımcı olurum.						
64.Herhangi bir sebeple işinin başında olamayan arkadaşlarımın görevlerini gönüllü olarak yaparım.						
65.Hiçbir karşılık gözetmeden işlerini yetiştiremeyen arkadaşlarıma yardım ederim.						
66.İş ile ilgili önemli bir adım atmadan önce üstümü mutlaka bilgilendiririm.						
67.Birlikte yapılan işleri nasıl geliştirebileceğime ilişkin önerilerini almak için iş arkadaşlarım ile sürekli iletişim kurarım.						
68.Herhangi bir karar alırken bu karardan etkileneceği düşünülen herkesin fikrini alırım ve danışırım.						
69.İş arkadaşlarımın haklarını yemem.						
70.Hayatımda değer verdiğim şeylerle çalıştığım kurumun değer verdiği şeyler çok benzemektedir.						
71.Kişisel değerlerim çalıştığım kurumun değer ve kültürüyle örtüşmektedir.						
72.Çalıştığım kurumun değerleri ve kültürü hayatta değer verdiğim şeylerle uyumludur.						
73.İşimin bana sağladığı olanaklarla benim işimden beklentilerim uyumludur.						
74.Bir işte aradığım özellikler, şu an çalıştığım iş tarafından						

karşılanmaktadır.						
75.Bir işten istediğim her şeyin neredeyse tamamını şuan ki işim bana vermektedir.						
76.Kişisel yeteneklerimle, çalıştığım işi yapmak için gerekli yetenekler örtüşmektedir.						
77.Becerilerim ve eğitimim işimin gerekleriyle uyuşmaktadır.						
78.Yeteneklerim ve eğitimim işimin benden talep ettikleriyle uyumludur.						
79.Hayatımda değer verdiğim şeylerle iş arkadaşlarımın değer verdikleri çok benzemektedir.						
80.Kişisel değerlerim iş arkadaşlarımın değerleri ve kültürüyle örtüşmektedir.						
81.İş arkadaşlarımın değerleri ve kültürü hayatımda değer verdiğim şeylere benzemektedir.						
82.Hayatımda değer verdiğim şeyler yöneticimin değer verdiklerine çok benzemektedir.						
83.Kişisel değerlerim yöneticimin değer ve inanışlarıyla örtüşmektedir.						
84.Yöneticimin değer ve inanışlarıyla hayatımda değer verdiğim şeyler uyumludur.						