AN EXPLORATORY EXAMINATION OF PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT: ORGANIZATIONAL GOAL CONGRUENCE

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Relationships between organization members’ agreement on organizational goals and their attitudes and intentions regarding the organization were investigated in this study. A constituency approach was used to operationalize the organization into meaningful units as the basis for comparison between organizational members. Specifically, the congruence between hierarchical levels (supervisor-subordinate) and within a level (member-constituency) was examined. Both types of congruence were hypothesized to relate positively to job satisfaction and organizational commitment and negatively to intention to quit. The hypotheses were tested using data from 356 principals and 14,721 teachers, each rating the importance of goals for their school. The results confirmed the hypotheses regarding goal congruence among members of a constituency (teachers) and between hierarchical levels (principals and teachers), with member-constituency congruence having the greater impact on teachers’ attitudes and intention to quit.

When attempting to understand and predict the attitudes and actions of individuals with regard to their organizations, many have advocated examining the fit between the individual and the organization (e.g., Chatman, 1989; Pervin, 1989; Schneider, 1987). Yet little research has focused on this relationship (Chatman, 1989). To a large extent, this may be due to the difficulties inherent in (a) determining a suitable comparison point for the person and the organization and (b) assessing the person and organizational side of the fit equation. In this paper, we provide a method for dealing with these difficulties and use this method to

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explore the effects of person-organization fit on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit in a large data set.

**Point of Comparison**

Fit can be assessed on several dimensions. No doubt many are appropriate; however, many are not because of the dissimilarity in meaning at the individual and organizational level (cf. Chatman, 1989). The point of comparison we used is the one suggested by Schneider (1987)—organizational goals. Organizational goals reflect the values and commitments of the founders and leaders of organizations (Schein, 1985) and, to some extent, the people who make up the organization (Schneider, 1975). Schneider (1987), in his treatise on the attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) model, stated that individuals are attracted to, selected by, and remain with organizations that have organizational goals to their liking. He noted that the typical approach to the study of job attitudes is flawed because it does not take an interactional perspective. One element of the interactional perspective is fit. The degree to which organizational members agree on the priorities of organizational goals may have profound effects on members’ attitudes (e.g., Kochan, Cummings, & Huber, 1976). To measure organizational member agreement on organizational goals is to measure a type of person-organization fit.

By organizational goals, we mean non-operational goals as defined by March and Simon (1958). Non-operational goals do not specify measurable outcomes, as opposed to operational goals, which do. A non-operational goal might be “focus on profit.” An operational goal might be “$300,000 profit for the next fiscal year.” Although much research supports the use of specific (operational) goals to increase individual performance (Locke, Shaw, Saari, & Latham, 1981), this research has focused on individual goals, whereas our focus is on organizational goals. Moreover, we are examining organizational goals and their effect on attitudes and intentions, not performance. We feel that non-operational organizational goals are more likely to be meaningfully endorsed by an individual than operational ones. For instance, a faculty member is more likely to stand behind the notion that research is a high priority item for the university than the operationalized goal that the university should obtain $1.5 million in grant money for the next fiscal year.

**Assessing the Fit Equation**

Once the comparison point is established, the person and organizational sides of the fit equation must be operationalized. The person side requires recognition that the unit of conceptualization and analysis for organizational goals is not necessarily the individual (i.e., the individual people make the place, as Schneider for the organization that we should think about those people occurs, it may affect commitment, and finally, attrition (Schn...
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The concept of between- and within-constituencies breaks into two types of goal congruence. One type of goal congruence consists of assessing the congruence in goals held by members of different hierarchical positions in the organization's structure; we call this supervisor-subordinate goal congruence. Another type of goal congruence is the agreement between an individual and all the other individuals within a single constituency regarding the importance of various goals; we call this member-constituency goal congruence. Each type is related to previous concepts found in psychology and organizational behavior. These concepts are discussed below and used to support hypotheses regarding goal congruence.

**Supervisor-Subordinate Goal Congruence**

Because we are defining constituents as hierarchical positions, fit between them is the fit between a supervisor and a subordinate. Thus, supervisor-subordinate goal congruence is conceptually similar to Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), in that it focuses on the unique relationship between the leader and each of his or her subordinates (Graen & Schiemann, 1978).

In a recent review of LMX, Dienesch and Liden (1986) examined the theoretical base, the implications for organizational members, and the methodological problems with the theory. The following description borrows heavily from that review. The primary contribution of LMX to the leadership domain is the notion of the dyad relationship between the leader and each of his or her subordinates. These relationships are defined by the roles the subordinates have developed or negotiated with their leader. This process of development and negotiation is carried on informally through a series of role-episodes, where the supervisor imparts his or her role expectations for the subordinate onto that subordinate. These role expectations define the duties and expectations of the supervisor for the subordinate, thus clarifying the subordinates' role within the organization. However, the degree of role clarification varies between each supervisor-subordinate dyad. This differentiation in the leader-member exchange is exacerbated by the time constraints on leaders. Consequently, only a few key subordinates are likely to have a close relationship with their leader. For the other subordinates, leaders rely on the formalized role-setting structures of the organization. These differences in the exchange are termed the "degree of subordinating behavior." Conceptualization of the exchange relationship (subordinating behavior) has resulted in a multidimensional construct. Dienesch and Liden (1986) identified three dimensions of the construct:

(a) Perceived contribution to the direction, and quality of work or toward the mutual goals (explicit in the expression of public support by the other members of the LMX dyad to the leader and members of the dyad have for each other; attraction rather than work performance).

The concept of mutual goals is one of the three dimensions. It is a function of the leader wishes to convey. Mutual goals, at least as the leader perceives the goals and of motivation toward the goals as a reflection of support for those goals by the subordinates. The literature supports our hypothesis that the leader's perception of the subordinate's motivation toward goals as a reflection of support for those goals by the subordinate.

**Satisfaction.** Numerous studies of the relationship between negotiating latitude, Vecchio and Gobbel (1984) found great deal of negotiating latitude for leaders and supervisors. Likewise, out-group latitude, had lower overall satisfaction. In a study of Junior Achievement (JAI), (1986) found a significant relationship between the company president and the subordinate 9 months later. Finally, Vecchio (1984) found in leadership behavior continued to be satisfied with their supervisory role even when between- To the extent that negotiating latitude, subordinate goal congruence, with relationships between supervisor-subordinate goal congruence.

Another study demonstrating the relationship between negotiating latitude and supervisor-subordinate relationship. University of the Bank, and Yeung (1988). They hypothesized that organizational activities would lead to acceptance of those activities. This situation would increase job satisfaction. The data indicate a significant relationship between organizational goals and job satisfaction. Organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment. Dienesch et al. (1986) found a significant rela...
ychology breaks into two types of goal congruence: the first type is the goal congruence of the group or organization, which we call the organizational role. Each type is related to the concept of goal congruence in the literature as hierarchical positions, fit with hierarchy and the subordinate. Thus, the concept is conceptually similar to that of goal congruence: the leader wishes to convey the unique role of the leader, or his or her subordinates (Graen et al., 1986) examined for organizational members, and how the dyad relationship between the leader and subordinate (or subordinate-to-Leader) and the degree of role clarification across the dyad. This differentiation was developed or negotiated with the leader, and negotiation is carried out in episodes, where the leader for the subordinate onto that subordinates, the degree of role clarification across the dyad. This differentiation was exacerbated by the time constraints, and the subordinates are likely to have. For the other subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. These leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. These leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. These leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. These leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. These leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. These leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. These leaders, subordinates, leaders, subordinates, leaders, and subordinates, leaders. The concept of goal congruence and support for those goals enters two of the three dimensions. It is assumed that one principle role expectation is the leader wishes to convey the unique role of the leader, or his or her subordinates. For example, Vecchio and Gobbel (1984) found that in-group members, those with a great deal of negotiating latitude, had greater satisfaction with their supervisors. Likewise, out-group members, those with low negotiating latitude, had lower overall satisfaction than the middle-range group. In a study of Junior Achievement (JA) companies, Duchon, Green, & Taber (1986) found a significant relationship between LMX and satisfaction with the company president four weeks into the program, but not six months later. Finally, Vecchio (1982) found that within-group variation in leadership behavior continued to affect satisfaction positively with the supervisor, even when between-group variation was taken into account. To the extent that negotiating latitude conceptually overlaps supervisor-subordinate goal congruence, we assert that these data support a relationship between supervisor-subordinate goal congruence and satisfaction.

Another study demonstrating the relationship between job satisfaction and supervisor-subordinate goal congruence was by Ulrich, Brockbank, and Yeung (1988). They hypothesized that participation in key organizational activities would lead to an increase in commitment to and acceptance of those activities. They further hypothesized that participation would increase job satisfaction, both directly and through the acceptance of organizational goals. Goal acceptance was operationalized as a single question asking the respondent to indicate the degree to which the goal is appropriate considering challenges facing the company. They found that goal acceptance related to satisfaction.

Organizational commitment. In the study of JA companies, Duchon et al. (1986) found a significant relationship between LMX and company
commitment at both four weeks and six months into the program. We also found two studies that directly examined a measure of supervisor-subordinate goal congruence and organizational attitudes at the individual level. In one study, Vroom (1960) looked at goal congruence as the correlation between an employee’s goals for the organization and the aggregation of top management’s goals. He found that goal congruence predicted a positive attitude toward the company—as measured by three questions similar to Porter and Smith’s (1970) Organizational Commitment Scale. Unfortunately, Vroom used a correlation coefficient between two self-report measures from the subordinate. The correlation method of comparison only incorporates relative differences, and the self-report measures are subject to percept-percept method bias.

Reichers (1986) examined the relationships among conflict, goal congruence, and organizational commitment. In her study, conflict was conceptualized as the perceived conflict between the individual’s goals for the organization and those of top management. Individuals were asked to endorse goals as they would and as they felt management would. A conflict score was derived by summing the absolute differences between the two types of endorsements on 18 goal tradeoffs. The tradeoffs were between management, professional funding agencies, and client/public constituencies of a community mental health agency. For example, “Planning and implementing changes based more on top management’s cost/benefit considerations, than on input from professional staff” was an item within the management/professional goal conflicts cell. This type of item emphasizes the differing perspectives of the constituencies. Conflict correlated significantly with job satisfaction. Reichers also found that those endorsing top management goals exhibited more organizational commitment than those endorsing other constituencies’ goals. She concluded that organizational commitment is, in part, a function of the individual’s commitment to managerial goals and values.

Intention to quit. LMX researchers have also demonstrated a relationship between negotiating latitude and turnover—a frequent consequence of intention to quit (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982; Vecchio & Gobbel, 1984). However, not all the tests of the relationship between turnover and LMX have been significant (Vecchio, 1985). Also, Sherman (1986) operationalized what he called goal congruence as a single question asking employees’ commitment to the goals of the work unit. He found that goal congruence with one’s work unit influenced turnover decisions for engineers, but not for technical support personnel. Unfortunately, it is not clear whether the goals of the work unit are that of the supervisor, the organization, the peers in the unit, or some combination of these people.

In all of the research cited above, the independent variable was measured in the same way we conceptualize it in the preceding arguments, we derived three hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1a: Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1b: Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 1c: Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence related to intention to quit.

For example, if a faculty member’s dean does not endorse research, it is likely be dissatisfied, be less committed, and be more likely to quit.

Member-Constituency Goal Congruence

Conceptually, member-constituency goal congruence is the agreement of one member of a group with the group norms (Sutcliffe & Zander, 1987). According to Carron (1987), personal attraction is necessary, but the desire to pursue common goals is not. The concept of group cohesiveness, Yukelson, Watson, and others have used four sub-factors. Unity of purpose within a group and external consistency reliability of the cohesiveness. The intercorrelations between these variables suggest that, in the absence of group cohesiveness, there is a desire to remain with the group. Also, individuals in noncohesive groups, whose members do not share the same goals, tend to be congruent with each other. Additionally, individuals in noncohesive groups tend to be congruent with most other individuals in the group.
In all of the research cited above, goal congruence was either a component of the independent variable of the study or measured in a different way than we conceptualize it. Nonetheless, from this research and the preceding arguments, we derived our first set of hypotheses:

**Hypothesis 1a:** Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence is positively related to job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 1b:** Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence is positively related to organizational commitment.

**Hypothesis 1c:** Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence is negatively related to intention to quit.

For example, if a faculty member's goal includes doing research, but the dean does not endorse research, then the faculty member would more likely be dissatisfied, be less committed, and intend to quit, than if the dean supported research.

**Member-Constituency Goal Congruence**

Conceptually, member-constituency goal congruence is similar to group cohesiveness. "Group cohesiveness" has been defined as agreement with group norms (Sutermeister, 1969), the attraction of members to the group (Goodman, Ravlin, & Schminke, 1987), intention to stay (Zander, 1985), and commitment to the goals of the group (Goodman et al., 1987). According to Carron (1982), for cohesion to exist, interpersonal attraction is necessary, but not sufficient. What is required is the desire to pursue common goals. In an attempt to develop a measure of group cohesiveness, Yukelson, Weinberg, and Jackson (1984) found four sub-factors. Unity of purpose was one of those sub-factors. The internal consistency reliability of the overall measure was .93, based on 22 items. The intercorrelations between factors were not reported. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable to conclude that the factors that form group cohesion are highly related, and that one of these factors is congruence among group members on goals.

Again, a multidimensional construct exists in which agreement on group-level goals is a major component. Member-constituency goal congruence is the agreement of one member of the group with all the other members of his or her group. Most members of a cohesive group will tend to be congruent with each other, but some individuals may not be. Member-constituency goal congruence is sensitive to these aberrant individuals. Also, individuals in noncohesive groups or members of splinter groups, whose members do not share the majority's goals, are not going to be congruent with most other members in their organization. The
hypotheses developed in this section are that individuals with incongruent goals, whether (a) members of a noncohesive group, (b) members of a splinter group, or (c) aberrant members in a cohesive group, are likely to feel dissociated from work and the organization. We use these arguments to support specific hypotheses regarding member-constituency goal congruence.

Satisfaction. One of the definitions of cohesiveness is that members are attracted to the goals of the group and derive satisfaction from the group and the realization of those goals. Conversely, without a purpose, the group is not likely to be satisfying to its members (Zander, 1985). For example, Wheeless, Wheeless, and Dickson-Markman (1982) found a high correlation between perceptions of group cohesion and self-reports of satisfaction with the group (r = .63). Marquis, Guetzkow, and Heyns (1951) reported a correlation between cohesiveness and member satisfaction with the group process. Exline (1957) found that members in groups that were told they were well matched and congenial reported greater satisfaction with group progress.

Organizational commitment. The only evidence of a relationship between member-constituency goal congruence and organizational commitment is tangential. In the only study we found that looked specifically at member-constituency goal congruence, Jauch, Osborn, and Terpening (1980) examined the relationship between congruence and employee orientations toward the organization. The employee orientation measure consisted of three factors: (a) professional identification, (b) organizational loyalty, and (c) peer loyalty. In their study, 16 hospital administrators rated the importance of 14 goal statements; 257 professional/technical employees working for these hospital administrators completed a similar questionnaire. Goals were considered separately and in a summed global index. Goal congruence was assessed by calculating the absolute difference between the administrator’s score on the individual goals and the global index and an individual employee’s analogous score. Both main effects and two-way interactions among the employee orientations were found for the global index and several of the individual goal congruence terms. The authors interpreted the interaction to mean that the orientations could substitute for each other in the prediction of goal congruence.

Intention to quit. Like satisfaction, intention to remain with the group (conversely, intention to quit) is an aspect of group cohesiveness (see, for example, Cartwright & Zander, 1968). As such, turnover intention, by definition, is related to cohesiveness. It is highly probable that the goal congruence aspect of group cohesiveness is related to the intention to remain aspect. However, no empirical research regarding this relationship was found.

The following set of hypotheses for member-constituency arguments for member-constituency goal congruence.

Hypothesis 2a: Member-constituency goal congruence increases job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b: Member-constituency goal congruence increases organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2c: Member-constituency goal congruence decreases intention to quit.

For example, if one were the only member who wished to conduct research, one would feel less committed, and intend to quit research.

Supervisor-Subordinate and Members Together

One advantage of separating supervisor and member-constituency potentials for goal incongruence is the types of incongruence (or congruence) of where goals diverge within the types of congruence influence in the job.

For instance, in discussing the role of conflicts, it has been hypothesized that conflicts may counterbalance one another with one constituency can substitute for the other on the prediction of goal congruence.

Hypothesis 3: The influence of supervisory goal congruence on job attitude congruence of either type will promote job satisfaction.

Substitution of one type of goal congruence for another statistically as an interaction effect. For this reason we tested the hypothesis that member-constituency goal congruence multiple regression.
The following set of hypotheses are derived from the preceding arguments for member-constituency goal congruence.

**Hypothesis 2a:** Member-constituency goal congruence is positively related to job satisfaction.

**Hypothesis 2b:** Member-constituency goal congruence is positively related to organizational commitment.

**Hypothesis 2c:** Member-constituency goal congruence is negatively related to intention to quit.

For example, if one were the only member among the department faculty who wished to conduct research, one might more likely be dissatisfied, be less committed, and intend to quit, than if some or all colleagues enjoyed research.

*Supervisor-Subordinate and Member-constituency Goal Congruence Together*

One advantage of separating types of goal congruence (supervisor-subordinate and member-constituency) is the recognition of the different potentials for goal incongruence. Explicit measurement of these types of congruence (or incongruence) may further our understanding of where goals diverge within the organization and how these different types of congruence influence important job attitudes.

For instance, in discussing organizational commitment, Reichers (1985) hypothesized that conflicts and congruences between different constituencies may counter-balance each other, such that agreement with one constituency can substitute for conflict with another in their effects on job attitudes. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

**Hypothesis 3:** The influence of supervisor-subordinate and member-constituency goal congruence on job attitudes is substitutable, in that high goal congruence of either type will produce positive job attitudes and low intent to quit.

Substitution of one type of goal congruence for another would appear statistically as an interaction between the two types of goal congruence. For this reason we tested the interaction of supervisor-subordinate and member-constituency goal congruence on job attitudes using moderated multiple regression.
Method

Procedure and Subjects

The data for this study were collected in 1988 as part of a larger project reported by Schmitt and Doherty (1988). The original study was designed to test a model of school effectiveness for the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP). The principal and teachers within a school form two important constituencies. Because the data collection effort provided job attitude information for the teachers only, all hypotheses refer to teachers’ attitudes.

A sample of 364 schools, selected based on randomized cluster sampling from 36 states and Canada, agreed to participate in this study. NASSP mailed the surveys to school principals who then distributed the appropriate materials to their teachers. A letter explaining the project and how to collect the requested data accompanied each packet of measures. All responses were anonymous and confidential. The principals filled out a questionnaire on goals and an open-ended questionnaire about their schools. Three hundred fifty-six principals (98%) returned usable questionnaires. Also obtained were goal importance ratings and job attitude information from 14,721 teachers in 362 schools. Entire teaching staffs completed questionnaires for schools with less than 75 teachers. In larger schools, principals obtained at least 75 randomly selected teacher questionnaires by selecting every nth teacher in an alphabetic listing, where n depended on the number of teachers in the school. The number of teachers responding per school ranged from 8 to 86, with a mean of 40.87. Once teachers completed the measures and placed them in sealed envelopes, the school principal collected and mailed them to the researchers. Two hundred fifty-two schools (69.2%) were senior high level, 75 (20.6%) were junior high level, and 36 (9.9%) included all elementary students.

Goals and Goal Congruence Terms

Both the principals and the teachers rated the importance of the same 14 goals for the school. Goals were initially selected based on a review of the education literature. The six members of an NASSP School Climate Task Force, which included two educational researchers, three principals, and one educational consultant, reviewed and edited the set of goals (see Table 1 for a list of the goals). A 7-point Likert-type rating scale ranging from of no importance (0) to of primary importance (6) was used.

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*a Scales ranged from 0 to 6, where 0 means goal is of primary importance.

To assess goal congruence, we computed both absolute and relative differential members (Cronbach & Gleser, 1968). Goal congruence involved a comparison of the principal on their ratings of the importance of the goals with the ratings assigned by all the teachers in their school. To calculate a congruence score, the value of the $D$ statistic (Cronbach & Gleser, 1968)

\[
D = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{N} \left( \frac{a - b}{2 \times \sigma} \right)^2}
\]

where $a$ and $b$ represent the individual goals, $N$ the number of goals, and $\sigma$ the standard deviation of the difference is not at issue, it is the fact that a difference exists. For example, as disconcerting as a lack of goal congruence, it is to hold it in low regard. Also note that discrepancies weigh more heavily in computing discrepancies.
collected in 1988 as part of a larger study (1988). The original study was to evaluate the effectiveness for the National Association of Secondary Principals (NASSP). The principal and assistant principals were intended to represent the teachers’ attitudes. The study was based on randomized cluster sampling to participate in this study. A letter explaining the project was provided to each school with a copy of the questionnaire. Fifty-six principals (98%) returned the questionnaire, thereby giving us 101 teachers in 362 schools. Entire clusters of schools were included, with the exception of schools with less than 75 students, which were randomly selected. Every nth teacher in an alphabetical list of teachers was surveyed, with the first survey being the 10th teacher in the school. The cluster of schools ranged from 8 to 86, with the survey being placed in schools by the chief school officer (69.2%) and by the assistant principal (30.8%). The survey included 435 teachers, of whom 102 were principals (98%).

Teachers rated the importance of the 14 goals on a scale of 0 to 6, with 0 being of primary importance and 6 being of no importance. To assess goal congruence, we used profile analysis, which includes both absolute and relative differences between and among organizational members (Cronbach & Gleser, 1953). Supervisor-subordinate goal congruence involved a comparison of the teacher with his or her principal on their ratings of the importance of the 14 goals for the school. To calculate a congruence score, the principals’ ratings were assigned to all the teachers in their school. The comparison was calculated using the D statistic (Cronbach & Gleser, 1953). D is defined as follows:

\[
D = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (X_{aj} - X_{bj})^2}
\]

where \(a\) and \(b\) represent the individuals being compared, \(j\) the goal being compared, and \(N\) the number of goals compared. Note that the direction of the difference is not at issue, nor is it measured; important is the fact that a difference exists. For example, we believe that it may be just as disconcerting to one teacher that the principal holds the teaching of basic skills in high regard, as it is to a different teacher that the principal holds it in low regard. Also note that by squaring the difference, large discrepancies weigh more heavily into the total score than several small discrepancies.
Member-constituency goal congruence was computed by comparing the goal importance ratings of a teacher with all other teachers in a school. A $D$ statistic for each teacher with every other teacher in the same school was calculated. Averaging these $D$s for each teacher produced an index of the difference of that teacher's goal priorities, compared with all others' in his or her school.

**Attitude Measures**

All the attitude scales were composed of 5-point Likert-type items, except the satisfaction items which used a 6-point scale ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (6). Job Satisfaction was a 9-item measure, where each item had been chosen from a larger measure of facet satisfaction used in a pilot of the original NASSP study. In the larger study, a single item from each subscale was used in a global satisfaction scale, based on the item's intercorrelation with the rest of the subscale (i.e., items with the highest item-scale correlation were selected for the 9-item global satisfaction measure). The subscales all had reasonable reliabilities ($> .77$) and interscale correlations ranging from .14 to .58 (cf. Schmitt & Ostroff, 1987). The subscales were not used in this study, due to practical limitations on the questionnaire length and the relative nonindependence of facet satisfaction in the pilot of the original NASSP study.

Organizational Commitment was measured by a scale ranging from strongly disagree (0) to strongly agree (4). Seven of the items were taken from the Porter and Smith (1970) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (excluding the three intention to quit items), and two from Franklin's (1975) Commitment to the Formal Organization scale. One item, "I am committed to achieving the goals this school sets," relates directly to school goals. However, because our goal congruence measure was a complex function of the individual subjects' responses and their peers' or supervisors' responses, we did not think this represented a serious overlap problem between variables. Schmitt and Ostroff (1987) report an internal consistency reliability of .82 for this scale.

Three items from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979) were adapted to assess teachers' desire to remain with the school. The items ranged from strongly agree (0) to strongly disagree (4). Ostroff (1987) reported an alpha of .85.

In Table 1, we present means and standard deviations for goal importance item. Comparing the means reveals much similarity (i.e., a product of the means equaled 1.35). Yet, individual differences ($D$s) ranged from 1.75 to 18.39 from 0 to 22.45. Member-constituency goal congruence was calculated with a mean of 13.96. For some goals—most notably students' basic skills—the mean differences in all cases were reasonable.

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for the attitude measures, and goal congruence variables. A factor analysis does not lend itself to assessment of reliability in difference scores is a product of the unreliability of each component (Schmitt & Ostroff, 1981). Intercorrelations between variables ranged from .23, ranging from -.09 to .74, goal ratings among goals; correlations on goal ratings were low as well (negligible).

A factor analysis of the goal importance and attitude measures produced interpretable factor structure emerging just combined in any way before calculating the internal-consistency reliability was used for goal importance ratings.

We can, however, provide an interpretive component to the congruence terms. Assuming that in his assessment that more variance in the goal importance should be seen between than within, then intraclass correlation in variance. Using $\eta^2$ as a measure of the difference between subordinate and member-constituency goal congruence, respectively. These coefficients indicate how much of the goal congruence measure other than these $\eta^2$s should be interpreted with propriate index of reliability for index to be appropriate when attempting to assess reliability. As conceptualized in this article, school level.

Table 2 contains correlations representing the associations between goal congruence and...
as computed by comparing each other teacher in the study with all other teachers in the study. The means for each teacher principal's goal priorities, computed from 5-point Likert-type items, ranged from 1.35 to 13.96. For some goals—most notably the importance of increasing students' basic skills—the mean was very high; however, standard deviations in all cases were reasonable for 7-point scales.

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations of the attitude measures and goal congruence terms. Internal-consistency reliabilities were acceptable, ranging from .74 to .85. Determining the reliability of the goal congruence measures is much less straightforward. Profile analysis does not lend itself to assessing internal-consistency. Yet, reliability in difference scores is a particularly acute problem because the unreliability of each component combines in the difference score (Johns, 1981). Intercorrelations between the goal ratings tended to be low (median = .23, ranging from .09 to .50), indicating an independence in goal ratings among goals; correlations between principals and teachers on goal ratings were low as well (median = .07, ranging from .04 to .20). A factor analysis of the goal importance ratings was conducted, but no interpretable factor structure emerged. For this reason the 14 goals were not combined in any way before calculating profile similarities, and no internal-consistency reliability was calculated for the goal importance ratings.

We can, however, provide an indirect assessment of reliability for the goal congruence terms. Assuming that Schneider (1987) was correct in his assessment that more variance on factors like organization goal importance should be seen between organizations (schools in this case) than within, then intraclass correlation (ICC) should reflect this difference in variance. Using eta$^2$ as an index of ICC, eta$^2$'s for supervisor-subordinate and member-constituency goal congruence were .25 and .23 respectively. These coefficients indicate that something is going on in the goal congruence measure other than error (unreliability). However, these eta$^2$'s should be interpreted with caution because ICC is not an appropriate index of reliability for individual-level variables. ICC would be appropriate when attempting to assess reliability of a school-level variable. As conceptualized in this article, neither goal congruence term is school level.

Table 2 contains correlations relevant to the hypothesized relationships between goal congruence and attitudes (i.e., the first two sets of
TABLE 2
Scale Statistics, Reliabilities, Correlations, and Partial Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale ( # of items)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
<th>Intent to quit</th>
<th>S-S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction (9)</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>(.74)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Org. commitment (12)</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>(.83)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intent to quit (3)</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>-.41</td>
<td>-.53</td>
<td>(.85)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-S (14)</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S-S partialing M-C</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M-C (14)</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M-C partialing S-S</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N = 13,808 for member-constituency goal congruence correlations; N = 13,388 for supervisor-subordinate goal congruence correlations. S-S = supervisor-subordinate goal congruence; M-C = member-constituent goal congruence.

Correlations |r| > .03 are significant at p < .001

Goal congruence terms. Signs are reversed.

hypotheses). Signs for all the correlations with goal congruence were reversed, so that a positive correlation reflected a positive relationship between goal congruence and an attitude or intention. Because of the large sample size, statistical significance was easily reached for all the correlations. Due to the exploratory nature of this study, we used a liberal correlation of .10 or above to indicate a practically meaningful finding. All the attitude and intention measures correlated meaningfully and in the predicted direction for both supervisor-subordinate and member-constituency goal congruence.

We tested the interaction of supervisor-subordinate and member-constituency goal congruence using moderated multiple regression. The interaction term significantly related to organizational commitment only ($\Delta R^2 = .0028, p < .001$). Although significant, the magnitude of the effect did not warrant further consideration.

To test the relative contributions of the two goal congruence terms, we partialled each goal congruence term out of the relationships with the other term. The results, given in Table 2, show that the supervisor-subordinate correlations with the attitude variables dropped to zero (less than meaningful) when member-constituency was partialled out. On the other hand, member-constituency correlations maintained their significant and meaningful levels (dropping only .01 to .05) after partialling.

Although conceptually we found no clear reason to consider school size, it was tested as a possible covariate. Size was determined using the number of full-time equivalent (FTE) positions in the school as reported by the principal. It was tested at the individual level by assigning size to each of the teachers in the school related at higher than $r = .04$; there

Johns (1981) raised a number of questions about the instructional analyses on supervisor-subordinate goal congruence (these analyses become highly unreliable when the difference score and the variables differ only correlated at .01 to .05). These do not indicate a problem with the magnitude of the goals measured to the job attitudes measured.

The best test of spurious relation and the variables of interest is to remove the dependent variables and test the difference score. To accomplish this, teacher goal ratings into a regression with the dependent variables, was .017 for Satisfaction for Intention to Quit. While not large and given the nature of multiple regression showing. Similar $\Delta R^2$ values in testing interactions when those interaction terms were entered.

An issue of particular interest for these analyses may be more useful than others the difference on one or a few goals for the variables, while the other variables for differences. To test this possibility, importance rating of the principal related with the attitude scales. Correlates different terms and the dependent other hand, for one goal—achieving the variables only correlated at .01. There were not contribute much to the profile score as very critical.
and Partial Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment to quit</th>
<th>S-S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(.83)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-.53</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.21</td>
<td>-.12</td>
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<td>-.17</td>
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<tr>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.62</td>
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</table>

**Correlation coefficients; N = 13,388**

S-S = supervisor-subordinate goal congruence.

with goal congruence were tested positive relationship intention. Because of the easily reached for all the of this study, we used a library practically meaningful find correlated meaningfully and subordinate and member-

izational commitment only count, the magnitude of the two goal congruence terms, at the relationships with show that the supervisor-

tables dropped to zero (less was partialled out. On the ns maintained their signifi-
tant to .05) after partialling.

A reason to consider school e was determined using the ns in the school as reported al level by assigning size to each of the teachers in the school. At the individual level it never correlated at higher than ρ = .04; therefore, we did not consider it further.

Johns (1981) raised a number of issues concerning difference scores, which were addressed in this study by using profile analysis and additional analyses on supervisor-subordinate goal congruence when possible (these analyses become highly complex when considering member-constituency goal congruence). The first criticism of difference scores is low reliability, which was noted above. A second criticism of difference scores is that the components of the scores correlate with both the difference score and the variables of interest, resulting in spurious relationships with the difference score. Because the profiles were composed of 14 goals, the likelihood that any one component would affect the profile score is minimal. To verify this, we correlated supervisor-subordinate goal congruence with the principals' and teachers' goal ratings. The results ranged in magnitude from .02 to .10 for the principals' goals, with a median of .05, and from .01 to .22 for the teachers' goals, with a median of .14. These do not indicate a problem, which is not surprising given that the nature of the goals measured bore little conceptual resemblance to the job attitudes measured.

The best test of spurious relationships between a difference score and the variables of interest is to remove the components variance from the dependent variables and test relationships between the residuals and the difference score. To accomplish this, we entered the principal and teacher goal ratings into a regression analysis, followed by supervisor-subordinate goal congruence. In sum, the results showed that the ΔR² from adding supervisor-subordinate goal congruence, after entering its components, was .017 for Satisfaction, .014 for Commitment, and .007 for Intention to Quit. While not large changes, all three were significant, and given the nature of multiple regression with 29 terms, a reasonable showing. Similar ΔR² values in testing interaction effects yield clear interactions when those interactions are plotted.

An issue of particular interest for profile scores is that some components may be more useful than others. In the extreme, it could be that the difference on one or a few goals affected the variance in the outcome variables, while the other variables only served to attenuate important differences. To test this possibility, the squared difference between the importance rating of the principal and teacher for each goal was correlated with the attitude scales. Correlations between the individual goal difference terms and the dependent variables did not exceed .17. On the other hand, for one goal—achieving full racial integration—the differences only correlated at .01. Therefore, it appears that some goals did not contribute much to the profile score, but no subset of goals stood out as very critical.
Another approach to this issue is to weight the differences in goals by the importance of the goal to the teacher. This was accomplished by multiplying the goal importance rating standardized for each teacher by the squared difference in that rating between a teacher and his or her principal. The resulting score was then correlated with the attitude scales. None of these correlations was above .10.

Discussion

The central proposition underlying this study was that agreement among organizational members regarding goals for that organization is related to the attitudes of its members regarding the organization. Both between- and within-constituency goal congruence were significantly and meaningfully related to the measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit. The study offers support for Schneider's (1987) contention that organizational goals are an important point of comparison between individuals and the organizations in which they find themselves. Further, the results indicate that this distinction between goal congruence measures is useful in that it provides information about whose agreement on goals is more important. Member-constituency congruence (i.e., peer agreement) had a greater impact on job attitudes than did supervisor-subordinate congruence.

It is important to note that the method we use to measure goal congruence assessed actual organizational goal congruence, as opposed to perceived goal congruence. Therefore, the results we report for the two goal congruence terms cannot be attributed easily to the fact that all measures were self-reports. Although the goal importance ratings were the result of the subjects' responses, the goal congruence terms were the result of complex data manipulations involved in the computation of the profile similarity index. Further, the goal importance ratings did not directly pit constituencies against each other, as in the Reichers (1986) study, but allowed for a free response. Conceptually, we were most interested in the actual goal congruence, not perceived goal congruence.

What is especially interesting is that goal congruence with peers appeared to be more important than congruence with one's supervisor, even with organizational commitment (cf. Reichers, 1986). Yet, the longstanding attention to leadership found in the organizational behavior literature (Meindl, 1990) would suggest that supervisor-subordinate relationships might be the most important. Our findings suggest that researchers should place greater emphasis on peer relationships in organizations. This statement is supported by both the zero-order correlations between the two different congruence terms and the job attitude measures and the partial correlation between subordinate agreement out of the correlation had little effect on the size of the agreement out of the supervisors's correlation resulted in substantially lower estimates of zero-order correlations.

Of course, our findings may be that teachers have much more autonomy Interaction with their supervising peers. It is likely that member-constituency a weaker effect in an organization small, compared to interaction within the organization for the stronger showing of the average of numerous discrepant peers), whereas supervisor-subordinate goal congruence (i.e., only one profile comparison). This makes more reliable as a measure. None of the importance of the goal congruence. Recall that goal congruence of both LMX and group cohesion.

We found only minimal support for a positive correlation between the two goal congruence terms by Reichers (1985) regarding the small interaction was significantly related to the size of the increase in the squared correlation.

Although we believe that the importance of employee reactions to organizations, and the need for further research on the role of goal congruence in longitudinal or time-varying data, whether goal congruence causality is true, or whether some form of goal congruence exists match the unit of analysis group, organization, or societal) will be needed.

Some further exploration of goal congruence should also contribute to our understanding of goal congruence in organizations, a reviewer noted that differences among teachers would result in differences among teachers' peers. If these differences contribute to the amount of influence, less error w
eight the differences in goals her. This was accomplished indifference for each teacher between a teacher and his or a correlated with the attitude we .10.

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d we use to measure goal con- level congruence, as opposed to he results we report for the two related easily to the fact that all goal importance ratings were in the computation of goal importance ratings did not her, as in the Reichers (1986) conceptually, we were most in- ot perceived goal congruence. goal congruence with peers ap- ence with one’s supervisor, Reichers, 1986). Yet, the long-the organizational behavior lit- that supervisor-subordinate rela- Our findings suggest that recon peer relationships in organ- both the zero-order correla- measures and the partial correlation analyses. Partialling supervisory-subordinate agreement out of the peer agreement—job attitude correlations had little affect on the size of the relationships. Partialling peer agreement out of the supervisor-subordinate—job attitude correlations resulted in substantially lower estimates of the relationships than did the zero-order correlations.

Of course, our findings may be peculiar to a school setting, in which teachers have much more autonomy than in some work organizations. Interaction with their supervisors (principals) is less than with their peers. It is likely that member-constituency goal congruence would have a weaker effect in an occupation where interaction with colleagues is small, compared to interaction with supervisors. Another possible explanation for the stronger showing for member-constituency is that it was the average of numerous discrepancies (a teacher and all of his or her peers), whereas supervisor-subordinate goal congruence was based on only one profile comparison. This may have made member-constituency more reliable as a measure. Nonetheless, these results tended to confirm the importance of the goal congruence concept to both LMX and group cohesion. Recall that goal congruence has been an important concern of both LMX and group cohesion researchers.

We found only minimal support for the existence of any interaction between the two goal congruence terms, as was suggested in earlier statements by Reichers (1985) regarding organizational commitment. The interaction was significantly related to organizational commitment, but the size of the increase in the squared multiple correlation was very small.

Although we believe that the results we obtained with this group of people reflect the importance of goal congruence as an aspect of employee reactions to organizational life, our study does have limitations, and the need for further research is obvious. Our study was cross-sectional. A longitudinal or time lag study would be useful in determining whether goal congruence causes job attitudes, whether the reverse is true, or whether some form of reciprocal causality occurs. Also, continued efforts to match the unit or level of the goals (individual, work group, organization, or societal) with the variables appropriate to those levels are needed.

Some further exploration of the appropriate definition of constitu-ency should also contribute to our understanding of the role of goals and goal congruence in organizational members’ job attitudes. For instance, a reviewer noted that differences in the amount of interaction among teachers would result in differences in the influence of the teachers’ peers. If these differences could somehow be weighted to reflect the amount of influence, less error would occur than occurred with simple
averaging. This problem is analogous to why we considered constituencies in the first place. Less formal constituencies among teachers might have consequences regarding the dependent variables in this study. In fact, we conducted cluster analyses on the difference scores in some of the larger schools in an attempt to locate these less formal constituencies. We were not able to interpret the results meaningfully. Additional data collection is required to understand the influences of these less formal constituencies as well as other constituencies, such as school administrations, parents, and students.

Methodologically, care should be taken in measuring and comparing goal importance. Because we used non-operational goals (March and Simon, 1958), comparing absolute level differences is more problematic than it would be if the goals were operational. Use of operational goals would allow for the possibility of relating goal congruence studies to the literature on performance goals, though we believe the meaningfulness to the individual of operationalized, organizational goals would suffer.

This study confirms the idea that person-organization fit relates to positive employee attitudes and intentions. Viewing organizations as a collection of constituencies and members with multiple goals and multiple priorities produced results that highlight the importance of peer goal congruence. From an applied perspective, our findings suggest that analyses of organization and constituency members could occur, which might spur changes in the organization or its members. For instance, depending on the findings in specific organizations, interventions designed to clarify, justify, or change organization goals could be undertaken.

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organizational research: A model of person-Journal, 14, 333–349.


**TRAINING EFFECTIVENESS SCORING SCHEMES: A CROSS-CASE STUDY**

CHERI I. INDUSTRIAL & ORGANIZATIONAL UNIVERSITY

This paper examines a new criterion for effectiveness in training situations, for training effectiveness scores—one based on expert judgment. It was believed that a method would be more sensitive to differences between new and more traditional training outcomes. The new scoring scheme was used to assess the effectiveness of training in a sample of 67 teachers. Significant differences were found between teaching tasks and outcomes. The comparison of expert versus empirical scoring produced small differences, and expert judgment did not. Implications of these findings are discussed.

Evaluation of the effectiveness of training methods has been less than adequate. (Stein, 1986; Hinrichs, 1976; Kirkpatrick, 1978) Without documentation of the effectiveness of training methods, it is difficult to know whether training programs have real value. (Grove & Ostroff, 1991) It is expected that the new scoring scheme will help: (1) evaluate the performance of the important material, and (2) measure performance improvements.

Research examining the success of training programs is often inconclusive. In particular, positive results in training programs are usually demonstrated by training programs that do not significantly improve the job performance of employees. Failure to find such effects in performance measures is often attributed to behavior or performance rating scales that are not sensitive enough to detect training effects.

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