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„Non-monetary preference-based sorting across
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Abstract

In this thesis we explore organizational design as an attractor, specifically the attraction towards decentralized structures by jobseekers. We identify this as a gap in the research as the traditional fit literature does not take organizational design into account and the ongoing changes of organizations towards decentralization necessitates research into this area to allow managers to effectively attract employees who are both willing and able to contribute. This exploratory research utilizes personality types proven to seek autonomy in the workplace as well as having proven performance in such, as the source of attraction and models a conjoint analysis to discern the main effects on organizational attraction. We find that proactive personality types are attracted to certain aspects of decentralized organizational design and pose managerial and theoretical implications as well as posing specific hypotheses for future research that build on the findings of this initial exploration of the research area.

In dieser Thesis untersuchen wir das Organisationsdesign als Anziehungsfaktor, insbesondere die Anziehungskraft dezentraler Strukturen auf Arbeitssuchende. Wir stellen fest, dass dies eine Forschungslücke darstellt, da die traditionelle Fit-Literatur das Organisationsdesign nicht berücksichtigt. Die kontemporären Transformationen von Organisationen hinsichtlich Dezentralisierung machen eine Forschung in diesem Bereich erforderlich, damit Manager_innen effektiv Mitarbeiter_innen anziehen können, die sowohl bereit als auch in der Lage sind, einen Beitrag zu leisten. In dieser explorativen Untersuchung werden Persönlichkeitstypen, die nachweislich Autonomie am Arbeitsplatz anstreben und dort auch nachweislich leistungsfähig sind, als Quelle der Anziehungskraft herangezogen, und es wird eine Conjoint-Analyse durchgeführt, um die wichtigsten Auswirkungen auf die organisatorische Anziehungskraft empirisch zu ermitteln. Die Ergebnisse deuten darauf hin, dass proaktive Persönlichkeitstypen von bestimmten Aspekten der dezentralisierten Organisationsgestaltung angezogen werden. Zusätzlich stellen wir Management- und theoretische Implikationen sowie spezifische Hypothesen für die künftige Forschung auf, die auf den Ergebnissen dieser ersten Erkundung des Forschungsgebiets aufbauen.

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1. Introduction and identification of problem

Strategic management concerns itself with gaining competitive advantages through effectively steering the strategy of an organization. One part of the major strategical choices managers in an organization take on is how to design a workplace that selectively appeals to the right employee. How to attract employees who are both willing and able to perform on their job and ultimately help the organization achieve its goals therefore is a core competency a successful organization should fulfill.

This is especially true in times where organizations change alongside employee demographics. Even though there is extant research on how monetary benefits attract specific workers, with changing preferences and demographics among employees, questions of attraction through non-monetary characteristics become increasingly important to answer.

One such characteristic, that could be a strong attractor but has not seen any thorough investigation in research, is the organizational design. It describes the way an organization structures its division of labor, and the way employees cooperate with each other. This supposed negligence of this key characteristic organizations carry can be explained with the relative uniformity of organizations in the past. Traditionally, most organizations employed hierarchical structures, completely in line with the historical evolution of organizations under capitalistic structures. Decentralized organizational structures were seen as outliers and not as the norm, therefore not receiving much attention. In recent times this has changed. Major organizations have found opportunities to foster competitive advantage, through their organizational design. Mainly these organizations focus on granting employee's autonomy in the workplace along key dimensions of their organizational design. To approach a thorough understanding of attraction through organizational design and ultimately a better understanding of effective sorting of employees across workplaces, this thesis devotes itself on better understanding who is attracted towards organizations granting autonomy in the workplace.

Traditionally, sorting across workplaces was explained by organizational psychologists through measures of fit under the umbrella of the Person-Environment fit theory. Fit can be categorized along several dimensions, each carrying their own measures and explaining different parts of the environment an individual resides in. These measures of fit have evolved over time and try to encapsulate ever so slightly different aspects of organizations, be it the value system or the skills required to perform a job.

In addition to sorting through these measures of fit, the Attraction-Selection-Attrition model explains effective sorting through three distinct stages. An employee is first attracted towards a job based on self-assessed fit with the organization, is selected by said organization and leaves the organization if this employee is dissatisfied with their fit over time. This would explain sorting as a continuous process of in- and out-flux of employees.

This ample body of research on fit has equipped organizations with a potent additional tool to steer sorting across workplaces, namely personality types. Personality is mostly steady throughout one's life and therefore carries indications of an individual's future behavior. Additionally, through the recent emergence of job crafting literature there are implications of personality types performing well in environments characterized by low autonomy, where employees take it onto themselves to facilitate change in their jobs. Since this is ex ante behavior of employees that were strictly employed for a distinct role, it carries interesting implications, whether these personality types are attracted towards decentralized organizational structures in the first place. Linking these personality types to preferences for organizational design high in autonomy deepens knowledge about job applicants and enables new ways of attracting and assessing candidates as well as in general a more effective sorting of employees across all types of organizations.

Therefore, this thesis is devoted to exploring whether select personality types lead to attraction towards different autonomous organizational design features. The aim is to structure current knowledge in fit literature from organizational psychology and combine it with new insights of strategic management of organizational design. Through this approach we try to outline fundamentals to better grasp the attraction of jobseekers to different organizational designs, which eventually leads to a more well-rounded understanding of preference-based sorting of jobseekers. Insights into these preferences have strong implications for managers across organizations. In general, the field of non-monetary preference-based sorting across workplaces has substantial potential to create insights affecting organizations across all industries. It allows organizations to selectively appeal to the right talent and trade-off traditional attraction strategies like high salaries with more individualized approaches. This ultimately can have an effect on employee contracts, affecting the organizations bottom-line. If an organization attracts individuals solely through their organizational design or other non-monetary characteristics, the

candidate may forfeit a larger monetary remuneration for the satisfaction of their non-monetary counterparts. Specifically in the area of organizational design and in this case decentralized workplaces, if the personality types that show evidence of performing well in autonomous situations are also the ones attracted by said decentralized organizational design features, selectively signaling to those potential employees would become a focus in recruiting strategies. With respect to the increasing number of organizations trying to incorporate autonomous work in their organizational design this question urgently needs academic research.

To approach the question of who is attracted to what, we must understand the intricacies of modern fit frameworks and the employee lifecycle. Next, we need to incorporate knowledge around autonomous work as well as designing an organization around this premise. Lastly, we need to identify key personality traits that have an advantage in these environments and building a model based on this outline that delivers primary data on the attraction of these personality types to specific organizational design dimensions. As this area of researching attraction towards organizations via a person's personality traits is nearly completely untouched in the current literature and research, the theoretical fundamentals do not allow distinct hypotheses to be formulated but do enable an exploratory angle to this thesis, from which further research can search for more detailed insights. We do not investigate a possible base-line effect of decentralized organizational design on attraction itself. Rather we investigate several demographic features and personality types on their effect on attraction.

2. Literature review

To enable us to approach the question, which personality types are attracted to which kind of organizational design, we need to create a model that helps us do so.

The first part we need to investigate is the area of attraction as one part of the employee lifecycle. For this we look at Schneider and his ASA-Framework as foundational research.

2.1 ASA Model:

The ASA Model suggests that an organizations workforce is composed of employees sharing a common set of attributes (Schneider, 1987). Based on this notion, it states, that people are attracted to

organizations they perceive a match with the personal attributes of the current employees. This evaluation is ongoing through three stages of employment: The attraction phase, the selection phase and the attrition phase. The model hypothesizes a relative homogeneity of the institutions over time. Homogeneity is theorized to be expressed in several dimensions such as needs, values and personalities. These consequently shape the organizations dominant structures, processes and culture (Schneider, 1987) (Schneider, 1995).

The organization therefore is not seen as an individual entity that carries its own characteristics but as an amalgamation of different people that over time, through the three stages of the ASA Model, become more homogeneous in their traits.

Researchers could not support this theory through real life examples of organizations. Only some levels of homogeneity were found (Bradley-Geist & Landis, 2012), (Ployhart, et al., 2006), (Schaubroeck, et al., 1998). Therefore, the theoretical claims of the model should not be used in a holistic model but rather be looked at on their individual levels.

When researching each of the levels separately there has been evidence of fit effects on organizational attraction (Dineen, et al., 2002), selection (Chuang & Sackett, 2005) and attrition (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005).

Although these effects could be measured, the direct relationship to job choice decisions, job offers and turnover could not be established (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). This implies other factors that have a significant influence on these measures. Predominantly, research has established that financial and economic reasons are the most important factors in job choice decisions. Therefore, any measures of fit that are tracked most often are just one part of a multifactor model in the employment cycle and offer insights on one of many levels. To better understand the ASA model, we should take a more detailed look at the different stages and discuss their relative importance for this research.

2.1.1 Attraction

Attraction is one of the most important levers companies can use to differentiate themselves from other firms. Through attraction and selection, the company can try to foster a very specific set of personalities in the organization (Oh, et al., 2018).

Personalities have been shown to have a significant influence on the overall behavior of employees but more important on their performance in different situations (Andryan & Sopiah, 2022) (Day & Silverman, 1989). To ensure their competitive edge or advantage over their competition, it is imperative to create a robust understanding of the personality types, organizations want to hire for each area of said organization.

Research has indicated that people who are attracted to an organization differ in their personality from those that are not attracted (Slaughter & Greguras, 2009). During the attraction stage jobseekers evaluate the level to which the organization shares mutual values, traits and goals (Schneider, et al., 1995) (Saks & Ashforth, 1997) (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011) (Kristof, 1996).

It is important to distinguish attraction from job choice intention as they are not the same. Job choice intention is part of the selection phase in which not only the employer but also the employees have sufficient information to make an informed choice about the employment. Organizational attraction, in the first place, has been described as a person's interest in pursuing a job or position in a certain company after they have evaluated all the publicly available or important information (Cable & Judge, 1994) (Rau & Hyland, 2002). Therefore, the information that is shared by companies to attract potential employees has a direct effect on which kind of person is attracted by them. Research has shown that the image they evaluate against is often the "ideal" features of a job or a workplace in general applicants want to participate in (De Goede, et al., 2013). The information they use to create the image of the workplace to evaluate predominately stems from job advertisements (Rynes & Barber, 1990), internet searches (Cober, et al., 2000), word of mouth (Daneen, et al., 2002) and interactions with organizational recruiters (Cable & Turban, 2001) (Rynes, et al., 1991).

Attraction therefore is heavily linked to the signaling of a job offer or employer branding content. Signaling describes that aspects of the recruiting process convey peripheral information to a job seeker (Spence, 1973). With this information the job seeker should be able to predict the experience they will have with the job and the organization. Through signaling an organization can convey its values (Judge & Bretz, 1992), attributes and company culture (Highhouse & Hoffman, 2001), which allow the

formation of attitudes and consequently intentions of application with interested applicants (Cooman & Pepermans, 2012). These initial reactions that form attitudes are crucial in creating attraction towards organizations.

There have been experiments to evaluate the significance of the different signals employers use to attract personnel and how to shape or support them. One particularly interesting study, conducted by Daneen et al. (2002), allowed students to visit a website about a fictional company. The Website integrated a tool that made it possible for these students to conduct a fit check. In this check the participants' values and the ones of the fictional company were compared. Results concluded that there is a positive relationship of subjective (perceived) and objective fit with attraction. This shows that the more accurate the information an organization shares are, the more accurately the assessment of the potential applicant in terms of fit is. As Ellis et al. (2017) concluded, this leads to higher job satisfaction as the perceptions of the job were more clear and therefore easier to evaluate beforehand. Important to mention here is that this information must be as truthful as possible, meaning as close to reality as possible, since strong or persuasive recruitment tactics can lead to an overwhelming of applicants and can lead to poorer retention (Rynes & Barber, 1990)

Organizational attraction is distinct from job pursuit intentions. Whereas attraction is a passive affect toward the organization, job pursuit intentions rely on the willingness for some kind of action undertaken by the applicant.

In recent times the organizational design and employee autonomy has become more important and an often-advertised characteristic. The question that arises which personalities are drawn towards this kind of signaling and whether these personalities are fitting for the tasks of the organization.

2.1.2 Selection

In the context of the Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) Model, the selection phase is a crucial process through which organizations systematically identify and choose individuals whose values, beliefs, and personalities are in congruence with the existing organizational culture (Schneider, 1987). This phase

relies on the assumption that organizations inherently favor candidates who reflect the organization's current values and cultural dynamics (Schneider, et al., 1995).

The mechanism of this phase encompasses a thorough evaluation by organizations. This evaluation goes beyond analysis of candidates' skills and competencies, placing a significant emphasis on assessing each candidate's cultural fit (Ployhart, 2006). The process uses diverse methods, including structured interviews, skill assessments, and thorough reviews of a candidates past experiences and behaviors (Ployhart, 2006) (Schneider, 1995). These methodologies aim to establish the extent to which potential employees resonate with the organization's cultural norms and values.

The impact of the selection process on reinforcing the existing organizational culture is substantial. The selection bias towards candidates who align with the current culture means those who do not fit are less likely to be hired (Schaubroeck, et al., 1998) (Schneider, 1987). Consequently, this results in a gradual evolution towards a workforce that is increasingly homogeneous in terms of values, attitudes, and behavioral norms, mirroring the pre-existing culture of the organization (Schneider, 1987) (Schneider, 1995).

However, this selection strategy is not without its consequences. While it can foster a cohesive and harmonious work environment, it simultaneously poses risks. A notable downside is the potential diminishment of workforce diversity (Piasentin & Chapman, 2006). This lack of diversity can hinder innovation and the organization's ability to adapt to changing environments. Furthermore, the homogenized culture can lead to the prevalence of groupthink, a phenomenon where the desire for conformity and consensus overshadows the necessity for creativity and critical analysis (Schneider, 1995). This can ultimately impede the organization's capacity for growth, evolution, and responding effectively to external challenges (Schneider, 1995).

2.1.3 Attrition

Attrition in organizational contexts is defined as the phenomenon where individuals who do not align well with an organization's culture are more likely to exit the organization. This exit can be voluntary, such as through resignation, or involuntary, like through termination (Schneider, 1987).

The mechanism underlying attrition revolves around the alignment, or lack thereof, between an individual's values, norms, and practices and those of the organization. When a misalignment occurs, individuals tend to experience lower levels of satisfaction and commitment. This discord often leads to feelings of discomfort and disengagement, ultimately culminating in their departure. It is important to note that attrition is not solely based on poor performance; rather, it frequently stems from a deeper mismatch between the individual's and the organization's core values and beliefs.

The impact of attrition is significant in that it serves to reinforce the existing organizational culture. This occurs as individuals who are not well-matched with the organization leave, gradually leading to a more homogenous organization in terms of values, attitudes, and behaviors (Schaubroeck, et al., 1998) (Schneider, et al., 1995). Essentially, those who remain are increasingly representative of and aligned with the existing culture.

However, the consequences of attrition extend beyond cultural reinforcement. While it can contribute to a more unified work environment, attrition, like the selection phase can also lead to diminished diversity within the organization (Schneider, et al., 1995). This reduction in diversity can pose challenges, particularly in terms of adaptability to change (Cooman, et al., 2009). Moreover, as individuals who think differently or challenge the status quo tend to leave, organizations may become more insular and resistant to new ideas, potentially stifling innovation and adaptability in an ever-evolving business landscape (Schaubroeck, et al., 1998) (Schneider, 1995).

2.2 Person-Environment Fit (P-E):

The concept of Person-Environment Fit originates from interactional psychology but has since been influential for many other fields of research. The desirability of fit and the resulting consequences for

the workplace make the concept a central aspect of organizational research (Morley, 2007). These consequences range from increased job involvement, career success, decreased turnover, decreased stress, organizational commitment, job satisfaction and improved well-being (Edwards, 1991) (Kristof, 1996) (Spokane, et al., 2000) (Verquer, et al., 2003) (Westermann & Yamamura, 2007).

Because of this extensive body of research P-E fit is one of the most comprehensively studied concentrations in organizational behavior (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005).

Person-Environment Fit theory conceptualizes a manner of fit of a person or in our case employee and their environment. Fit is typically described along several dimensions with each dimension describing a narrower view of the environment or a different relationship inside the environment the person is exposed to. In essence, the model describes that attitudes, behaviors and other individual-level outcomes result not only from just the person or their environment but rather is the result of the relationship between the two (Caplan, 1987) (Edwards, 1996).

This makes PE-Fit the broadest of all manners of fit and it is therefore described in broad and general terms. The most important factor for the general explanatory power of Person-Environment Fit is the congruence of career-related personality types possessed by both the employee and the job (Spokane, 1985; Tinsley, 2000). This can happen with the perceived anthropomorphized personality traits of the organization or job, as well as with the incumbents. These traits are typically operationalized through personality, interests, goals, job demands and personal needs (Edwards, 1991) (Kristof, 1996).

Person-Environment Fit theory as an overarching concept is argued to contain several subdimensions of fit that exist next to or adjacent to each other. These measures of fit each explain a distinct relationship of a person and part of his or her environment. Therefore, these dimensions can be used to focus on that distinct part of the environment and explore all the different variables that have an influence on the behavior of individuals affected by them. Therefore, each of the subdimensions of the Person-Environment Model is part of the undertaking of explaining the relationship between the individual in its environment in the most accurate and expansive way possible.

Even though there are many arguments of keeping these sub measures together and the dangers of omitting allied fit constructs (Morley, 2007), in this research only some measures are important to narrow down due to their influences on the attraction of employees towards certain kinds of

organization. We employ the most important fit dimensions for job seekers in the attraction phase. Including them in our model helps us distinguish their relative influence (Carless, 2005).

The current body of literature concerned with fit is heavily focused on post-hire employees rather than pre-hire jobseekers (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). This research follows the call of several researchers of focusing on attraction to organizations as it may be influenced by different types of fit than other stages of the employee cycle (Aiman-Smith, et al., 2001) (von Walter, et al., 2012).

Based on this knowledge we will discuss relevant sub-dimensions of PE fit for our potential solution. We will focus on jobseekers in the attraction phase and have the tools at hand to lay the foundation for a new dimension of fit, specialized on assessing fit with organizational design.

2.3 Person- Organization Fit (P-O)

One of the building blocks inside the P-E fit construct is the Person-Organization fit. It is often declared as one of the most important factors in attraction towards a specific kind of job. In her comprehensive review from 1996, Kristof defines Person-Organization (P-O) fit as the alignment between individuals and organizations, occurring when either party fulfills the needs of the other, or when they share key characteristics. It falls under the larger umbrella of person-environment fit, focusing on the harmony between employees and their work processes, as well as the development of a strong organizational identity through consistent values that form the basis of the company culture, as explained by Werbel & DeMarie (2005).

The notion that P-O fit has an influence in recruitment stems from Schneider's (Schneider, 1995) ASA Model (Carless, 2005). This has been solidified over time as the relative importance of the organization over the job has grown. In the twenty-first century the importance for applicants is not only a confidence in finding a job that requires one's skills but also in joining organizations that on some level or another resemble themselves (Rynes & Cable, 2003).

This resemblance in general describes the compatibility an employee has with the characteristics of an organization. Most commonly this is evaluated based on values, goals or other traits of the individual and the organization (Cable & Judge, 1997) (Verquer, et al., 2003) (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005). Value

congruence has become “widely accepted as the defining operationalization of P-O fit” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 285). This has influenced the way organizations recruit employees in that they heavily signal their values outwards and try to attract matching jobseekers. Organizations must signal characteristics to potential applicants who can then perform a personal fit-test with the organization. Attraction occurs in situations where the applicant evaluates the fit as sufficiently congruent. Values are part of the evaluation and are an important aspect of both the individual and organizations and can be compared “directly and meaningfully” (Cable & Judge, 1997, p. 547).

Westerman & Vanka (2005) highlight that P-O fit is based on the understanding that employee attitudes and behaviors are a result of the interaction between the individual and their work environment. In this regard, the alignment of individual and organizational values, assessed during the employment decision process, is crucial for ensuring a good fit. This aspect is a key component of person-environment fit. Chatman (1989) and Ostroff et al. (2005) also noted that during recruitment, potential employees assess their fit with an organization by comparing their personal values to those of the organization in every stage of the process. This assessment can lead candidates to opt out of the recruitment process if they perceive a significant discrepancy between their values and those of the organization. Information is shared to an ever-increasing amount in the process and new manners of fit can come into play that are part of the Person-Organization construct as the building blocks become ever more detailed focusing on different manners of fit.

One of the reasons why person-organization fit is an important factor in strategic human resources management and therefore part of the general strategic management of organizations is the implication that a high degree of P-O fit leads to positive work-related outcomes. This notion is especially in focus in the context of a tight labor market and the ongoing war for talent (Ng & Burke, 2005). Possible effects are said to be seen on turnover, organizational citizenship behaviors, job performance, psychological strain, knowledge acquisition and knowledge sharing, job seeking intentions, organizational identification, both job and career satisfaction, and ethical conduct.

Hoffman & Woehr's (2006) meta-analytic review sheds light on the modest to moderate connections between P-O fit and various behavioral outcomes such as job performance, organizational citizenship, and employee turnover. Similarly, Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) in their analysis highlight the significant links between P-O fit and job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment, with a lesser yet notable association with the intention to quit. The connections between P-O fit and aspects like satisfaction with coworkers, satisfaction with supervisors, and trust in management were found to be moderate. However, the relation with overall organizational satisfaction was notably stronger. In terms of performance, the researchers observed that P-O fit had a low relationship with overall job performance and task performance, but a moderate one with contextual performance.

Despite considerable progress in what Pappas & Flaherty (2006) described as a solid body of literature, challenges persist in defining and analyzing P-O fit. Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) identified a range of conceptualizations, measures, and analytical methods as significant hurdles in this research area. The concept of P-O fit has been approached in multiple ways. Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) acknowledge the primary emphasis on values and their congruence in measuring P-O fit, but they also recognize other approaches like goal congruence. In this field, four distinct interpretations were categorized by Bretz & Judge (1994) Matching individual skills and job requirements, aligning individual needs with organizational structures, congruence between individual and organizational values and culture, and the match between an individual's personality and the perceived organizational image.

Arthur et al. (2006) questioned the direct relationship between P-O fit and job performance due to the lack of a strong theoretical foundation. Their meta-analysis suggested that while P-O fit might not effectively predict job performance, it could be a more reliable indicator of turnover. Carless (2005) highlighted a major flaw in many P-O fit studies - the over-reliance on college students for research data, questioning the applicability of these findings to real-world job searches.

Werbel & DeMarie (2005) proposed a strategic contingency framework to align strategic human resource management with P-O fit, acknowledging the challenge posed by diverse organizational sub-cultures. They emphasized the role of human resource management in maintaining consistency across different organizational units in selection, performance appraisal, and compensation to harness culture-based competencies effectively.

More recent studies have tried to understand the underlying effects that drive this compatibility and its effects on applicant attraction. Most studies have accepted the assumption that "fit" inherently results in favorable outcomes like organizational attraction (Edwards, et al., 2006) (Yu, 2009). However, while various theories have been proposed to explain the link between P-O fit and organizational attraction, these links have not been extensively validated through testing. For example, Tom (1971) suggested that individuals are drawn to organizations with similar personality traits, as this allows for self-expression and reinforces their self-concept. On the other hand, Schneider's 1987 Attraction-Selection-Attrition model posits that individuals are inclined towards employers with similar characteristics, ensuring their psychological needs are met in the workplace, a notion supported by Bowen et. al. in 1991, and Cable & Judge in 1996. Although both theories offer viable reasons for the effects of P-O fit, they have rarely been subjected to direct testing, comparison, or consolidated into a unified, straightforward model.

Utilizing the methodology proposed by Edwards & Cable (2009), a study by Yu (2014) constructs a comprehensive model to understand these processes. It is based on the premise that perceiving alignment in values during the recruitment phase fosters specific anticipations about the nature of future work environments and the dynamics of employer-employee relations. These anticipations, in turn, positively affect the individual's attraction to the organization. Findings from a longitudinal investigation involving job seekers indicate that the expectation of being able to express one's values and having one's needs met within the organization are the most convincing factors explaining the impact of value congruence. Therefore, we can infer from this that the effect is expectations-based and a process that is built on ex ante information processing. This is an interesting insight in that the feeling of fit is not sufficient but

that that notion of fit is transposed on the expectation of allowed, tolerated and enhanced behavior in the workplace.

The compatibility with organizations can occur on different levels or out of different reasons. They either can be measured subjectively or objectively (Kristof, 1996). These distinctions will each be explained further in the following.

2.4 Subjective (perceived) fit

Subjective fit measures concern themselves with an individual's self-perceived alignment with a specific environment. This can range from a job role to the general organizational environment and its values. Primarily this fit is measured through self-report methods such as questionnaires or surveys. As stated before, these methods inquire about the perceived fit with different organizational characteristics or facets of a job role (Ehrhart, 2006).

Since subjective fit focuses on personal perceptions, it is subject to numerous psychological influences like personal biases or self-concepts. Examples of subjective fit measures include survey questions that probe into an individual's sense of alignment with the organization's values, the characteristics of a job, or their satisfaction with their role or team dynamics. This consequently means that perceptions of fit can be drastically different for individuals with similar traits and in similar environments purely based on their subjective perception of said environment (Ehrhart, 2006).

What this measure lacks in generalizability, has direct implications for pre-hire attitudes. Subjective fit studies have shown that subjective perceptions of P-O fit are a more direct predictor of pre-hire outcomes (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005). Subjective perceptions even function as a significant mediator of the relationship of objective fit and organization attraction. Post-hire research suggests that subjective fit in the Person-Organization and Person-Job context is more important in terms of job retention (Chhabra, 2015) (Scroggins, 2007) (Leung & Chaturvedi, 2011). This all highlights the importance of how candidate subjective perception of their alignment with an organization can shape attraction and post-hire attitudes.

2.5 Objective fit

Objective fit concerns itself with how well quantifiable and observable criteria form a congruence between an individual and a particular environment. In the context of organizational fit, this extends to how well personal reported preferences or characteristics correspond to a job's characteristics. The measurement can extend to a comparison of a job seekers preferences to incumbent-reported characteristics (Ehrhart, 2006).

In general, the assessment methodology revolves around formal evaluations which encompass the analysis of an individual's skills, abilities, and qualifications, juxtaposed against the specific requirements of a job or the broader needs of an organization. Such assessments are imperative for determining how well an individual aligns with the occupational or organizational context in question.

As we have learned, subjective fit is often a mediator for objective fit and organizational attraction. This indicates a lesser importance around jobseekers.

Subjective Fit measures center around individuals' perceptions of how well they align with their environment, influenced significantly by personal emotions and interpretations. Objective Fit measures, conversely, depend on concrete, quantifiable criteria for assessing compatibility. Both types of measures play crucial roles in a comprehensive understanding of P-E fit, each serving distinct yet complementary purposes.

In conclusion P-O fit has very interesting implications for our research. We have seen that this dimension of fit has a strong influence on pre-hire attitudes of applicants. There are implications for this relationship to be reliant on an expectations-based mechanic underlying it, with heavy emphasis on value congruence. This gives us the opportunity to include P-O fit as a powerful control in our research. One limitation of current pre-hire literature is the over-reliance on college students, which we subsequently

want to avoid. We add to this the insights of subjective fit and its importance in pre-hire attitudes and therefore influence on attraction and aim to incorporate measures of subjective fit in our research.

2.6 Person-Job Fit (P-J)

Person-Job fit is the compatibility between a person and a specific job. This is unique in the area of fit literature as it is not a compatibility or similarity of attributes. In contrast to attributes, it is concerned with the fulfillment of specific qualities or needs of either the person or the organization. This is explained with the compatibility of a job's responsibilities and the applicant's skills. Since P-J fit is a very common measure of fit there is ample empirical evidence and research attention on this area. This makes the process of selection of well-qualified applicants to one of the most exhaustively researched dimensions of P-E fit (Kristof, 1996).

There are two distinct ways of conceptualizing P-J fit. These include a demands-ability and a needs-supplies fit (Edwards, 1991). Both forms stem from complementary fit. Complementary fit will be explained further in the next part. In short, complementarity describes a relationship where one party supplies a distinct need the other one lacks (Cable & DeRue, 2002). In this case, this is the organization and the applicant.

2.6.1 Demands-abilities fit

Demands-abilities fit (D-A) emphasizes the fit regarding a person's knowledge or skills and abilities and the ones needs to perform the respective role successfully (Edwards 1991). These aspects often stem from prior experience, private or professional or a person's education (Caldwell, et al., 1990) (French, et al., 1982). Demands-abilities fit is therefore the most known dimension of fit to regular jobseekers. Performing a self-assessment on demands-abilities fit is a very generic process most jobseekers conduct when looking at a job posting. Additionally, it is the most common generic process recruiters assess new applicants when they first see an application. They measure, sometimes directly and without much engagement, whether an applicant's professional abilities are compatible with the demands of a specific position (Caldwell, et al., 1990) (Saks & Ashforth, 1997). The most common ways of assessment in the selection phase are resumes and interviews (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). Generally, research has been

preoccupied with demands-abilities fit from the perspective of the hiring organization and not from the jobseeker's perspective (Caldwell, et al., 1990).

Focusing on jobseekers, there has not been a plethora of research regarding their demand-abilities fit. This is understandable as the most crucial part of assessing the demands-abilities fit lies with recruiters in the organization that tend to recommend applicants with strong levels of demands-abilities fit (Tsai, et al., 2011) (Kristof-Brown, 2000). Foundational literature for jobseekers can be found in the gravitational hypothesis and knowledge about self-esteem. McCormick et al. (1972) state that people tend to gravitate towards jobs that they deem appropriate for their own ability level. Ashforth & Mael (1989) enhance this notion by stating that this gravitation is explained through the applicant's desire to maintain their self-esteem. This consequently stems from the need to feel competent (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Feelings of competence are important since in the instance of not matching job requirements the possibility arises of not being able to perform well in their respective jobs. This line of thinking explains the tendency of jobseekers to be attracted to organizations supplying a higher level of demands-abilities fit than the ones they perceive a lower level (Wilk & Sackett, 1996). In general, this allows the notion that the perceived level of demands-abilities fit has a large influence on an applicant's attraction towards any organization.

The way applicants evaluate their demands-abilities fit level is different for every applicant. In the most straightforward way job requirements shape ones perceived level of P-J fit and more specifically their demands-abilities fit. The impact of those requirements on job seeker attraction though is stronger when a P-J misfit is experienced. This means job requirements have a stronger influence when they are not met in contrast to when they are matched (Phillips, 1998). This notion is echoed by other studies. One study by Mason and Belt (1986) found that higher compatibility with the demands of the job leads to higher job pursuit intentions. Qualified candidates were significantly more likely to respond to fictitious job postings when their qualifications matched the demands specifically. Unqualified candidates were more likely to respond to job postings when the demands were more vaguely stated (Mason & Belt, 1986). This indicates that the more specific the information the higher quality fit assessment can be done by potential applicants.

2.6.2 Needs-supplies fit

Needs-supplies fit as the second way to conceptualize P-J fit emphasizes a more indirect way of assessing fit. It is more concerned with the extent to which a person's needs, desires and preferences are met by the job. In parallel to P-O fit theory these needs often are of a psychological nature and can encompass a person's goals interests and values (Kristof, 1996). These psychological needs seek to be supplied by a job's financial, physical and psychological resources (Edwards, 1991). Seeking these is a major motivator for people to enter the job market. This can be easily explained through the financial safety a stable job can provide, which according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs provides for at least securing psychological needs but can also be argued for providing the ability to fulfill more levels (Maslow, 1943).

Specifically in the domain of jobseekers there have been several interesting implications over time. One such area is the research of job characteristics regardless of skills. Asking job seekers what they deem most important in their job search, job characteristics were mentioned most frequently. These were compensation, benefits, level of supervision, time pressure, job location, type of work and job security (Barber & Roehling, 1993) (Bretz & Judge, 1998) (Cable & Judge, 1994) (Harold & Ployhart, 2008) (Highhouse, et al., 2003). Organizations provide this information in the recruitment process to provide an accurate and realistic image of the advertised job (Bretz & Judge, 1998). These characteristics and how a potential applicant reacts to them is highly individual. This circles back to needs part of this type of fit, as the needs of people are highly individual themselves. Therefore, different people need different characteristics and organizations can modify which of them they supply. This captures an inherent difficulty in the empirical investigations of these needs. Needs can have a near infinite breadth which in turn has implications for a large number of characteristics an organization may carry. Based on this, studies can never investigate all influential characteristics together. This indicates for us the necessity of narrowing the focus from general organizational design towards a need for autonomy in the workplace as explained in the introduction. This prevents us from creating a model that tries to encapsulate too many characteristics at once and in turn allows us to focus on one characteristic which enhances the literature.

2.6.3 Conclusion on P-J fit

As can be seen, the two concepts are different in nature, but both carry independent influence on workplace outcomes, which makes them prominent concepts to test (Edwards, 1991). The biggest evidence on positive workplace outcomes lies in the compatibility aspect, the demands-abilities concept. It has implications on a variety of attitudes and behaviors that in turn influence organizational effectiveness. If there is a high level of demands-abilities fit for an individual there is a positive influence on performance, job satisfaction as well as emotional attachment. This in turn has a negative effect on turnover intentions and actual turnover numbers. Job satisfaction has been described as the most predominant outcome of a high level of demands-abilities fit.

It has been reliably researched that jobseekers make more informed decisions about their fit when they are provided with specific information about the future job. Needs-supplies fit has been shown to be challenging to adopt for researchers and organizations alike due to the sheer number of characteristics a job can exhibit, and an applicant can assess. Demands-abilities fit on the other hand has a narrower number of expressions. The body of literature is limited in its generalizability due to the high number of students as subjects of research and a focus on job pursuit intentions instead of attraction.

This equips us with demands-abilities fit as a strong control in our model and once again reinforces the notion of not relying on students as the main body of research and instead pursue multiple sources of data. Additionally, we need to signal the level of fit with the demands of the job towards the subject to help them assess their level of P-J fit.

2.7 Conceptualization

Piasentin & Chapman, in their 2006 review, pointed out the confusion in the literature arising from inconsistent definitions and assessments of P-O fit due to the absence of a universal construct definition (Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2013). They identified two prevalent definitions:

1. Supplementary fit, where an individual shares one or more characteristics with the organization (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987).

2. Complementary fit, where an individual brings something new or fills a gap in the organization (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987).

Piasentin & Chapman (2006) observed that these dimensions, though theoretically distinct, need clearer definitions and empirical validation. In the domain of research among job seekers this distinguishment has seldomly been taken into consideration (Adkins & Russel, 1994) (Bretz, et al., 1989) (Cable & Judge, 1994) (Judge & Bretz, 1992) (Turban & Keon, 1993).

Supplementary fit includes similarity in vocations, organizations, team members, subordinates or supervisors (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). It is rooted in the Similarity-Attraction Paradigm, which says people need validation which they seek out by surrounding themselves with people that are similar in traits (Byrne, et al., 1971).

Complementarity includes for example a potential applicant carries skills and experiences the organization may lack, or the organization provides a benefit the applicant desires (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

Research has shown that people are able to distinguish both types of fit in the workplace. This carries the implication that both have different effects on the relationship of people and organizations, whereas complimentary fit was more closely related to job attitudes, and supplementary fit more to turnover (Cable & DeRue, 2002). This allows the notion that complementary fit is more important for jobseekers.

2.8 Dimensions for strategic organizational design

After collecting insights in the domains of attraction and fit concepts, we enrich our research with insights in the organizational design subject. In addition, to knowledge on how to design an organization and which dimensions to include, we need to enhance our knowledge with insights around autonomous work.

The topic of designing an organization towards flat hierarchies and the autonomy for employees that comes with it is not a new topic in general, but the sophistication of the practice is. There have been

many attempts in creating guides and handbooks towards organizing in flatter hierarchies and introducing autonomy in the workplace. Most of these attempts have the main problem of not being rooted in science and only focusing on being sellable. Therefore, we need a framework that suits the needs of managers that want to improve their organizational design to be appropriately prepared for new and rising challenges.

One such framework has been created by Reitzig (2022) and is called the “4+1 Framework” (Reitzig, 2022). This work clusters the challenges of creating a flat organization into five dimensions. These dimensions were created to be the shortest but most comprehensive list along which to design an organization and represent the culmination of years of field study. They therefore allow us to describe an organization along distinct characteristics that should be specifically attractive towards certain personality types. They enable us to confront candidates with characteristics relating to autonomous work in modern organizations. To get a grasp of how this framework operates, there needs to be a thorough overview over all the dimensions and their applicability for this study.

As mentioned before, the framework consists of five different dimensions that each describe one facet of organizational design, ranging from tasks, to information, remuneration and the management of exceptions. We investigate several dimensions of organizational design since we do not search for attraction on autonomy itself but on aspects of autonomy in the workplace. Additionally, an organization is designed along these parameters and not solely autonomy. This will help managers discern the individual effects of dimensions of design.

2.8.1 Task Distribution

Task Distribution is the highest order of organizational design and describes what kind of work needs to be done in the organization (Reitzig, 2022). From organizational perspective it can be described as the decomposition and mapping of tasks along the organization.

The first part, decomposition, concerns itself with the breaking down of the overarching goal of the company into tasks. These overarching goals can be different for every organization. For example, one goal could be to become a more attractive company for sought-after coders or achieving quicker release

timelines for software products. For the latter case tasks could entail revisiting current sprint cycles or internal tools for backlog processing. These tasks necessarily have to map onto the overarching goal of the organization and ultimately onto the company's strategy. Traditionally this was done top-down from manager level until it reached an employee that is assigned with the completion of such tasks. Managers spent their time creating sophisticated workflow diagrams or process maps to communicate internally. In decentralized organization this can be delegated to the employees themselves. Although this needs a more sophisticated team structure and trust in the employees it is a concept that is already in use in different organizations. The idea is that these overarching goals are taken by the agents in the organization and interpreted in their own way, trying to reach this goal. If the goal is sufficiently documented employees can deduce the tasks to reach them.

2.8.2 Task Allocation

Task Allocation follows the decomposition of the overarching goal into tasks (Reitzig, 2022). They now need to be mapped or assigned to designated employees for completion, answering the question of who does what. Usually, it is the managers task to find the appropriate and best equipped employee and assign the task directly (Reitzig, 2022). These tasks can come alone or in bundles. Motivation for the task is often an afterthought if one at all. Therefore, the manager carries all the analytical work in finding the best fit. Traditionally, these bundles were allocated as to lower information cost across the organization or team, in that they were allocated to the same person. The evaluation on this level is most concerned about the skill and experience fit of task and the employee. Consequently, in traditional organizations this mapping exercise is once again conducted top-down with efficiency and effective allocation in mind. If this is conducted in a decentralized manner the emphasis of task allocation is on employee choice. Often employees have a pretty accurate notion of their own skills but more importantly they can accurately assess their own motivation for any task. And over a longer time of employment choice in one's tasks can be a motivational factor. In an organization where these tasks can be freely chosen there needs to be a certain degree of modularization of these tasks. As described beforehand, the strategy of the organization is broken down into tasks bundles or modules. In decentralized organizations these bundles can now be allocated by the employees themselves. Through this, employees that self-assess as

fitting and motivated for the task take charge. In this way motivation is intrinsic and not driven by external pressure (Reitzig, 2022).

2.8.3 Information Exchange

Information Exchange is a daily activity in every organization. It answers the question of who needs to know what (Reitzig, 2022). Generally, there are glass ceilings, or floors, in most traditional companies where information does not flow through. There could be strategic or personal interests at play that fall into the category of risk mitigation. Another aspect of restricted information flow is the ability or the permission of speaking to anyone about anything. This can mean, in the most trivial sense, that junior staff does not have the permission to directly talk to their superior's superior without involving them into the conversation or that there is a general creeping creation of information silos. The goal of information exchange has traditionally been to enable the required coordination between employees and nothing more. In detail, this means that as long as both agents know enough about the activities of the other one to effectively alter or adjust their own activities information exchange is seen as complete. Information exchange also includes the medium for its exchange. In the example given earlier, this could be facilitated through E-Mail correspondence where the direct superior is put in copy of the message. In recent times there have been many innovations around information exchange platforms and many organizations now use direct messaging systems or organizational databases or knowledge bases to consolidate knowledge and offer it to the employees. Traditionally though the management determined the required level, content, medium and frequency of the exchange. In fully decentralized organizations employees decide how to engage these options by themselves inside the framework of the organization, meaning the information technology infrastructure employees are free to use them or not. The idea is to grant freedom and let people decide for themselves what the necessary amount of information is they need to successfully complete their tasks. There are employees who want and need the complete context for every task and like to engage co-workers or internal strategy documents that can grant this context. Additionally, another objective of these organizations can be the decentralized dissemination of information through organizational knowledge bases or so-called corporate universities. These grant the employee the freedom of choosing the information themselves and disseminate them between co-

workers. The focus for organizations of this type should be the accurate assessment of the information cost is willing to carry. The more agents there are, who independently communicate with each other, the higher these costs are. Therefore, most companies use a mixed approach that is tailored towards their specific situation. An example would be centralized dissemination of organizational strategy, to ensure that business critical information is communicated to each employee and mix this with supplemental documents explaining the context of the strategy in detail for everyone to freely access. Other examples are companywide communication tools that allow direct contact to every position in the organization especially when involved in projects of other departments as they are openly conducted in the same environment.

2.8.4 Rewards Distribution

Rewards Distribution concerns itself with the question of who gets what in the organization (Reitzig, 2022). It is rooted in the traditional sense of monetary remuneration that is almost omnipresent in all for-profit organizations in the world. The nature of this monetary remuneration can be flexible. There are several variations, like fixed, variable or based on company shares. There are also several models that combine these different components. Traditionally, monetary gain was seen as the sole motivator for employees to work. This notion goes back to the writings of Herbert Simon (1951). He suggested that the only reason for employees to sign a contract and allow themselves to be under the control of a manager is to reduce uncertainty about their income or financial status in general (Simon, 1951). It is very much possible that this notion holds true for a large number of employees and can also be the primary motivator for most of them. Especially in times of macro-economic uncertainty, that for the most part influences the personal outlooks of participants in that economy, certainty for personal finances is a strong influencer on job choice and motivation. Even though this may hold true, many employers have come to the realization that there are other components to remuneration that can help to diversify their offerings for potential employees. Different types of employees can be attracted and motivated by different types of rewards. These more recent types of rewards can encompass but are not limited to extended time-off, reduced workhours, parental leave, the option of trading workhours with non-for-profit work, life-long learning opportunities or even recognition by peers.

There are many different components that can be mixed and matched to fit every person individually. The most important shared attribute of these should be employee choice. There is no decentralized aspect of rewards distribution if the reward structure is merely modernized and not solely monetary. The employee should be able to carefully select their preferred rewards package. In its most extreme form, the employee should be able to, for example, flexibly choose their monetary plan and vacation time. This is challenging for many organizations, even more so in the European Union. Strict labor laws most often only allow customization bottom-up in the sense of added benefits. Variable components in one's reward structure are most often marginal. There can be trade-offs in variable and fixed remuneration and there can be additional vacation days or extended parental leave, but there remains a centralized aspect to guarantee organizations the ability to financially plan and forecast better. Nevertheless, there remains a decentralized aspect about rewards distribution that can be offered even in tightly regulated economies. These choices most often are comprised of the ability to improve skills through external events and trainings, educational leave, academic publishing, organizational contribution to wealth deposits by employees or even in some more extreme forms of democratically electing on whether bonuses are paid out and to whom.

Rewards distribution therefore is the most interesting part of decentralizing one's organization as it is the most regulated and diverse aspect in organizational design that has the most potential for controversy.

2.8.5 Exception Management

The last dimension contains the question on how to effectively manage exceptions or conflicts. Traditionally, the manager was the one assessing and deciding in cases of exceptions (Reitzig, 2022). Frictions that create these exceptions can happen out of numerous reasons with human failure only being one among them. That means these frictions have different solutions based on the situations. Typical situations involve the mismatch between the Task Division and the organizational goal as well as employee conflicts over different interests or different views on how to tackle their tasks. These conflicts sometimes require restructuring parts of the organization or team or require resolving on a personal level. In fully decentralized organizations it is thinkable to let employees resolve their own conflicts as

well as track their pursuit of the organizational goal. This is naturally a very big hurdle in designing decentralized organizations due to the clear definition of responsibility for these evaluations.

In conclusion, with the 4+1 framework we gain a very powerful tool on how to describe the organizational design along specific characteristic. These characteristics are often communicated externally through organizational websites and job postings. They should therefore have an influence on how candidates perceive an organization and in conjunction with the goal of this research, the framework allows us to assess the attraction they generate towards potential applicants.

2.9 Job crafting Theory

The organizational design framework we have just investigated allowed us insights in how to design an organization, specifically towards being more or less decentralized. There are instances in which the organization is not specifically designed towards autonomous behavior, but autonomous behavior is exhibited by employees, nonetheless. An area of research that shines light on this behavior is the job crafting theory. Job crafting happens post ante. As described, it is behavior of already employed people that are equipped with or allow themselves low levels of autonomy. Job crafting has investigated the origins of autonomous behavior in low-autonomy organizations that are not structured around that concept. This helps us understand more about the people actively shaping their job to meet their needs and has interesting implications on who could be attracted towards these situations.

Job crafting was first formally defined by Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) as “the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work” (p. 179) and “the action employees take to shape, mold, and redefine their jobs” (p. 180). Therefore, job crafting is a concept in organizational behavior that describes the actions taken by employees to proactively reshape their current job roles (Tims & Bakker, 2009) (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The literature behind this theory is still in its infancy but helps us understand the motivations behind working more autonomously, and which kinds of personalities thrive in this environment. Job crafting is initiated by employees themselves, which makes it an individualized and bottom-up approach to job re-design, in stark contrast

to the top-down approach of organizational design (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) (Grant & Parker, 2009) (Parker, 2014) (Parker & Ohly, 2008). These modifications can encompass changes in the tasks they undertake, the nature of their workplace relationships, and their perceptions of job responsibilities.

There are several types of job crafting that we explain in the following chapter.

2.9.1 Task crafting:

Task crafting involves altering the nature, scope, or number of tasks in one's job. An employee, for instance, might take on new projects or change the way they approach existing tasks (Tims, et al., 2012) (Wrzesniewski & Dutton , 2001) (Lyons, 2008). We can link task crafting to the dimensions of task distribution and allocation. In an organization highly decentralized along these dimensions employees are constantly redefining their roles, what tasks they engage in and in which way they do that. High autonomy in these dimensions essentially necessitate an ongoing task crafting behavior.

2.9.2 Relational crafting:

The concept of relational crafting involves changing the level or type of interaction with colleagues at work, which could include forming new collaborations or altering existing interpersonal dynamics (Wrzesniewski & Dutton , 2001). This is closely related to the dimension of information exchange in the organizational dimensions model. It can be inferred that relational crafting is an element of the daily routine of someone working in an organization highly decentralized along information exchange as they create new relationships and gather information for their tasks.

2.9.3 Cognitive crafting:

This type refers to transforming one's mindset or perception regarding the significance and meaning of their job responsibilities. It essentially transforms how one sees the job (Wrzesniewski & Dutton , 2001).

2.9.4 Motivation and outcomes of job crafting

The motivation behind job crafting stems from employees' desire to enhance job satisfaction, engagement, meaning and resilience. It is driven by the aspiration to better align one's work with

personal interests, values, and skills (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Another aspect is the employees need for certain job characteristics, either emerging over time or they may have been missing from the start (Petrou, et al., 2012). This solidifies the notion that job crafting consequently is post ante behavior. The employee experiences a dissatisfaction or a misalignment with how things are currently organized in the workplace and actively tries to alter details or the complete nature of their work. It can also help with addressing rising complexities in one's job or attaining an anticipated goal (Demerouti, 2014). The process of job crafting then can be without the managements assent or cooperation (Kulik, et al., 1987). The outcomes of job crafting can be significantly positive if used correctly. They include heightened job satisfaction, improved performance at work, and enhanced overall well-being (Ghitulescu, 2007) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2017). Additionally, job crafting has the potential to foster innovation and personal growth within the organizational context, which can be crucial for organizations that draw their competitive strength out of these characteristics (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) (Wang, et al., 2017) (Bakker, et al., 2012) (Demerouti, et al., 2015) (Tims, et al., 2015).

As an example, Wrzesniewski et al. (2013) presented a maintenance worker. He was very good at his job and in the organization for a long time, so he then started training new colleagues. He was so proficient in doing this he shifted his own responsibility fully from maintenance work to training new colleagues. He took initiative and changed the contents, the relations and the perception of his goal. This in turn strengthened his P-J fit, which is essentially the goal of job crafting exercises (Berg, et al., 2010) (Wrzesniewski, et al., 2013).

Although job crafting can enhance some aspects, job crafting is not without its challenges if the environment is not designed to accommodate it. It can lead to issues such as role ambiguity, conflicts with established organizational norms, or disparities in workload distribution among employees. These challenges necessitate a careful balance to ensure that job crafting benefits both, the individual and the organization. Therefore, managers that are interested in creating an environment where autonomous job crafting takes place must create structures that enable such behavior. Careful organizational design consequently needs to accommodate these employees as well as that employees that thrive in this environment should be willing to enter these organizations. In the first place, these potential applicants must be attracted towards these types of organizations.

For our research it is important to see task and relational job crafting as operationalizations of Task Distribution and Allocation as well as information exchange. They are the low-autonomy, bottom-up counterpart to a top-down organizational design. This has interesting implications for us. On one hand it shows the need for autonomy for certain types of employees in the workplace. On the other hand, there has been research into which types of personalities engage in job crafting. This makes this theory a great supplement to our research as it bolsters our theoretical foundations with real-life insights and nudges us in the right direction concerning personality types. Research suggests that proactive personalities as well as personality types that believe to be able to shape their surroundings through their actions are most likely to engage in job crafting (Bakker, et al., 2012) (Petrou, 2013). These personality types, thriving in job crafting as well as insights into personality types enjoying autonomy in general, will be discussed in the next part.

2.10 Personality:

As strategic managers of organizations, we are mostly interested in strengthening our competitive advantage in the marketplace. One key aspect of gaining a competitive advantage is employing the best possible workforce. The extent to which kind of worker is the right fit can most accurately be determined post ante with respect to job performance levels. In the screening of new employees there is often a high emphasis on some manner of culture fit which is often expressed in a value fit dimension like P-O fit. Studies concerned with fit implications on job performance have distinguished that value fit is not directly linked towards performance outcomes. Value fit was found to be relatively strongly related to job attitudes, less strongly related to contextual performance, and only marginally related to overall and task performance and actual turnover (Arthur, et al., 2006) (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005). The weak relationships between value fit and performance and actual turnover tend to be mediated by job attitudes (Arthur, et al., 2006).

Personality traits on the other hand have been found to have a stronger impact on contextual performance as they are more indicative of the type of worker and their behaviors in the workplace (Robertson & Callinan, 1998) (Witt, et al., 2002). The indications of post ante research on personality types and their performance in the workplace lead us to believe that it would be favorable if these personality types are also significantly more attracted towards workplaces necessitating these personality types to succeed.

Taking the findings of job crafting literature, we have a notion of what traits thrive in an environment where employees are allowed to alter their current roles and modify them to achieve a heightened satisfaction with their job. This not only happens on the task level but also the relational one and as we have described these can be found in modern organizational design in terms of task allocation, task distribution and information exchange. Across these dimensions there are several implications of who does well in these areas. The question is if the carriers of these personality traits are also attracted towards these organizations. To effectively employ the findings towards formulating a solution to this question it is important to list and explain the personality types that managers would hope to attract in a significantly stronger manner than applicants not expressing them. Additionally, we need to establish the reasons why they possibly have an influence on the strength of attraction towards more autonomous organizations.

2.10.1 Proactive Personality

A proactive personality is defined as an individual's inclination to take initiative and bring about change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Those with proactive personalities are typically self-motivated, focused on change, and adept at foreseeing and undertaking actions geared towards future objectives (Bateman & Crant, 1993). People scoring high in this trait typically show high initiative in what they are doing, demonstrating readiness to act and anticipate upcoming challenges or prospects (Parker & Collins, 2008) (Crant, 2000). They have a high change orientation and actively seek to enhance their present conditions or even establish new ones. Additionally, people high on proactiveness show a high level of persistence, which is described as the ability to surmount obstacles and maintain their efforts when faced with difficulties (Liao, 2022).

In the workplace, proactive individuals generally tend to behave in positive ways towards their career progression, showing adaptability to new challenges arising with higher responsibilities (Joo & Bennett III, 2018). This is in line with their higher propensity for career planning and management often leading to them being favored highly in situations of career advancement (Seibert, et al., 2001). Especially

entrepreneurial roles or change-focused roles are inhabited by proactive personnel, able to foster innovation (Crant & Bateman, 2000). Commonly, proactivity is measured through self-reporting tools. One example would be the Proactive Personality Scale developed by Bateman & Crant (Bateman & Crant, 1993). In addition to positive outcomes in career advancement, enhanced job performance and effective leadership, proactivity has a significant relationship with higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Strauss, et al., 2017) (Gagne, 2003).

Despite their attractiveness to many employers, proactive personnel can pose challenges for some types of organizations not equipped with facilitating their behavior. This can lead to conflicts, especially in settings that are highly structured or offer limited autonomy, where the proactive behaviors may clash with established norms or procedures (Strauss, et al., 2017).

Since there are no direct studies that concerned themselves with the attraction of certain personality types towards organizations with respect to their organizational design, we must transform these insights that fit into organizational designs that tend towards more autonomy for the employee.

Regarding proactive personality types there are interesting implications. One area of research that has produced interesting insights is around Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) (Organ, 1988). One study implicates that autonomy for proactive personality types enhanced OCB and led to higher self-efficacy and sense of control for proactive persons (Muldoon, et al., 2017) (Ma, et al., 2022). This means that employees, that are granted more autonomy in the workplace and carry the specific personality type, were more engaged and have persistently gone beyond the boundaries of their job description in, for example, engaging in helpful behavior towards co-workers. Another study found significant results for proactive personality types benefiting more from job autonomy and their position in the hierarchy as well as access to resources and strategy-related information in relation towards constructive change-oriented behavior (Fuller, et al., 2006). This implicates proactive personality types as more involved in low autonomy organizations. The moderation of the proactive personality type strengthens the impact of these structural design aspects on their felt responsibility for constructive change, leading to more involved employees that can drive structural change in the organization (Fuller, et al., 2006). Studying

the implications of proactivity and job crafting, a study found that job crafting mediates the relationship of proactivity and the fit dimensions of Person-Organization, Person-Group, Person-Supervisor and partially Person-Job and Person-Vocation fit (Liao, 2022). This has very strong implications. Job crafting, a behavior of employees trying to change their environment to enhance their fit with it, facilitates the fit for proactive persons. This is another indication of proactive persons needing autonomous environments for them to perceive a satisfying fit on all levels we measure fit currently (Bretz & Judge, 1994). We can deduce this very confidently as the relationship between proactive personality and job crafting is moderated by that same autonomy. Therefore, the indirect effect of proactive personality on every measure of fit is even stronger for employees with high amounts of autonomy in the workplace. On the matter of performance, one study found that employees scoring high in proactive personality are more likely to craft their job, which in turn was predictive of their engagement and colleague-rating of in-role performance (Bakker, et al., 2012). Proactive persons can perform better if they are allowed to shape their environment.

2.10.2 Honesty-Humility (H-H)

Honesty-Humility is a personality trait within the HEXACO model of personality, which encompasses several behavioral and attitudinal characteristics (Lee & Ashton, 2018).

The HEXACO model is an extension of the big-five model. Through thorough research, Honesty-Humility was established as a distinct sixth factor in a person's personality range. It demonstrates a high correlation with the agreeableness trait of the five-factor model but is distinct in its markers in the HEXACO model (Ashton & Lee, 2009) (Thielmann, et al., 2016).

A person scoring high within Honesty-Humility is likely to exhibit very prosocial behavior. This is often expressed through fairness, sincerity and a tendency to cooperate with others (Yan Dong & Fang, 2019). At the same time these people avoid manipulating others for personal gain. This is often coming alongside a resilience towards unethical behavior (Lee, et al., 2013). In the workplace this is especially valuable as they refrain from delinquent behavior, cheating or dishonesty. Therefore, it is a trait that has predictive power for integrity and ethical decision making.

Another key factor for employees scoring high in Honesty-Humility is their unique ability to reach high performance levels in roles that require trust in others and oneself by others as well as ethical behavior (Johnson, et al., 2011). Decision-making processes by carriers of this personality trait are characterized by honesty and their care for the well-being of their co-workers. This reflects in their decision-making as being less selfish and focusing more on cooperative solutions in social dilemma situations (Zhao & Smillie, 2014).

In conclusion, persons that score high on honesty-humility tend to be more fair, sincere and less manipulating. Also, they tend to exhibit prosocial behavior in decision-making and interact with situational factors in cooperative ways.

All these factors describe favorable behavior for high-autonomy organizations, especially in respect to honesty in translating strategy and allocating tasks, coordinating with colleagues and creating their individual rewards package.

Since there have been several implications for strong correlation between H-H and agreeableness as well as altruism we can include implications of these personality traits and try to integrate them into our approach of narrowing down the most important traits for potential applicants in terms of attraction towards autonomous organizations (Ashton & Lee, 2005) (Kajonius, 2016) (Thurackal, 2016). As these studies have not directly studied H-H as a trait we take these insights as supplemental to our research. We do include them as we see H-H as an overall concept as a more important predictor for success in high autonomy organizations and therefore an indicator for a possible attraction of these personality trait carriers towards these organizations. This notion derives itself from the high levels of trustworthiness needed to work in these organizations as there is heavy emphasis on coordination of oneself and co-workers as well as the need for trust in the employees by the organization to accurately, and in the best interest of the organization, translate business strategy into individual tasks (Reitzig, 2022).

In situations where the needs of co-workers are clearly stated and understandable, which is satisfied with information systems such as electronic bulletin boards or knowledge management systems, helping is more likely to occur (Lee & Lee, 2010). In their study researching how and why helping behaviors

occur, a survey was conducted and concluded that altruism and job autonomy have significant impact on this behavior. Characteristics of the media used must include the media richness to influence this effect positively. Adversely, the size of the user group has a negative effect on this behavior.

In conclusion, granting job autonomy for employees high on altruism has positive effects on helping behavior in smaller groups of users with high media richness (Lee & Lee, 2010). Agreeableness specifically has a positive effect on relational job crafting behavior (Peral & Geldenhuys, 2020) (Gori, et al., 2021). Relational job crafting behavior as a concept is close to engaging in high autonomy in information exchange environments. People that are characteristically social, which encompasses behaviors that are kind, friendly and especially honest in nature, modify their job characteristics by increasing the amount of social interaction with others at work. This leads to behavior going beyond their role requirements and towards more communal needs. Another study strengthens this notion by stating that agreeableness has a positive effect on collaborative job crafting (Gori, et al., 2021).

In conclusion, behavior expressing trustworthiness and prosocial activities in the workplace have positive implications on autonomous behavior. This behavior is desirable for working in high-autonomy organizations and should therefore be attracting towards people carrying prosocial personality traits. Since Honesty-Humility is the most indicative for trustworthiness in the workplace and carries high correlation with other prosocial traits, it is also the most interesting personality trait that should be considered when screening for applicants and should also lead to higher attraction of applicants carrying this trait.

2.10.3 Internal Locus of Control

Internal Locus of Control (internal LOC) is a psychological concept and refers to an individual's believe about the extent to which they have control over the events that affect their lives. In essence the individual believes that their own actions significantly shape the outcomes in their life, professional and personal (Dubois, 1997). It is the opposing construct to External Locus of Control. People scoring high on External Locus of Control believe in external factors shaping the same outcomes. There are various

scales and questionnaires used to measure both concepts such as Rotter's Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966). These measure the individuals' attitude towards causes to outcomes in their environment.

The concept of Locus of Control is highly connected to a person's social and developmental environment. An individual's attitude towards Locus of Control is therefore often shaped by teachers or parents (Dubois, 1988).

High internal LOC is often associated with higher academical outcomes compared to high external Locus of Control (Lamb, et al., 1985). This relationship is believed to stem from the perception that one's own effort and abilities can directly influence academic outcomes. Stemming from this notion individuals scoring high on internal Locus of Control often feel a higher satisfaction with life in general, again coming from the idea that every outcome they experience is directly linked to one's own actions and efforts (Bajwa, et al., 2016). This motivates individuals to strive for better outcomes than their external counterpart.

These insights have extensively been tried to extend to the workplace. In parallel to the socialization process for internal Locus of Control through their upbringing, the same can be said about the organizational environment. A longitudinal study found evidence that autonomy in the workplace can directly shape an individual's level of internal Locus of Control (Wu, et al., 2015). If a person has the ability to shape their professional environment and have control over their own work, it tends to develop a stronger internal Locus of Control in the employee. For persons already carrying higher internal LOC they perceive more autonomy in their work from the start. They tend to show more involvement and satisfaction in their jobs than people low in internal Locus of Control (Ng, et al., 2006). The notion that internal LOC has influence on the motivation of employees has been confirmed in a meta-analysis by Ng et. al. (2006), as they pose that internal LOC is positively associated with favorable work outcomes such as positive task, social experiences and greater job motivation (Ng, et al., 2006). When employees believe that they govern and create their own specific role in their work rather than being defined through the organization, supervisor or coworkers, they should feel more enabled and energized (Spreitzer, 1995). This consequently leads to internals possessing a higher need for self-determination, which could also be reflected in their desire to shape their roles, relationships and their individual reward scheme.

Reflective of expectations theory, a self-designed or shaped rewards scheme that is directly linked to their own efforts should enable them to exert more effort and motivation (Vroom, 1964). As Latham and Yukl (1976) stated, the motivational aspect of internal LOC lets them set more difficult goals but also strengthens the need for achievement, enabling more dynamic rewards schemes (Latham & Yukl, 1976). This is especially effective for the organization in respect to their tendency to defer gratification to obtain these desired outcomes. Variable aspects in pay become more important as well as more intangible rewards, like sabbaticals or educational leave (Kimmons & Greenhaus, 1976). Spector (1982) states this as well as he described the willingness of employees with high internal LOC to engage in performance-reward relationships. Important for the effective allocation of tasks is the strong sense of competence and confidence in one's abilities. This helps in the allocation as the respective employee has a better understanding of which tasks to take on, of their own accord. Phares (1976) adds that internals attempt actively to shape their work experiences in a way most favorable to them. This supports the positive effects of employing persons with high internal LOC in areas where a high degree of decentralized task allocation and division is needed.

Despite all the influences on their own shaping of tasks and rewards there is also a social component embedded in the internal LOC of employees. They tend to initiate more social relationships and are more considerate of their co-workers (Martin, et al., 2011). This is essential in high information cost environments as they heighten the quality of information exchange and foster a culture of helping behavior. This helping behavior is key for effective collaboration in decentralized task allocation environments where a worker can take on tasks they are not perfectly aligned with the skill-needs and actively seek advice and receive it (Phares, 1976).

In conclusion, LOC has many implications for an employee in an organization high in autonomy. On one hand they tend to be very determined in shaping their roles and rewards, creating and pursuing new goals and challenges, pushing the boundaries of their roles and allocating themselves towards tasks they experience as good fits. On the other hand, they have great prerequisites for solving information problems and create new and lasting professional relationships, helping them disseminate information critical for succeeding in their tasks. This tendency for behavior is reflective of many decentralized

organizations and implicates them as a great working place for internals which in turn should be an attractive workplace for potential applicants as well.

3. Synthesis and potential solution:

With this research we set out to answer a very basic question:

Does an applicant's personality influence their attraction towards certain types of organizational design?

Inside this basic question there were several implications that needed to be addressed. We established the traditional way of answering this question and investigated the concept of fit. Fit, as described in the Person-Environment literature, describes several dimensions where an employee or incumbent experiences fit with the organization. These range from organizational factors to characteristics of the job. As we have seen, no measure yet captures the fit of employees with the organizational structure of the company and therefore no measure is enabling managers to answer the question of who fits in an autonomous organization apart from their congruence with a skill description.

Additionally, we introduced the ASA framework by Schneider (1987) to our research as it carries the fundamentals to answer the question of attraction towards an organization. In every organization there are three distinct phases of the employee lifecycle and we have established that jobseekers put an emphasis on P-O Fit and P-J Fit in organizational attraction. This framework has shown us the importance of attraction towards a company as it carries the highest potential for measures of fit to have an influence on the decisions of individuals to initially approach an organization.

As we shift our research towards the organization, we focus on autonomy in the workplace as the main organizational characteristic that we want to investigate. For this we have introduced the 4+1 Framework of Reitzig (2022). The framework allows us to conceptualize the organizational design on five distinct dimensions. These dimensions range from the division and allocation of tasks, over the information exchange, as well as the distribution of rewards and the management of exceptions. With this framework

we can most efficiently distinguish between the most important factors for decentralization that should be attractive towards potential applicants.

Lastly, drawing from the insights of the job crafting literature as well as general implications around autonomy in the workplace, we distinguish three personality types that might have an advantage in the autonomous workplace and are desirable agents for organizations operating this way. These personality types, namely Proactivity, Honesty-Humility, and internal Locus of Control appear as the most important and distinct personality traits, driving performance in a flat organization.

We introduce personality because of several implications. On one hand we know that personality has larger implications for performance in the workplace than values. On the other hand, personality can be easily measured using a variety of tests. This not only helps in the sorting of employees from the organizations side but also in human resources management of the current workforce. Ultimately, we find that there are personality types that are proven to be desirable candidates and want to discuss whether they are the ones attracted towards organizations openly expressing autonomy adjacent characteristics in their signaling towards the labor market. Additionally, since these people work well in these organizations and achieve high levels of performance, there should be a perceived fit between these personality types and the organizational structure.

Autonomy cannot be mandated from the top down but can also be lived by employees in organizations that were not specifically designed for this purpose. We therefore looked at a concept that discussed why employees engage in changing their roles to more fit their perception of a good Person-Job fit. We introduced the concept of job crafting. Job crafting as a concept has described the behavior of already employed individuals that are not satisfied with their role and actively try to shape it to more fit their needs. Job crafting therefore described autonomy on a low level and restricted within the guidelines of traditional companies, in stark contrast to organizations modeling this behavior onto their organizational design. Job crafting therefore is a post ante behavior of employees who were not attracted to the company because of the autonomy in the first place. We have seen that the crafting dimensions of task and relational crafting are the operationalizations of the task distribution and allocation as well as the

information exchange dimension of the organizational design. Research has indicated reasons for job crafting behavior and has shown personality traits as a main individual predictor for such behavior.

The question this has brought up is which personality traits have a positive influence on this behavior, which we investigated next.

Proactivity and internal Locus of Control with its strong implications in job crafting theory, Honesty-Humility as one of the main facilitators of cooperation in decentralized organizations, were deemed to be the most important traits. These traits, as they engage employees in job crafting, enable cooperation and in general drive employees to highly autonomous behavior could be personality traits that drive attraction towards decentralized organizations.

With these insights in mind, we need to construct a model of investigation that helps us getting indications for a perceived fit of personality types to decentralized organizations.

To effectively model a way of researching this question, we need to understand how individuals searching for jobs conduct their research. Apart from direct referrals, the common way of looking for job opportunities is through recruiting websites. These can be primary ones, which means job ads directly on the website of an organization or on a secondary platform. As early as 2009, four in five job seekers used the internet in their research (Green, et al., 2011). In the US in a 2014 survey 54% of adults used web-based resources to access job information and 45% applied for jobs online (Watson, 2016). For the so-called Gen-Z, the current and future target group of young employees, online job searching is the preferred method. They use job platforms significantly more and gather information preferably online (Wübbelt & Tirrel, 2022) (Vitelar, 2013) (Sidorcuka & Chesnovicka, 2017) (Mowbray & Hall, 2020).

The standard way of posting a job on these platforms is through stating the role name and giving a short explanation of the organization, the role requirements and the reward or benefit possibilities of the organization. This leads to condensed descriptions encompassing the relevant information for an

applicant. Commonly they also refer to their website for further information if the position is posted on a secondary job-platform.

The information included in a job posting therefore tries to convey enough information as to enable the applicant to create a perception over the P-O and the P-J fit with the organization. This is representative of the signaling theory discussed before. In our model we want to extend this description with information about the organizational design and measure whether this enhances attraction for the chosen personality traits. For this we need the most appropriate tool with which we can ascertain this information.

4. Method

In the following the method of gathering data will be explained. We decided on a specific experimental design that will help us discern the relationship of personality and attraction.

4.1 Conjoint Analysis

Based on the above information we can infer a commoditization of job postings. Through the condensed format and the ability to swipe through a very large number of job postings in a short time, the decision to apply for one job is likened to a customer's informed choice in the consumer market.

Therefore, for our research we use the method of Conjoint Analysis. Conjoint Analysis is commonly used in marketing to discern the influence of various product or service attributed on consumer preferences. It is an analysis of trade-offs, which a purchaser makes in choosing a product. It presents consumers with alternative bundles of features from a pool of attributes. These attributes may vary in level and should capture the distinguishing features that are actually taken into consideration by the consumer (Auty, 1995). As the consumer chooses the bundle of attributes or features, they prefer over several sequences, researchers can evaluate the different utilities for each attribute (Malthora & Birks, 2003). Utility in Conjoint Analysis describes the part-worth, or relative importance of said attribute level for the customer. Ultimately the researcher has a better understanding of which characteristic and which level of it is worth most to the consumer. Statistical design techniques are used to generate distinct cards

out of the bundles of attributes, that represent one distinct product. These can incorporate verbal descriptions, pictures or even models and prototypes.

This methodology fits the aim of the study as it can help us with discerning the utility levels of different organizational characteristics and ultimately allows us to see whether certain personality types prefer these over others based on their personality type. It does not require a very large sample size to create meaningful insights. Therefore, we take four organizational design dimensions, namely task distribution and allocation, information exchange and rewards distribution and vary their level between centralized and decentralized. The statements include the essence of the way an employee can expect to work in the organization. It is derived from our insights of the literature by Reitzig (2022).

We incorporate our knowledge about P-O and P-J fit and add them as separate dimensions for our controls. We aim to discern which level of these dimensions is the most attractive for the participants and whether personality moderates this relationship. The complete list of statements is provided in the appendix.

This creates a complex description of an organization based on statements about the distinct dimensions of organizational characteristics. Through the expansive literature research, we have discerned these dimensions as the most relevant for a decision between two workplaces. Additionally, they create a minimum efficient product profile (Kuhfeld, 2010).

As an example of how the statements are constructed the statements for Task Allocation are provided. The statements vary on two levels. One for a decentralized design and one for a centralized one. These statements have been formed through numerous pre-tests, which have shown that two levels and a rather short description engage candidates the most and provide for the least levels of confusion and overload. For the decentralized dimension the following statement was provided in the questionnaire:

“You decide when, how and where you take on your tasks. You are free to choose tasks that you feel match your skills and motivate you.”

For the centralized dimension the following statement was provided in the questionnaire:

“Your manager decides when, how and where you take on your tasks. They choose tasks that they feel match your skills.”

With these statements the aim was to provide the participant the notion that they have deep knowledge about the position they would possibly be attracted to and have discerned the organizational design in this dimension. With this in mind, we provide the candidate with the knowledge that the role requires autonomous work or not. Ultimately this yields the following, incorporating organizational design and known controls in P-O fit and D-A fit.

Table 1: List of conjoint attributes and levels

Task Division	The responsibility to translate the organizational and departmental goals and strategy into tasks lies with you and your colleagues.
	The responsibility to translate the organizational and departmental goals and strategy into tasks lies with your manager.
Task Allocation	You decide when, how and where you take on your tasks. You are free to choose tasks that you feel match your skills and motivate you.
	Your manager decides when, how and where you take on your tasks. They choose tasks that they feel match your skills.
Information Exchange	Information to successfully achieve your tasks is openly accessible. You decide who you can consult and which information you share. Information on the organization's strategy is accessible for everyone.
	Information to successfully achieve your tasks is shared by your manager. They decide who you can consult and which information you share. Information on the organization's strategy is carefully shared with the appropriate persons.
Reward Distribution	You configure an individual reward structure for your work. There is a catalogue of non-monetary reward options for you to choose in addition to your salary.
	Managers decide the reward structure for your work. There is a set salary and benefits catalogue standardized for every employee.
P-O Fit	In this role, you can expect to openly express your personal values in the organization.
	In this role, you can expect to keep most of your personal values private and strongly differentiate between personal values and the ones of the organization.
Demands Ability Fit	In this role you expect a perfect congruence between the demands of the job and your abilities.
	In this role you expect no perfect congruence between the demands of the job and your abilities.

These statements provide the candidate with accurate information about the corresponding roles and as shown in the literature review should provide for strong controls in our model.

4.2 Personality traits

To discern the corresponding personality traits carried by the candidate we evaluate them through short forms of self-report tests. The questions are available in the appendix. For proactivity we use the 6-item Proactive Personality Scale by Bateman & Crant (1993), that has shown internally consistent results (Claes, et al., 2005). For Honesty-Humility we use the 10-item scale used in the HEXACO personality test (Ashton & Lee, 2009). Lastly, for Internal Locus of Control we use the Levenson Multidimensional Locus of Control Scale (Levenson, 1973). Each question is rated along a Likert-Scale reaching from 1 = strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree. We harmonized every item along this scale to achieve comparability.

4.3 Controls

The controls used in the Conjoint Analysis are all based on either adding descriptive statistics to our research or incorporate research expecting influences apart from personality. Through applying these controls, we want to include as much relevant data as possible.

First, we ask the participant about their gender and whether they want to disclose that information. Gender data will be an interesting insight in whether there are significant differences in their attraction. Next, we asked about their age, more precisely their placement in age brackets. These brackets were constructed along the current generations that take part in the labor market, namely Generation Z, Y and X, Baby Boomers and the marginally represented silent generation. Generational differences could be significant and could allow insights in changing cultural lines. As we have seen, the current literature in organizational attraction is heavily dominated by data from students or recent graduates. To add insight to this data we asked participants whether they plan to graduate in the next year or have recently graduated. This allows a sharp distinction between students and candidates already active in the labor market. To further sharpen our understanding, we also asked candidates about their highest academic degree they have already achieved. Not only does this deepen our knowledge about graduates but also about non-academic participants. Lastly, we inquired whether participants were actively looking for a job at the time of the survey. Even though the proposed organizations are not real and not hiring, there

have been findings in the literature that suggest different attraction levels for jobseekers and non-jobseekers in real life situations (ONeal, 2014).

5. Procedure

For the Conjoint Analysis we use the program conjointly. Conjointly is used by many professionals every day and it provides for all the necessary technicalities. There was a monetary incentive for completing the survey, in the form of a raffle for a gift card for an online retailer.

The user begins with an introduction into the experiment, which explains the general purpose of the study and the following steps. Next, the user must answer demographic questions and other controls. After successfully filling out all the questions another introductory screen comes up. This time the following sequence of conjoint questions is explained. The screen informs users that a comparison of workplaces will follow, and that all given information reflects the users research about said workplaces. It also informs them about the personality questions that will be intermingled at random points in the survey. The user is informed that the organization and the corresponding job posting are independent from their personal professional background. Therefore, indication of attraction is completely based on the descriptions carried by either choice.

After the user is familiarized with the situations, the conjoint questions start appearing. As described before, participants are confronted with personality questions at random times. This has been done to actively work against mental fatigue and monotony, which was reported to be present in pre-tests.

Users that exhibit random behavior in their answers or are too quick are automatically filtered out of the process. They have the chance to go back and redo the survey or must end it. This ensures quality in the answers, as a built-in feature of the survey platform, which enabled us to use every complete survey response we received. The questionnaire then ends with an outro screen which thanks users for their participation.

6. Data Collection

As described above, the data gathering was facilitated through Conjointly. The time of collection was from November 2023 to January 2024.

To circumvent the general problem with jobseeker literature, overreliance on students and recent graduates, the access to the survey was provided by the researcher himself. That means that every participant was sourced through their network.

The survey reached 823 participants and 226 completed valid questionnaires. 99% of non-respondents aborted the survey on the first page. This indicated that no fatigue or cognitive overload during the survey was responsible for the lower number of completions. 95% of all answers were provided from Germany. This mode of gathering participants carries no representative value of the overall population, rather it is representative of the network of the researcher. This will be shown in the descriptive statistics part of the results. The survey was conducted online with anonymized responses. The participants were free in how long they would take to complete the survey which resulted with an average of 18,3 minutes for each completed survey.

The system generates full factorial designs at random for every participant, which enables to discern the participants preferences to full effect.

7. Data Analysis

The Data Analysis will be done in the program STATA and through the analysis module of the Conjointly program. The mode of analysis will be a linear regression that seeks to determine whether or not the independent variables of personality type (proactivity, honesty-humility and internal Locus of Control) have an influence on the individual preferences of the participants. This helps us to discern whether personality is the source of attraction for applicants.

8. Results

In the following we will conduct an analysis of the participants answers in the survey, this leads us to discerning the effects in our model.

8.1 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics gives us an overview over our dataset. It familiarizes us with the raw answers before we conduct statistical analysis on them. We will show the demographics and their distribution and investigate the representative status of our cohort.

8.1.1 Gender

For the gender demographic we found that 39,6% of participants of the questionnaire were male, which constitutes for 89 total responses. For females we found that 58,8% of participants identified with this gender, this represents 133 total entries. In addition to these, 1,3% or 3 total entries identify with a diverse gender and 0,4% or 1 participant did not feel represented by all the choices.

In Germany the official split in gender as of 2022 is 49% male and 51% female (Bundesamt, 2023). This means we can see an overrepresentation of female representatives in our sample with respect to the overall population.

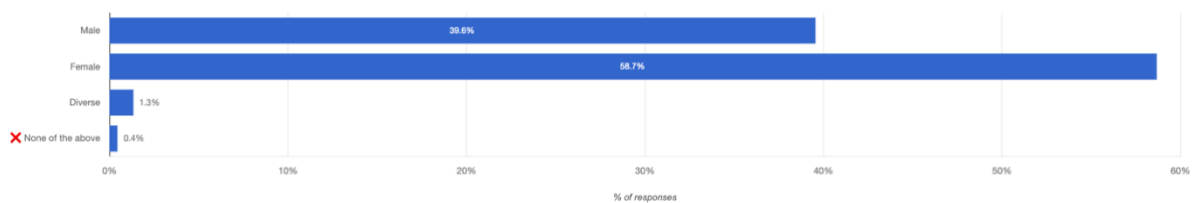


Figure 1: Gender Distribution

8.1.2 Age

The results from asking participants about their age show a clear distribution. For the age bracket for Generation Z (18-27) accounts for 60,9% of the participants which corresponds to 138 total entries of 226. For the millennial cohort (28-43) it accounts for a proportion of 31,1%, corresponding to 70 entries of 225. The Generation X (44-59) cohort represents 6,7% of all answers, or 15 entries. Lastly, we reached a proportion of 1.3% of entries, or 3 total entries for the Baby Boomer generation (60-78).

This constitutes an overrepresentation of Generation Z in our sample compared to the German age distribution as of 2022 (Bundesamt, 2023).

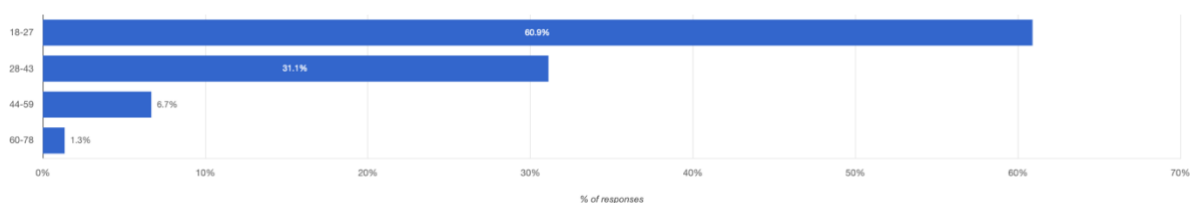


Figure 2: Age Distribution

8.1.3 Graduates

Participants were asked whether they have graduated in the last year or plan to graduate in the next year, to categorize them as graduates. We found that 61,3% of participants fall under the term of graduates, this constitutes 138 total entries. This consequently means that 38,7% of participants do not fall under the term graduate, which corresponds to 88 entries. One aim of this study was to minimize the number of graduates. This has been partially achieved but the relative overrepresentation of graduates must be stated.

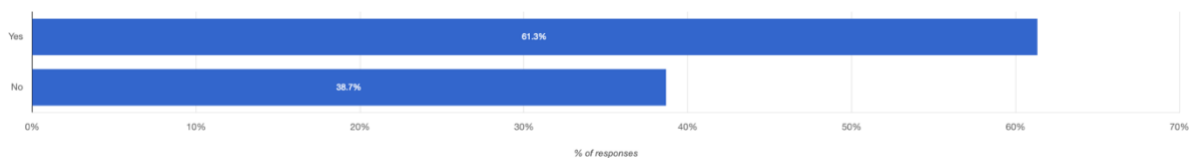


Figure 3: Proportion of Graduates

8.1.4 Academic degree

Concerning the highest academic degree achieved by the participants the researcher found that most participants have an academic background. Drawing back to upcoming graduates it is stated that 24,4% of participants have achieved the highest school diploma available. This corresponds to 56 entries. 52,4% of participants have already achieved a bachelor's degree, which constitutes 118 entries. For postgraduate degrees we reached a proportion of 12,9% of answers, with 29 total entries. The highest academic degree available was awarded to 2,2% of participants, which constitutes 5 entries. 8% or 18 participants have not reached any of the described degrees.

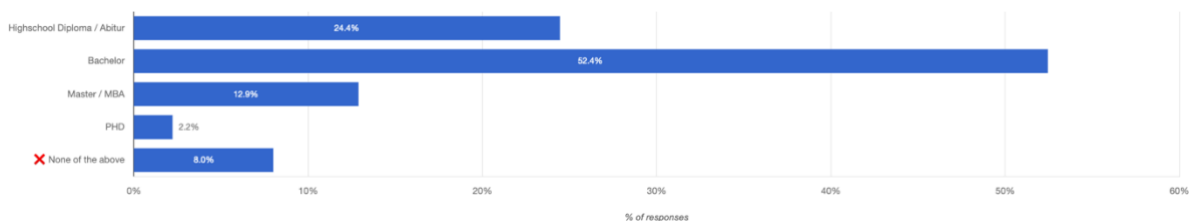


Figure 4: Degree Distribution

8.1.5 Job search status

Lastly, we asked participants about their job search status. 31,1% or 70 total participants are currently actively searching for a job, while 68,9% or 156 participants are currently not looking for a new job opportunity.

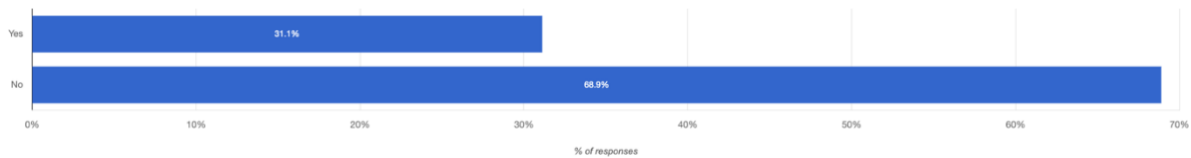


Figure 5: Job search status

8.1.6 Personality

In the next part we will discuss the descriptive statistics of our sample concerning personality our main independent variable.

8.1.6.1 Proactivity

For the proactive personality trait, we find a very common distribution, which is slightly left skewed with a value of -0.22 . On average a participant described itself with a 5 on the proactivity scale, which indicates high levels of proactivity in the cohort. The skewing to the left indicates more participants rate themselves relatively high. This can be a personal bias towards desirable traits. For the standard deviation we find a value of 0.88 . With the Shapiro-Wilk test we find that there is evidence for non-normality in this data (Table 15).

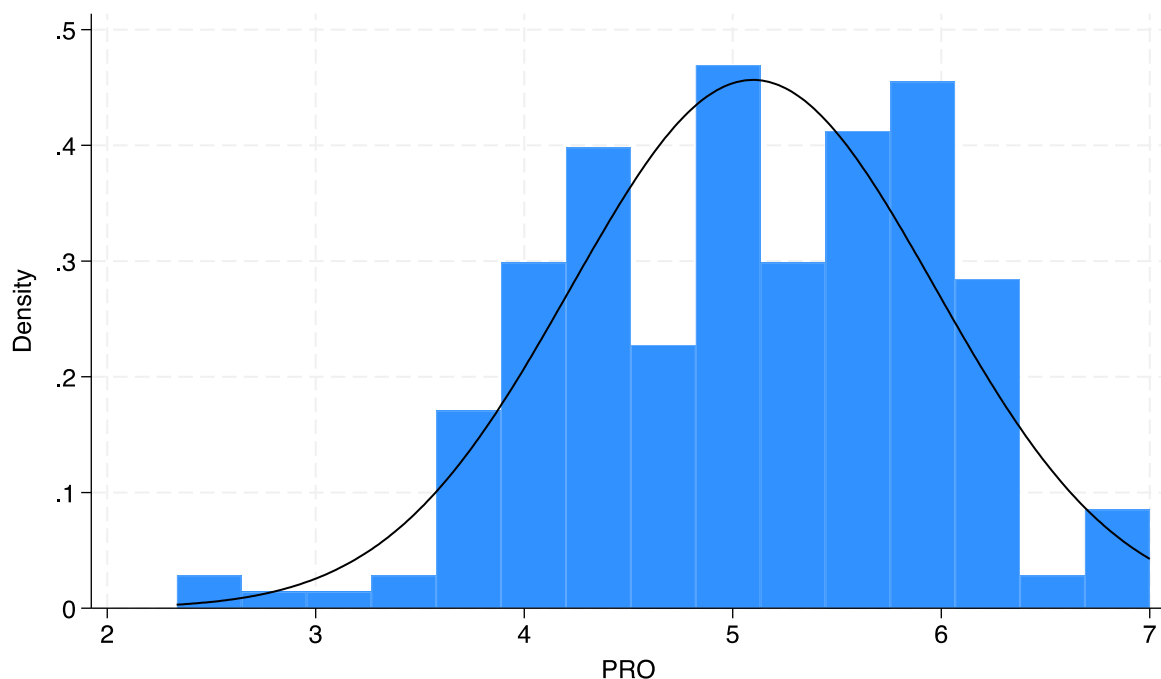


Figure 6: Distribution of proactivity level

8.1.6.2 Honesty-Humility

For Honesty-Humility we find that the average participant rates himself at a 4, which is relatively close to the middle of the scale. Additionally, we find a marginally left skewed distribution with a value of -0,04. For the standard deviation we measure 0,94. With the Shapiro-Wilkin test we find that there is evidence for normalcy in this data (Table 16).

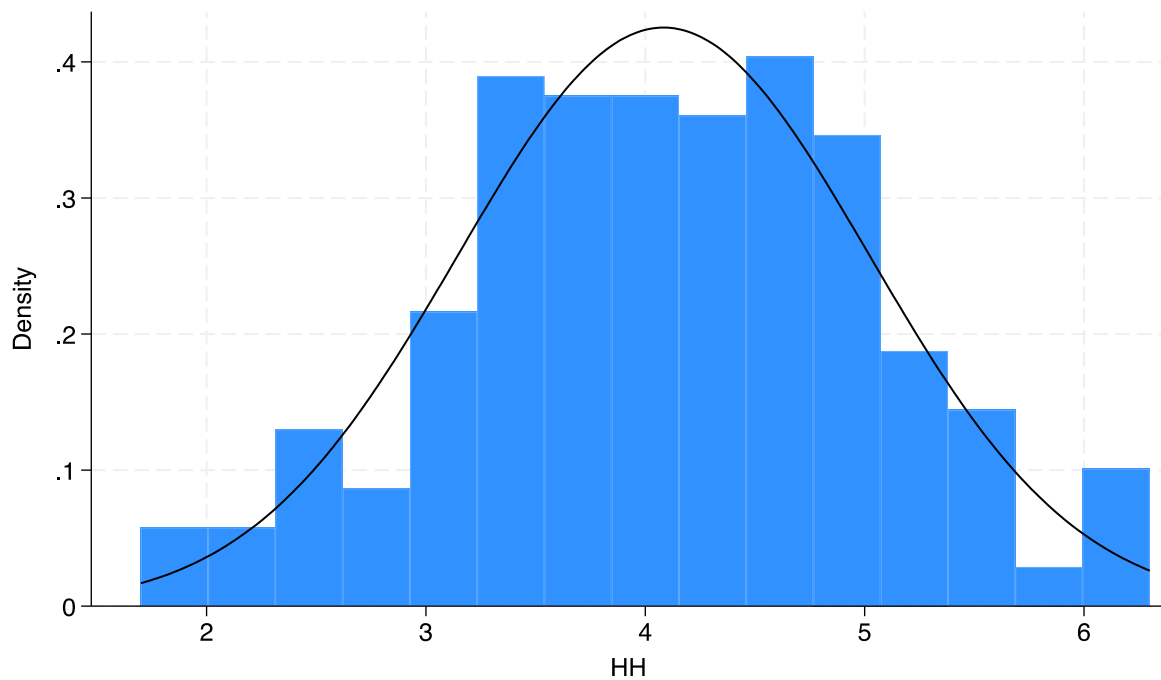


Figure 7: Distribution of Honesty-Humility level

8.1.6.3 Internal Locus of Control

Internal Locus of Control shows a mean of 4,97. The distribution is left skewed with a value of -0,34. This indicates that participants rank themselves relatively high on the scale. For the standard deviation we find a value of 0,8. With the Shapiro-Wilkin test we find that there is evidence for normalcy in this data (Table 17).

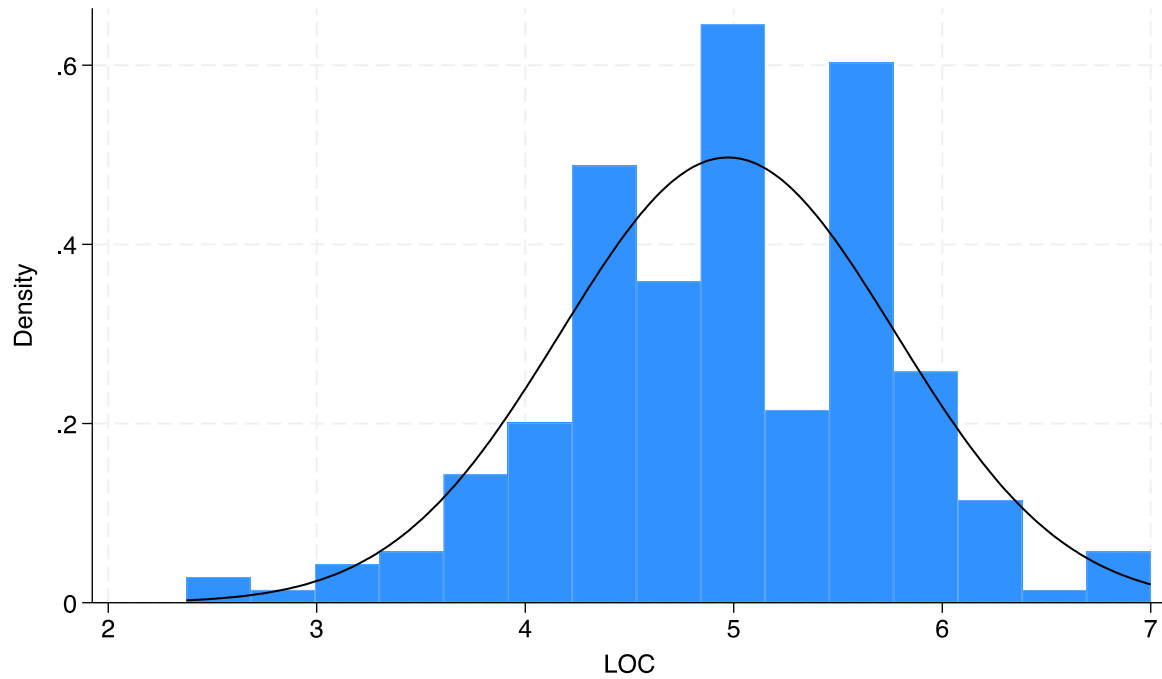


Figure 8: Distribution of internal Locus of Control level

8.1.7 Preferences in Conjoint Analysis

Next the analysis will focus on the descriptive part of the conjoint analysis and show the preferences as stated by the participants.

8.1.7.1 Relative attribute importance

Next, we want to explore the preferences the participants have shown in our Conjoint Analysis. This is without interaction effects and shows the raw preferences gathered through the choices in the survey.

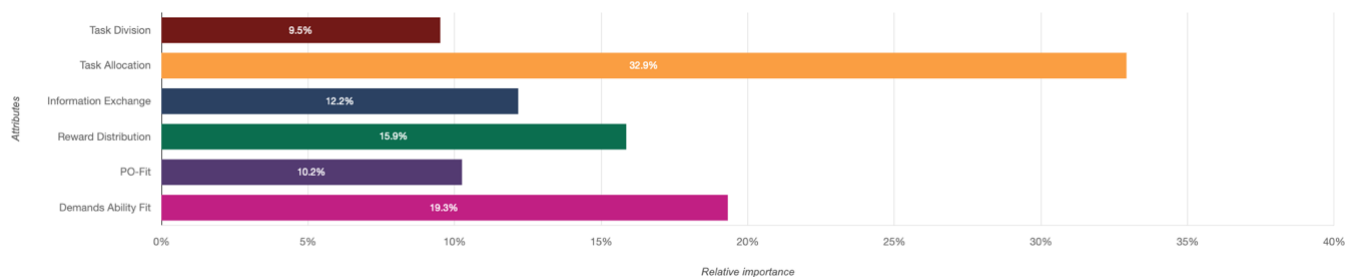


Figure 9: Preferences for Attributes

In Figure 9 we see the preferences for the different dimensions of the organization relative to other attributes across participants. With this figure at hand, we can discern Task Allocation as the most

important dimension for participants. This means the way candidates perceive how, when and where they are going to work on their tasks is the most attracting dimension by far. This is followed by the perceived demands-abilities fit. Circling back to the literature review demands-abilities fit was identified as one of the most important influencing factors on organizational attraction. In third place we find the Rewards Distribution dimension of organizational design. Following this the way information is exchanged in the organization is on fourth place in the relative importance of attributes. This is closely trailed by the expected Person-Organization fit. Lastly, the way tasks are derived from the organizational goals was the least important dimension to our sample.

8.1.7.2 Relative attribute importance by segment

If we look at the relative attribute importance by segments, we see that there are distinct differences. We see that for different generations the importance changes. The sample size for these generations is low, which does not guarantee statistical significance, but indicates that generational differences could be present at large. Different academical status, especially PHD, seems to have an influence as well, even though there is the same problem of small sample sizes. These implications should be investigated through higher samples in the future. Gender does not show significant differences. Lastly, jobseeker status does not differentiate substantially.

Table 2: Distribution of relative attribute importance by segment

Attribute	18-27 (N = 138)	28-43 (N = 70)	44-59 (N = 15)	60-78 (N = 3)	Male (N = 89)	Female (N = 133)	Graduate (N = 138)	Non- Graduate (N = 88)	Highschool (N = 56)	Bachelor (N = 118)	Master (N = 29)	PHD (N = 5)	No Academic (N = 18)	Jobsearcher (N = 70)	Non- Jobsearcher (N = 156)
Task Division	9,16%	9,04%	14,70%	10,28 %	9,32%	9,52%	8,49%	11,09%	9,60%	8,53%	10,08%	9,96%	14,58%	10,31%	9,14%
Task Allocation	33,29%	35,89%	18,96%	15,72 %	32,56%	33,56%	32,58%	33,43%	32,57%	34,98%	31,81%	28,88 %	23,32%	31,95%	33,34%
Information Exchange	12,16%	10,89%	14,22%	32,17 %	13,44%	10,73%	11,86%	12,66%	11,55%	13,26%	8,62%	7,39%	14,01%	11,78%	12,34%
Reward Distribution	15,21%	17,73%	11,59%	23,01 %	17,35%	14,99%	17,31%	13,57%	13,15%	16,37%	17,63%	19,10 %	17,13%	17,10%	15,29%
PO-Fit	10,45%	9,06%	15,04%	4,70%	8,88%	10,91%	10,28%	10,20%	11,23%	9,59%	12,90%	7,24%	8,12%	8,26%	11,14%
Demands Ability Fit	19,73%	17,38%	25,47%	14,12 %	18,45%	20,30%	19,48%	19,05%	21,90%	17,29%	18,96%	27,43 %	22,85%	20,60%	18,73%

8.1.7.3 Relative preferences for levels

Inside the dimensions that have their own relative importance to the participant we also find the levels that signal to the participant the extent to which each dimension is realized in the hypothetical organization.



Figure 10: Relative preferences for levels

In Figure 10 we see what levels the average participant prefers. Each value in this figure is 0-centred within each attribute. As we can see the average participant prefers the decentralized level of every dimension alongside a perfect Demands-Abilities fit and the expectation of a good Person-Organization fit. Parallel to the overall preference for the dimension, decentralized Task Allocation is the most preferred level with 20,9%. Preferences drop from here on with perfect Demands-Ability fit as the second most preferred level.

8.1.7.4 Relative preference for levels by segment

Segmentation analysis reveals that for this sample there are different preferences for each level in between the segments. Since the relative sample size reduces for participant cohorts of higher age, we cannot state these findings as statistically significant, but they have interesting implications for future research. In contrast to age, gender and academic status as well as job search status do not show substantial differentiation.

Table 3: Relative preference for levels by segment

Attribute	Level	18-27 (N = 138)	28-43 (N = 70)	44-59 (N = 15)	60-78 (N = 3)	Male (N = 89)	Female (N = 133)	Graduate (N = 138)	Non-Graduate (N = 88)	Highschool (N = 56)	Bachelor (N = 118)	Master (N = 29)	PHD (N = 5)	No Academic (N = 18)	Jobsearcher (N = 70)	Non-Jobsearcher (N = 156)
Task Division	Dec	3,00%	0,91%	4,08%	7,11%	2,12%	3,15%	2,38%	2,69%	-0,50%	2,68%	3,96%	3,18%	9,09%	1,95%	2,76%
Task Division	Cen	-3,00%	-0,91%	-4,08%	-7,11%	-2,12%	-3,15%	-2,38%	-2,69%	0,50%	-2,68%	-3,96%	-3,18%	-9,09%	-1,95%	-2,76%

Task Allocation	Dec	19,59%	24,82%	12,10%	9,13%	21,37%	20,59%	20,17%	22,07%	20,30%	20,87%	23,17%	22,53%	17,01%	20,71%	20,98%
Task Allocation	Cen	-19,59%	-24,82%	-12,10%	-9,13%	-21,37%	-20,59%	-20,17%	-22,07%	-20,30%	-20,87%	-23,17%	-22,53%	-17,01%	-20,71%	-20,98%
Information Exchange	Dec	6,22%	5,18%	8,57%	19,91%	7,03%	4,94%	5,97%	6,63%	5,30%	6,75%	4,54%	-0,15%	8,06%	6,85%	5,93%
Information Exchange	Cen	-6,22%	-5,18%	-8,57%	-19,91%	-7,03%	-4,94%	-5,97%	-6,63%	-5,30%	-6,75%	-4,54%	0,15%	-8,06%	-6,85%	-5,93%
Reward Distribution	Dec	6,84%	7,26%	-2,67%	-9,29%	7,33%	6,22%	7,64%	4,53%	4,58%	7,17%	4,58%	5,35%	8,57%	7,50%	5,97%
Reward Distribution	Cen	-6,84%	-7,26%	2,67%	9,29%	-7,33%	-6,22%	-7,64%	-4,53%	-4,58%	-7,17%	-4,58%	-5,35%	-8,57%	-7,50%	-5,97%
PO-Fit	Fit	4,56%	4,55%	7,64%	-0,46%	3,53%	5,02%	4,44%	5,01%	7,01%	4,09%	6,10%	-1,55%	1,12%	3,79%	5,06%
PO-Fit	No Fit	-4,56%	-4,55%	-7,64%	0,46%	-3,53%	-5,02%	-4,44%	-5,01%	-7,01%	-4,09%	-6,10%	1,55%	-1,12%	-3,79%	-5,06%
Demands Ability Fit	Fit	9,79%	7,29%	14,94%	4,10%	8,60%	10,08%	9,39%	9,06%	12,31%	8,44%	7,65%	17,24%	6,15%	9,20%	9,29%
Demands Ability Fit	No Fit	-9,79%	-7,29%	-14,94%	-4,10%	-8,60%	-10,08%	-9,39%	-9,06%	-12,31%	-8,44%	-7,65%	-17,24%	-6,15%	-9,20%	-9,29%

8.1.7.5 Ranked list of concepts

The ranked list of concepts indicates the most desirable bundle of levels for the average participant. The full list is available in the appendix. The most desired bundle is mentioned here as it has interesting implications. The most desired bundle consists of all decentralized or autonomous levels alongside an expected Person-Organization fit and a perfect demands-abilities fit. This indicates a possible baseline effect where decentralized structures are generally preferable to candidates over centralized ones. This could be further researched to discern the general attractiveness of decentralized structures for different candidate segments. In this sample slight alterations of this bundle can be seen for different demographics. Since the sample size for these demographics drops and does not ensure statistical significance, we cannot take these findings as given.

8.2 Drivers of attraction

Lastly, we analyze the data to measure the effects of controls and personality on the individual preferences of participants. This functions as the statistical analysis of the drivers of attraction. We will run linear regression models to discern the effects on the individual preferences for every attribute in the conjoint analysis. The analysis focuses on the individual preferences for each decentralized attribute. We can omit analysis of the centralized attribute as all its values are mirrored from the decentralized ones due to the experimental design.

8.2.1 Task Distribution

Running the full model with every control included garners interesting insights for individual preferences towards Task Distribution.

Table 4: Regression model individual preference towards decentralized Task Distribution

tddec	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value	[95% Conf	Interval]	Sig
pro	.096	.052	1.83	.069	-.007	.199	*
hh	.01	.035	0.29	.772	-.059	.079	
loc	-.035	.057	-0.61	.54	-.148	.078	
Age : base 18-27	0	.	.	.	.	.	
28-43	-.066	.083	-0.79	.428	-.229	.098	
44-59	-.1	.147	-0.68	.498	-.389	.19	
60-78	-.155	.294	-0.53	.599	-.735	.425	
Gender : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Diverse							
Female	-.216	.285	-0.76	.45	-.777	.346	
Male	-.266	.289	-0.92	.358	-.836	.303	
None of the above	-1.713	.562	-3.05	.003	-2.821	-.604	***
Graduate : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
No							
Yes	-.011	.08	-0.14	.891	-.168	.146	
Academic : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Bachelor							
Highschool	-.15	.083	-1.80	.074	-.314	.015	*
Diploma							
Master / MBA	-.058	.105	-0.55	.581	-.265	.149	
None	.201	.135	1.49	.137	-.064	.467	
PHD	-.014	.229	-0.06	.953	-.466	.438	
Jobsearcher : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Yes	-.034	.072	-0.47	.637	-.176	.108	
Constant	.194	.39	0.50	.62	-.575	.963	
Mean dependent var		0.234	SD dependent var			0.487	
R-squared		0.108	Number of obs			226	
F-test		1.691	Prob > F			0.055	
Akaike crit. (AIC)		321.273	Bayesian crit. (BIC)			376.002	

*** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$

We can see from the regression that we cannot capture the complete variance of the model with an R-squared of 0.108. We see significant influences of proactivity and the academic status of the participant. We can determine there to be some danger of multicollinearity in the model based on a variance inflation factor of 3.842. There is evidence for the collinearity effects stemming from the categorical variables of gender and academic status. STATA omits the Bachelor category indicating perfect multicollinearity with the Highschool Diploma category. The gender control variable indicates no effect, even correlating perfectly with each other as can be seen from the VIF table.

Table 5: VIF table decentralized Task Distribution regression

	VIF	1/VIF
pro	2.073	.482
hh	1.078	.928

loc	2.107	.475
2.age1	1.467	.682
3.age1	1.331	.752
4.age1	1.132	.884
2.gender1	19.586	.051
3.gender1	19.883	.05
4.gender1	1.39	.72
2.graduate1	1.506	.664
2.academic1	1.287	.777
3.academic1	1.227	.815
4.academic1	1.325	.755
5.academic1	1.134	.882
2.jobsearcher1	1.102	.908
Mean VIF	3.842	.

Running a correlation analysis of the personality types reveals that LOC and Proactivity correlate to a medium degree with a factor of 0.668. Omitting LOC from the model due to this interaction we achieve a slightly higher F-statistic and enhance the significance level of proactivity. This trend will be present for all other organizational design dimensions.

Table 6: Matrix of correlations personality types

Variables	(1)	(2)	(3)
(1) pro	1.000		
(2) hh	0.068	1.000	
(3) loc	0.668	0.097	1.000

Table 7: Linear regression model decentralized Task Distribution omitting LOC

tddec	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value	[95% Conf	Interval]	Sig
pro	.076	.041	1.85	.066	-.005	.157	*
hh	.008	.035	0.22	.828	-.061	.076	
Age : base 18-27	0	.	.	.	.	.	
28-43	-.059	.082	-0.72	.471	-.221	.103	
44-59	-.101	.147	-0.69	.492	-.39	.188	
60-78	-.161	.294	-0.55	.585	-.74	.418	
Gender : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Diverse							
Female	-.238	.282	-0.84	.401	-.794	.319	
Male	-.296	.284	-1.04	.298	-.857	.264	
None of the above	-1.706	.561	-3.04	.003	-2.812	-.599	***
Graduate : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
No							
Yes	-.016	.079	-0.21	.836	-.172	.139	
Academic : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Bachelor							
Highschool	-.144	.083	-1.75	.082	-.307	.019	*
Diploma							
Master / MBA	-.061	.105	-0.58	.561	-.267	.145	
None	.189	.133	1.42	.157	-.073	.451	
PHD	-.007	.229	-0.03	.974	-.458	.443	
Jobsearcher : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Yes	-.035	.072	-0.49	.624	-.177	.106	
Constant	.157	.385	0.41	.684	-.602	.916	
Mean dependent var		0.234	SD dependent var			0.487	
R-squared		0.106	Number of obs			226	

F-test	1.790	Prob > F	0.042
Akaike crit. (AIC)	319.679	Bayesian crit. (BIC)	370.987

*** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$

8.2.2 Task Allocation

Running the linear regression for the attribute of decentralized Task Allocation and its individual preferences reveals similar results to Task Distribution, in its significance of the proactivity personality trait. Having learned from the previous model we exclude LOC as an independent variable to receive a better fit for our model.

Table 8: Linear regression model decentralized Task Allocation

tadec	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value	[95% Conf	Interval]	Sig
pro	.464	.142	3.26	.001	.184	.745	***
hh	.148	.12	1.22	.222	-.09	.385	
Age : base 18-27	0	.	.	.	.	.	
28-43	.234	.284	0.82	.411	-.326	.795	
44-59	-.897	.507	-1.77	.078	-1.896	.103	*
60-78	-.575	1.017	-0.57	.572	-2.579	1.429	
Gender : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Diverse							
Female	.472	.976	0.48	.629	-1.453	2.397	
Male	.302	.984	0.31	.76	-1.639	2.242	
None of the above	-.569	1.943	-0.29	.77	-4.399	3.262	
Graduate : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
No							
Yes	-.142	.274	-0.52	.604	-.682	.397	
Academic : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Bachelor							
Highschool	-.255	.286	-0.89	.374	-.819	.309	
Diploma							
Master / MBA	-.392	.362	-1.08	.281	-1.105	.322	
None	-.678	.46	-1.47	.142	-1.584	.229	
PHD	.01	.792	0.01	.99	-1.551	1.57	
Jobsearcher : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Yes	.126	.248	0.51	.611	-.363	.616	
Constant	-1.346	1.332	-1.01	.313	-3.972	1.28	
Mean dependent var		1.808	SD dependent var			1.696	
R-squared		0.118	Number of obs			226	
F-test		2.010	Prob > F			0.018	
Akaike crit. (AIC)		880.840	Bayesian crit. (BIC)			932.148	

*** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$

The VIF of this model behaves similarly to the previous one with a factor of 3.839. For this model we see a significant effect of proactivity on the individual preference for decentralized Task Allocation as well as a significant influence of the age category of the Generation-X. Other controls have no effect on the level of preference.

8.2.3 Information Exchange

The linear regression model for decentralized Information Exchange reveals no significant influence coefficients for personality types.

Table 9: Linear regression decentralized information exchange

iedec	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value	[95% Conf	Interval]	Sig
pro	.047	.048	0.98	.327	-.047	.14	
hh	-.01	.04	-0.25	.803	-.089	.069	
Age : base 18-27	0	.	.	.	.	.	
28-43	-.065	.095	-0.68	.495	-.252	.122	
44-59	-.024	.169	-0.14	.888	-.358	.31	
60-78	.266	.34	0.78	.434	-.403	.936	
Gender : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Diverse							
Female	-.763	.326	-2.34	.02	-1.406	-.12	**
Male	-.687	.329	-2.09	.038	-1.335	-.039	**
None of the above	-.86	.649	-1.33	.186	-2.14	.419	
Graduate : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
No							
Yes	-.03	.091	-0.32	.746	-.21	.151	
Academic : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Bachelor							
Highschool	-.15	.096	-1.57	.117	-.339	.038	
Diploma							
Master / MBA	-.126	.121	-1.04	.299	-.364	.112	
None	-.081	.154	-0.53	.599	-.384	.222	
PHD	-.489	.264	-1.85	.066	-1.011	.032	*
Jobsearcher : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Yes	.061	.083	0.73	.464	-.103	.224	
Constant	1.129	.445	2.54	.012	.252	2.006	**
Mean dependent var		0.515	SD dependent var			0.552	
R-squared		0.072	Number of obs			226	
F-test		1.171	Prob > F			0.300	
Akaike crit. (AIC)		385.198	Bayesian crit. (BIC)			436.506	

*** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$

Instead, we find significant negative coefficients on gender and most importantly on the category of academic status, namely PHD carriers. The R-squared is particularly low with 0.072, showing a high number of omitted variables that explain preference for a decentralized information exchange in organizations. The VIF analysis results in a factor of 3.839.

Table 10: VIF analysis of decentralized Information Exchange regression

	VIF	1/VIF
pro	1.286	.778
hh	1.062	.942
2.age1	1.443	.693
3.age1	1.33	.752
4.age1	1.131	.884

2.gender1	19.278	.052
3.gender1	19.313	.052
4.gender1	1.389	.72
2.graduate1	1.487	.673
2.academic1	1.274	.785
3.academic1	1.224	.817
4.academic1	1.295	.772
5.academic1	1.132	.883
2.jobsearcher1	1.101	.909
Mean VIF	3.839	.

8.2.4 Rewards Distribution

Lastly, we conduct a linear regression for the relative preference for decentralized Rewards Distribution.

The analysis shows a significant influence of proactivity as before. The R-squared indicates that there is still a lot of variances unexplained for which will be addressed in the discussion chapter. The VIF analysis generates a factor of 3.842. Omitting LOC has no significant influence on the model.

Table 11: Linear regression relative preference for decentralized Rewards Distribution

rddec	Coef.	St.Err.	t-value	p-value	[95% Conf	Interval]	Sig
pro	.239	.089	2.68	.008	.063	.415	***
hh	-.009	.06	-0.15	.881	-.127	.109	
loc	-.098	.098	-1.00	.32	-.29	.095	
Age : base 18-27	0	.	.	.	.	.	
28-43	.027	.141	0.19	.849	-.252	.306	
44-59	-.341	.25	-1.36	.174	-.834	.152	
60-78	-.553	.502	-1.10	.271	-1.543	.436	
Gender : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Diverse							
Female	.227	.485	0.47	.64	-.73	1.184	
Male	.256	.493	0.52	.604	-.715	1.227	
None of the above	-.047	.959	-0.05	.961	-1.937	1.842	
Graduate : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
No							
Yes	.124	.136	0.91	.362	-.144	.392	
Academic : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Bachelor							
Highschool	-.111	.142	-0.79	.433	-.391	.168	
Diploma							
Master / MBA	-.229	.179	-1.28	.202	-.581	.124	
None	.238	.23	1.04	.301	-.214	.691	
PHD	-.104	.391	-0.27	.791	-.874	.667	
Jobsearcher : base	0	.	.	.	.	.	
Yes	.108	.123	0.88	.38	-.134	.349	
Constant	-.391	.665	-0.59	.557	-1.702	.92	
Mean dependent var		0.587	SD dependent var			0.820	
R-squared		0.087	Number of obs			226	
F-test		1.334	Prob > F			0.184	
Akaike crit. (AIC)		562.317	Bayesian crit. (BIC)			617.046	

*** $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$, * $p < .1$

Table 12: VIF analysis of decentralized Rewards Distribution regression

	VIF	1/VIF
pro	2.073	.482
hh	1.078	.928
loc	2.107	.475
2.age1	1.467	.682
3.age1	1.331	.752
4.age1	1.132	.884
2.gender1	19.586	.051
3.gender1	19.883	.05
4.gender1	1.39	.72
2.graduate1	1.506	.664
2.academic1	1.287	.777
3.academic1	1.227	.815
4.academic1	1.325	.755
5.academic1	1.134	.882
2.jobsearcher1	1.102	.908
Mean VIF	3.842	.

9. Discussion

The nature of this exploratory research did not allow for the formulation of distinct hypotheses, since there is no literature to predict distinct relationships yet. Exploratory research is characterized as an initial investigation into a problem with little prior research. Therefore, scope and focus can be hard to determine. This research set out to explore what drives attraction to organizations characterized by autonomous structures along their organizational design, we incorporated knowledge of how attraction is created in the fit literature, introduced the craft of designing an organization along different dimensions and finally included prior research in personality types already change their work towards more autonomy and work well within it through the job crafting literature. Discerning attraction was difficult, and the researcher decided on using the method of Conjoint Analysis, which allowed us in theory to determine the different utilities along the dimensions of organizational design. The results have shown us that the field of organizational attraction especially towards decentralized organizations requires much more research to garner better fitting models which ultimately lead to a higher quality of insights. Ultimately it held true that this research was exploratory in nature and not explanatory. Therefore, we found interesting implications explanatory research should follow up on to find the underlying mechanisms that drive attraction. Nonetheless these implications for the literature and managers as well will be discussed in the following chapter.

9.1. Theoretical implications

Literature has shown over time that there are attracting characteristics an organization may carry. Mainly this prior research was focused on soft characteristics like values and norms. Additionally, literature has discerned that these fits that occur can differ in nature and the extent of influence they have on organizational attraction. In parallel to the literature, we have seen that the demands-abilities fit conceptualization of the Person-Job fit literature was shown to be the second highest attractor for our participants. This shows the importance of a perceived fit in skills and demands that many applicants still see as a deciding factor for attraction. Contrary to literature we could not verify the expectations-based attraction factor of Person-Organization fit in terms of expression of values. This can be due to the experimental design and the abstract nature of the hypothetical workplaces, but it could also mean that in the presence of other attracting factors the importance is smaller. What this research added to the current literature and understanding of attraction of applicants is that the factor of organizational design has an influence on applicants. On one side we see that the decentralized dimensions were the favorite attribute combination of all in the survey as can be seen in the overview of all bundles as well as the individual preferences. This does not confirm any baseline effect of attraction over centralized structures or mixed forms, but it indicates that organizational design is in fact an attractor. Especially for applicants with high levels of proactivity this relationship has been shown. Personality has been argued to have an effect on the attraction of applicants, but it was mainly connected to the similarity of future co-workers or to the perceived personality of the organization. We successfully established first insights into the link between personality and organizational design. Contrary to the inferences we made from the literature we did establish Honesty-Humility and Locus of Control as significant sources of attraction. There can be many reasons for the absence of any effect. Mainly we saw a medium correlation of Proactivity and internal Locus of Control. These two concepts seemed to be too close to each other to allow any distinct findings. Honesty-Humility could be seen to not be a motivating personality type but rather a behavior that is exhibited in the workplace. Honesty-Humility not required to work in an autonomous workplace but makes it much more fulfilling and worthwhile for the organization as the literature has shown, which could explain why it is not seen as a prerequisite for being attracted to

decentralized workplaces. Another finding which can be found is that there are different effects of the controls for the organizational design dimensions. According to literature an organization is not designed only around one principle but along the dimensions of Task Distribution, Task Allocation, Information Exchange and Rewards Distribution. These dimensions carrying different main and control effects supports the notion that these dimensions are distinct from each other, necessitate different behavior and attract different personnel.

Concluding on the literature implications we have found that already established, attracting factors hold true and have added implications on personality as a driver for attraction towards different organizational design. Smaller findings include effects of age and academic achievement which should be investigated further.

9.2. Managerial implications

Apart from academic literature this research holds interesting implications for managers that are in the process of changing or already have changed the organizational design towards more autonomy for their employees. This thesis argued in the beginning that signaling certain characteristics may or may not attract different applicants. Especially in the matter of decentralized organizations this should be point of consideration for managers as there have been strong insights into which type of employee performs well in these environments. This matter of efficient sorting of applicants across workplaces, where they can function at their best, is a difficult task we wanted to help solve for managers across industries.

What we have learned in this research is that signaling autonomy across the organizational design characteristics to applicants leads to a higher attraction of applicants that self-report as being very proactive. This is very good news for managers as they need practice personnel to effectively run a decentralized organization. Therefore, managers are advised to signal these characteristics strongly to potential applicants in their messaging and job postings.

Furthermore it became clear, that there is no significant attraction from applicants with high Honesty-Humility or internal Locus of Control for our sample. This should help managers to underline the importance of determining these personality traits in the selection process since we have thoroughly

inferred from the existing literature that these employees have an advantage when working in decentralized organizations.

Additionally, we see that Demands-Abilities fit plays an important role in garnering attraction. Contrary to the belief that one can substitute information about the skills a job demands with other organizational characteristics it is imperative that these skills are laid out in detail for the applicant. Opposite to this one can argue that for strategies that should yield more applicants with a focus on their personality, skill descriptions should be broad and general to circumvent the lowering of attraction through a self-assessed Demands-Abilities misfit by applicants. With this, managers can steer who will be attracted to their organizations more clearly.

This research helps managers understand that there are different effects on different personality types and demographics of the information they share about their organization. Especially when looking at what is communicated about the organizational design, with the focus of its decentralization. A strong implication this research has for managers is the dimensions of Rewards Distribution. In our survey people with high levels of proactivity found a high relative importance for the decentralized dimension. This informs managers that when they offer a dynamic approach to Rewards Distribution with high levels of autonomy from the applicant, they attract applicants high in this important personality type. This allows for trade-offs of remuneration and other rewards.

Concluding on managerial implications we have shown the importance for signaling characteristics to attract certain personality types. We have also shown the importance of assessing the personality types in the selection phase that are beneficial in running an organization, since they did not show significant attraction in this survey. Additionally, managers should choose an individual approach when signaling the demands of the job to attract either personalities or skills in the first place. Lastly, managers can attract proactive personality types when offering dynamic reward schemes, which could allow for changes in the remuneration structure.

10. Limitations, future research and scope conditions

Even though this initial exploration of a new field of research has garnered interesting insights there are some Limitations that can be found. These are mostly related to the mode of data gathering. Conjoint

Analysis necessitates a series of choices from participants. These choices can be cognitively exhausting over a longer period of time. Especially, when the participant is confronted with statements to increase immersion. Therefore, the extensive experimental design combined with personality questions can have an exhaustive effect on participants and future research should focus on further miniaturizing the workplace differences to communicate to the participant more efficiently.

This research focused on the differences between heavily centralized and decentralized organizations. Future research should try to include more organizational designs that reside in the middle of these two extremes or vary on a given spectrum. This could help to ascertain more intricate differences for given personality types and help to measure a possible base-line effect of attraction to decentralized organizations in general. Since this would extensively expand the scope of the experimental design it could be helpful to use academic resources to ensure an active participant pool.

Another aspect that arises from the mode of Conjoint Analysis is that it only gathers impressions from one moment in time. Future studies could profit from a longitudinal design where the participant is offered more, longer and more immersive information about the workplace and then get asked about the extent of attraction. This is in contrast to the choice-based design of Conjoint Analysis and focuses more on the level of attraction. In addition to a longitudinal experimental design, it could be interesting to incorporate real jobs from real organizations where the organizational design can be determined. Linking this with real-life preferences of candidates that ultimately apply to these organizations could enhance the current findings.

Concerning the personality questions, we used the shortest, reliable form available to reduce cognitive demand and timeframe. Therefore, information about personality types is not the most extensive one could apply. Nuance in the individual levels in each personality types could be improved with longer forms of personality tests.

Sample size and demographics could be improved upon by gathering more data points and data that is representative of a given population. Even though a substantial number of participants in this study were no students or recent graduates, future research should focus on reducing that number even further. Parallel to sample size and demographics, this study focuses on German participants. Therefore, it

carries a bias for German cultural influences that through further research could prove to be statistically significant.

Additionally, the survey was conducted in English to correctly incorporate all the information from the literature. Since virtually every participant was German, there could be some information or nuance that has been lost in translation. Even though general English-literacy in Germany is very high, this should be mentioned. Future research could translate the experimental design to the native language or conduct the questionnaire with native English speakers.

Lastly, the list of personality types can be enhanced indefinitely, according to new insights in behavior in different organizational designs. This study provided a possible setting in which to test the attraction of different personality types towards different organizational designs, mainly decentralized ones. Further research can incorporate different of these types that have proven to be interesting to decentralized organizations.

Also, future research on fit with organizational structures should include cultural variables. There could be interesting implications for different cultural backgrounds and their desire to be autonomous in the workplace. There could be interesting differences between cultures that provide managers with more valuable personalization opportunities in signaling.

Furthermore, future research should focus on discerning whether or not autonomy can create a trade-off effect for higher pay. This could be done by asking participants for their desired pay linked to a certain type of organization. Essentially the idea would be whether a candidate would be willing to forfeit monetary gain to have the chance in participating in an autonomous workplace. This could help managers design modern pay-structures that create a more efficient way of paying employees.

Some findings of this survey allow for the specific formulation of Hypotheses that should be investigated in further research.

H1: Higher levels of decentralization lead to higher levels of attraction.

H2: Higher levels of decentralization lead to higher levels of attraction, even more so for proactive personality types.

H3: Applicants with lower academic degrees exhibit lower levels of attraction towards organizations characterized by high levels of Task Distribution.

H4: Applicants from Generation X exhibit lower levels of attraction towards organizations characterized by high levels of Task Allocation.

H5: Applicants with a PHD exhibit lower levels of attraction towards organizations characterized by high levels of Information Exchange.

11. Conclusion

We set out with the goal of expanding the literature on organizational attraction which ultimately leads to a better understanding of effective sorting across workplaces. We focused on including personality as the main driver of attraction towards organizations that are characterized by decentralized structures along their organizational design. After including all the relevant literature from different disciplines, we designed a Conjoint Analysis that would help us explore the area around attraction towards organizational design which has little research prior to this one. The exploratory nature led to a relative lack in focus, characterized by the low predictive power of the model we created. This is something a lot of exploratory research suffers from as they lay the foundation for further research into the area. With our research we successfully laid this foundation and found interesting implications that enhance attraction and fit literature with the organizational design dimension and delivers insights for managers in how to effectively steer their signaling towards applicants attracting the right personalities for their decentralized organization. We proposed proactivity as a significant driver of attraction towards decentralized organizations. Lastly, we formulated specific hypotheses that can further explore this area of research to better understand attraction towards organizational design in general and decentralized organizational structures specifically.

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Appendix

Table 13: List of personality questions

Proactivity
If I see something I don't like, I fix it
No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen
I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition
I excel at identifying opportunities.
I am always looking for better ways to do things
If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen
Honesty-Humility
I wouldn't use flattery to get a raise or promotion at work, even if I thought it would succeed.
R If I knew that I could never get caught, I would be willing to steal a million dollars.
Having a lot of money is not especially important to me.
R I think that I am entitled to more respect than the average person is.
R If I want something from someone, I will laugh at that person's worst jokes.
I would never accept a bribe, even if it were very large.
R I would get a lot of pleasure from owning expensive luxury goods.
R I want people to know that I am an important person of high status.
I wouldn't pretend to like someone just to get that person to do favors for me.
R I'd be tempted to use counterfeit money, if I were sure I could get away with it.
internal Locus of Control
Whether or not I get to be a leader depends mostly on my ability.
Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on how good a driver I am
When I make plans, I am almost certain to make them work.
How many friends I have depends on how nice a person I am.
I can pretty much determine what will happen in my life
I am usually able to protect my personal interests.
When I get what I want, it's usually because I worked hard for it.
My life is determined by my own actions.

Table 14: Complete list and ranks of combinations presented to survey participants

Task Division	Task Allocation	Information Exchange	Reward Distribution	PO-Fit	Demands Ability Fit	R a n k	Valu e to cust ome rs
The responsibility to translate the organizational and departmental goals and strategy into tasks lies with you and your colleagues.	You decide when, how and where you take on your tasks. You are free to choose tasks that you feel match your skills and motivate you.	Information to successfully achieve your tasks is openly accessible. You decide who you can consult and which information you share. Information on the organization's strategy is accessible for everyone.	You configure an individual reward structure for your work. There is a catalogue of non-monetary reward options for you to choose in addition to your salary.	In this role, you can expect to openly express your personal values in the organization.	In this role you expect a perfect congruence between the demands of the job and your abilities.	1	23,6 8777 873
The responsibility to translate the organizational and departmental goals and strategy into tasks lies with your manager.	You decide when, how and where you take on your tasks. You are free to choose tasks that you feel match your skills and motivate you.	Information to successfully achieve your tasks is openly accessible. You decide who you can consult and which information you share. Information on the organization's strategy is accessible for everyone.	You configure an individual reward structure for your work. There is a catalogue of non-monetary reward options for you to choose in addition to your salary.	In this role, you can expect to openly express your personal values in the organization.	In this role you expect a perfect congruence between the demands of the job and your abilities.	2	21,3 1872 039
The responsibility to translate the organizational and departmental goals and strategy into tasks lies with you and your colleagues.	You decide when, how and where you take on your tasks. You are free to choose tasks that you feel match your skills and motivate you.	Information to successfully achieve your tasks is openly accessible. You decide who you can consult and which information you share. Information on the organization's strategy is accessible for everyone.	You configure an individual reward structure for your work. There is a catalogue of non-monetary reward options for you to choose in addition to your salary.	In this role, you can expect to keep most of your personal values private and strongly differentiate between personal values and the ones of the organization.	In this role you expect a perfect congruence between the demands of the job and your abilities.	3	19,2 7496 868
The responsibility to translate the organizational and departmental goals and strategy into tasks lies with you and your colleagues.	You decide when, how and where you take on your tasks. You are free to choose tasks that you feel match your skills and motivate you.	Information to successfully achieve your tasks is shared by your manager. They decide who you can consult and which information you share. Information on the organization's strategy is carefully shared with the appropriate persons.	You configure an individual reward structure for your work. There is a catalogue of non-monetary reward options for you to choose in addition to your salary.	In this role, you can expect to openly express your personal values in the organization.	In this role you expect a perfect congruence between the demands of the job and your abilities.	4	17,7 9187 244
The responsibility to translate the organizational and departmental goals and strategy into tasks lies with you and your colleagues.	You decide when, how and where you take on your tasks. You are free to choose tasks that you feel match your skills and motivate you.	Information to successfully achieve your tasks is openly accessible. You decide who you can consult and which information you share. Information on the organization's strategy is accessible for everyone.	Managers decide the reward structure for your work. There is a set salary and benefits catalogue standardized for every employee.	In this role, you can expect to openly express your personal values in the organization.	In this role you expect a perfect congruence between the demands of the job and your abilities.	5	17,5 6829 716

[illegible]

Table 15: Shapiro-Wilkin test for proactivity

C

Table 16: Shapiro-Wilkin test for honesty-humility

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
hh	226	0.994	0.918	-0.198	0.578

Table 17: Shapiro-Wilkin test for internal Locus of Control

Variable	Obs	W	V	z	Prob>z
loc	226	0.990	1.633	1.136	0.128