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Values and person-organization fit

Does moral intensity strengthen outcomes?

Values and
person-
organization fit

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Abstract

Purpose – This study seeks to explore the relationship between corporate ethical values and person-organization fit (P-O fit) and the effects on organization commitment and job satisfaction. Further, it aims to examine the construct of moral intensity as a moderator of the P-O fit-commitment relationship as well as the P-O fit-job satisfaction relationship.

Design/methodology/approach – Using a sample of 489 members of the National Purchasing Association in the USA, a structural model was examined in which it was hypothesized that corporate ethical values would be positively related to person-organization fit and P-O fit in turn would be positively related to commitment and job satisfaction. It was further hypothesized that the outcomes associated with P-O fit would be moderated by moral intensity such that high moral intensity would strengthen the P-O fit outcomes relationships.

Findings – All of the hypotheses were supported.

Research limitations/implications – All data stem from one data source, introducing the possibility of mono-source bias. Additionally, all scales use self-reports, introducing the possibility of mono-method bias.

Practical implications – These results highlight the importance of corporate ethical values and moral intensity in building and maintaining an ethical and committed workforce.

Originality/value – The findings of this study contribute to the ethics and P-O fit literature by establishing a link between corporate ethical values and P-O fit. It further construes moral intensity as a subjective variable based on the perceiver rather than an objective characteristic of ethical issues. Moral intensity was found to strengthen the relationships between P-O fit and satisfaction and P-O fit and commitment.

Keywords Ethics, Business ethics, Organizational culture, Job satisfaction

Paper type Research paper

Despite an increase in research addressing business ethics and decision making, ethical lapses continue to occur (Svensson and Wood, 2007). Examples include deceptive advertising, high-pressure selling, unsafe products, irresponsible issue of credit cards, bribes, unsafe working conditions, as well as many others. The extent to which these types of circumstances are considered ethical/unethical can differ significantly based on a number of variables. Some researchers argue the characteristics of the issues themselves determine their ethicality (e.g. Jones, 1991), while others argue it is characteristics of the individual that determines how ethical dilemmas are viewed (e.g. Davis *et al.*, 2001). Thus, an action that appears ethically questionable to one individual may pose no dilemma at all for another individual depending on the organizations in which they work and the characteristics each of them possess. Whether individuals are



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comfortable working in organizations in which unethical behaviors occur can depend on the level of compatibility between their own values and those displayed by the organization. A strong fit between employees and the organization (i.e. person-organization fit) can lead to numerous positive outcomes for both, including reduced turnover and increased citizenship behaviors (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006), job satisfaction and commitment (Verquer *et al.*, 2003). As the number of unethical incidents continue to grow in organizations, it is critical for researchers and managers to identify and better understand the web of influences surrounding person-organization fit.

One construct that may help advance our understanding of the outcomes of person-organization fit is moral intensity (Jones, 1991). Moral intensity reflects characteristics of ethical issues that influence one's ability to detect it, and from there, make judgments and behave ethically (Wasieleski and Hayibor, 2008). The construct of moral intensity has received limited research attention and much of what has been done has used student samples (e.g. Wasieleski and Hayibor, 2008; Ng *et al.*, 2009; Sweeney and Costello, 2009). Additionally, since the construct is somewhat recent, a large portion of the empirical studies have focused on the relationships between moral intensity and moral recognition, evaluation, and intention that were originally advanced by Jones's (1991) research (May and Pauli, 2002; Singhapakdi *et al.*, 1996; Wasieleski and Hayibor, 2008). We believe that examining moral intensity as a moderating variable may hold more promise in advancing our understanding of how compatible values between individuals and their organizations lead to favorable outcomes for both.

Person-organization fit refers to the level of compatibility in terms of values, beliefs (Netemeyer *et al.*, 1997), personality (Christiansen *et al.*, 1997) and/or goals (Kristof, 1996) between individuals and the organization. The construct of person-organization fit has been demonstrated to affect a variety of individual and organizational outcomes. Empirical evidence has demonstrated positive relationships between P-O fit and the outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Verquer *et al.*, 2003), task performance, and OCB, and a negative relationship with turnover (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006). However, given wide variations in these estimated relationships, researchers have called for exploration of moderators that may potentially strengthen the P-O fit-outcomes relationships (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006). The present study was designed to address this gap by examining the moderating effect of moral intensity on the relationships between P-O fit and job satisfaction and commitment. Additionally, given that most research on P-O fit has focused on the values compatibility definition of fit, we further investigate corporate ethical values as a predictor of P-O fit. A hypothesized model of corporate ethical values, P-O fit, moral intensity, and outcomes is presented below followed by a review of the literature and hypotheses development.

Model

The proposed model is presented in Figure 1. As shown in the left of Figure 1, corporate ethical values are hypothesized to lead to higher perceived P-O fit. Next, P-O fit leads to higher levels of job satisfaction and commitment. These proposed relationships are expected to be stronger as moral intensity increases. The rationale for each of the relationships is further expanded upon below.

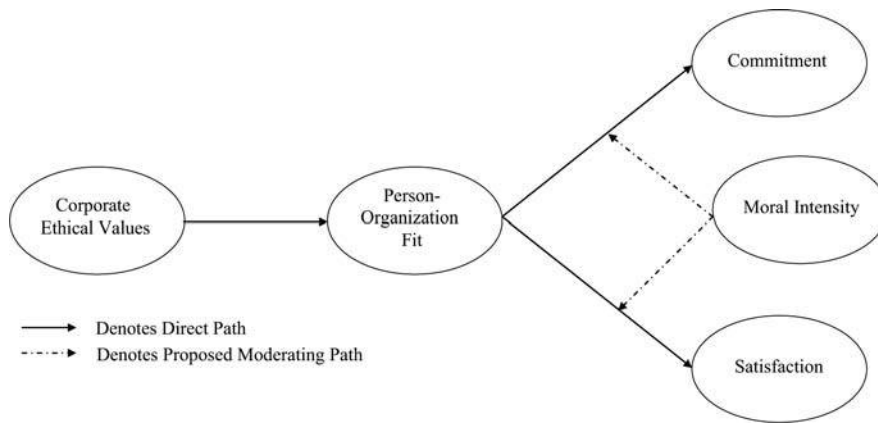


Figure 1.
Hypothesized
relationships

Corporate ethical values

Corporate ethical values (CEV) have been defined as “a subset of organizational culture, representing a multidimensional interplay among various ‘formal’ and ‘informal’ systems of behavioral control” (Trevino *et al.*, 1998, p. 451). These informal systems include the set of beliefs, norms and practices within the organization (Key, 1999; McDonald and Nijhof, 1999). In addition to these less formal aspects, CEV can also be displayed through more formal systems such as reward systems, workplace policies, and codes. CEV often guide organized actions (Yankelovich, 1981) and set standards that distinguish between the right and wrong things to do. When employees believe that policies and procedures regarding ethics are followed by managers and other individuals in the organization, then higher CEV exist. For example, managers might display these values by being concerned with issues of ethics in their organization and by acting ethically themselves including rewarding ethical behavior and punishing unethical behavior (Hunt *et al.*, 1989; Jones, 1991; Trevino, 1986). Managers can be considered stewards of the organization as they strive to recruit and manage employees to achieve the objectives of the organization (Davis *et al.*, 1997).

The logic behind the focus on ethical values as a means to impact employee ethical behavior is that individuals can be expected to act in a manner consistent with the values of the organization (Hunt *et al.*, 1989). Published studies have shown the impact of ethical context on such constructs as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions (Schwepker, 2001), ethical conflict with supervisors (Schwepker *et al.*, 1997), and ethical perceptions of employee groups of CPAs (Elias, 2004) and salespersons (Valentine and Barnett, 2002) as well as perceptions of person-organization fit (Valentine *et al.*, 2002). Additionally, recent research has linked strong CEV to increased individual perceptions of the importance of ethics and social responsibility (Vitell and Hidalgo, 2006). Finally, individual perceptions of CEV have been found to be positively related to moral intensity and principled conduct (Valentine *et al.*, 2002).

Person-organization fit

P-O fit refers to the relationships individuals have with their organization. Kristof (1996) suggested P-O fit occurs when at least one party fulfills the needs of the other and/or they share similar characteristics. While P-O fit includes multiple dimensions including

values, needs, skills, and personality, some researchers have focused exclusively on the values component of P-O fit (e.g. Chatman, 1989; Amos and Weathington, 2008). For example, Chatman (1989) suggested there would be higher levels of P-O fit to the extent values of the individual are congruent with the values of the organization. She theorized that individuals actively *select in* to organizations where they believe their own values will be compatible with those of the organization. Through socialization processes, individuals learn the values and norms of the organization (Chatman, 1989). If there is perceived low P-O fit and the organization has strong values, the values of the individual may change and become more similar to those of the organization. Consistent with Chatman's (1989) definition, most empirical research has focused on the values component of P-O fit (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006). Empirical findings have consistently demonstrated favorable attitudinal and behavioral outcomes resulting from strong P-O fit including increased job satisfaction, commitment (Silverthorne, 2004; Verquer *et al.*, 2003) and OCB and reduced turnover (Hoffman and Woehr, 2006).

Schneider (1987) argued that individuals are attracted to and select organizations with values similar to their own. Recently, researchers have put a positive spin on P-O fit by suggesting individuals would be attracted to organizations that behave ethically (Coldwell *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, in keeping with this perspective on corporate ethical values and the importance of a person-organization fit with regards to the "match" of organization and employee, we propose:

H1. Corporate ethical values will be positively related to perceptions of P-O fit.

And consistent with past research we expect the following:

H2a. P-O fit will be positively related to job satisfaction.

H2b. P-O fit will be positively related to organizational commitment.

Moral intensity

Jones's (1991) original conception of the moral intensity construct held that ethical issues have specific characteristics and ethical decision making is contingent on the issue. His assertion was that the moral intensity of an issue is not related to the agent or traits of the decision maker nor the context of the organization. Moral issues can themselves be considered situational. Further, Jones maintained that each moral issue could be described in terms of six characteristics: magnitude of consequences, temporal immediacy, concentration of effect, proximity, probability of effect, and social consensus (Jones, 1991). Magnitude of consequences refers to the number of people affected by the decision and the severity of the consequence of the decision. Decisions that result in more harm to more people and/or that results in more serious consequences (e.g. death versus minor injury), the more unethical the act. Temporal immediacy refers to the length of time between the ethical act and the result of act. Harmful consequences of an act that occur almost immediately are considered more unethical than those that occur much later in time. Concentration of effect refers to the negative consequences that occur for only a few individuals rather than many individual or a large institution. Jones included this characteristic arguing that it is intuitive that the single individual will suffer more if he/she has to endure the consequences alone rather than share among many. Proximity is the psychological or physical closeness of the decision maker to the victim. If those who are affected by the

decision are relatively close to us, the issue can be considered more unethical than if those affected are relatively far away. Probability of effect consists of two parts:

- (1) the likelihood that the act will occur; and
- (2) the likelihood that it will cause harm.

Finally, social consensus is the extent to which there is general agreement that an act is wrong or evil. Issues that are high in these characteristics reflect high moral intensity and should be viewed as ethical issues more frequently than issues of low moral intensity.

A number of studies have been conducted since Jones's (1991) inception of the moral intensity construct. One of the first studies to operationalize Jones's definitions was that of Singhapakdi *et al.* (1996). They developed single-item measures representing each of the six characteristics conceptualized by Jones. Their results indicated a two-factor structure. The first factor consisted of magnitude of consequences, temporal immediacy, concentration of effect, and probability of effect and was termed "perceived harm". The other factor consisted of proximity and social consensus and was termed "perceived social pressure". Three of the four dimensions of perceived harm have been found to be the most important in influencing ethical perceptions (Tsalikis *et al.*, 2008). Singhapakdi *et al.* (1996) suggested that since the mean responses were substantially above neutral, there was indication that the scenarios had ethical content. Thus, they concluded that their respondents were ethically sensitive. This is somewhat counter to Jones's (1991) interpretation of the moral intensity of an issue as he suggested that the characteristics of ethical issues are associated with the issues themselves and that individuals would be expected to react similarly in their identification of these since they are objective.

However, other researchers disagree with Jones (1991) and illustrate the importance of the individual in defining a situation as ethical or unethical (Marshall and Dewe, 1997). "Each individual's interpretation of a situation is subjective, and it is inappropriate to assume that what is an ethical situation for one person is also an ethical situation for another" (Marshall and Dewe, 1997, p. 522). We agree with Marshall and Dewe that individuals differ in their assessments of ethical situations and that this is a result of a variety of personal and environmental characteristics as proposed by numerous researchers (Brommer *et al.*, 1987; Hunt and Vitell, 1986). This is similar to other situational constructs that differ depending on one's perceptions. For example, constructs such as organizational justice (Greenberg, 1987) and organizational politics (Gandz and Murray, 1980) are rated in terms of one's perceptions and experiences. Individuals within a single organization vary in their perceptions of the levels of organizational justice and/or politics. We believe these constructs are similar to the moral intensity construct in that individuals will differ in their perceptions of the six characteristics of moral issues described by Jones (1991). Thus we believe that those who exhibit higher moral intensity (i.e. more ethically sensitive), will likely display stronger relationships between P-O fit and satisfaction and commitment than those with lower moral intensity, especially when these perceptions of fit are positively linked with corporate ethical values. Therefore, we propose the following:

- H3.* Moral intensity will moderate the relationships between P-O fit and (a) job satisfaction and (b) commitment such that these relationships will be stronger under higher levels of moral intensity.

Method

Sample

In order to test the stated hypotheses, a regional chapter of the National Association of Purchasing Managers was approached regarding the use of their membership roster and to secure their cooperation. We randomly selected 1,500 names from this list. One week prior to the mailing of the survey we sent a letter from the President of the chapter explaining the purpose of the study and requesting cooperation. Following this we sent a mailing, which included a cover letter that provided further details concerning the project, a questionnaire and a postage-paid reply envelope. One week later we sent another mailing, which included a letter asking those who had not responded to do so, along with another questionnaire and a postage-paid reply envelope. Our efforts resulted in a total of 489 usable questionnaires being returned, for a response rate of 32.6 percent.

We assessed non-response bias via the procedure developed by Armstrong and Overton (1977), which requires that early respondents be compared to late respondents. Since Armstrong and Overton (1977) showed that late respondents share characteristics with non-respondents if there is no difference between early and late respondents, there is evidence that non-response bias is not an issue. We considered those who responded prior to the second mailing as early respondents and all others as late respondents (cf. Sethi, 2000). We tested for differences with regard to age and tenure with the company and found none, so we concluded that non-response bias was not an issue.

Measures

The constructs utilized in the study were measured via previously reported multi-item scales. All constructs were measured using a seven-point scale anchored by “strongly disagree” (1) and “strongly agree” (7). Voicing concern over previous attempts to measure corporate ethical values (CEV) as being primarily qualitative in nature, Hunt *et al.* (1989) developed a five-item scale designed to measure CEV, which is utilized in this research. A sample item from this scale is “Top management in my company has let it be known in no uncertain terms that unethical behaviors will not be tolerated”. Person-organization fit was measured by the widely used four-item scale developed by Netemeyer *et al.* (1997). A sample item from this scale is: “I feel that my personal values are a good fit with this organization”. A seven-item scale developed by Jaworski and Kohli (1993) was used to measure organizational commitment. A sample item is: “In general, employees are proud to work for this organization”. Satisfaction was measured using six items from Brayfield and Rothe (1951). A sample item is: “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job”. Finally, moral intensity was measured using four items from Singhapakdi *et al.* (1996). These four items assessed magnitude of consequences (“The overall harm (if any) done as a result of the action would be very small”), probability of effect (“There is a very small likelihood that the action will actually cause any harm”), temporal immediacy (“The action will not cause any harm in the immediate future”), and concentration of effect (“The action will harm very few people (if any)”).

Results

Measurement analysis

Although all the constructs were measured using previously developed scales, we still conducted a rigorous analysis of the measures using LISREL 8.51 (Joreskog and

Sorbom, 2001). In addition to utilizing the χ^2 statistic to assess model fit we also used CFI and IFI as incremental fit measures and RMSEA as a measure of absolute fit, as suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999). Following their recommendations, we considered CFI and IFI values of greater than 0.9 and RMSEA values of less than 0.06 as indicants of acceptable model fit. The items used to measure corporate ethical values, person-organization fit, commitment, and satisfaction were all submitted to a confirmatory factor analysis. The initial fit of the data could be characterized as acceptable ($\chi^2_{(203)} = 641.21$, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.924, IFI = 0.925, RMSEA = 0.071) based on the criteria identified earlier. However, in looking at the standardized residuals and values in the λ_x matrix there seemed to be an issue with one item used to measure corporate ethical values. Based on procedures suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and MacCallum (1986), this item was deleted and the model re-fitted. This led to a significant increase in model fit ($\chi^2_{(183)} = 453.03$, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.951, IFI = 0.951, RMSEA = 0.056).

Additional tests to further assess validity and reliability of the constructs were also conducted. To assess convergent validity, a procedure suggested by Segars (1996) was utilized. Segars suggests that if the t -values for the item loadings are greater than 2.0 this provides evidence of convergent validity. The values ranged from 6.48 to 22.71 thus providing support for convergent validity. Discriminant validity was assessed using the procedure described by Bagozzi *et al.* (1991). This procedure requires that the baseline χ^2 value (i.e. the χ^2 value from the confirmatory factor analysis) be compared to the χ^2 from a model in which the correlation between two constructs is fixed at 1. If the χ^2 value for the model containing the fixed correlation is greater at least 3.84 greater than the baseline χ^2 value (where 3.84 is the crucial χ^2 value with 1 degree of freedom) then there is evidence of discriminant validity. Models must be run separately for each pair of constructs. In all cases the constrained model had a χ^2 value significantly greater than that of the baseline model, thus indicating that discriminant validity exists between all the constructs included in the model. Reliability was assessed using coefficient α . The correlations, means, standard deviations, and coefficient α values for all the constructs are provided in Table I.

Tests of hypotheses

H1-H2b proposed a series of relationships as indicated in Figure 1. The hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling via LISREL 8.51 (Joreskog and Sorbom, 2001). The results of the tests are provided in Table II. The model had a very good fit to the data ($\chi^2_{(186)} = 510.59$, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.940, IFI = 0.941, RMSEA = 0.0591). As proposed in *H1*, there is a significant and positive impact of corporate ethical values on person-organization fit. *H2a* and *H2b* proposed relationships between person-organization fit and commitment and person-organization fit and satisfaction. All the paths were significant thus providing support for the hypotheses.

H3 suggested that moral intensity would moderate the relationships proposed in *H2a* and *H2b*. This hypothesis was tested using multiple group analysis within LISREL. This is done by first splitting the proposed moderator, in this case moral intensity, at the median and creating covariance matrices for the high and low groups. These covariance matrices are used as inputs into the multiple group analysis. The analysis is conducted by first running a model in which all structural paths are

Table I.
Construct means,
standard deviations,
alphas, and correlations

Construct	Mean	SD	Coefficient α	Corporate ethical values	Person-organization fit	Commitment	Satisfaction	Moral intensity
Corporate ethical values	4.92	1.39	0.77	1.00				
Person-organization fit	4.97	1.57	0.94	0.58	1.00			
Commitment	5.19	1.19	0.81	0.41	0.52	1.00		
Satisfaction	4.77	1.21	0.88	0.32	0.43	0.45	1.00	
Moral intensity	2.69	1.26	0.83	-0.06*	-0.08*	-0.18	-0.008*	1.00

Note: All correlations significant at $p < 0.05$ except those denoted by an asterisk

constrained to be equal across the two groups. The χ^2 value from this model is compared to the χ^2 value associated with a model in which one of the moderated paths is allowed to be estimated separately for each group. If the χ^2 value for the unconstrained model is significantly less than that for the constrained model one can conclude there is a moderating effect as this indicates the paths are significantly different across the high and low groups. The results for the moderating tests are presented in Table III.

As can be seen, the relationships between person-organization fit and (1) commitment and (2) satisfaction are moderated by moral intensity. The coefficients are greater in the "low" group, which corresponds to those with higher moral intensity. Thus, as moral intensity is greater, so too is the relationship between person-organization fit and commitment and person-organization fit and satisfaction.

Discussion

Our study tested a model of P-O fit as both an outcome of CEV and an antecedent to job satisfaction and commitment. Further, the model included moral intensity as a moderator that would strengthen P-O fit-outcomes relationships. All of the hypothesized relationships were supported.

H1, which predicted CEV would be positively related to P-O fit, was supported. This finding suggests that individuals would in fact feel more compatible with organizations that share their values when these values are ethical. While we acknowledge the possibility that strong P-O fit could also occur between unethical individuals and unethical organizations, our results do in fact suggest that perceptions of P-O fit are enhanced when the organization displays high CEV, at least in this sample of members of the National Purchasing Association. Thus, companies may be able to enhance perceptions of P-O fit when their managers display ethical values, follow codes of ethics, and conduct ethical business practices.

H2a and *H2b* stated that P-O fit would be positively related to job satisfaction and commitment. As anticipated, both of these relationships were supported. Thus, consistent with past research (e.g. Hoffman and Woehr, 2006; Verquer *et al.*, 2003), P-O fit leads to important individual and organizational outcomes.

H3a and *H3b* predicted that moral intensity would strengthen the P-O fit outcomes relationships such that as moral intensity increases, the positive relationships become stronger. This set of hypotheses was supported for both of the outcomes. The moral intensity construct has been somewhat debated since its 1991 inception. This controversy has revolved around whether the measure truly reflects objective characteristics of the situation or characteristics of the perceiver. As indicated earlier,

Structural path	Completely standardized parameter	<i>t</i> -value	Hypothesis
Corporate ethical values → Person-organization fit	0.629	8.91	<i>H1</i>
Person-organization fit → Commitment	0.618	7.07	<i>H2a</i>
Person-organization fit → Satisfaction	0.482	9.49	<i>H2b</i>

Notes: Model fit statistics: $\chi^2_{(186)} = 510.59$, $p < 0.001$; CFI = 0.940, IFI = 0.941, RMSEA = 0.0591

Table II.
Completely standardized
parameter estimates,
t-values and model fit
statistics

Table III.
Results of the moderation
tests

Path tested	χ^2 for constrained model	χ^2 for unconstrained model	Difference	Significance	Parameter estimate for high group ^a	Parameter estimate for low group ^a	Hypothesis
Person-organization fit \rightarrow Commitment	2,131.02	2,066.46	64.56	0.000	0.713	0.898	H3
Person-organization fit \rightarrow Satisfaction	2,131.02	2,050.58	80.44	0.000	0.572	0.891	H3

Note: It should be noted that owing to the scale used those in the "high" group are actually lower with regard to moral intensity, while those in the "low" group are higher in moral intensity

we subscribe to the view that the moral intensity construct is person specific (Marshall and Dewe, 1997). This view of moral intensity lends theoretical support to our empirical finding that moral intensity may best be utilized as a moderating variable. Additional research should be conducted that examines whether moral intensity moderates other important P-O fit-outcomes relationships. For example, OCB includes both organizational and individual directed actions. It would be interesting to explore whether each of these types of work related behaviors are equally impacted by moral intensity. Additional potential related outcomes include task performance, counterproductive work behaviors, and perceptions of justice.

Our study makes a number of contributions to the P-O fit literature as well as the business ethics literature. First, this study confirmed earlier suggestions that CEV is positively related to P-O fit (Coldwell *et al.*, 2008). This provides empirical evidence that individuals are attracted to firms that behave ethically. Second, we confirmed previous findings that P-O fit is positively related to both satisfaction and commitment. Third, results of this research provide support for the role of moral intensity as a moderator of P-O fit-outcomes relationships. Finally, these relationships were tested using a sample of working professionals rather than often used student samples.

In addition to research implications, results of this study have several managerial implications. First, in order to solidify an ethical context and build satisfaction and commitment to the organization, it appears that displaying strong CEV is a first step. A trickle-down perspective has been offered that suggests ethical leadership flows down from one level of the organization to the next (Mayer *et al.*, 2009). Thus, it is imperative for leaders to behave ethically as employee perceptions of their leaders' integrity have been related to reduced intentions to engage in unethical behaviors (Peterson, 2004). Organizations that develop and adhere to their codes of ethics as well as formulate appropriate policies and reward systems may be better able to instill an ethical climate. This should enable them to attract and retain ethical individuals in the organization. Since our model suggests that individuals are attracted to organizations that display ethical values, they may be able to build a stronger sense of fit among employees. For example, when screening new applicants, a series of questions can be asked in order to assess whether the individual's values are compatible with those of the organization. Additionally, in order for perceptions of person organization fit to result in stronger commitment to the organization, managers may wish to actively screen for individuals who rate high on moral intensity. Certain individuals seem to be more sensitive to ethical issues and it is possible that these individuals will be less likely to experience ethical lapses that are common occurrences today. A series of questions could also be asked to determine the extent to which individuals perceive certain situations as ethical or unethical. This would provide managers with a measure of the level of moral intensity (i.e. sensitivity) of the applicants.

In order to maintain an ethical climate, organizational leaders should consider instituting performance management systems that includes an ethical component. Thus, in addition to rating employee task performance and work habits, behaviors could be assessed that measure whether employees followed organizational policies when completing tasks. Employees are confronted with ethical dilemmas every day and may be much more likely to make the *right* choice if their work environment and managers display ethical values.

As with any study, there are limitations that should be noted. First, the results were generated using single source data introducing the possibility of common method bias. Thus, there is potential for inflated correlations among the variables (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). However, Spector (2006) argues that the problems caused by common method are overstated and have been exaggerated over time. Thus, we feel comfortable that our results can be utilized to advance theory and management practice. In support of this contention, Lance *et al.* (2010) conducted a review of papers that utilize a MTMM approach and find that CMV accounts for less variance than has been suggested by prior research. They also conclude that any inflation of relationships between variables due to CMV is lessened to a large degree by the offsetting attenuation of measurement error. Finally, as it relates to minimizing CMV via the design of the study, it has been suggested that the different sections of the study be clearly labeled and provide some information pertaining to the construct being measured (Brannick *et al.*, 2010). Our survey was structured in this manner. Based on the foregoing, while CMV cannot be completely ruled out, we do believe its effect on our findings is minimal. Second, the data was collected from a single occupational group. These results should be replicated using data from individuals other than members of the National Purchasing Association in order to enhance the generalization of these results and would provide a stronger test of our model. Our study could be strengthened through the inclusion of data that is not survey based. For example, gathering objective data from organizations such as attendance, turnover, and/or performance appraisals to use as outcome variables in addition to satisfaction and commitment would allow us to better test moral intensity as an important moderator of the P-O fit-outcomes relationships.

In conclusion, today's business climate warrants a much more in-depth look at ethical issues. Research that examines constructs like corporate ethical values and moral intensity and the important roles they play may prove valuable for business leaders and managers. Only by continuing this type of research can we find ways to reduce many of the ethical lapses that continue to occur in the business environment.

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