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IMPACT OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND RESOURCES ON PERSON-JOB FIT

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IMPACT OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND RESOURCES

ON PERSON-JOB FIT

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ABSTRACT

Certain job characteristics have been shown to be important for improving
employee job fit. In particular, the degree of autonomy and feedback employees
are afforded could allow them to more effectively manage job stressors, and
acquire and/or uphold the requisite skills to maintain satisfactory work
performance. These job characteristics may also lead to greater job satisfaction
by supporting employees' need for continuous growth, desire for social
connectedness, and fulfillment of basic psychological needs. Accordingly, a
model was proposed wherein the facets of person-job fit (demands-abilities fit
and needs-supplies fit) are expected to mediate the relationship between both
autonomy and feedback and both employee job satisfaction and task
performance. The sample contained 228 individuals who were either working
professionals or employed college students. Structural equation modeling (SEM)
analysis was used to test the direct and indirect effects. Results indicated that
both autonomy and feedback increase satisfaction, but not effectiveness, by
improving job fit. In summary, the findings of this study could be used for
developing and implementing organizational strategies to improve or maintain
person-job fit.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Job applicants are typically selected for positions on the basis of their "fit" with the prospective job (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). A Good match between applicant characteristics and work characteristics is important for maintaining more satisfied and productive employees (Edwards, 1991). Specifically, employees should perform well if their abilities are adequate for meeting their job demands, and are more satisfied when their jobs fulfill their individual needs or desires (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Accordingly, the concept of person-job (PJ) fit encompasses the fit between employee abilities and their job demands, and fit between their needs and what their job supplies (Cable & DeRue, 2002). As such, PJ fit is primarily studied in the context of recruitment and selection (Kristof-Brown, 2000). Consequently, little is known about what happens to job fit beyond the onboarding process (Su, Murdock, & Rounds, 2004). However, because PJ fit can change over time (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), there is a need for organizations to not only evaluate fit perceptions on an ongoing basis, but to also implement strategies to counter misfit. The present study was intended to address the latter need by examining job fit for current employees outside of selection or new hire processes in order to emphasize the stake of the organization in the job fit process.

The increasing need for interventions to maintain positive PJ fit perceptions is apparent from the accelerating rates of change in organizations today (e.g., Lewin & Johnson, 2000). Specifically, over the past several decades the labor market has undergone considerable change in terms of employment structure, timing and scheduling of work, and workforce demographics (Quinlan, 1999). Undesired change such as organizational downsizing, outsourcing, or employee restructuring to name a few, could potentially decrease the fit between employee needs or desires and their job supplies. Consequently, diminished needs-supplies fit can lead to job dissatisfaction and greater work stress (Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998).

Moreover, changes in work processes could result in changes in job demands (i.e., requisite KSAs, workload, pacing of work) and, thus, also impact PJ fit perceptions. For example, technological advances can make it difficult for employees to meet their job demands as a result of increased skill obsolescence (Stevens & Campion, 1994). Likewise, Caldwell, Herold, and Fedor (2004) found that employees of a company undergoing structural change did indeed experience change in perceived demands-abilities fit. Whether perceptions were positive or negative was not only dependent on characteristics of the job incumbents themselves, but also aspects of the job such as the degree of managerial support. Furthermore, individuals who perceive poorer demands-abilities fit tend to be less effective on the job (Li & Hung, 2010; Wang, Zhan, McCune, & Truxillo, 2011).

Regardless of the change type, lack of job resources to manage work stressors can lead to reduced motivation and commitment, and even withdrawal (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). In contrast, organizations can change certain aspects of the job design to counter skill obsolescence (Oldham, 1996), thus promoting better balance between employee abilities and their job demands. Accordingly, Job Characteristics Theory (Hackman & Lawler, 1971) posits that certain job characteristics are important for promoting more satisfied and productive employees. Further, Job Demands-Resources Theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014) asserts that job characteristics, operationalized as job resources, are instrumental in balancing job demands and satisfying basic psychological needs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In addition, they might also be essential for improving PJ fit (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987).

It is argued in the present study that certain job characteristics can facilitate balance between employee abilities and job demands (DA fit), and between individual needs and job supplies (NS fit), thus improving employee job fit perceptions. As a result of greater fit, employees are expected to experience better work attitudes and behavior. Depicted in the proposed model in Figure 1, both DA and NS fit were posited to mediate the relationship between both autonomy and feedback, as well as both job satisfaction and task performance. Accordingly, I first review PJ fit theory, and develop an operational definition from prominent theories of person-environment fit. Then, important job characteristics and resources are identified by popular models of employee well-being (e.g., Job

Characteristics Model and Job Demands-Resources Model). Finally, these

models are used to illustrate the processes whereby job characteristics might

facilitate better PJ fit.

Person-Job Fit

Congruence between employee characteristics and job characteristics

was first considered in early theories of career counseling (Su, Murdock, &

Rounds, 2015). The concept of PJ fit has become increasing relevant to the field

of Industrial and Organizational (IO) Psychology as a result of its key role in

recruitment and selection processes (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson,

2005). Though, PJ fit has become a complex framework in which job fit can be

conceptualized in multiple domains. While the most common conceptualization of

job fit is in terms of the fit between employee abilities and their job demands, fit

between employee needs and their job supplies also influences job fit

perceptions (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Said differently, individuals also seek and

maintain jobs based on their attraction to characteristics of the job itself (i.e., pay,

security, scheduling). As such, PJ fit researchers have expanded upon the

conceptualization of PJ fit to include both demands-abilities fit and needs-

supplies fit (e.g., Chuang, Shen, & Judge, 2015; Li & Hung, 2010; Wang, *et al.*,

2011).

Accordingly, PJ fit refers here to the extent to which individuals perceive a

match between their abilities and their job demands, as well as the extent to

which they perceive that their needs are met by their job supplies. While this conceptualization includes both DA and NS fit, these dimensions will be examined separately rather than collectively in the present study in order to emphasize the unique impact of the work environment on each, as well as their comparative impact on employee outcomes. Nonetheless, the conceptualization used here represents the long history and dimensionality of the PJ fit construct, stemming from some of the most prominent PE fit theories.

Theory of Work Adjustment

The theory of work adjustment (TWA; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) posits that occupations require incumbents to possess certain abilities to perform well, and employees expect occupations to supply certain rewards that satisfy their individual needs and desires. Sensibly, congruence between employee abilities and their job demands (DA fit) should produce better performing employees, whereas congruence between employee values and their job supplies (NS fit) should lead to higher job satisfaction. Accordingly, individuals with better "fit" are expected to experience longer tenure (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). That is, subpar performers are more likely to be let-go, and unsatisfied employees might pursue employment elsewhere. In contrast, more productive and satisfied employees are typically afforded greater opportunities for upward mobility, and are less likely to quit or be fired.

Attraction-Selection-Attrition Framework

The attraction-selection-attrition (ASA) framework was introduced by Schneider (1987) as a framework for explaining why people in organizations become homogenous and similar to others over time (e.g., socialization). In addition, it can be used to understand employee attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. According to the Schneider (1987), "different kinds of organizations attract, select, and retain different kinds of people" (440). Expanding upon the NS fit perspective, individuals are believed to seek work environments that are in line with their personal values and goals. As such, individuals with similar needs and desires are expected to occupy similar work contexts, and experience similar levels of job satisfaction, commitment, and performance. However, too much homogeneity is argued to hinder the capacity of an organization to adapt and stay competitive.

Theory of Vocational Personalities and Work Environments

One of the earliest, and most popular PE fit theories is Holland's (1959, 1966, 1997) theory of vocational personalities and work environments (TVPWE; Su, Murdock, & Rounds, 2015). According to TVPWE, occupational interests and desires are a function of an individual's personality characteristics. Specifically, Holland (1959) identified six personality types (e.g., realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising, and conventional), which represent various interests, abilities, values, and other individual characteristics. Match between one's

occupational interests and work environment is expected to produce better

performance and higher job satisfaction.

Each of these theories differ in terms of their assumptions regarding the

process in which fit can be achieved. In TVPWE, for instance, fit represents

congruence between one's occupational interests and their work environment,

whereas in the ASA framework, goal attainment is the most important factor for

achieving fit. Likewise, the overarching PE fit construct encompasses several

distinct dimensions (i.e., person-job, person-organization, person-supervisor, and

person-group fit) that can be conceptualized in different ways (Sekiguchi, 2004).

The most common conceptualizations of fit are in terms of subjective versus

objective fit, complementary versus supplementary fit, and NS versus DA fit.

Conceptualizations of Fit

The distinction between objective versus subjective fit is analogous to the

idea of actual versus perceived fit. Subjective fit refers to the judgement rendered

by an individual regarding his or her perceived level of fit and, thus, is primarily

assessed via self-report measures. In contrast, methods for assessing objective

fit capture actual, rather than perceived, person-environment correspondence

(e.g., number of promotions or raises in the last two years). Whereas objective fit

is more relevant to organization officials for evaluating prospective applicants,

subjective fit is more relevant to job incumbents because it's considered a more

proximal determinant of employee attitudes and behavior (Cable & DeRue, 2002;

Cable & Judge, 1997; Kristof-Brown, 2000; Saks & Ashforth, 1997).

Fit can also be conceptualized in terms of complementary versus supplementary fit. Supplementary fit refers to the degree of similarity between an individual and the persons in their work environment, and complementary fit refers to the extent to which an individual's abilities match their job requirements (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Whereas supplementary fit often represents the similarity between an individual and his or her organization, supervisor, or work group, complementary fit is germane to PJ fit (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002). Accordingly, researchers have expanded upon the complementary fit perspective to include both DA and NS fit (Chuang *et al.*, 2015; Kristof, 1996).

Discussed earlier, DA fit refers to congruence between job demands and individual abilities, and NS fit refers to congruence between individual needs and the supplies of their work environment. Specifically, individuals experience greater fit when their KSAs complement the requirements for successful job performance (e.g., DA fit), or when their interests complement the supplied attributes or characteristics of a job (e.g., NS fit). Distinction between DA and NS fit is important for understanding the different ways job fit can be achieved, as well as the different ways it can be operationalized in the work context (e.g., Chuang *et al.*, 2015; Edwards, 1991).

Operationalization of PJ Fit

PJ fit is defined in the present study as one's perceived level of fit between their abilities and their job demands, and between their needs and their job supplies. As such, PJ fit is conceptualized here in terms of complementary fit,

and encompasses both DA and NS fit. With regard to DA fit, Edwards (1991)

defined job demands in terms of overall workload and task requirements, and the

TWA suggests that abilities be operationalized as individual knowledge, skills,

and abilities (KSAs). In relation to TVPWE, personality traits should also be

considered in relation to complementary fit perceptions (Chuang *et al.*, 2015;

Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; Piasentin & Chapman, 2006).

With regard to NS fit, Edwards (1991) referred to job supplies in terms of

the attributes or characteristics of the work environment. Individual needs are

described in the TWA as personal values and desires, and expanded upon in the

ASA framework to include individual goals. Given that occupational interests are

believed to be a function of individuals' values, desires, and goals in the TVPWE,

they arguably represent a more comprehensive factor for determining the extent

to which individuals' work environments complement their individual needs. In

addition, Kulik et al (1987) suggested certain job characteristics (skill variety, task

identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) also complement individual

needs and desires. As such, congruence between desired job characteristics and

those supplied by the job should also be considered in measures of PJ fit

(Chuang *et al.*, 2015).

In summary, based on Muchinsky and Monahan's (1987) complementary

fit perspective, Dawis and Lofquist's (1984) theory of work adjustment,

Schneider's (1987) attraction-selection-attrition framework, Holland's (1997)

theory of vocational personalities and work environments, and the propositions of

Kulik, Oldham, and Hackman (1987), operationalization of PJ fit can reasonably include KSAs, personality, interests, values, goals, desires, and job characteristics as specific content dimensions. However, the interests dimension likely encompasses general values, desires, and goals, whereas the job characteristics dimension represents a specific employee desire that positively impacts job fit (Chuang *et al.*, 2015). Accordingly, PJ fit is operationalized in the present study in terms of individuals' perceptions of the degree to which their KSAs and personality characteristics match their job requirements (DA fit), and the degree to which their occupational interests and desired job characteristics are fulfilled by their job (NS fit).

<u>Outcomes of PJ Fit</u>

PJ fit is positively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, in-role performance, extra-role performance, and job offer acceptance intentions, and negatively related to job strain, work and family stress, and turnover intentions (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards, 1991; Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005). Compared to other fit types (e.g., person-organization fit, person-supervisor fit, and person-group fit,), PJ fit has a noticeable impact on employee attitudes and behavior (Chuang *et al.*, 2015; Edwards & Billsbury, 2010; Kristoff-Brown *et al.*, 2005). In particular, outcomes that are specific to the job such as job satisfaction and task performance are more closely related to PJ fit compared to other types of fit (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005). Accordingly, Chuang et al (2015)

recently found that, in terms of both DA and NS fit, PJ fit not only accounted for

the greatest amount of variance in job satisfaction (41%) compared to person-

organization fit (20%), person-group fit (27%), and person-supervisor fit (12%),

but also explained a substantial amount of variance in task performance (40%).

When PJ fit is assessed in terms of either DA fit or NS fit, it is commonly

associated with job performance for DA fit, and job satisfaction for NS fit (Cable &

DeRue, 2002; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Edwards, 1991). On the relationship

between NS fit and job satisfaction, the extent to which one's needs are fulfilled

by their job forms the basis for satisfaction judgements (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984;

Locke, 1976). Accordingly, individuals' who perceive better NS fit tend to also

report being more satisfied with their jobs (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005). As such,

NS fit is expected to relate to job satisfaction as follows:

> Hypothesis 1. NS fit will positively predict job satisfaction. Specifically,
> individuals who perceive greater NS fit will report greater job satisfaction
> compared to individuals who perceive less NS fit.

On the relationship between DA fit and task performance, task

performance represents "the proficiency with which job incumbents perform

activities that are formally recognized as part of their jobs…" (73; Borman &

Motowidlo, 1993). Thus, job performance is conceivably the most logical and

direct outcome of individuals' ability to effectively carry-out work tasks (Cable &

DeRue, 2002). Accordingly, several studies have shown that DA fit is related to

task performance such that individuals who perceive better fit tend to also

perform better (Chuang *et al.*, 2015; Li & Hung, 2010; Greguras & Diefendorff,

2009; Wang et al., 2011). Despite the conceptual appeal and strong empirical support, some researchers have obtained null findings on the relationship between DA fit and task performance (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001).

These theoretically ambiguous findings could be due to methodology rather than faulty theory (e.g., Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). For instance, Cable and DeRue (2002) attributed their nonsignificant findings in part to their lack of control over external factors that might also influence task performance. They also suggested that subjective DA fit is more susceptible to rater-bias because of individuals' tendency to skew their ratings upward to maintain positive self-esteem, which was evidenced by the higher mean ratings for DA fit compared to other fit types. Similar results were also obtained by Lauver and Kristof Brown (2001). Moreover, a meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) showed that the relationship between perceived fit and outcome criteria is greater when ratings are provided by a common source. Likewise, Li and Hung (2010) found that individuals' perceived DA fit significantly predicted their perceived effectiveness.

Past research suggests that evaluating performance subjectively and obtaining more control over external factors could provide a more pure and accurate assessment of the relationship between DA fit and task performance. As such, task performance will be evaluated subjectively in the present study, and participant tenure and level of conscientiousness will be controlled for due to their strong, positive relation to both task performance (Barrick, & Mount, 1991;

Dudley, Orvis, Lebiecki, & Cortina, 2006; Johnson, 2001) and DA fit (Resick,

Baltes, & Snahtes, 2007).

In the meta-analysis by Heidemeier and Moser (2008), the authors posit

that because expectations concerning task proficiency are often explicit,

employees probably receive more frequent feedback on their task performance.

Accordingly, the results of their study indicate that self-reported task performance

ratings are substantially less biased by leniency compared to other performance

categories (e.g., contextual performance, global performance, trait labels of

performance). Likewise, Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, and Fleenor (1998)

showed that individuals can provide fairly accurate assessments of their ability

levels. Nonetheless, inaccurate or inflated ratings are still a concern and, thus,

the researcher will attempt to minimize rater-bias. Specifically, consistent with the

findings of Heidemeier and Moser (2008) regarding strategies to enhance self-

other rater agreement, task performance will be assessed in behavioral terms,

instead of trait items, and will include relative anchors rather than absolute

values. In addition, partiality to job-related impression management will also be

measured and controlled for to account for dispositional characteristics that might

contribute to respondents' motivation to bias responses (e.g., Donaldson &

Vallone, 2002). Everything considered, perceived DA fit is expected to positively

predict individual's perceived task performance as follows:

> Hypothesis 2. DA fit will positively predict self-rated task performance.
> Specifically, individuals who perceive greater DA fit will report better task
> performance compared to individuals who perceive less DA fit.

Furthermore, individuals who perceive a match between their ability levels and the demands of their job tend to also be more satisfied with their jobs (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). In addition, employees tend to perform better when they feel their individual needs are fulfilled by their job (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005). Thus, both DA fit and NS fit are associated with both job satisfaction and task performance (Chuang *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2011). However, research has shown that DA fit is a stronger predictor of task performance than NS fit, and job satisfaction is a more salient outcome of NS fit compared to DA fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005; Wang *et al.*, 2011). As such, the following hypotheses address the relative impact of DA and NS fit on job satisfaction and performance:

> Hypothesis 3. NS fit will also positively predict task performance; however, DA fit will be a stronger predictor of task performance compared to NS fit.

> Hypothesis 4. DA fit will also positively predict job satisfaction; however, NS fit will be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction compared to DA fit.

Antecedents of PJ Fit

Although much of the PJ fit research focuses on outcomes of fit, or misfit (Edwards & Shipp, 2007), it is traditionally used as a tool for effective recruitment and selection (Kristof-Brown, 2000). Furthermore, researchers have largely focused on the impact of individual differences in the job fit process (e.g., Caldwell, Harold, & Fedor, 2004; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, & Bakker, 2014). Similarly, occupational interest and personality have also proven to be important precursors to PJ fit (Ernhart & Makransky, 2007). A

relatively new trend in PJ fit research examines the influence of employee job crafting on PJ fit (e.g., Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012; Lu *et al.*, 2014; Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016). According to job crafting theory (Wrzeseniewski & Dutton, 2001), employees who actively engage in crafting behaviors shape their work environment in ways that better fit their individual abilities and preferences. Said differently, employees can counter PJ misfit by altering their job design (Lu *et al.*, 2014).

In general, PJ fit research tends to focus on the "person" aspect of the dynamic and ignore the organization's stake in the job fit process. For instance, although Lu et al (2010) found that engaged employees can act on their work environment to create better PJ fit via job crafting, their study failed to consider the availability of the resources necessary to facilitate job crafting intentions. Meanwhile, Bakker and Tims (2010) found that characteristics of the work environment are indeed important antecedents to job crafting behaviors. Thus, it's insufficient to focus merely on characteristics of the individual. Because PJ fit is an ongoing process of continuous interaction between employees and their work environment, more attention must be given to characteristics of the work environment that could be useful for maintaining adequate PJ fit over time. Accordingly, the focus of this study was to emphasize the impact of job characteristics and resources on employee job fit perceptions based on popular models of employee well-being.

Models of Employee Well-Being

In the work context, the Job Characteristics Model (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976, 1980) identifies specific characteristics that are essential for increasing and maintaining employee well-being. Furthermore, the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Demerouti *et al*., 2001) suggests those characteristics, operationalized as job resources, are also instrumental in balancing job demands, promoting employee engagement, and reducing work stress. The robustness and generalizability of these models (DeVaro, Li, & Brookshire, 2007; Korunka, Kubicek, Schaufeli, & Hoonakker, 2009; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006), as well as their implications for PJ fit (e.g., Tims & Bakker, 2010), merit reflection on their assumptions in the present study. As such, the JCM and JD-R model will be reviewed and their assumptions will be discussed in terms of their relevance and contribution to PJ fit theory.

The Job Characteristics Model

In general, job design involves creating jobs and then selecting individuals with the requisite KSAs to perform those jobs. As such, there are many factors to consider throughout the design process. For instance, Hackman and Lawler (1971) identified several important characteristics of the work environment that, if incorporated into the job design, can boost employee motivation, satisfaction, and performance. Hackman and Oldham (1975) later developed the Job Diagnostic Survey as a tool for organizations to determine whether certain jobs

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could be re-designed to improve employee well-being by increasing task identity, task significance, task variety, autonomy, and feedback. They also suggested these characteristics could be combined to compute an overall motivational potential score (MPS) for a job, in which autonomy and feedback serve as the most important job characteristics linked to employee motivation.

In the JCM, Hackman and Oldham (1975) posit that the aforementioned characteristics satisfy three critical psychological states and, in turn, produce positive employee outcomes. Specifically, task identity, significance, and variety lead to greater experienced meaningfulness by increasing the degree to which employees believe their work is important; autonomy provokes experienced responsibility by increasing the degree to which employees feel accountable for their work; feedback generates knowledge of work results by increasing the degree to which an employee knows and understands how well they are performing their job. In turn, these three psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge) are closely related to employee motivation, performance, and satisfaction (Hackman, & Oldham, 1976). Support for the validity and generalizability of the JCM were obtained by Fried and Ferris (1987) and DeVaro et al. (2007).

The JCM also posits that the characteristics-outcomes relationship is moderated by individual knowledge and skill, growth need strength, and satisfaction with the work context. Said differently, the job characteristics highlighted in the JCM could fail to produce expected work outcomes when

employees don't possess sufficient knowledge and skill to fulfil their job

requirements, have low desire for personal growth, or are dissatisfied with the

work environment (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). However, the impact of these

constructs has varied across many different studies (e.g., Fried & Ferris, 1987;

Loher Noe, Moeller, & Fitzgerald, 1985), and thus, should be conceptualized

differently in the JCM (Kulik *et al.*, 1987).

The Job Demands-Resources Model

Similar to the JCM, the JD-R model also suggests that job characteristics

have a positive impact on employee attitudes and behavior. In addition, however,

the JD-R model warrants consideration of the influence of job characteristics on

employee characteristics. More specifically, the JD-R model argues that

resources can buffer the negative effects of job demands, such as stress and

burnout, by facilitating balance between individuals' needs and abilities and their

jobs (Bakker *et al.*, 2003). Before the JD-R model, the Demands-Control Model

(DCM; Karasek, 1979, 1998) asserted that autonomy, in particular, is the most

important resource for preventing job strain because it gives employees control

over how they manage job demands. Later, the Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI;

Siegrest, 1996) model argued that balance between employee efforts and job

rewards (i.e., support, salary, and security) is most important for preventing job

strain. The JD-R model expanded on prior conceptualizations of job demands

and job resources to include various work characteristics, and identified several

key resources (i.e., support, autonomy, feedback) for preventing strain and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

The JD-R model is centered on the assumption that characteristics of the work environment, particularly those related to job strain, can be classified as either job demands or job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Demerouti et al. (2001), both constructs refer to the "physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job…" (312), however, they are unique in that they relate to employee outcomes very differently. That is, demands are associated with job strain, whereas resources increase well-being (Bakker *et al.*, 2003). Demerouti et al. (2001) posited that job demands require "sustained physical and/or psychological …effort or skills…" (312) and, therefore, can lead to greater work stress, and even employee burnout. Job resources, on the other hand, help facilitate work goals, buffer the negative effects of job demands, and/or promote learning and development (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001).

Another assumption of the JD-R model is that job resources enable motivational processes (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). On the one hand, they can produce greater intrinsic motivation by contributing to learning and development (Demerouti, *et al.*, 2001). In addition, job resources contribute to satisfaction of basic psychological needs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), such as the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (e.g., Self Determination Theory; Deci & Ryan, 1985). On the other hand, resources can be externally motivating because they are useful for attaining work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

A final assumption of the JD-R model is that job resources counter the negative effects of job demands (Bakker *et al.*, 2003). In addition, resources are more salient when demands are high (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Hakenan, Bakker, and Demerouti, 2005). In particular, support, autonomy, and feedback can buffer work stress by allowing employees to better manage their job demands (Bakker *et al.*, 2003). Said differently, these resources are instrumental in reducing job strain because they allow employees to get help from coworkers (support), choose how they manage their job demands (autonomy), and maintain adequate job performance (feedback).

Autonomy and Feedback

Job resources can be afforded at various organizational levels (Bakker *et al.*, 2004). At the task level, Hackman and Oldham's (1975) classical job characteristics can also be offered in the form of job resources. In particular, autonomy and feedback are identified in both the JCM and JD-R model as important aspects of the work environment for improving employee satisfaction and performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Euwema, 2005; Hackman & Oldham, 1976) which, mentioned earlier, are also traditional outcomes of PJ fit. In addition, autonomy and feedback have also proven beneficial for improving PJ fit (e.g., Tims & Bakker, 2010). As such, to maintain consistency with popular models of employee well-being and PJ fit research, the focus here was on resources at the task level, namely autonomy and feedback.

Autonomy and feedback can promote employee satisfaction and productivity in several ways. Feedback refers to the information employees receive regarding their work effectiveness (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). As such, feedback is not only important for generating awareness of how well one is performing (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), but also allows employees to change their behavior to improve performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). In addition, when employees are aware of how well they are performing, they are more likely to feel good about themselves and be more satisfied with their jobs (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In general, autonomy refers to the level of independence and freedom one has in the work environment (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Specifically, greater autonomy offers employees more control over how they manage job demands, generates opportunities to obtain feedback, and allows incumbents to gain support from coworkers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Karasek, 1979, 1998). Taken together, autonomy and feedback are expected to relate to job satisfaction and task performance as follows:

> Hypothesis 5. Greater feedback will be associated with better task performance and job satisfaction. Specifically, individuals who receive more feedback will report better task performance and higher job satisfaction compared to individuals who receive less feedback.

> Hypothesis 6. Greater autonomy will be associated with better employee task performance and job satisfaction. Specifically, individuals who receive more autonomy will report better task performance and higher job satisfaction compared to individuals who receive less autonomy.

Impact of Job Characteristics and Resource on PJ Fit

Autonomy and feedback could also facilitate better PJ fit. Moreover, the JD-R model has been used to illustrate the different ways employees can use these resources to achieve better PJ fit (e.g., Bakker & Tims, 2010). Likewise, Kulik et al. (1987) also suggested that these fundamental job characteristics could promote better job fit. Accordingly, the JCM and JD-R model will be used to illustrate the processes whereby job characteristics, mainly autonomy and feedback, can lead to better PJ fit. Said differently, PJ fit will be framed within these popular models of employee well-being.

PJ Fit Framed in the JCM

Contrary to the assumption that job characteristics are independent of employee knowledge and skill, growth need strength, organizational research concerning job design has shown that these constructs can indeed interact and influence one another (e.g., Brousseau, 1978; Kohn & Schooler, 1982). This prompted Kulik et al. (1987) to develop a slightly different conceptualization of these constructs in the JCM. Instead, job characteristics are illustrated as a means for individuals to increase their KSAs, satisfy their need for continuous growth, and achieve greater satisfaction with their work environment.

With regard to DA fit, certain job characteristics can help shape employee abilities to better accommodate their job demands. For instance, greater autonomy and feedback can help employees to improve their skills and abilities and develop new ones (Hackman, Oldham, & Janson, 1975). Likewise,

individuals with complex and demanding jobs can utilize autonomy and feedback

to continually refine their KSAs to maintain satisfactory job performance (Kulik *et al.*, 1987). Accordingly, job design research has shown that greater autonomy

contributes to higher employee initiative, fewer work mistakes, and fewer

customer complaints (Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007; Kauffeld, Jonas, & Frey, 2004).

Moreover, feedback is associated with greater competence and better work

performance over time (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Harackiewicz, Manderlink, &

Sansone, 1984).

     With regard to NS fit, certain job characteristics could help satisfy

individuals' need for continuous growth. Growth need strength (GNS) represents

one's desire for personal growth and development (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Given that GNS can weaken over time, organizations must enable opportunities

for individuals to satisfy their internal need for development (Brousseau, 1978,

Kohn & Schooler, 1982) and, thus, support need satisfaction. Likewise, job

characteristics can influence employee satisfaction with the work environment

(Kulik *et al.*, 1987). According to Hackman and Oldham (1976), the work context

encompasses factors such as pay, job security, and interpersonal relationships.

     Greater autonomy and feedback can be instrumental in satisfying GNS

and promoting satisfaction with the work context by allowing employees to

develop their skills, feel more competent, and to establish relationships with

others through more frequent interactions with coworkers and managers.

Consequently, autonomy and feedback promote better employability (van

Emmerik, Schreurs, de Cuyper, Jawahar, & Peeters, 2004). According to Fugate,

Kinicki, and Ashforth (2004), employability refers to individuals' ability to gain and

maintain employment as a function of their adaptability, career-identity, and

KSAs and work experiences. As such, employability is associated with employee

development and career advancement and, thus, accompanies opportunities for

higher pay and better job security.

PJ Fit Framed in the JD-R Model

PJ fit could also be framed in the JD-R model as a consequence of better

balance between individual characteristics and work characteristics. Said

differently, job resources could allow employees to change their job demands,

and satisfy basic psychological needs in order to align their job with their

individual abilities and interests. More specifically, autonomy and feedback can

be employed to increase or decrease job demands when necessary or desired,

and to satisfy basic needs. Each of the ways job resources could be utilized to

promote better job fit will be discussed in terms of their impact on DA and NS fit.

With regard to DA fit, job resources can be employed to decrease job

demands when they become too high. Moreover, high job demands can hinder

work goals, hence the term hindrance demands (Cavanaugh Boswell, Roehling,

& Boudreau, 2000). For instance, when demands are high, maybe as a result of

skill obsolescence due to technological advances, greater autonomy and

feedback can help employees acquire relevant performance information to

improve their job skills, or develop new ones. In addition, autonomy can provide

more opportunities to work with others, and feedback is beneficial for decreasing specific hindrance demands such as role ambiguity or role conflict (LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005). Research on the JD-R model support the importance of task level resources for balancing job demands (e.g., Bakker *et al.*, 2004).

With regard to NS fit, when demands are low job resources can be employed to increase job demands such that they are more challenging. Contrary to hindrance demands, challenge demands allow employees to utilize more of their abilities and learn new skills (Lepine *et al.*, 2005). As such, challenge demands are positively associated with goal attainment (Cavanaugh *et al.*, 2000), whereas insufficient job resources prohibit goal accomplishment, which produces greater job strain (Bakker, Demerouti, & De Boer, 2003). Individuals' can increase their challenge demands by utilizing autonomy and feedback to develop new skills and experience greater responsibility for their work (Parker, 1998), thus satisfying their desire for personal growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2001).

Furthermore, in relation to self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan 1985), autonomy and feedback can allow employees to satisfy their inborn need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008). First, the need for competence is defined by individuals' inherent desire to feel capable (White, 1959). Autonomy can promote competence by providing employees more control over their work (Parker, 1998).

Moreover, positive feedback is a fundamental determinant of experienced competence (Deci & Ryan, 1975). Likewise, Harackiewicz, Manderlink, and Sansone (1984) demonstrated that higher perceived competence accompanied more frequent performance feedback.

Second, the need for autonomy is associated with individuals' innate desire for control and ownership over their behavior (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Whereas autonomy contributes to greater control and ownership of work outcomes (Kahn, 1990), feedback allows employees to adjust their behavior to better fulfill their work responsibilities (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Finally, the need for relatedness is characterized by the basic human desire for meaningful interpersonal relationships (Ryan, 1993). The need for relatedness can be achieved through more opportunities to interact with coworkers via greater work autonomy, and greater opportunities to obtain constructive feedback from other organization members. Taken together, satisfaction of the need for competence, autonomy, and relatedness leads to better NS fit (Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

In summary, the JCM and JD-R model can also be used to better understand PJ fit. In particular, autonomy and feedback can help facilitate balance between one's needs and their job supplies, and between their abilities and their job demands. More specifically, they provide a means by which employees can refine their skills and/or acquire new ones; therefore, autonomy and feedback can deter hindrance demands, consequently facilitating better DA fit. They also satisfy basic psychological needs and facilitate personal growth and

development; therefore, autonomy and feedback also support challenge

demands, consequently promoting better NS fit. Taken together, regardless of

whether they are afforded by other organization members or are inherent

features of the job itself, the degree of autonomy and feedback available to job

incumbents should influence job fit as follows:

Hypothesis 7. Greater autonomy and feedback will predict better DA fit. Specifically, individuals who receive more autonomy and feedback will perceive greater DA fit compared to individuals who receive less autonomy and feedback.

Hypothesis 8. Greater autonomy and feedback will predict better NS fit. Specifically, individuals who receive more autonomy and feedback will perceive greater NS fit compared to individuals who receive less autonomy and feedback.

Furthermore, as a result of better DA and/or NS fit employees are likely

more satisfied with their jobs, and perform better than individuals who receive

less autonomy and/or feedback. Consistent with the extant literature on PJ fit and

job characteristics/resources, PJ fit (in terms of DA and NS fit) is posited to

mediate the relationship between job characteristics (autonomy and feedback)

and employee attitudes and behavior (job satisfaction and task performance).

Discussed earlier, task performance and job satisfaction are fundamental

outcomes of DA and NS fit. Likewise, autonomy and feedback are also indicative

of more satisfied and productive employees, and might also promote better DA

and NS fit. As seen in Figure 1, both dimensions of PJ fit are expected to

mediate the characteristics-outcomes relationship as follows:

Hypothesis 9. DA and NS fit will mediate the relationship between autonomy and job satisfaction. Specifically, individuals who receive more

autonomy will perceive greater job fit and, thus, will report higher job satisfaction than individuals with less work autonomy.

Hypothesis 10. DA and NS fit will mediate the relationship between feedback and job satisfaction. Specifically, individuals who receive more feedback will perceive greater job fit and, thus, will report higher job satisfaction than individuals who receive less feedback.

Hypothesis 11. DA and NS fit will mediate the relationship between autonomy and task performance. Specifically, individuals who receive more autonomy will perceive greater job fit and, thus, will report greater task performance than individuals with less work autonomy.

Hypothesis 12. DA and NS fit will mediate the relationship between feedback and task performance. Specifically, individuals who receive more feedback will perceive greater job fit and, thus, will report better task performance than individuals who receive less feedback.

Present Study

The goal of the researcher was twofold: 1) to determine whether job characteristics and resources indeed influence job fit perceptions of current employees, and 2) to expand upon our understanding of why job characteristics impact employee attitudes and behavior. The main argument helps to fill an important gap in the PJ fit research in terms of non-worker related antecedents to PJ fit. Specifically, by avoiding explicit assessment of the relationship between certain personal characteristics and characteristics of the work environment, and how that dynamic can be enhanced through new hire processes, my goal was to illustrate the unique, and intervening effect of job fit perceptions on employee attitudes and behavior purely as a result of the job. Likewise, findings of this study could provide a framework for developing strategies to counter misfit and

maintain positive PJ fit over time, which might be especially important for

ensuring smooth transition during periods of organizational change (e.g.,

Caldwell, Herold, & Fedor, 2004).
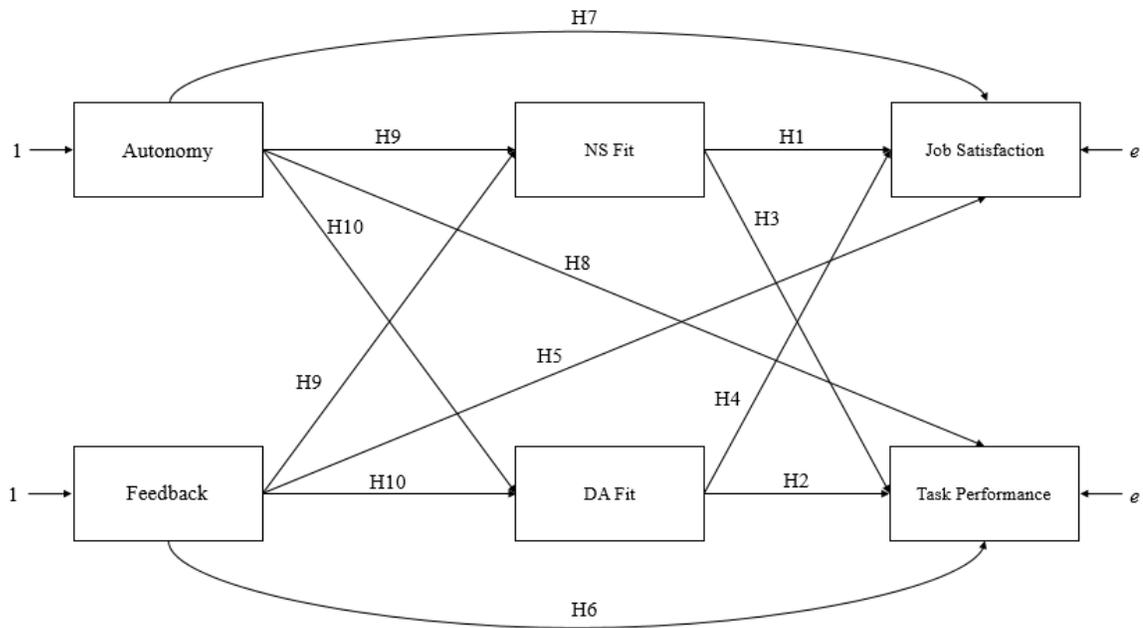
Figure 1. Proposed Model and Illustration of Hypotheses

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants

All participants were at least 18 years old and currently employed. Data

were obtained from student workers and other working professionals who worked

at least part-time. There were 300 total respondents, 240 complete surveys, and

a total of 228 (Females = 184, Males = 44) responses that met the criteria for

inclusion in this study (see Data Screening section below). Because the

proposed model includes a total of 17 parameters to be estimated, a minimum of

170 participants (10 per parameter) is considered acceptable (Bentler & Chou,

1987).

Participant age ranged from 18 years old to 64 years old and the average

age was 27. Average tenure was 55.47 months and ranged from 1 month to 411

months. There were 44 men (19%) and 184 women (81%). Of the participants,

29% were Caucasian and 62% were Hispanic. Moreover, 22% had some college

credits, 16% had an Associate's degree, and 28% had a Bachelor's degree up to

a Doctorate. Descriptive statistics for continuous demographic variables are

presented in Table 1, and categorical demographic variables in Table 2.

Table 1. Continuous Demographic Variables

Variable	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Age (Years)	27	9.82	18	64
Tenure (Months)	37.92	55.47	1	411

Table 2. Categorical Demographic Variables

Variable	N	%
Gender		
Male	44	19
Female	184	81
Ethnicity		
Asian	5	2
African American	7	3
White/Caucasian	66	30
Hispanic/Latino	141	62
Other	9	4
Variable	N	%
Job Type		
Customer Service	61	27
Administrative Support	17	7
Professional Specialty	31	14
Managerial	9	4

Technical	5	2
Sales	19	8
Intern	6	3
Other	80	35
Education Level		
Less than High School	1	0.4
High School Diploma	21	9
Some College	92	40
Associate or Vocational Degree	50	22
Bachelor's	37	16
Master's (MA/MS)	17	7
Professional degree (MD, JD)	2	0.8
Doctorate (Ph.D./Ed.D.)	8	4

Measures

The variables studied were PJ fit, autonomy, feedback, task performance, and job satisfaction, all of which were assessed using existing published scales. Demographic information was collected in the form of age, gender, ethnicity, job type, tenure, and education level. In addition, three items were included to screen for careless responding, and one self-report question regarding the accuracy of

participant responses was included at the very end of the survey. All items

included in the survey can be found in Appendix B.

Job Characteristics/ Resources

Autonomy and feedback was assessed using items from Morgensen and

Humphrey's (2006) Work Design Questionnaire, which contains items taken or

adapted from various work design scales (see Appendix B). All items were

assessed on a Likert scale where 1 = Very Inaccurate and 7 = Very Accurate.

There are ten items total, six for autonomy and four for feedback. Items for

autonomy were drawn from the work-schedule autonomy, work-method

autonomy, decision-making autonomy, and social support scales. The reported

alpha levels for these scales are.85 for work-schedule autonomy, .88 for work-

method autonomy, .85 for decision-making autonomy, and .82 for social support

(Morgensen & Humphrey, 2006). In the present study, the alpha level for the

autonomy scale was .82. A sample item for *autonomy* is "The job gives me a

chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work."

Feedback items were drawn from the feedback from the job and feedback from

others scales. The reported alpha levels for these scales are .86 for feedback

from the job and .88 for feedback from others (Morgensen & Humphrey, 2006). In

the present study, the alpha level was .85. A sample item for *feedback* is

"Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job."

<u>Person-Job Fit</u>

Fit was assessed using multiple scales in order to capture the full domain of PJ fit. The first PJ fit scale includes the DA and NS fit scales developed by Cable and DeRue (2002), which include general content dimensions of values and KSAs. This scale has six items total, three for each subscale, and all items are assessed on a Likert scale where 1 = Not at all and 7 = Completely. The alpha level for the DA fit scale is .89 (Cable & DeRue, 2002). In the present study, the alpha reliability level was .86. A sample item is "The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills." The alpha level for the NS fit scale is .89 (Cable & DeRue, 2002). In the present study, the alpha reliability level was .94. A sample item is "There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job."

The second PJ fit scale used was the perceived PJ fit (PPJFS) subscale from Chuang et al. (2016) Perceived Person Environment Fit Scale (PPEFS), which includes specific content dimensions of KSAs, personality, interests, and job characteristics. The scale has four items, assessed on a Likert scale where 1 = No Match and 7 = Complete Match. The reported alpha level for the PPJFS scale is .84 (Chuang *et al.*, 2016). In the present study, the alpha reliability level was .74 for the NS fit scale, .66 for the DA fit scale, and .78 for the entire PPJFS. A sample item is "How would you describe the match between your professional skills, knowledge, and abilities and those required by the job?" The reliability level for both NS fit scales combined was .91, and .85 for both DA fit scales.

<u>Outcome Variables</u>

Job satisfaction was assessed using Edwards and Rothbard (1999)

measure of overall job satisfaction. The scale has three items assessed on a

Likert scale where 0 = Strongly Disagree and 6 = Strongly Agree. The reported

alpha level for the job satisfaction scale is .77 (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999). In

the present study, the alpha reliability level was .94. A sample item is "All in all,

the job I have is great." *Task performance* was assessed with four items

developed by Van Dyne and LePine (1998). This scale is assessed on a Likert

scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree. The reported alpha

level for the task performance scale is .89 (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). In the

present study, the alpha reliability level was .92. A sample item is "Performs the

tasks that are expected as part of the job."

<u>Control Variables</u>

Participant age, tenure (in months), task conscientiousness, and

impression management were included as control variables. In lieu of a formal

measure of job complexity, the researcher attempted to use participant job type

as a control variable by arranging job categories to represent increasing levels of

job complexity; however, partial correlations were hardly effected, if at all, and

therefore job type was removed as a control variable. *Task conscientiousness*

was assessed with three items taken from the anchors developed by Johnson

(2001) to represent the degree to which an individual demonstrates effort and

takes initiative in their work. This item is assessed on a Likert scale where 1

=Needs Improvement, 4 = Satisfactory, and 7 =Superior. Each anchor point

includes three statements describing the level of effort and initiative associated

with that anchor (see Appendix B). A sample item is "Consistently takes the

initiative to accomplish task objectives, even when the work is beyond stated

requirements." The reliability of the task conscientiousness scale is unavailable

because the original scale is only one item. In the present study, the alpha

reliability level was .77. As a result of greater response variability and low

squared multiple correlation, deletion of one item ("Goes out of his/her way to

develop own knowledge and skills by seeking out and volunteering for

development and training opportunities") was suggested to increase reliability to

.84. However, the scale reliability with all three items is considered adequate

and, therefore, was retained. *Job-focused impression management* was

measured with eight items used by Bolino, Varela, Bande, and Turnley (2006).

The Likert scale for these items ranges from 1 = Never to 7 = Always. The

reported alpha level for the impression management scale is .89 (Bolino *et al*.,

2006). In the present study, the alpha level was .81.

Procedures

Participants in this study were recruited using snowball sampling

techniques via email and social media. Additionally, working college students

were primarily recruited from California State University, San Bernardino via

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SONA Research Participation System. Participants were instructed to complete

an online survey comprising the aforementioned measures.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Data Screening

Data were initially available from 300 participants. Several responses were excluded from analysis because participants either neglected to answer more than one item ($N = 33$), failed to respond to twenty-four or more items ($N = 7$), incorrectly answered one or more of the careless response checks ($N = 41$), or self-reported having provided inaccurate responses ($N = 1$). After screening the data for missing and unusable responses, the total sample size for analysis was $N = 228$. The ratio of cases to observed variables is approximately 13:1, which is considered acceptable for the present study (Bentler & Chou, 1987).

Normality and outliers were screened via SPSS data software using a cutoff score of $z = 3.30$, $p < .001$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Using this criterion, participant tenure was significantly skewed ($z = 3.54$) and kurtotic ($z = 15.22$), and had 5 outliers that ranged from $z = 3.57$ to $z = 6.73$. In addition, there were 3 outliers for age that ranged from $z = 3.30$ to $z = 3.71$, 1 outlier for DA fit ($z = -3.53$), and 1 outlier for task performance ($z = -5.42$). Due to the nonnormal distribution of tenure, it was unclear whether extreme scores were indeed outliers or if their significance was due to the skewed distribution. Even so, there's no reason to expect tenure to be normally distributed. Likewise, there could be systematic differences between individuals with longer versus shorter tenure. Furthermore,

given that the nature of this study is on PJ fit, employees who have occupied a position longer might be qualitatively different from everyone else. As such, statistically controlling for participant tenure might result in loss of meaningful information. Accordingly, variable transformations were not considered and extreme scores were included in analysis. Moreover, because there were no other significant departures from normality, outliers for age, DA fit, and task performance were also not considered for exclusion.

Significant multivariate outliers were detected using Mahalonobis Distance (MD), $df = 10$, $\chi^2 = 29.59$, $p < .001$. There were 6 multivariate outliers with a MD between $\chi^2 = 30.77$ to 60.62. Per the recommendations of Aguinis, Godfredson, and Joo (2013) for identifying and handling outliers in SEM, the influence of these outliers on parameter estimates was assessed via Cooks distance, DFFit, and DFBetas. All absolute values are considerably less than 1, indicating that they do not affect parameter estimates. Nevertheless, the proposed model was estimated with and without all multivariate outliers, and with and without all multivariate outliers individually. However, partial correlations and model fit were largely unaffected and, thus, all multivariate outliers were included in the main analysis.

Linearity among pairs of variables was assessed through inspection of bivariate scatterplots. Due to the large number of pairwise scatterplots, differences in skewness was used to identify potential non-linear pairings of variables. No substantial departures from linearity were detected.

Residuals were examined after model estimation. The residual for task performance after being regressed onto job satisfaction (0.007) was the only nonzero residual.

Directional Hypothesis Testing

Structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis with maximum likelihood estimation was performed in LISREL to test the hypothesized direct and indirect effects. Prior to estimating the proposed model, partial correlations were computed in SPSS to control for the effect of age, tenure, task conscientiousness, and impression management. The resulting partial correlation matrix in Table 4 was used as the input for the analysis. Zero-order correlations are listed in Table 3. In terms of model fit, the model chi square, χ^2 (2, $N = 228$) = 00.04, $p = 0.98$, root mean square error of approximation ($RMSEA$) = .00, goodness of fit index (GFI) = 1.00, and adjusted goodness of fit index ($AGFI$) =.99, suggest the model has good absolute fit. Likewise, the model also demonstrated good relative fit, non-normed fit index ($NNFI$) = 1.03, comparative fit index (CFI) = 1.00.

Table 3. Zero-Order Correlation Matrix of Predictors,
        Criterion, and Control Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	27.57	9.82	---									
2. Tenure	37.92	55.47	.55**	----								
3. Task Conscientious	5.49	1.04	.22*	.17*	(.81)							
4. Impression Management	3.32	1.30	-.34**	-.20*	.02	(.77)						
5. Autonomy	4.95	1.32	.04	-.02	.17*	.08	(.82)					
6. Feedback	5.16	1.35	-.15	-.04	.22*	.10	.35**	(.85)				
7. NS Fit	4.24	1.51	.28**	.05	.30**	-.01	.53**	.30**	(.91)			
8. DA Fit	5.41	1.19	.21*	.07	.34**	-.01	.44**	.29**	.64**	(.85)		
9. Job Satisfaction	4.76	1.66	.12	.01	.28**	.06	.58**	.32**	.81**	.56**	(.94)	
10. Task Performance	6.00	.92	.05	.09	.45**	-.05	.01	.15	.06	.27*	.12	(.92)

Note: *p <0.01 **p <.001. Alpha reliabilities are in parentheses on the diagonal.

Table 4. Partial Correlation Matrix of Predictors and Criterion

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Autonomy	4.95	1.32	1					
2. Feedback	5.16	1.35	.33*					
3. NS Fit	4.24	1.51	.51*	.32*				
4. DA Fit	5.41	1.19	.41*	.24*	.58*			
5. Job Satisfaction	4.76	1.66	.56*	.31*	.80*	.58*		
6. Task Performance	6.00	.92	-.01	.05	-.02	.14	.01	

Note: *p <0.001.

Test of Direct Effects

The final model with estimated parameters is displayed in Figure 2. In terms of hypothesis 1, I predicted that NS fit would positively predict job satisfaction. Hypothesis 1 was supported as NS fit significantly predicted, and

increased with job satisfaction (β =.63, $p < .05$), and accounted for 40% of the variance. Likewise, for hypothesis 2 I predicted that DA fit would positively predict task performance, and was also supported ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$). In addition, DA fit accounted for 6% of the variance in performance.

In terms of hypothesis 3, I predicted that NS fit would also positively predict task performance, but would be a less powerful predictor than DA fit. Hypothesis 3 was not supported as NS fit did not significantly, or positively predict task performance ($\beta = -.10$, $p > .05$). For hypothesis 4, I predicted that DA fit would also positively predict job satisfaction, but would be a less powerful predictor than NS fit. Hypothesis 4 was supported as DA fit also significantly predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$), but accounted for less variance in job satisfaction ($r^2 = .02$) than NS fit ($r^2 = .39$).

In terms of hypotheses 5, I predicted that feedback would positively predict task performance and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 5 was not supported as feedback did not significantly predict job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.02$, $p > 05$) or task performance ($\beta = 0.07$, $p > .05$). For hypothesis 6, I predicted that autonomy would positively predict task performance and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported in that autonomy significantly predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < .05$), but not task performance ($\beta = -0.14$, $p > .05$). Regarding the relationship between autonomy and task performance, performance declined at higher levels of autonomy.

In terms of hypotheses 7, I predicted that autonomy and feedback would positively predict NS fit. Hypothesis 7 was supported as both autonomy (β = .46, p <.05) and feedback (β = .17, p < .05) significantly predicted NS fit. Furthermore, autonomy accounted for 21% of the variance in NS fit and feedback accounted for 3%. For hypotheses 8, I predicted that autonomy and feedback would also positively predict DA fit. Hypothesis 8 was partially supported in that autonomy significantly predicted DA fit (β = .37, p < .05), but feedback did not (β = .11, p > .05). Likewise, autonomy accounted for 14% of the variance in DA fit, whereas feedback accounted for only 1% of the variance.

<u>Test of Indirect Effects</u>

Indirect effects were examined to test the mediating role of job fit. In terms of hypothesis 9, I predicted that NS and DA fit would mediate the relationship between autonomy and job satisfaction. Hypothesis 9 was supported as NS and DA fit had a significant indirect effect on the relationship between autonomy and job satisfaction (β = .34, p < .05), indicating that increased autonomy predicted better job fit, which predicted greater job satisfaction. Likewise, the total effect of autonomy on job satisfaction was positive and significant (β = .51, p < .05), and accounted for 26% of the variance. Moreover, for hypothesis 10, I predicted that NS and DA fit would also mediate the relationship between feedback and job satisfaction, which was also supported (β = .12, p < .05). Although the direct effect of feedback on job satisfaction was nonsignificant, the total effect was significant (β = .14, p < .05), but accounted for only 2% of the variance.

In terms of hypothesis 11, I predicted that that NS and DA fit would mediate the relationship between autonomy and task performance. Hypothesis 11 was not supported as autonomy did not have a significant indirect effect on performance (β = .04, p > .05). Likewise, for hypothesis 12, I predicted that that NS and DA fit would mediate the relationship between feedback and task performance, and was also not supported (β = .01, p > .05). Although increased autonomy and feedback predicted better job fit, performance subtly decreased as autonomy increased (β = -.10, p > .05), and with higher NS fit (β = -.10, p > .05).
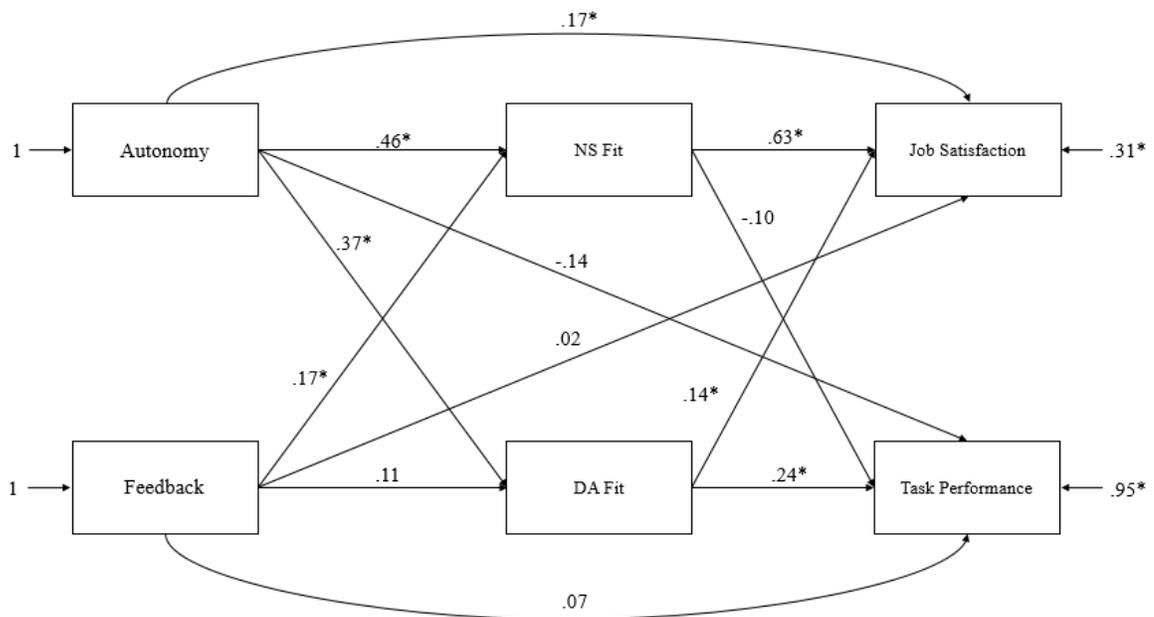
Figure 2. Estimated Model with Standardized Path Coefficients

Supplemental Analysis

        Given the nonsignificant and negative association between NS fit and task

performance, and between autonomy and task performance, follow-up analysis

was conducted to further investigate the nature of these associations.

Multivariate scatterplots showed that, on average, performance tended to decline

between low and moderate levels of autonomy and NS fit, and then increased

between moderate and high levels of autonomy and NS fit. As such, separate

hierarchical regression analyses including the squared term for NS fit and

autonomy were performed in SPSS to examine potential curvilinear relationships

(e.g., DeDrue, 2006; Johnson, 2001). The control variables (age, tenure, task

conscientiousness, and impression management) and study variables

(autonomy, feedback, DA fit, and job satisfaction) were entered in step 1. NS fit

and NS fit squared were entered in step 2. Depicted in Figure 3, the

unstandardized regression estimate for NS fit is negative and significant ($b = -$

.65, $t = -3.29$, $p < .05$, partial $R^2 = .05$), and the squared term for NS fit is positive

and significant ($b = .07$, $t = 3.13$, $p < .05$, partial $R^2 = .04$), indicting a negative

and significant curvilinear relationship between NS fit and task performance.

Whereas an increase in NS fit is associated with a decrease in task performance,

performance increases at higher levels of NS fit. Moreover, at moderate levels of

NS fit, lower levels of performance are observed than at either low or high levels

of NS fit.

Depicted in Figure 4, there is also a negative and significant curvilinear relationship between autonomy and task performance. Once again, the control variables (age, tenure, task conscientiousness, and impression management) and study variables (feedback, NS fit, DA fit, and job satisfaction) were entered in step 1, and autonomy and autonomy squared were entered in step 2. The unstandardized regression estimate for autonomy is negative and significant ($b =$ -.64, $t = $ -2.90, $p < .05$, partial $R^2 = .04$), and the squared term for autonomy is positive and significant ($b = .06$, $t = 2.56$, $p < .05$, partial $R^2 = .03$). Whereas an increase in autonomy is associated with a decrease in task performance, performance increases at higher levels of autonomy. Moreover, at moderate levels of autonomy, lower levels of performance are observed than at either low or high levels of autonomy.
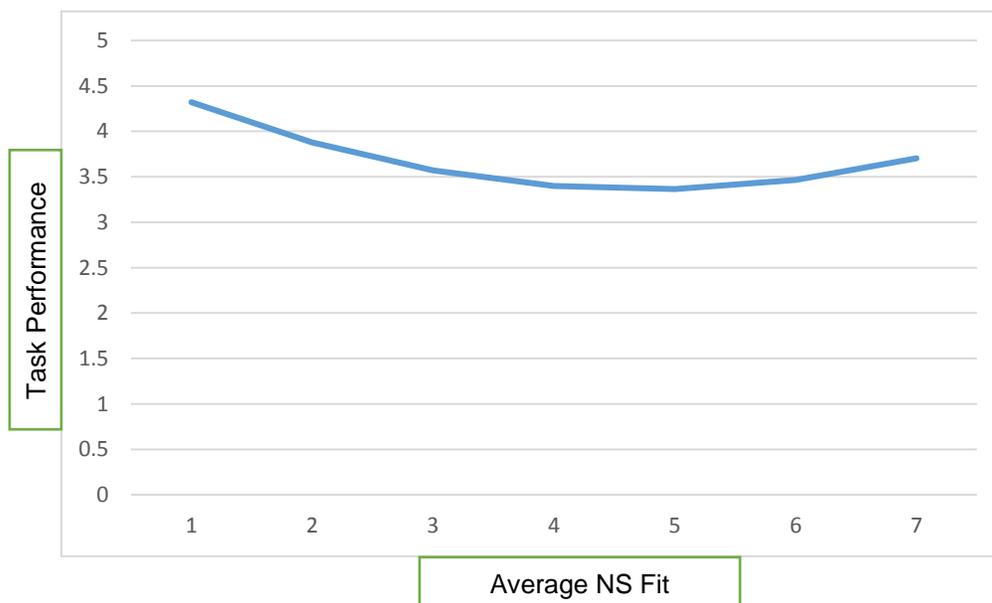
Figure 3. Curvilinear Relationship Between NS Fit and Performance
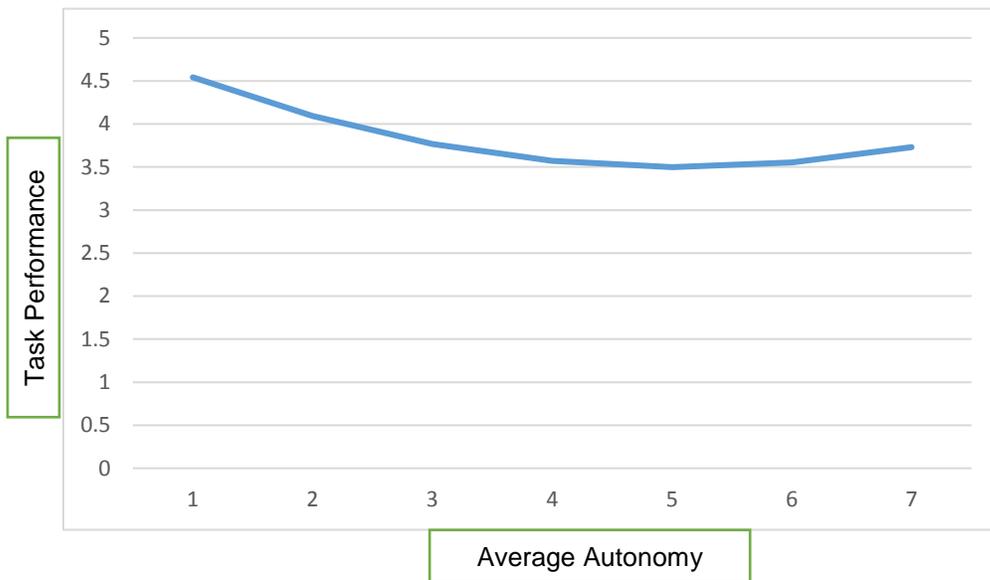
Figure 4. Curvilinear Relationship Between Autonomy and Performance

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to illustrate the unique and intervening

effect of job fit perceptions on employee attitudes and behavior, purely as a result

of the job. Accordingly, the researcher aimed to examine the relationship among

core job characteristics and resources, dimensions of PJ fit, and employee

satisfaction and performance. In general, the findings of this study suggest that it

may be possible to maintain a more satisfied and productive workforce by

offering greater autonomy and feedback to support job fit. The specific findings of

this study are organized and discussed in relation to outcomes of NS and DA fit,

outcomes of autonomy and feedback, antecedents of NS and DA fit, and indirect

effects of autonomy and feedback.

Outcomes of NS and DA fit

Consistent with the extant literature, NS fit positively predicted job

satisfaction and DA fit positively predicted task performance. These findings are

consistent with the notion that employees are more satisfied when their interests

and desires are accommodated by their job, and should perform better when

their KSAs met their job requirements (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009; Wang *et

al.*, 2011). Further, DA fit also positively predicted job satisfaction, but NS fit did

not also predict task performance. According to Edwards and Shipp (2007), DA

fit can increase satisfaction by increasing intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, whereas NS fit might be a more appropriate criterion for increasing contextual, rather than task performance. Nonetheless, these findings support the idea that NS fit is a more proximal determinant of job satisfaction, and task performance is a more proximal outcome of DA fit (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

On the relationship between NS fit and task performance, they were negatively and curvilinearly related such that performance was lower at moderate levels of NS fit than at either low or high levels of fit. Given that these findings are fairly ambiguous due to the lack of both theoretical and empirical backing, any conclusions concerning actual performance would be inappropriate. Instead, these findings suggest that self-reported performance ratings were biased and, thus, the researcher will interpret them in terms of the impact of fit perceptions on the response tendencies of survey takers. Relevant to this study, individuals may be inclined to bias their responses when they express either low or high self-esteem (Kernis, 2004). This is concerning because both NS fit and performance are linked to self-esteem (Bono, 2001; Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998).

Given that individuals with poor NS fit are typically less satisfied, more stressed, and have lower self-esteem (Edwards *et al*., 1998; Kristof-Brown *et al*., 2005), inflated performance ratings could serve a self-presentational purpose. Specifically, response tendencies of individuals with low self-esteem are less likely to reflect negativity than actual feelings of self-worth (Kernis, 2003). Furthermore, in line with both social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and

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self-affirmation theory (Steele, 1988), individuals are motivated to reaffirm their self-worth through more favorable social comparisons (Fein, Hoshino-Browne, Davies, & Spencer, 2003; Sherman & Cohen, 2006). Because performance judgements in this study were self-reported and socially comparative, responses from individuals with low self-esteem resulting from poor NS fit may have been biased via socially desirable responding. Likewise, Shaw and Gupta (2004) found that high perceived effectiveness attenuates the negative effects of misfit (conceptualized as supplies-values fit) on well-being. The authors argued that high job performance reduces the salience of perceived misfit because less cognitive attention is placed on the perceived misfit.

As NS fit becomes more balanced, however, affectivity and self-esteem should improve and thereby reduce the threat of poor performance on judgements of self-esteem. This proposition is supported in Figure 3 wherein performance ratings appear to remain relatively stable (ranging from approximately 3.4 to 3.5) across modest levels of NS fit (ratings between 3 and 5). Also shown in Figure 3, performance judgements were higher at moderate to high levels of NS fit. Whereas individuals with low self-esteem may bias their responses for self-presentational reasons, individuals with high self-esteem may overestimate their responses out of greater affirmational resources (Sherman & Cohen, 2006; Steele, Spencer, & Lynch, 1993).

Outcomes of Autonomy and Feedback

This study also yielded interesting findings regarding the relationship between autonomy and feedback and employee satisfaction and performance. In the context of the model, only autonomy had a meaningful impact on job satisfaction, which could suggest that feedback is a less proximal determinant of satisfaction when considered along with autonomy and job fit. Although both autonomy and feedback are important for fulfilling critical psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), and for preventing stress and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), employees typically prefer positive rather than negative feedback (Audia & Locke, 2003). Furthermore, while NS fit is arguable the most proximal antecedent to satisfaction (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005), research has shown that job satisfaction is also a more salient outcome of autonomy than feedback (e.g., Dodd & Ganster, 1996).

Moreover, neither autonomy nor feedback significantly predicted task performance. Presented in Figure 4, the relationship between autonomy and performance was nearly identical to the relationship between NS fit and performance. That is, performance was also lower at moderate levels of autonomy than at either low or high levels of autonomy. From a self-presentational perspective, given that autonomy was highly correlated with NS fit (r = .53) and has similar implications for self-esteem (e.g., Ryan & Deci, 2000), it makes sense that the relationship between autonomy and performance would be similar as the relationship between NS fit and performance.

Alternatively, findings could also be attributed to varying degrees of job complexity. For instance, autonomy is less beneficial for improving task performance when task interdependence is high, task variability is low, or when task formalization is high (Langfred & Moye, 2004). Likewise, using an experimental design, Dodd and Ganster (1996) found that autonomy had little impact on performance of participants in conditions where task variety was low. Moreover, post-hoc inspection of the descriptive information revealed that, on average, individuals with low autonomy (1 or 2 on the Likert scale) also reported receiving relatively high feedback ($M = 4.60$). As such, it could be the case that individuals who receive less work autonomy or, perhaps, occupy jobs that might naturally be less autonomous such as blue-collar jobs (Denton & Kleiman, 2001), must rely more heavily on other resources like feedback to support effectiveness. Conversely, when autonomy is high, Dodd and Ganster (1996) found that feedback has almost no effect on job performance.

Another interesting post-hoc discovery was that average tenure was lowest for individuals with moderate levels of autonomy ($M = 27.08$) than average tenure of individuals with low ($M = 62.23$) and high autonomy ($M = 41.47$). To a lesser extent, tenure varied in a similar fashion for different levels of feedback. That is, average tenure was also lowest for individuals with moderate levels of feedback ($M = 34.80$) than average tenure of individuals with low ($M = 40.45$) and high feedback ($M = 37.91$). Although tenure and performance weren't significantly related in this study, probably because skewed tenure and biased

performance ratings, it's intuitive to believe that performance should increase as job knowledge and competence increase over time. Nonetheless, research has shown that tenure has a strong, positive impact on task performance (e.g., Edwards, Bell, & Decuir, 2008).

Antecedents of NS and DA Fit

In terms of NS fit, both autonomy and feedback were associated with better fit. Characteristics and resources of autonomy and feedback are likely beneficial for improving NS fit because they support psychological need fulfillment (Van der Broeck *et al.*, 2008), and aide employee efforts to satisfy personal needs and desires. For instance, greater work schedule flexibility can reduce work-family conflict by allowing individuals to arrange their schedules such that they are more accommodating to their familial needs and obligations (Byron, 2005). Likewise, both autonomy and feedback aide career development and advancement by increasing employability (van Emmerik *et al.*, 2004).

Moreover, autonomy was a more powerful predictor of NS fit than feedback. Because NS fit includes the fit between individuals' desired job characteristics and those provided by their job (Chuang *et al.*, 2015; Kulik *et al.*, 1987), autonomy is likely a more desirable work characteristic. This is in line with SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) wherein autonomy is an important psychological need. Likewise, autonomy was assed here in terms of individuals' level of control over their work schedule and methods, as well as their freedom to obtain support from

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others; therefore, increasing autonomy in this study represents increasing

opportunities to explore personal interests, interact with coworkers, and satisfy

individual needs.

In terms of DA fit, only autonomy was associated with better fit, which

suggests that autonomy also produces more opportunities to improve upon work-

related skills and abilities than feedback. Likewise, autonomy is commonly

examined in the context of job design largely because it empowers employees

not only to try new tasks, but to master them (Morgeson, Klinger, & Hemingway,

2005). Moreover, whereas feedback was assessed here in terms of feedback

directly from the job and from others (i.e., coworkers and supervisors), feedback

is likely more beneficial for supporting DA fit when it's task-oriented. Furthermore,

Tims and Bakker (2010) offer discussion on how managers and supervisors can

provide tailored feedback to employees about their PJ fit.

Indirect Effects of Autonomy and Feedback

On the indirect effects of autonomy and feedback, both autonomy and

feedback were indirectly related to job satisfaction through job fit. As

hypothesized, higher levels of autonomy and feedback were associated with

higher levels of DA and NS fit and, in turn, predicted higher job satisfaction.

These findings indicate that autonomy increases satisfaction because it is a

highly-desired job characteristic that generates valuable opportunities to improve

both DA and NS fit. In contrast, feedback was only meaningfully related to job

satisfaction when its impact on both DA and NS fit were taken into consideration, which might suggest that only certain types of feedback are beneficial for increasing satisfaction by improving job fit. Given that positive feedback is preferable over negative feedback and can increase perceived competence (Gagne & Deci, 2005), individuals who receive more positive feedback should feel more capable and be more satisfied with their jobs.

Conversely, neither autonomy nor feedback were indirectly related to task performance through DA and NS fit. Although autonomy and feedback are instrumental for the acquisition and maintenance of pertinent job skills, employees could employ them for other, non-developmental, purposes as well. For instance, Demerouti, Bakker, and Halberson (2015) found that individuals in their study tended to self-report lower task performance, engagement, and emotional involvement on days when they set out to decrease their job demands. Conversely, engagement and effectiveness was typically higher when they, instead, aimed to increase their job demands. Furthermore, the findings of Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) suggest that DA fit might only influence performance to the extent that it instills a sense of competence. Likewise, autonomy and feedback might only indirectly impact performance to the extent that they're employed to increase challenge demands and perceived competence. Moreover, Tadic, Bakker, and Oerlemans (2014) found that job resources can indeed enhance the connection between challenge demands and positive employee affect and engagement.

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Summary of Findings

Prior to testing directional hypotheses, partial correlations among study variables were computed controlling for the effects of age, tenure, task conscientiousness, and impression management. As seen in Table 4, autonomy and feedback were moderately correlated ($r = .33$, $p < .05$). Likewise, NS and DA fit were also significantly correlated ($r = .58$, $p < .05$). In contrast, job satisfaction and task performance were not found to be related in this study ($r = .01$, $p = ns$). Furthermore, autonomy was significantly correlated with both NS fit ($r = .51$, $p < .05$) and DA fit ($r = .41$, $p < .05$), and with job satisfaction ($r = .56$, $p < .05$). To a lesser extent, feedback was also significantly correlated with NS fit ($r = .32$, $p < .05$), DA fit ($r = .24$, $p < .05$), and job satisfaction ($r = .31$, $p < .05$). Moreover, job satisfaction correlated the highest with NS fit ($r = .80$, $p < .05$), which is in line with the proposition that satisfaction judgements are based on how well a job fulfills one's needs (e.g., Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Similarly, task performance correlated the highest with DA fit ($r = .14$, $p < .05$). Overall, autonomy was found to be more strongly correlated with both job fit dimensions and job satisfaction in comparison to feedback.

In terms of the hypothesized direct effects, analyses revealed significant effects of both autonomy and feedback on job satisfaction. In addition, autonomy was found to be the stronger predictor, which is consistent with findings from meta-analyses and experimental studies concerning the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction (e.g., Fried & Ferris, 1987; Loher *et al.*, 1985).

Furthermore, autonomy was more strongly related to both DA and NS fit in comparison to feedback, which was only meaningfully related to NS fit. These findings suggest that autonomy might be a more highly desired job characteristic, potentially because it has a greater capacity to facilitate balance between individuals' needs and abilities, as well as the supplies and demands of their job; however, both characteristics support the personal needs and work interests of employees.

In regard to task performance, only DA fit was found to be meaningfully related, which supports the proposition that congruence between individuals' abilities and their job requirements is the most proximal antecedent to work effectiveness (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). Moreover, while the relationship between feedback and task performance was in the hypothesized direction, feedback accounted for less than 1% of the variance in performance. Given that autonomy was fairly high among study participants ($M = 4.95$), these findings are in line with the findings of Dodd and Ganster (1996) who concluded that feedback has little to no effect on performance when autonomy is high. Alternatively, the relationships between autonomy and performance and NS fit and performance were in the opposite direction than was hypothesized. For this reason, supplemental analyses were performed to investigate potential curvilinear associations.

Supplemental analyses revealed negative and significant curvilinear relationship between autonomy and performance, indicating that performance is

lowest at moderate levels of NS fit as well as moderate levels of autonomy. Given that performance was self-reported and both NS fit and autonomy are related to self-esteem, these findings could be attributed to the socially desirable responding of participants who may have been more inclined to provide inaccurate responses for self-presentational reasons, or because of overestimation of actual ability levels. Alternatively, it was found that tenure was highest amongst participants with low and high autonomy, which could suggest that their performance is already high because they have acquired pertinent job knowledge and skill over time and repetition.

In terms of the hypothesized indirect effects, analyses revealed significant indirect effects of autonomy and feedback on job satisfaction, indicating that both autonomy and feedback increase job fit and, in turn, increase job satisfaction. Furthermore, the combined direct and indirect effect of autonomy explained approximately 26% of the variance in satisfaction, whereas the total effect of feedback accounted for less than 2% of the variance. In regard to the former, these findings suggest that autonomy is not only a more proximal indicator of satisfaction than feedback, but also facilitates job fit at a higher capacity. In regard to the latter, feedback was not directly related to job satisfaction and was only meaningfully related to NS fit. Within the limits of this study, these findings could suggest that feedback is only beneficial for increasing satisfaction when it contributes to better NS fit, which could be a function of the feedback direction. Specifically, feedback that relays positive, rather than negative performance

information is more desirable and leads to more positive employee affect (Gagne & Deci, 2005). Likewise, positively framed feedback about one's job fit could be the most effective strategy for improving job fit (e.g., Tims & Bakker, 2010).

In contrast, analyses investigating the indirect effects of autonomy and feedback on task performance did not yield significant findings. These findings could suggest that autonomy and feedback are less beneficial for increasing work effectives by improving job fit when they're not utilized for the right reasons. On the one hand, employees are more engaged and content with their work when they have job resources to increase challenge demands (Tadic *et al.*, 2014). On the other hand, if employees utilize job resources to decrease their job demands instead, they're more likely to be less engaged and feel less effective (Demerouti *et al.*, 2015). Taken together, when autonomy and feedback are utilized to merely complete work tasks (e.g., to decrease job demands), they might arguably only prevent job fit from becoming worse rather than offering a means to achieve better DA and NS fit. Instead, they should be utilized more so for developmental purposes (e.g., to increase challenge demands) in order to provide job incumbents more opportunities to refine and develop their skillsets.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

There were several advantages of examining the unique relationships among variables, rather than using latent variables. First, by assessing the unique impact of autonomy and feedback on both DA and NS fit, the findings of

this study suggest that autonomy is a more effective resource than feedback for improving job fit. Consequently, this study also contributes to the limited body of research on antecedents of PJ fit (Li & Hung, 2010). Further, the seeming impact of job design on job fit warrants further consideration of PJ fit beyond recruitment and selection, which also reinforces the need to evaluate fit on an ongoing basis (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002).

Second, by assessing the unique impact of DA and NS fit on performance and satisfaction, the findings of this study offer additional support for the relative impact of DA and NS fit on employee attitudes and behavior (e.g., Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). However, while subjective fit is believed to be more closely related to actual employee attitude and behavior than objective fit (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005), the link between DA fit and actual performance has been fairly inconsistent across studies (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Taken with the findings of previous PJ fit studies that observed a meaningful relationship between job fit and performance using self-report measures (e.g., Li & Hung, 2010), the results of this study suggest that subjective fit is most appropriate for examining merely attitudinal or affective outcomes. When fit researchers are interested in behavioral outcomes, it might be more beneficial to evaluate employee behavior from a variety of perspectives (Strauss, 2005).

Third, the results of this study could be used as a basis for developing interventions to optimize employee job satisfaction by improving job fit. In terms

of organizational development, change is often necessary to improve efficiency or competitiveness. When change is expected to occur, organizational officials could consider increasing employee autonomy and feedback to maintain positive PJ fit throughout the change process. Offering resources to cope with organizational change should increase perceptions of managerial support and, thus, facilitate better PJ fit (Caldwell *et al.*, 2004).

The findings of this study might also be useful in the context of performance management. For instance, when an employee expresses dissatisfaction with their job, resources of autonomy and/or feedback could be included in employee personal development plans (PDP) to facilitate better DA and NS fit. Moreover, discussing and comparing self and supervisory evaluations of subordinate job fit during performance meetings could help to identify specific areas where fit can be improved, and devise goals accordingly. Moreover, Chuang *et al.*, (2015) offer an effective tool for evaluating all five PE fit dimensions (PJ fit, PG fit, PS fit, and PO fit).

Limitations

The present study had several limitations concerning sample characteristics and measurement. In terms of demographics, the sample consisted of mostly White and Hispanic women who attend college and have less than a Bachelor's degree. Because college students probably have less time to explore their career interests and develop their skillsets, they might not be fully

aware of their individual needs and abilities. While lack of heterogeneity in sample demographics may affect the generalizability of the findings of this study, the meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) found that average effect sizes among PJ fit studies on single-job types were fairly consistent with those obtained from multi-job studies, which could suggest that job fit is a fairly robust construct regardless of the context.

In terms of measurement, this study used all self-report measures. Although common method variance has shown to be less of a factor across studies of subjective PJ fit (e.g., Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005), self-report measures could have prompted more socially desirable responding. In particular, the low response variability and skewed distribution of performance suggests that ratings were likely biased and probably not representative of actual work effectiveness. In turn, potentially biased performance evaluations may have contributed to the lack of explanatory power regarding the hypothesized relationships involving performance.

Not accounting for varying levels of job complexity is another potential limitation of the present study. Specifically, employees in jobs that are less complex or less autonomous might experience autonomy and feedback differently and, thus, attach different meaning to them or use them differently. When a job is complex, incumbents might expect higher levels of autonomy and feedback and, understandably, could be more inclined to use these resources to lower their job demands, rather than increase challenge demands. In contrast,

when a job is less complex, incumbents might have more freedom to use their job resources for developmental purposes. In addition, individuals might place higher value on autonomy and feedback if they are less prevalent in their job.

Directions for Future Research

Given the above-mentioned limitations, it would be beneficial for future research to evaluate the circumstances under which autonomy and feedback are more beneficial for improving job fit. In particular, researchers should differentiate between positive and negative feedback to investigate whether positive feedback is indeed more strongly related to job fit. Further, the findings of this study might suggest that autonomy and feedback are more beneficial for job fit when they're employed to increase challenge demands rather than to decrease job demands. Similarly, it may also be fruitful to differentiate between subjective job demands (i.e., time pressures, role conflict) and objective job demands (i.e., overall workload, pace of work) because it could identify specific situations where job resources are useful for promoting job fit. Distinction could also be made in terms of internal demands (i.e., job requirements) versus external demands (i.e., commute, work-family balance). Conceptually at least, it makes sense that autonomy and feedback might be more effective for improving DA by balancing internal, rather than external demands, whereas for NS fit, maybe they're more effective for balancing external demands.

Future research could also examine the impact of autonomy and feedback on other types of fit. For instance, feedback might be more important for improving the fit between employees and their supervisor (Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005). Likewise, autonomy and feedback could improve PO fit by creating more opportunities for employees and organization members to communicate their values and goals. Furthermore, because different types of fit relate to work outcomes differently (Chuang *et al.*, 2015; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005), researchers should examine the direct and indirect effects of job characteristics and resources on other types of fit and their proximal outcomes. For example, researchers interested in studying the relationship between autonomy and feedback and PO fit may want to include outcomes that are germane to PO fit, such as organizational commitment and citizenship behaviors (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005).

To keep pace with the changing nature of jobs, future research should also examine other aspects of the work environment that can facilitate job fit. For starters, skill variety, task significance, and task identity are also fundamental characteristics of the job that could help balance job demands and, thus, influence DA fit (Kulik *et al.*, 1987). Because these characteristics reflect how meaningful the work is (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1976), however, they might be more closely related to NS fit than DA fit. Moreover, given that jobs today are largely influenced by information technology (Tadic, Bakker, & Orleans, 2014), which can affect the fit of individuals who are less technologically inclined,

researchers should identify resources to facilitate fit in contemporary work contexts. In particular, training programs and workshops on computer literacy could be employed either in-person or online to improve overall professional expertise and, thereby, improve PJ fit (Li & Hung, 2010).

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine whether job characteristics and resources might increase satisfaction and performance by improving job fit. Accordingly, the objective of the researcher was to initiate a framework for managing job fit on an ongoing basis. Although autonomy and feedback were not found to indirectly effect performance through DA and NS fit, potentially due their inability to increase perceived competence, there are several meaningful findings of this study. Specifically, autonomy and feedback were found to not only impact job fit directly, but indirectly influenced employee satisfaction by increasing job fit. Further, autonomy was shown to be a more powerful resource for promoting job fit and increasing satisfaction in comparison to feedback. In general, this study warrants consideration of autonomy and feedback in post-employment efforts to improve job fit, which this researcher believes should be a top priority for all organization officials.

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT

Community Sample

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Psychology
Informed Consent

This study is conducted by Andrew Montgomery, M.S. Industrial/Organizational Psychology Graduate Student, California State University, San Bernardino under the supervision of Dr. Ismael Diaz, Assistant Professor of Psychology at CSUSB. The study has been approved by the Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee of the California State University, San Bernardino, and a copy of the official Psychology IRB stamp of approval should appear on this consent form.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to assess the relationship between job characteristics and employee job fit.

Description of Research: Responses will be collected from participants concerning the amount of autonomy and feedback they receive, perceived job fit, task performance, and job satisfaction.

Duration: Responding to the questions on the survey will require between 10-20 minutes, and the full survey should take no more than 25 minutes at most.

Risks: Risk associated with this study is low and no more than would be encountered with daily activities. The nature of the questions are non-invasive.

Benefits: You will receive no direct benefits from this study.

Participation: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You can skip questions or withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. However, your full participation is important for advancing research on person-job fit.

Confidentiality: As no identifying information will be collected, your name cannot be connected with your responses and hence your data will remain completely anonymous.
Information from this study will only be presented at the group level with all identifying information removed.

Data Storage: Original responses will be stored on a password protected server via Qualtrix.

Results: A report of the study findings will be compiled and presented in a research paper which may be submitted for publication in a scientific journal. The data may also be presented at scientific conferences.

Contact: If you have any questions, comments, or concerns, the researcher, Andrew Montgomery, can be contacted at monta332@coyote.csusb.edu. If you have any further questions or concerns regarding this study, please feel free to contact Dr. Ismael Diaz at ismael.diaz@csusb.edu and/or the Department of Psychology IRB Subcommittee at Psych.irb@csusb.edu You may also contact the Human Subjects office at California State University, San Bernardino (909) 537-7588.

CONFIRMATION STATEMENT: I have read the information above and agree to participate.
By selecting the option to continue, I affirm that I understand the above information and that I am taking part in this study voluntarily with the option to end my participation at any time with no penalty or negative consequence for voluntarily ending my participation. I also acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age, and work at least 20 hours per week.

1.   I Agree
2.   I Decline

California State University		
Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee		
Approved	3/10/17 Void After	3/10/18
IBB #	H-17WI-20 Chair	

The California State University
Bakersfield • Channel Islands • Chico • Dominguez Hills • East Bay • Fresno • Fullerton • Humboldt • Long Beach • Los Angeles • Maritime Academy
Monterey Bay • Northridge • Pomona • Sacramento • San Bernardino • San Diego • San Francisco • San Jose • San Luis Obispo • San Marcos • Sonoma • Stanislaus

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences
Department of Psychology
Informed Consent

This study is conducted by Andrew Montgomery, M.S. Industrial/Organizational Psychology Graduate Student, California State University, San Bernardino under the supervision of Dr. Ismael Diaz, Assistant Professor of Psychology at CSUSB. The study has been approved by the Department of Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee of the California State University, San Bernardino, and a copy of the official Psychology IRB stamp of approval should appear on this consent form.

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Risks: Risk associated with this study is low and no more than would be encountered with daily activities. The nature of the questions are non-invasive.

Benefits: Respondents will earn SONA credit for completing this study.

Participation: Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You can skip questions or withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. However, your full participation is important for advancing research on person-job fit.

Confidentiality: As no identifying information will be collected, your name cannot be connected with your responses and hence your data will remain completely anonymous.
Information from this study will only be presented at the group level with all identifying information removed.

Data Storage: Original responses will be stored on a password protected server via Qualtrix.

Results: A report of the study findings will be compiled and presented in a research paper which may be submitted for publication in a scientific journal. The data may also be presented at scientific conferences.

Contact: If you have any questions, comments, or concerns, the researcher, Andrew Montgomery, can be contacted at monta332@coyote.csusb.edu. If you have any further questions or concerns regarding this study, please feel free to contact Dr. Ismael Diaz at ismael.diaz@csusb.edu and/or the Department of Psychology IRB Subcommittee at Psych.irb@csusb.edu You may also contact the Human Subjects office at California State University, San Bernardino (909) 537-7588.

CONFIRMATION STATEMENT: I have read the information above and agree to participate.
By selecting the option to continue, I affirm that I understand the above information and that I am taking part in this study voluntarily with the option to end my participation at any time with no penalty or negative consequence for voluntarily ending my participation. I also acknowledge that I am at least 18 years of age, and work at least 20 hours per week.

1. I Agree
2. I Decline

California State University Psychology Institutional Review Board Sub-Committee		
Approved	3/10/17 Void After	3/10/18
IBB #	H-17WI-20 Chair	

APPENDIX B

SCALES

Demographic Information

Gender:

> Male   Female

Age: _____

Ethnicity:

> Asian
> African American
> White/Caucasian
> Middle Eastern
> American Indian
> Hispanic/Latino
> Other

Job Type:

Which of the following options best reflects your current job? Please select only one.

> Customer service
> Administrative support
> Professional specialty
> Managerial
> Executive
> Technical
> Sales
> Intern
> Other

Tenure

How long have you worked at your current job?

Years_____

Months_____

Education Level:

Please choose the option that best describes your education level

       Less than High School
       High School Diploma
       Some College
       Associate or Vocational Degree
       Bachelors
       Master's (MA/MS)
       Professional degree (MD, JD)
       Doctorate (Ph.D./Ed.D.)

Careless Response Checks

The following items will be distributed throughout the survey to check for careless responding:

"If you are reading this item, please respond with Very Accurate".

"If you are reading this item, please respond with Strongly Disagree".

"If you are reading this item, please select Well Below Average".

Job Characteristics and Resources
(Morgensen & Humphrey, 2006)

Responses to the job characteristics items will be based on the following Likert Scale:

Not at All			Somewhat			Completely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Autonomy

1. The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work *a*
2. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work *b*
3. The job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work *c*
4. The job allows me to decide on the order in which things are done on the job *e*
5. I have freedom in my job to get to know other people
    -   Original item: I have the chance in my job to get to know other people *d*
6. I have the freedom to meet with others in my work
    -   Original item: I have the opportunity to meet with others in my work *d*

Feedback

1. I receive feedback on my performance from other people in my organization (such as my manager or coworkers) *e*
2. Other people in the organization, such as managers and coworkers, provide information about the effectiveness (e.g., quality and quantity) of my job performance *f*
3. After I finish a job, I know whether I have performed well *a*
4. Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing *b*

Taken or adapted from:

a Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987
b Hackman & Oldham, 1975
c Hackman & Oldham, 1980
d Sims, Szilagyi, & Keller, 1976
e Morgesen & Humphrey, 2006
f Campion & McClelland, 1991

PJ Fit 1
(Cable and DeRue, 2002)

Responses to the PJ fit items will be based on the following Likert Scale:

Not at All			Somewhat			Completely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Needs-Supplies Fit

1. There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job
2. The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job
3. The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job

Demands-Abilities Fit

1. The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills
2. My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job
3. My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me

PJ Fit 2
(Chuang, Shen, & Judge, 2015)

Responses to the PJ fit items will be based on the following Likert Scale:

No Match			Fair Match			Complete Match
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Items:

1. How would you describe the match between your professional skills, knowledge, and abilities and those required by your job?
2. How would you describe the match between your personality traits (e.g., extrovert vs introvert, agreeable vs disagreeable, and dependable vs undependable) and those required by your job?
3. How would you describe the match between your interests (e.g., social vs unsocial, artistic vs inartistic, and conventional vs unconventional) and what your job offers?
   a. *Original item*: How would you describe the match between your interests (e.g., social vs unsocial, artistic vs inartistic, and conventional vs unconventional) and those you desire for a job?
4. How would you describe the match between the characteristics of your current job (e.g., autonomy, feedback, and skill variety) and those you desire for a job?

Job Satisfaction
(Edwards & Rothbard, 1999)

Responses to the job satisfaction items will be based on the following Likert Scale:

Very Inaccurate			Neither Agree nor Disagree			Very Accurate
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Items:

1. All in all, the job I have is great
2. In general, I am satisfied with my job
3. My job is very enjoyable

Task Performance
(Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)

Responses to the task performance items will be based on the following Likert Scale:

Well below average			Average			Well above average
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Items:

1. Fulfills the responsibilities specified in the job description
2. Performs the tasks that are expected as part of the job
3. Meets performance expectations
4. Adequately completes responsibilities

Task Conscientiousness
(Johnson, 2001)

Responses to the task conscientiousness item will be based on the following Likert scale:

Needs Improvement			Satisfactory			Superior
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Item:

1. Shows persistence and expends extra effort to accomplish tasks even when conditions are difficult or deadlines are tight
2. Consistently takes the initiative to accomplish task objectives, even when the work is beyond stated requirements
3. Goes out of his/her way to develop own knowledge and skills by seeking out and volunteering for development and training opportunities

Original Item:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Needs Improvement		**Satisfactory**			**Superior**	
Works at a slow pace; does not put forth much effort to accomplish challenging tasks; often fails to meet work deadlines		*Generally puts forth sufficient effort to accomplish tasks; may have some problems meting tight deadlines*			*Shows persistence and expends extra effort to accomplish tasks even when conditions are difficult or deadlines are tight*	
Resists performing or even refuses to take on tasks that are not explicitly assigned		*Is usually willing when asked to take on an additional task beyond normal workload*			*Consistently takes the initiative to accomplish task objectives, even when the work is beyond stated requirements*	
Rarely takes the time to learn new things in training and development activities		*Engages in training and self-development activities when directed to or asked, but does not seek out such opportunities*			*goes out of his/her way to develop own knowledge and skills by seeking out and volunteering for training and development opportunities*	

Job-Focused Impression Management
(Bolino, Varela, Bande, & Turnley, 2006)

Responses to the impression management item will be based on the following Likert scale:

Never			Sometimes			Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Items
1. Try to make a positive event that I am responsible for appear better than it actually is
2. Play up the value of a positive event that I have taken credit for
3. Try to take responsibility for positive events, even when I am not solely responsible
4. Try to make a negative event that I am responsible for not appear as severe as it actually is to my supervisor
5. Arrive at work early in order to look good in front of my supervisor
6. Agree with my supervisor's major opinions outwardly even when I disagree inwardly Create the impression that I am a 'good' person to my supervisor
7. Work late at the office so that my supervisor will see my working late and think I am a hard worker

Self-Reported Accuracy Check

There are many reasons for completing a research study. At times, however, participants respond too quickly or do not read questions fully before responding, which results in data that complicates the scientific research. Do you feel that the responses that you have given were, at the time that they were given, your best effort to respond accurately? There is no penalty, or right/wrong answer.

1. Yes

2. No

APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

Human Subjects Review Board
Department of Psychology
California State University,

San Bernardino

PI: Montgomery, Andrew; Diaz, Ismael

From: John P. Clapper

Project Title: Impact of Job Characteristics and Resources on Person-Job Fit

Project ID: H-17WI-20

Date: 3/10/17

Disposition: Administrative Review

Your IRB proposal is approved to include 300 participants. If you need additional participants, an addendum will be required. This approval is valid until 3/10/18.

Good luck with your research!

_____

John P. Clapper, Co-Chair
Psychology IRB Sub-Committee

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