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PROXIMAL AND LONGITUDINAL OUTCOMES OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT: A POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH

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PROXIMAL AND LONGITUDINAL OUTCOMES OF PERSON-ENVIRONMENT
FIT: A POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL APPROACH

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Industrial-Organizational Psychology

by
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ABSTRACT

The current study proposed a model that incorporated a positive psychological approach into the person-environment fit domain. Within a longitudinal investigation, person-organization fit, person-job fit, and person-supervisor fit were examined in relationship to both organizational and employee outcomes through direct and indirect paths. Psychological empowerment and specific positive psychological states were examined as sequential moderators of the various proposed relationships. This study's sample consisted of 174 patient health care employees, excluding nurses and practitioners. In addition, supervisor ratings of performance were collected for the sole purposes of this study. Structural equation modeling techniques were used to test the proposed measurement and structural models. Results provided partial support for the proposed model, such that psychological empowerment, optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement in work were found to be proximal outcomes of needs-supply fit. In addition, through the process of sequential mediation, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to quit, and coworker/organizational support were found to be longitudinal outcomes of needs-supply fit.

This research highlights the importance of using a multi-dimensional approach to examining person-environment fit, as significant results were found for needs-supply fit, but not for demands-ability fit, person-organization fit, nor person-supervisor fit. The novel contributions of this study, as well as the implications of the results for practitioners, are discussed.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving husband and best friend, Brad. His continuous support and encouragement through end-less hours of work has given me the strength I've needed to forge ahead. Moreover, he has shared with me the many challenges and sacrifices that were made on the journey to my doctorate degree- he has always been my anchor through not only the hardships of this graduate career, but throughout the past ten years of my life. He always knows how to make me smile.

This dissertation is also dedicated to my father and mother who have been my role-models for hard work, persistence, and personal sacrifices. They have instilled in me the inspiration to set high goals for myself and the confidence to achieve them. I will be forever grateful for their unfailing providence and love throughout my life.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The application of positive psychology to the workplace can best be described as focusing on individual talent, recognizing and rewarding strengths, and helping employees find their niche in an organization where their skills and assets are admired and used. While much of the positive psychology literature has focused on implications for mental and physical health (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), less research and theory development have actually extended the positive psychology framework beyond that of human development and the examination of conditions under which individuals thrive. In fact, only a handful of researchers in the organizational field have pioneered the movement of positive psychology to the work arena (see Luthans, 2002a; Nelson & Simmons, 2003; Wright, 2003). Although an understanding of the ways to improve the human condition is imperative, it is equally important to be concerned with the development of positivity in the workplace, as the majority of individuals spend a great portion of their day working. This study aims to bring the application of positive psychology to the forefront in research on organizational behavior, and to better understand the relationships among positive psychological constructs in relation to person-environment fit at the employee and organizational level.

The positive psychology movement has flourished out of a reaction to what Wright and Cropanzano (2000) have coined the 'disease model.' Notably, the disease model was derived from a general positive psychology movement, which was unspecific to any discipline in psychology. In essence, the disease model concentrates on repairing

human damage brought about by the maladjustment of individuals (Wright, 2003). Similarly, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) note that psychologists today possess a vast amount of knowledge about the adverse conditions under which humans can endure; yet, psychologists have failed to understand the positive characteristics of individuals- what allows us to grow, mature, and develop. Thus, the aim of positive psychology has been to “catalyze a change in the focus of psychology from preoccupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities” (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 5).

Luthans (2002a, 2002b) has been a pioneer in applying the concept of positive psychology to benefit and develop organizational behavior (OB). In recognizing that the field of OB has been characterized by primarily focusing on the negative aspects of work (e.g. stress, burnout, deviant behavior, work-family conflict), Luthans (2002b) called for a positive organizational behavior (POB) approach to studying employees and their organizations. Hence, POB has been defined as “the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace” (Luthans, 2002a, p. 59). In an attempt to ward off the criticism that POB is similar to the personal development help-books sold to the general public, Luthans (2002a) requires three criteria to be met in order for research to be conceived under POB. First, research under POB must be relatively unique (e.g. studies focused on POB must make a novel contribution to the field and are encouraged to center around enhancing performance). Secondly, the concept under review must be measurable. Last, POB constructs should be

developmental in nature, thus implying that constructs under POB be state-like.

Operationalizing constructs under POB as state-like allows the concept to be open to learning, development, change, and management in the workplace (Luthans, 2002b), rather than the trait-like character or virtues Peterson and Seligman (2004) call for in positive psychology.

Some have deemed self-efficacy as the prototypical POB concept (Luthans, 2002a). In fact, Luthans (2002a) argues that self-efficacy best meets the criteria of valid measurement, performance enhancement, and ease of development in being a POB construct. In addition to self-efficacy, optimism and engagement are conceptualized to be additional constructs that meet the criteria set for POB. While most of these positive concepts have been shown to predict performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), job satisfaction (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), and goal expectancies (Wood, Mento, & Locke, 2001), little research has concentrated on what actually predicts these states- most research has treated the aforementioned constructs as antecedents, not proximal outcomes. However, it is likely that other concepts, such as person-environment fit, may promote the expansion of positive states that are conceptualized under POB.

The study of person-environment fit (P-E fit) has long focused on the congruence between individuals and some level of the environment (e.g. the organization, the group, the leader). While past research in this field has found a multitude of outcomes of high P-E Fit, such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005), or organizational citizenship behaviors (Comeau &

Griffith, 2005), researchers have yet to fully investigate the influence that P-E Fit could have on psychological empowerment at work and positive organizational states, such as optimism, engagement, and self-efficacy, and ultimately, the perceived retention of employees, increased performance, organizational identification, job satisfaction and overall employee well-being.

Given the large impact that various person-environment fit indices can have on employees, and ultimately, the organization, it is imperative to identify the proximal and distal outcomes of high perceived fit. The purpose of this research is to develop a model that illuminates the positive outcomes, such as psychological empowerment, and engagement in positive psychological states, and the distal organizational outcomes of perceived retention, increased performance, organizational identification, as well as distal individual outcomes, such as job satisfaction and well-being that come from high person-environment fit. In the remainder of the introduction, I explore the various P-E fit indices, such as person-organization fit (P-O Fit), person-job fit (P-J) Fit, and person-supervisor fit (P-S Fit), and describe how these fit indices likely predict psychological empowerment at work. Next, the construct of psychological empowerment is explored, as well as the established antecedents and outcomes of the construct. Third, I describe how the positive organizational states of optimism, engagement, and self-efficacy are likely to lead to beneficial individual (e.g. well-being and job satisfaction) and organizational outcomes (e.g. perceived retention, performance, and organizational commitment). I conclude by discussing the implications of the overall model and propose the hypotheses derived from this study.

Definition and Operationalization of Person-Environment Fit

P-E Fit has loosely been defined as the match between an individual and some specified work environment, such that the characteristics of each are compatible with one another (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). More specifically, Kristof (1996) argues that high P-E fit results when one of three criteria are met: (1) one entity, whether it be the person or some aspect of the work environment, provides what the other needs, (2) the person and the environment share similar characteristics, or (3) both of the aforementioned criteria are experienced.

French, Caplan, and Van Harrison (1982) argued that fit can be measured either objectively or subjectively. Subjective fit is the match between the person and the environment as perceived by the individual. Objective fit is the match between how an individual actually is and the environment as it exists independent of the individual's perceptions; thus, the comparison of the person and the environment need be reported by different sources in order to assess objective fit.

For example, Judge and Cable (1997) examined both objective and subjective P-O fit, which is the match between employee and organizational values. Objective P-O fit was assessed by first collecting data on applicants' cultural preferences (e.g. tolerance, working long hours, etc.) and then comparing this to the mean perception of an organization's culture across all job applicants. Objective fit could have also been assessed by comparing applicants' organizational value preferences to incumbents' ratings of the current cultural values. Subjective fit was assessed by having applicants rate their P-O fit regarding the perceived match between their own values, goals, and

personality and that of the organization's. Although Judge and Cable (1997) only examined the objective and subjective components of P-O fit, all fit indices can be assessed either objectively or subjectively. Past research in the area of P-E Fit has led us to conceptualize different forms of fit at various environmental levels. Most often, P-E Fit is used as an umbrella term, under which lie the various indices of fit; these types of fit are discussed next.

Overview and Past Research on Different Fit Concepts

In the following section I describe the various P-E fit indices and the research to date that has supported each of these indices. I first introduce person-vocation fit, and the pioneer studies which brought attention to the importance of matching individuals with a specific vocation. Person-group fit is discussed next, along with the implications of using group-level data to predict individual-level outcomes. The research on P-O fit is explored after that, with an emphasis on value congruence between an individual and the organization. P-J fit follows the discussion of P-O fit and explores the congruence between individuals' characteristics and the tasks or responsibilities of the job. Finally, P-S fit, the most recent fit dimension, is discussed and the implications for assessing the dyadic relationship between an employee and his/her supervisor. While person-vocation and person-group fit are vital to our understanding of the overall P-E fit constructs, this study strictly focuses on P-O fit, P-J fit, and P-S fit.

Person-Vocation Fit

In the 1970s, Holland (1973) made the first attempt to study P-E fit. Holland coined this construct "congruence." Holland (1973) argued that congruence is met when

an individual's personality type is matched with the correct environment; the overall purpose in proposing congruence theory was to assist persons in making vocational choices. Person-Vocation (P-V) Fit has been defined as the similarity between individuals' vocational interests and the careers that they choose (Holland, 1977). To illustrate this type of fit, imagine an individual with an artistic personality type. This individual would most likely experience poor P-V Fit if the vocation of interest did not involve some degree of creativity. Holland (1985) has used the RIASEC typology to match individuals' personality with a vocation in which fit would be high. The RIASEC is a tool used to assess individuals' personality types that describes individuals as having a Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, or Conventional typology. This personality information is then used to determine which type of environment an individual would best be suited for. For example, an individual with an artistic personality type is likely to require an environment in which he/she is able to be innovative and creative in work assignments. Additionally, this individual may fit well within a vocation that demands imagination and artistic or musical accomplishment. Sample vocations in which an individual with an artistic personality type would fit best are musicians or interior designers. Because personality is likely to remain stable over time, Holland argued that vocational aspirations, which are likely to be based upon personality types, are likely to stay consistent over time. Indeed, McLaughlin and Tiedeman (1974) found that the vocational aspirations of high school students predicted their occupation eleven years later.

Person-Group Fit

The compatibility between individuals and their work groups has been deemed Person-Group (P-G) Fit, or often, Person-Team (P-T) Fit (Kristof, 1996). Work groups can range in number from a few immediate coworkers to an entire department. While most of the research on P-G Fit has concentrated on the compatibility of personality traits between team members, a handful of studies have examined fit in accordance with goal characteristics or values within a group (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Of all the different P-E Fit indices, P-G Fit has recently received the most interest in the literature. Studies examining P-G Fit can be divided into two distinct domains. Studies which aggregate team members' fit to the group level exclusively predict unit-level outcomes, rather than individual-level criteria, which has been suggested by Kristof (1996) as the level of criteria to be examined when researching fit congruence. For example, Ostroff and Rothausen (1997) examined the effect that tenure had on the relationship between teachers' personal orientation and their school culture (e.g. autonomy, structure, cooperation) at both the individual and group level. The authors found that tenure failed to moderate the relationship between individual teachers' personal orientation and the organizational climate at the individual level. However, in using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM), the authors found the moderating effect of tenure on culture and personal orientation at the aggregated group level was significant concerning the cultural dimensions of participation, cooperation, warmth, and structure. The results of this study suggested that teachers with longer tenure generally fit the school culture better than teachers with shorter tenure, but only when analyses were conducted at the group level.

Additionally, Vancouver, Millsap, and Peters (1994) examined data from school principals and teachers across 364 senior high schools using HLM to test for individual and group-level organizational goal congruence on individual attitudes. The authors found that the more teachers agreed with the principal regarding school goals, the more positive were the teacher attitudes (i.e. satisfaction, commitment, and intentions to quit). Thus, the relationship between supervisor and subordinate goal congruence was positively related to teacher attitudes. Furthermore, the authors found that group-level organizational goal congruence was positively related to individual job satisfaction and organizational commitment over and above the effects of individual-level organizational goal congruence. Hence, because research aggregating group members' fit has found outcomes independent of research on individual-level outcomes, researchers and practitioners need to be encouraged and cognizant of the need to differentiate individual versus group-level outcomes.

Although the two aforementioned types of P-E fit are worth mentioning and deserve attention in the literature, they are fit indices that are usually only measured with a certain population. For example, P-V fit is most beneficial as a measure of fit when individuals are unsure of a career path. Individuals applying to college may choose to know their P-V fit with certain occupations before declaring a major. Additionally, the measurement of P-G fit implies that an employee works with a team or work group. Although it is likely that most employees do work within an organizational department or division, measures of P-G fit operationalized at the departmental or divisional level may lead to results different from P-G fit operationalized as a work-group. Thus, because not

all employees have work responsibilities or tasks that require them to work within a team, research examining P-G congruence is limited. However, other fit indices, such as P-O fit, P-J fit, and P-S fit are able to be examined across a variety of employees; the definitions and expected outcomes of these fit indices are discussed next.

Person-Organization Fit

P-O Fit assesses the compatibility between an individual and the organization in which he or she works (Kristof, 1996). Early research examining P-O fit focused on the degree of equivalence between employees' personality and the organizational climate in which they worked (see Tom, 1971). The seminal work of Chatman (1989) operationalized P-O fit as the congruence between employee and organizational values. In accordance with this operationalization, Chatman and colleagues developed the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP), which is a values-based instrument that can be used in a selection setting to see if applicants' values are compatible with organizational values (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). It is important to note that not all values matching is done so on a positive or desirable basis. In fact, it is most likely equally important that both parties do NOT value the same elements, as much as they do value the same elements. The OCP utilizes a Q-sort methodology, or template-matching approach, to assess person-environment interactions. The Q-sort methodology is an approach that assesses the configuration and salience of certain variables within a person, rather than on the comparison across individuals for each variable. The OCP is comprised of 54 value statements that are used to capture both organizational and individual preferred values. Generally, subject matter experts (SMEs) who are familiar

with an organizational culture will initially sort the 54 value statements using forced distribution (e.g. distributing the value statements into a high or low category) regarding the extent to which each value is descriptive of the organization; this comprises the organization's cultural profile. Job applicants are also asked to sort the 54 value statements, but in regards to the values they would wish to find in their ideal organization. Applicants' receive a P-O fit score that is a correlation of their individual preference profile with that of the organization's. In validating the OCP, researchers found that P-O fit predicted job satisfaction and organizational commitment one year after fit was assessed, and turnover two years after fit was assessed. Due to the influential work of Chatman (1989) and the subsequent validation of the OCP, most research today examining P-O fit operationalizes the construct as value congruence.

Considering employee attitudes, P-O fit has most often been analyzed in relation with job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In using meta-analytic techniques, Verquer, Beehr, and Wagner (2003) found across 21 P-O fit studies that when P-O fit was operationalized as the congruence between individual's values and organizational values, P-O fit was more strongly related to employee satisfaction and organizational commitment than it was when P-O fit was operationalized as non-value congruence (e.g. personality or goal congruence). Furthermore, Westerman and Cyr (2004) found the relationship between P-O fit and job satisfaction to only be significant when P-O fit was operationalized as either values-congruence, or as needs-supplies congruence (i.e. an individual's needs and desires are met by the organization, or the organization's demands are met by an individual's skills and abilities)- not personality congruence. A similar

relationship was found between P-O fit and organizational commitment. However, when P-O fit was operationalized as either of the three definitions (e.g. value, personality, or goal congruence), P-O fit was found to be significantly related to intentions to remain with the employer, although the effect was commonly mediated by job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Westerman & Cyr, 2004).

In a longitudinal investigation of employee perceptions of P-O fit and organizational outcomes, Saks and Ashforth (1997) found P-O fit to be negatively related to intentions to quit and turnover ten months after employees were hired. However, it is worth noting that Saks and Ashforth (1997) failed to operationalize fit in any manner suggested by Kristof (1996), such as value or goal congruence. Instead, perceptions of fit were measured by the extent to which participants felt their new organization matched their expectations of the organization they had hoped to be hired by. Hence, if Saks and Ashforth (1997) would have operationalized fit as either values-congruence or goal-congruence, correlations of P-O fit with work outcomes may have been stronger and relations of P-O fit with additional organizational outcomes (e.g. organizational identification and commitment) may have shown to be significant.

Concerning the outcomes of P-O misfit within the occupational health field, one of the largest correlates found with a lack of P-O fit is strain. Cooper, Dewe, and O'Driscoll (2001) have defined strain to be “an individual’s psychological, physical, and behavioral responses to stressors” (p. 14). Van Harrison (1985) has argued that psychological, physiological, and behavioral strain can all be experienced by an individual when a poor fit is perceived. In fact, Van Harrison (1978, 1985) argued that as

insufficient goal supplies increase for a particular motive (i.e. a poor fit), so should strain. This relationship is hypothesized to be curvilinear when excess supplies for one motive result in deficient supplies for another motive (i.e. strain is high when resources or supplies are insufficient for one motive, and over-sufficient for another motive) (Van Harrison, 1978). As one can see, although high P-O fit can be related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and lower intentions to quit, a poor P-O fit can have negative consequences on individuals.

Person-Job Fit

Person-Job (P-J) Fit has been conceptualized as a fit between the characteristics of a person and the tasks or responsibilities that the individual is expected to accomplish in exchange for employment (Kristof, 1996). Two basic conceptualizations of P-J fit have been proposed by Edwards (1991). The first form emphasizes a demands-ability (D-A) fit, in which the demands of a job (e.g. requirements concerning knowledge, skill level, etc.) are met by an employee's knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAOs). The second conceptualization addresses P-J fit as the match between an employee's needs, desires, and preferences, and how these needs are met by the job performed; this type of fit is referred to as needs-supplies (N-S) fit, or occasionally, supplies-values (S-V) fit.

P-J Fit is often erroneously used interchangeably with P-O fit. However, Kristof (1996) points out that although job characteristics are likely to mirror aspects of the organization, the two concepts are distinct elements of the work environment. Non-

significant correlations between measures of P-J Fit and P-O Fit have also been found (O'Reilly, et al., 1991).

Not surprisingly, P-J fit has shown to be related to many of the outcomes that P-O fit is related to (i.e. job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to leave). However, P-J fit may be more likely to have stronger relationships with performance than P-O fit. For example, P-J fit has been shown to have a .20 correlation with performance, while P-O fit only had a .07 relationship (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In addition to performance, P-J fit may also show evidence of being more strongly related to certain attitudinal outcomes. For example, P-J fit has been shown to have a stronger relationship with job satisfaction than P-O fit (Kristof-Brown, 2005). Furthermore, Saks and Ashforth (1997) found that with a sample of job applicants, perceived P-J fit was related to self-esteem, where as perceived P-O fit was not. P-J fit was also shown to be related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment and identification, and stress symptoms, where as P-O fit was not. However, in using meta-analytic techniques across 172 studies, Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) have found that P-O fit is related to these outcomes as well.

Person-Supervisor Fit

Most research in the P-E fit field has explored the relationships of P-O and P-J fit. Yet, scant research has examined the impact of fit with supervisors. While Person-Person Fit assesses the dyadic relationship between an individual and others within an employment setting, Person-Supervisor Fit (P-S) is the only type of fit in which the dyadic relationship between employees and their supervisors is investigated (Kristof-

Brown, et al., 2005). Within this form of fit, the supervisor's characteristics represent the level of the environment in which fit is perceived. Past research has examined P-S fit through supervisor-subordinate value congruence, goal congruence, and personality similarity (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005). Similarly, the concept of leader member exchange (LMX; see Graen, 1976) also highlights the dyadic relationship between supervisors and subordinates. However, while LMX focuses on the overall relationship that develops between a supervisor and subordinate, P-S Fit examines the underlying values and goals that are shared between a supervisor and subordinate (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). For example, Witt (1998) found that among nearly 1000 employees across five organizations, supervisor-subordinate goal-congruence moderated the relationship between organizational politics and organizational commitment, such that of those employees who held similar goals as their supervisor, organizational politics had little impact on organizational commitment. Or stated another way, employees who hold different goals than that of their supervisors' may be impacted by politics more, such that their organizational commitment is impacted. A similar moderated finding was also found between organizational politics and employee performance.

As previously mentioned, the majority of the work in the P-E fit domain has concentrated on the relationships of P-J and P-O fit with hypothesized outcomes. Minimal research has explored the dimension of P-S fit and the likely consequences. In fact, most studies in which P-S fit is claimed to have been assessed are actually studies of LMX. Although LMX has been shown to be related to P-S fit ($r = .43$), they are distinct concepts. For example, LMX focuses on the relationships between leaders and their

subsequent followers, not strictly on the dyadic fit based upon similar characteristics (e.g. values, goals) as P-S fit does (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

In a study using college students, Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins (1991) found that congruence between participant's rated values and participants' perceived values of a leader were related to higher anticipated satisfaction with the leader. However, this study assessed anticipated P-S fit with college students who rated the values of a leader by watching interactions of a video-taped leader with his/her followers. Furthermore, Meglino et al. (1991) measured P-S fit by correlating participant's own values with that of participants' ratings of a leader's values they had watched. In order to better assess P-S fit, Meglino et al. (1991) should have used ratings of leaders' values that participants had actually interacted with, not ratings of leaders' values derived from watching a video of leader's behaviors. In fact, even in her meta-analysis examining P-S fit, Kristof-Brown, et al. (2005) used studies examining transformational leadership, LMX, supervisor-subordinate personality similarity, and supervisor-subordinate goal and value similarity. Although some of these studies are likely to have measured P-S fit, none of them explicitly stated they were examining the dimension of P-S fit.

It should be noted that in addition to distinguishing among the various forms of fit, these P-E fit indices themselves can be conceptualized from different perspectives. In their seminal work on P-E congruence, Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) noted that while research has conceptualized P-E fit as the match between an individual and some aspect of the environment, the notion of what constitutes a 'match' is ambiguous. Thus, in an attempt to better conceptualize P-E fit, they proposed fit be examined from two

conceptualizations: complementary and supplementary fit. Supplementary fit occurs when an individual has characteristics similar to others in the environment. For example, when an employee's KSAOs are comparable or supplement others' KSAOs within an organization, supplementary fit is likely to be high. In contrast, complementary fit is operationalized as one entity (whether it be the person or the environment) possessing characteristics that add to the organization to make it whole. In viewing supplementary fit in this regard, both D-A fit (e.g. an employee's KSAOs meet the demands of the environment) and N-S (e.g. an employee's needs are supplied or fulfilled by the environment) fit are included. Because both D-A and N-S fit are elements of the P-J fit literature, much of the work which has been done with supplementary fit has dominated the P-J fit domain. Likewise, supplementary fit has been researched in accordance with other P-E fit indices, such as P-O and P-G fit.

Understudied Areas in the Person-Environment Fit Domain

Although much research has led to a better understanding of the dimensions and outcomes of P-E fit, there still exists a lack of research devoted to certain areas within P-E fit. For example, little research has explored how the various independent types of fit, such as P-O, P-J, and P-S fit, may relate to outcomes differently within the same study, or how N-S and D-A fit may differentially predict real-world employee performance. In addition, research is lacking on incumbents' views of fit because a good portion of the research examining employee perceptions of fit has used job applicants or new hires. Finally, although research has begun to explore how different variables may affect the relationship between fit and outcomes, little of this research has explored any mediating

affects; most research has concentrated on the moderating effects of different variables on fit and its consequences. In the following section, I aim to address each of these understudied areas within P-E fit and then explain how the present study will attempt to contribute to the overall field of P-E fit by filling in these gaps.

Surprisingly, little research has examined a multi-dimensional approach to fit, despite the consensus that multiple indices of fit exist (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Saks and Ashforth (2002) examined job applicants' job search in relation to P-O and P-J fit, and organizational outcomes post-hire. The authors found that job search behavior and career planning were positively related to perceived pre-entry P-J and P-O fit. Furthermore, post-entry P-J and P-O fit were both significantly related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational identification, and intentions to quit. However, in their study, P-J fit was measured as an overall dimension; the P-J fit construct was not broken down via the sub-dimensions of N-S and D-A fit, which may have provided different findings. A study conducted by Cable and DeRue (2002) explored a three-dimensional model of fit that assessed employees' perceptions of N-S, D-A fit, and P-O fit. The authors found support for a three factor model of fit, such that both discriminant and convergent validity were found across two independent samples. Furthermore, significant outcomes of P-O fit were more organization focused, such as organizational identification and citizenship behaviors. However, the significant outcomes of N-S fit contained more of an individual focus, such as job and career satisfaction. While D-A fit emerged as a unique factor in this study, the hypothesized outcomes (e.g. job performance and raises) were not found to be related to perceptions of

D-A fit. Although this study is unique in that it explored a multi-dimensional approach to P-E fit, the fit indices examined were only concerned with P-O and the two dimensions of P-J fit; the authors failed to incorporate other indices of fit, such as P-S or P-G, which may have provided further support for discriminant and convergent validity, and as a result, construct validity. As previously mentioned, most of the research that has been described as P-S fit is actually research examining transformational leadership or LMX. There has been no published study to my knowledge that has explicitly operationalized the congruence between person and supervisor values as P-S fit, let alone examine this variable in conjunction with other P-E fit indices. However, my study is novel in that it aims to assess three indices of P-E fit simultaneously.

Additionally, past research examining P-J fit has rarely included both measures of N-S and D-A fit. In fact, the only research I am aware of that has explored both sub-dimensions of P-J fit is the study conducted by Cable and DeRue (2002), as well as a study conducted by Choi (2004) that examined the effects of N-S and D-A fit on creative behavior and context satisfaction. As previously mentioned, Cable and DeRue (2002) found that after controlling for P-O and D-A fit, N-S fit was related to job satisfaction ($B = .45, p < .05$), career satisfaction ($B = .34, p < .05$), and occupational commitment ($B = .35, p < .05$). Furthermore, D-A fit was found to be unrelated to any of the hypothesized outcomes (e.g. occupational commitment, job performance, pay raises) after controlling for P-O and N-S fit. The correlation between perceived N-S and D-A fit was $.53 (p < .05)$, suggesting that employees perceived D-A and N-S fit to be related, but distinct dimensions. The study conducted by Choi (2004) utilized undergraduate students as its

sample and found N-S fit to be predictive of course satisfaction ($B = .22, p < .05$), and D-A fit to be predictive of self-rated creative behavior ($B = .38, p < .05$), as well as instructor-rated creative behavior ($B = .43, p < .05$). My study contributes to the P-E fit field in that it provides insight as to how employees may conceptualize the distinct sub-dimensions of P-J fit and how these sub-dimensions may differentially predict real-world employee performance.

Most of the past research in the P-E fit domain has focused on job applicants' or new hires' perceptions of fit, rather than incumbents' fit perceptions. For example, Cable and Judge (1996) examined job seekers and newcomers perceptions of P-O and P-J fit (conceptualized as D-A) as predictors of job choice intentions, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Additionally, Saks and Ashforth (1997) examined job applicants' P-J and P-O fit before finding a job and four and ten months after participants accepted a job. The authors found that perceptions of P-J and P-O fit were significantly related to the number of formal job information sources, and P-J fit alone was related to self-esteem. However, Lauver and Kristof-Brown (2001) examined incumbents' perceptions of P-O and P-J fit in relation to job satisfaction and intentions to quit. Results revealed that the two types of fit were weakly related to each other ($r = .18$) and both P-E fit indices were related to job satisfaction and intentions to quit, although P-O fit was a stronger predictor of intentions to quit. Because applicants' perceptions of fit may change once individuals have been immersed in a job for a period of time, it is important to examine incumbents' perceptions of fit and how these perceptions affect proximal and distal outcomes. It is likely that applicants' perceptions of how they would fit with an

organization, a job, and their supervisor will be different from incumbents' perceptions. Thus, similar to Lauver and Kristof-Brown's (2001) study, my study is unique in that it contributes to the research on incumbents' perceptions of fit, rather than job applicants' or newcomers' perceptions.

A handful of P-E fit studies have begun examining the individual and situational characteristics that moderate the relationship between P-E fit and outcomes. For example, Shaw and Gupta (2004) examined how job performance may act as a moderator of the N-S fit relationship with depression and somatic complaints. The authors found that misfit regarding N-S is related to lower depression and somatic complaints when job performance is low; however, when job performance is high, this relationship is attenuated. Furthermore, Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) suggested that future research in the P-E fit domain concentrate on additional personal and environmental characteristics that may act as moderators of the fit-outcome relationships. Although it is important to fully examine these potential moderators, it is equally essential to examine the effect of mediators of the relationships of fit and specific outcomes. Yet, I have failed to find any research that examines the effect of mediators between any fit construct with either individual or organizational outcomes. This is surprising given the vast amount of research on fit and organizational and individual outcomes. I argue that P-E fit is related to perceived stress, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to quit, and performance through the mediating effects of psychological empowerment and positive psychological states (PPSs). The likely proximal outcome of psychological empowerment and its relationship to the P-E fit indices are discussed next.

Psychological Empowerment

There has been a growing interest since the 1990s on the construct of empowerment. In their seminal work on the empowerment process, Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment as the motivational component of self-efficacy. More specifically, they argued that empowerment is “a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information” (p. 474). However, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argued that empowerment is a multifaceted construct, and not exclusively feelings of self-efficacy. In building on Conger and Kanungo’s (1988) early definition of empowerment, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) proposed that intrinsic task motivation forms the basis of empowerment and that four cognitions (i.e. task assessments) are manifested to comprise the overall construct (i.e. meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact). In taking Thomas and Velthouse’s work a step further, Spreitzer (1995) addressed psychological empowerment as it is conceived in the workplace. While utilizing Thomas and Velthouse’s (1990) multifaceted definition of empowerment, Spreitzer defined meaning as the significance of a work purpose or goal, judged in relation to one’s own standards. Competence is viewed as beliefs about one’s own capability to perform a given work task or role. The choice, or autonomy, to initiate work behaviors and processes is conceptualized as self-determination. Last, impact is seen as the influence one has on operation, strategic, and administrative procedures at work.

Psychological empowerment is treated as a set of cognitions that is created by the work environment; the construct is not seen as a consistent personality trait that would be generalizable across different situations (Spreitzer, 1995). Furthermore, empowerment should not be treated as a dichotomous variable- individuals should be viewed as having more or less empowerment, given the impact of the work environment on a set of cognitions. Last, the construct is specific to the work domain only. Psychological empowerment is not a global construct, such as how self-efficacy and well-being are often treated.

In order to assess the construct validity of psychological empowerment, Spreitzer (1995) created a psychological empowerment scale which consists of items tapping into each of the sub-dimensions detailed above. Nearly 400 managers that represented all functions, divisions, and geographic locations of a Fortune 50 organization were used in the study. The methodology to test the empowerment scale consisted of using second-order CFAs in order to assess convergent and discriminant validity, as well as to test the relationship of the four dimensions to the overall empowerment construct. Results showed that items strongly loaded on each of the appropriate factors, and that the four factors were significantly correlated with each other. This study was valuable in initially showing that there is convergent and discriminant validity among the empowerment facets, and thus, the construct validity of psychological empowerment.

In using structural equation modeling to test the antecedents of psychological empowerment, Spreitzer (1995) found that self-esteem, access to information about an organization's mission and performance of a work unit, and individual rewards were

significantly related to empowerment. These findings are not surprising given that employees with high self-esteem may be more likely to see themselves as valuable resources to the organization, and thus, be empowered to make an impact on the organization. Furthermore, access to information provides employees with a sense of responsibility to make and influence decisions. Individual rewards are also likely seen as empowering because they provide employees with incentives to affect organizational decision making processes.

Considering the outcomes of empowerment, Spreitzer (1995) found performance effectiveness and innovation to be significant consequences of empowerment. Thus, the more employees view themselves as competent and feel that they can impact their work environment in a meaningful way, the more likely they are to be effective in their work role. Furthermore, empowered employees are likely to believe that they have autonomy and are less constrained by organizational rules and regulations, and are thus more apt to be innovative in their behavior.

While Gernalis and Terziovski (2003) failed to use the empowerment measure developed by Spreitzer (1995), they did create a measure assessing employee autonomy, access to information and resources, as well as involvement practices, which are similar to the facets assessed in Spreitzer's (1995) measure. Gernalis and Terziovski (2003) found that empowerment was related to employee well-being in a sample of Australian bankers. Additionally, in using Spreitzer's (1995) empowerment scale, Hochwalder and Brucefors (2005) found that within a study sample of 2000 nurses, empowerment was significantly related to ill health, which was comprised of general mental health, burnout, and sick

leave. Furthermore, empowerment was shown to explain 2-18 percent of the variance in ill health, with meaning and competence contributing to the most variance.

Psychological Empowerment and P-E Fit

Research thus far has shown strong support for the multifaceted construct of empowerment and its relation to positive individual and organizational outcomes. Based on what we know about psychological empowerment thus far, it is likely that P-O fit will be related to psychological empowerment, such that those who share and hold the same values as their organization ought to feel that they hold more meaning and impact within the organization due to similar value interests. For example, if an organization's values are based upon teamwork, integrity, and customer value, and employees share the same values by consistently helping coworkers, being honest at work, and treating customers with respect, employees are likely to experience P-O fit. The perception of P-O fit based upon value congruence is likely to be related to the facet of meaning, such that employees who are given a task at work find meaning and purpose in their work because they understand the values that drive their work assignments. An employee who shares the organization's value of customer care is more likely to find meaning in their work when dealing with customers than employees who fail to share the same organizational value. Similarly, employees are more likely to feel as if they have an impact on their department or organization when they share the same values as their organization because they believe in and understand the values that drive decision-making in the organization. For example, if a new policy is implemented in the workplace to improve customer service, the employees who share the organization's value of customer care should be more likely

to carry out and implement the new policy than others, and as a result, feel like they have a greater impact in their organization. The facets of meaning and impact are more likely to be related to P-O fit than competence and self-determination, given that the later sub-dimensions generally deal with work tasks, rather than an overall work purpose or goal that is usually driven by organizational values.

Similarly, it is likely that P-S fit will be related to psychological empowerment, given that employees who share and hold the same values as their supervisor ought to feel more competent and self-determined, due to similar value interests. For example, if a supervisor holds the values of employee autonomy and positive feedback, employees who share the same values by feeling like they have independence in how their work gets done and accept and give recognition to coworkers, are likely to experience a P-S fit. The perception of P-S fit based upon value congruence is likely to be related to the facet of competence, such that employees who are given work assignments by their supervisor are likely to feel self-assured about their capabilities to perform those work tasks if they agree with their supervisor's values that drive work assignment and leadership within a department. Furthermore, employees who experience a P-S fit should be more likely to experience the facet of self-determination over other employees who lack P-S congruence. For example, if a supervisor values and understands the significance of autonomy and conveys this to his/her employees, those employees who share and agree with the value of autonomy should believe that they have the choice and determination to carry out their work tasks as they see fit, as long as the job is done correctly. Employees are likely to be more motivated to perform a given work task and feel competent about

doing it when they feel like the values that drive their behaviors are shared by their supervisor. Therefore, it is likely that value congruence among a supervisor and employee will be significantly related to competence and self-determination in the workplace. Competence and self-determination are cognitions generally driven by work tasks or assignments, which are usually handed down from the supervisor and should reflect the supervisor's values. As a result, P-S fit is more likely to be related to the facets of competence and self-determination, rather than meaning and impact, which are assumed to be driven by organizational goals and values.

From a N-S perspective, P-J fit is also likely to be related to psychological empowerment given that employees are likely to feel competent and self-determined when the organization supplies them with what they need in order to perform their job. For example, employees are likely to experience N-S fit when they feel that the attributes of their current job are what they need and would find in an 'ideal job.' As a result, employees are likely to be competent about performing their job, as well as feel autonomy and independence in how they get their job done when they are supplied with the means to do so (i.e. N-S fit). From a D-A perspective, psychological empowerment is likely to be an outcome of P-J fit, such that when employees feel that they the skills and abilities necessary to meet the demands of the job, they should be more likely to assume they have the capabilities to perform their job (i.e. competence) and independence in how the job is performed (i.e. self-determination). Employees who feel that their abilities and education provide them with a good match in order to meet the demands of the job are likely to be more competent and determined in performing their job. It is likely that both

N-S and D-A fit will have a stronger relationship with competence and self-determination than meaning and impact because the former facets are more job-specific, rather than at the level of the organization.

Concerning the outcomes of psychological empowerment, the research to date has focused primarily on distal outcomes, such as organizational performance and well-being. It is likely that proximal outcomes are related to psychological empowerment as well, specifically positive psychological states (PPSs) that are likely to be induced by empowerment. The PPSs that are likely to be proximal outcomes of psychological empowerment are addressed next.

Positive Psychological States

Within the following section, I will discuss three positive psychological states that are likely to result from psychological empowerment. The first PPS addressed is optimism, which has often been called the heart of POB research (Luthans, 2002a). Self-efficacy and the antecedents and outcomes of such are discussed next. Last, I will address the construct of engagement at work and the implications of engagement on performance. Throughout the exploration of each of these PPSs, I will address how psychological empowerment is likely to be related to each.

Optimism

In their seminal work, Scheier and Carver (1985) defined optimism as a cognitive construct that reflects the generalized expectancy that one will experience good outcomes in life (Scheier & Carver, 1985). More recently, Carver and Scheier (2003) added to their original definition of optimism by arguing that the expectancy-value model of motivation

underlies the optimism construct. In this sense, goals are seen as desirables that individuals hope to achieve. The importance of the goal determines one's motivation to work towards that goal. An individual's expectancy or confidence about reaching a goal is also an underlying value within optimism. Thus, the more confident a person is about attaining a goal, the more effort he or she should devote to achieve it. In this sense, optimism relates to what we expect to happen in the future, not how we expected things to happen in the past.

Furthermore, in addition to adding motivation as an underlying component of optimism, the construct has also recently been broken into sub-dimensions of little and big optimism (Nelson & Simmons, 2003). Little optimism relates to specific expectations about the future. For example, little optimism would be, "I will perform well at work today." In contrast, big optimism typifies a less specific, more global expectation related to the future. "I foresee great things happening for mankind" is an example of big optimism. Peterson (2000) argued that optimism works at different levels of generalization. Hence, although likely related, little and big optimism may independently relate to different outcomes. Within this study, optimism is measured as a state. Thus, it is likely that I will be measuring little optimism, rather than big optimism.

In assessing optimism, it is important to keep in mind that the construct deals with confidence in future positive outcomes, and not the control that one might have in those outcomes. When individuals are in control, they believe that their personal efforts will lead to their desired outcomes (Carver & Scheier, 2003). However, it is best to think of optimism as a broader construct. People who are optimistic are usually so due to other

factors (e.g. they feel lucky, blessed, talented), not because they feel like they are in control of their desired outcomes. It is also important to keep in mind that optimism, although viewed as a unidimensional construct, is often measured with reverse-scored pessimistic items that some researchers have argued assess a separate factor (Carver & Scheier, 2003). The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994), which is predominantly known as the most valid assessment of optimism, consists of three positively worded items, three negatively worded items, and four filler items. As will be discussed later, in order to ensure that I am solely assessing the construct of optimism, I will only be using the positively worded items from the LOT-R in my study.

The research to date on optimism has mostly focused on validating the LOT-R and assessing the relationship of optimism with a variety of outcome measures. Hence, optimism is nearly always construed as an outcome state; little research has examined what may lead individuals to become optimistic. However, the experience of certain events and the evaluation of those events are likely to be predictors of optimism. Optimism is a state that can be viewed as an outcome of personal confidence. This confidence is drawn from numerous different domains and phases across life. People who are optimistic are so “because they believe they are immensely talented, because they are hard-working, because they are blessed, because they are lucky, because they have friends in the right places, or any combination of these or other factors that produce good outcomes” (Carver & Scheier, 2003, p.77). The experiences of these good events are likely to lead to increased optimism. Furthermore, an individual’s positive attribution of the events they experience is also likely to lead to increased optimism. For example,

Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale (1978) argued that it is the manner in which we explain events in our lives that ultimately leads us to feel optimistic or pessimistic. Our explanations of causes can be internal or external, stable or unstable, and global or specific. When an individual attributes problems in their life to temporary, specific, and external causes, he or she is likely to be seen as more optimistic (Reivich & Gillham, 2003).

Considering the likely outcomes of optimism, most research has focused on optimism's relationship to mood, health, enhanced immune functioning, and better health habits (Nelson & Simmons, 2003). In fact, optimistic individuals have been shown to better cope with cancer and AIDS and undergo surgery and transplants with fewer complications than pessimists (Snyder & Lopez, 2007). However, optimism has rarely been studied in the work domain and little research has explored how optimistic employees may behave in the work environment, and the outcomes of such behavior. It is important to note that the relationship between optimism and well-being or health is likely significant given that individuals who are optimistic often approach events with an active problem-solving coping style, rather than an avoidant coping style.

Concerning optimism at work, it has been argued that optimists are more likely to be active in their coping styles, motivated to work harder, have higher morale, set higher goals, see obstacles as temporary, and are likely to be more satisfied at work than pessimistic people (Luthans, 2002a; Nelson & Simmons, 2003). In fact, Kirk and Koeske (1995) assessed new hires' optimism and how it related to work outcomes in a social work position using a longitudinal design. The authors found that an optimistic

perspective about perceived benefits and appreciation from clients at time one was related to more job satisfaction and personal accomplishment three months after hire, and low intentions to quit 18 months after hire. However, Kirk and Koeske (1995) used optimism and hope interchangeably throughout their study and failed to use the LOT-R to assess optimism. Furthermore, Seligman and Schulman (1986) have shown that optimism may be related to performance, as well as low intentions to quit. The authors had life insurance salesmen take the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ), which assesses how individuals attribute, or explain the events that happen to them. Across two samples, the authors found that individuals who scored higher on the ASQ (indicating that employees attributed problems to be temporary, specific, and external) sold more insurance policies. Furthermore, within one of the samples used, employees who scored higher on the ASQ remained with their jobs for twice as long as compared to those who scored in the bottom half of the ASQ. Although Seligman and Schulman used the ASQ as a measure of optimism instead of the LOT-R, their study still holds significance in that it is one of the few that have begun to examine optimism in the workplace.

In considering the relationship between optimism and psychological empowerment, it is likely that employees who experience events that leave them feeling confident about the future are more likely to be more optimistic. If employees see that they have meaning and impact within their organization (i.e. high psychological empowerment), they may be more likely to hold favorable expectancies for the future (e.g. continued significance and influence at work). Furthermore, employees who are competent and determined about their ability to perform their work role, which are

additional facts of psychological empowerment, should have expectancies about the future that include moving toward desirable work goals. Thus, it is likely that psychological empowerment and optimism are positively related.

Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1977) initially defined self-efficacy as “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (p. 3). Although Bandura has argued against it, self-efficacy has generally been given a trait-like portrayal, which is most likely why it has been omitted from the POB research that argues all POB concepts need be treated as states. However, self-efficacy can be operationalized and measured as a state, and it meets the remainder of Luthans’ (2002a) criteria for being classified as a PPS.

In measuring self-efficacy, it is important to remember that the construct is domain-specific. Self-efficacy should assess an individual’s beliefs about performing a specific, current (not future) task. In fact, Bandura (1977) argues that confidence about using one’s skills and abilities to reach goals in a particular domain, not across most circumstances and over time, reflects the construct of self-efficacy. It is this confidence per se that drives individuals to achieve their goals or tasks. Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) expanded on Bandura’s original definition to define self-efficacy as, “an individual’s confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (p. 66).

Bandura (1977) gives four sources (i.e. predictors) that can either lead to enhanced or decreased self-efficacy. The first of these sources is performance accomplishments in a specific domain. Because self-efficacy revolves around personal accomplishment experiences, Bandura (1977) argued that it is an especially influential predictor. Although it is less of a predictor than personal accomplishment, the second source that leads to enhanced self-efficacy is vicarious experiences. This predictor is a form of social comparison; seeing others perform well increases efforts in one's own work to perform well. Individuals are likely to believe that if others can accomplish a task, they too should be able improve their effort in order to master a task(s). Again, although it is not as strong of a predictor as personal accomplishment, the third predictor of self-efficacy is verbal persuasion. With verbal persuasion, people are led to believe that they can cope with overwhelming obstacles they have faced in the past (Bandura, 1977). Emotional arousal is the last predictor of self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) has argued that when persons are physiologically aroused, performance is likely to decrease due to lack of concentration and focus. Thus, success is accomplished when individuals are calm, when they are not anxious, and when they are not agitated. Unlike the other sources, emotional arousal is likely to have a negative relationship with self-efficacy.

Additionally, perceived controllability and set performance standards may be other predictors of self-efficacy. In a controlled study on organizational control and set performance standards, Bandura and Wood (1989) put 60 business graduate students in a simulated organization. Subjects were randomly assigned to either a low-controllability condition, in which the organization was portrayed as difficult to predict and control, or a

high-controllability condition, where the organization was seen as predictable and controllable. Performance standards of the simulated organization were set and were measured by weekly production hours. The authors found that participants who operated under the low-controllability standard displayed lower self-efficacy, even when performance standards were within easy reach. As a result, these participants lowered their organizational goals. However, participants who were in the high-controllability condition maintained a strong sense of self-efficacy and continued to set challenging organizational goals when performance standards were set within reach. This study lends support for both organizational controllability and performance standards as predictors of self-efficacy.

Most of the research examining the outcomes of self-efficacy within the work domain has focused on career self-efficacy. Career self-efficacy is broadly defined as having confidence in one's own ability to achieve work-related tasks, while managing one's career development (O'Brien, 2003). For example, in applying Bandura's theory of self-efficacy to the study of vocational development, Hackett and Betz (1981) proposed that women who were confident in their ability to perform job tasks (i.e. had high career self-efficacy) should be satisfied with the career that they choose. Furthermore, Bandura, Barbaranelli, Vittorio, and Pastorelli (2001) found that children's perceived career self-efficacy predicted career choice over and above that of academic performance. O'Brien (2003) has even published a chapter detailing three independent career self-efficacy measures which assess individual's abilities or confidence in making career choice decisions.

Although much of the self-efficacy research in the work field to date has concentrated on career self-efficacy, there has been some research done with self-efficacy outside of the vocational domain. Luthans (2002a) has proposed that self-efficacy, or confidence, will eventually lead to positive choices, motivational effort, perseverance, positive thought patterns, and resistance to stress at work. In using meta-analytic techniques, Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) examined the relationship between self-efficacy and work performance, and found the relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance to be .38. Furthermore, in a field study of 242 health care employees, O'Neill and Mone (1998) found that the relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction, as well as the relationship between self-efficacy and intent to leave, was significantly moderated by equity sensitivity. Equity sensitivity is derived from equity theory in predicting certain criteria in social exchange situations and indicates how sensitive individuals may react to over-reward or under-reward. More specifically, the authors found among employees who have a higher tolerance for under-reward, there is a greater negative relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction, as well as a stronger positive relationship between self-efficacy and intent to leave over employees who prefer to be over-rewarded. However, the moderating effect of equity sensitivity was not found between the relationship of self-efficacy and organizational commitment. This study lends strong support for the additional outcomes of job satisfaction and intentions to leave when examining self-efficacy.

Similar to optimism, it is likely that employees who experience events that increase their beliefs about their capabilities to produce desired effects in the work

domain are more likely to have higher self-efficacy. If employees see that they have meaning and impact within their organization (i.e. high psychological empowerment), their beliefs about their capabilities to perform their job well are likely to increase. Furthermore, employees who are competent about their abilities and self-determined to perform their work role, which are additional facets of psychological empowerment, should have high self-efficacy. Thus, it is likely that psychological empowerment and self-efficacy are positively related.

Engagement at Work

Although it has not been directly defined as a PPS in the POB literature as optimism has, engagement at work could be considered a positive psychological state as well. It meets the criteria set forth by Luthans (2002a) in order for research to be conceived as POB, such that research on engagement at work focuses on enhancing performance, is measurable, and can be developmental- thus implying its state-like nature. Britt, Dickinson, Greene, and McKibben (2007) have defined engagement as feeling responsible for and committed to superior job performance, so that job performance matters to the individual. Furthermore, Harter and colleagues defined employee engagement as “an individual’s involvement and satisfaction with, as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002, p. 269), and “a combination of cognitive and emotional antecedent variables in the workplace” (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003, p. 206). However, in using either of Harter and colleagues’ definition of engagement, one assumes that the state of engagement is comprised of multiple constructs. For example, Harter’s et al. (2002) definition of engagement includes an

employee's involvement with work, satisfaction with work, and enthusiasm for work. In this sense, engagement is being used as an umbrella term for different constructs, which further creates confusion when attempting to measure the relationship between engagement and criterion.

In a chapter on engaging the self in work, Britt et al. (2007) explore several predictors of engagement, which include high job clarity and job control, personal relevance, and job importance. It is likely that when employees are given clear guidelines to perform their tasks, they are aware of what needs to happen in order to accomplish the assignment. Britt et al. (2007) argued that job engagement is likely to be high when high job clarity is present. Furthermore, when individuals feel as if they have personal control over their performance, job engagement should increase. Thus, if employees are given autonomy and control to complete their work tasks, their work should hold more significance. The third predictor of engagement explored by Britt et al. (2007) is personal relevance. Employees who feel that their job is relevant to their own identity and training are likely to have higher engagement in work tasks. For example, employees who are in a job which requires a specific knowledge or ability, such as statistics, information technology, or welding, should feel as if their knowledge and abilities are being put to use in their job; thus, personal relevance in the job is likely to be high, which should predict engagement. Last, Britt et al. (2007) argued that job importance is a predictor of job engagement as well. When employees feel like they are performing important work, they should experience high job engagement.

Similarly, May, Gilson, and Harter (2004) also found that being involved in personally meaningful work was a predictor of job engagement, as Britt et al. (2007) had suggested. Furthermore, the authors found that being able to meet the demands of work, as well as feeling confident enough to be oneself at work were additional predictors of work engagement. Furthermore, in a theoretical piece on workplace affordances and employee engagement, Billet (2001) argued that the readiness of the workplace to afford opportunities for individuals to engage in work should be a predictor of engagement as well. For example, the norms and work practices that encourage learning and the degree to which organizations supply these opportunities are argued to be positively related to engagement in work (Billet, 2001).

Similar to the other PPSs, engagement at work has mainly been researched as an outcome variable. However, Harter et al. (2003) examined the relationship between employee engagement and company success rate and found a correlation of .26. Additionally, Harter et al. (2002) found that employee engagement was related to customer satisfaction/loyalty ($r = .33$), employee turnover ($r = -.30$), organizational safety ($r = -.32$), productivity ($r = .25$), and profitability ($r = .17$). As a result of these significant relationships found between engagement and criteria, Harter et al. (2003) developed a probability table of business unit success as a consequence of employee engagement. In operationalizing business success as “the percentage of business units with composite performance above the median of business units within a company” (p.217), it was predicted that the higher employee engagement is, the higher the success rate of the company should be. For example, if the employee engagement percentile is at 99, then

the success rate of the company should be 73 percent. However, it should be noted that while engagement may be related to performance, it is likely very difficult to predict company success as a result of engagement in using a probability table as Harter et al. (2003) have suggested.

In researching engagement at the individual level, rather than at the organizational level, Britt, Thomas, and Dawson (2006) have found that the engagement of ROTC (Reserve Officer Training Corps) cadets in a leadership training course was positively related to expert-rated leadership performance at the end of the course. Furthermore, the authors found that engagement in the training course interacted with cadets' assessment of their qualitative overload (i.e. the extent to which cadets felt that they lacked expertise required for effective performance), such that qualitative overload was a stronger predictor of rated leadership performance when cadets were more engaged in the course. Thus, across the studies conducted by Harter et al. (2002) and Britt et al. (2006), engagement has been found to predict job performance at the individual and organizational levels.

In considering the relationship between engagement in work and psychological empowerment, it is likely that similar to optimism and self-efficacy, engagement will have a positive relationship with psychological empowerment. As Britt et al. (2007) suggested employees who experience personal relevance and importance with their work, which are components of psychological empowerment, may be more likely to feel that their work matters to them, and thus, experience high engagement. Furthermore, employees who are competent and determined about their ability to perform their work

role, which are additional facts of psychological empowerment, should feel responsible for their work and be committed to performing well. Thus, similar to the other PPSs, it is likely that psychological empowerment and engagement in work are positively related.

Predicted Model and Hypotheses

The overall model integrating the above concepts and serving as a framework for hypothesis testing in the present research is presented in Figure 1. Within this model, the independent P-E fit indices are hypothesized to predict psychological empowerment, which in turn should lead to optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement in work. The organizational and employee distal outcomes examined within this model and that have been shown in past research to be outcomes of P-E fit are low intentions to quit, high levels of performance and organizational commitment, low stress, and high job satisfaction.

Although most research in the P-E fit domain has focused on the outcomes of intentions to quit, performance, organizational commitment, stress, and job satisfaction, little research has begun to explore under what conditions proximal outcomes may result from P-O, P-J, and P-S fit. Due to similar value interests, those who share the same values as their organization ought to feel that they hold more meaning and impact within the organization. Furthermore, high competence and self-determination are also likely to result when employees feel like the organization supplies them with what they need in order to perform their job, as well as when they feel that their supervisor has similar values as their own. Given that psychological empowerment is a multidimensional construct that is composed of meaning, impact, competence, and self-determination, it is

likely that P-O, P-J, and P-S fit will be related to psychological empowerment as a whole.

The following hypotheses are therefore proposed:

H1a: P-O fit will be positively related to psychological empowerment.

H1b: N-S fit and D-A fit, two aspects of P-J fit, will be positively related to psychological empowerment.

H1c: P-S fit will be positively related to psychological empowerment.

Many of the underlying components which comprise psychological empowerment also contribute to the PPSs. However, psychological empowerment is composed of a set of cognitions that is created by the work environment, particularly if that work environment commands a high fit. Optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement in work are positive states that are likely derived from this set of cognitions. Given that the PPSs addressed in this study all share a component of competence and the desire to achieve a work goal or task and are states likely derived from a set of cognitions, it is likely that employees who are high in psychological empowerment are also likely to experience states of optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement in work. Thus, hypotheses 2a-2c propose:

H2a: Psychological empowerment will be positively related to optimism.

H2b: Psychological empowerment will be positively related to self-efficacy.

H2c: Psychological empowerment will be positively related to engagement in work.

The separate P-E fit indices are likely to be related to each PPS through the mediation of psychological empowerment. In order to test for the mediating effect of

psychological empowerment on the relationship between each fit factor and each PPS, the Sobel test will be used (see MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Past research has revealed that Baron and Kenny's (1986) test for mediation has the possibility of making Type II errors. In using the Sobel test, the coefficient and standard error of the indirect effect are used. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3a: The relationship between P-O fit and each positive psychological state will be significantly mediated by psychological empowerment.

H3b: The relationship between N-S fit and D-A fit, the two aspects of P-J fit, and each positive psychological state will be significantly mediated by psychological empowerment.

H3c: The relationship between P-S fit and each positive psychological state will be significantly mediated by psychological empowerment.

Past research has suggested that optimism is significantly related to low intentions to quit and performance (Seligman & Schulman, 1986), as well as job satisfaction and low stress (Kirk & Koeske, 1995). Furthermore, self-efficacy has been shown to be related to job satisfaction and low intentions to quit (O'Neill & Mone, 1998), in addition to performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Engagement in work has been found to be negatively related to turnover (Harter et al., 2002), as well as performance (Britt et al., 2006; Harter et al., 2002). In addition, it is likely that organizational commitment and reduced stress will be likely outcomes of optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement as well, given that employees are likely to feel better about themselves and be more

committed to the organization when employees expect good things to happen at work, believe that they have the skills and abilities to perform their work, and feel responsible for and commitment to superior performance at work. Therefore, hypotheses 4a-4c propose:

H4a: Optimism at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2.

H4b: Self-efficacy at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2.

H4c: Engagement at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2.

Psychological empowerment is likely to be related to the organizational and individual outcomes through the mediation of each PPS. In order to test for the mediating effect of each PPS on the relationship of psychological empowerment and the distal outcomes over time, the Sobel test will be used. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5a: Psychological empowerment at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the mediation of optimism.

H5b: Psychological empowerment at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the mediation of self-efficacy.

H5c: Psychological empowerment at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the mediation of engagement in work.

Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) argued that in order to reduce the negative effects of common method bias in P-E fit research, which is likely to inflate effect sizes, researchers should use multiple sources of data collection, as well as to temporally separate the measurement of the predictors and criteria. Given that most research examining the outcomes of P-E fit has been cross-sectional, it is likely that this study will find stronger support for the relationships than past research has found concerning the independent P-E fit indices and their relation to similar outcomes (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Saks & Ashforth, 2002). Furthermore, it is likely that P-E fit leads to proximal outcomes as well, such as psychological empowerment and PPSs. Therefore, it is likely that P-O, P-J, and P-S fit will be related to both organizational and individual outcomes through the proximal outcomes, or sequential mediation, of psychological empowerment and the PPSs. Thus, the following hypotheses state:

H6a: P-O fit at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to

leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and the PPSs.

H6b: N-S fit and D-A fit, the two aspects of P-J fit, at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and the PPSs.

H6c: P-S fit at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and the PPSs.

CHAPTER TWO

METHOD

Participants and Procedure

Seven-hundred and eighty-two employees, along with their supervisors, were recruited from a large metropolitan hospital to participate in this study. The jobs performed by participants consisted of all patient health care tasks excluding those jobs performed by nurses and practitioners, and ranged from physical therapy to imaging and scanning.

In order to maintain confidentiality, participants were asked to use an arbitrary code that was assigned to them. This code was also used to match participants' surveys during the second data collection period, as well as to match their supervisor performance ratings. Data collection at both time periods occurred in one of two ways: 1) either in monthly staff meetings or at set times in which employees were asked by their supervisor to come to a conference room to participate in the study, or 2) through a web-link that took them to an online version of the survey. During the in-person data collection periods, either I or one of three other researchers were present to hand out the surveys, provide the arbitrary codes, and collect the surveys back.

The first data collection process occurred from November 14 to December 27, 2007. In total, 401 employees participated in the first round of data collection. Of the 401 employees, 95.3 percent ($n= 382$) participated in the study from November 14 to December 7. Furthermore, 87.3 percent ($n= 350$) of the total sample completed the paper and pencil version of the study during time 1.

During the second data collection process, we first approached participants' supervisors to rate employees' performance. Supervisors were provided a sheet that included their employees' names and each employee's arbitrary code; supervisors were then asked to use these codes on the performance appraisals in place of the employees' names. It is important to note that we indicated to the supervisors that the performance appraisals were for research purposes only; thus, performance responses obtained are more likely to be representative of employees' actual performance.

The second data collection process for the employee survey occurred from April 1 to May 5, 2008. During the second round of data collection, 259 employees completed the survey. Of those employees, 72.2 percent ($n= 187$) completed the survey from April 1 to April 15. In total, 78.8 percent ($n= 204$) of the employees completed the paper and pencil version of the survey during time 2. Furthermore, performance appraisals were collected for 667 employees. Interestingly, there were 79 employees who participated in the study either at time 1 or time 2 for which there were no performance data available.

In total, there were 174 employees for whom there were time 1, time 2, and performance data available, yielding a response rate of 22 percent across both time periods. The average age of the participants was 41.05 years, $SD= 11.31$; the minimum age was 20 years, and the maximum age was 68 years. The sample consisted of 75.3 percent ($n= 131$) females, and 24.7 percent ($n= 43$) males. The complete sample was 85.1 percent ($n= 148$) White, 9.2 percent ($n= 16$) Black/African American, 1.7 percent ($n= 3$) Asian, 1.1 percent ($n= 2$) Latino/Hispanic, 2.3 percent ($n= 4$) Bi-Racial. In addition, one participant failed to indicate race. Furthermore, 65.5 percent ($n= 114$) were

married or cohabitating, and 40.3 percent ($n= 70$) had at least one child or more. Concerning education, 5.2 percent ($n= 9$) had a high school diploma, 37.9 percent ($n= 66$) had some college or an associate's degree, and 24.1 percent ($n= 42$) had a bachelor's degree. Regarding higher education, 5.2 percent ($n= 9$) had taken some post graduate courses, 20.1 percent ($n= 35$) had a master's degree, and 6.9 percent ($n= 12$) had a doctorate degree. Education information was missing for one individual. The majority of respondents, 84.5 percent ($n= 147$) worked first shift, while 12.1 percent ($n= 21$) worked second shift. On average, participants had been in their position 86.94 months, and worked an average of 41.45 hours a week. Furthermore, participants had been working at the hospital for an average of 115.99 months, and working within their profession for an average of 168.75 months.

Power Analysis

A power analysis was conducted, which computes a suggested sample size for conducting a structural equation model based on certain parameters. In order to have enough power to reject a bad structural model, analyses indicated I would need a sample size of 24. However, the estimation of this sample size is greatly affected by the large degrees of freedom I have in my model, which makes this sample estimation nearly meaningless.

In order to have enough power to detect the direct effects of the predictors, or the unique effects, I will need a sample size of 219 (see Maxwell, 2002). This estimated sample size is based on the assumptions that the three positive psychological states are, on average, correlated about .40 with each other, and on average, correlated about .30

with each of the outcome factors. The relationships between the three positive psychological states, and the relationship between these states and the outcomes, were used to estimate power because the three positive psychological states are likely to have the smallest unique effect size. Yet, in the present sample, matched data across time 1, time 2, and supervisor ratings were collected on only 174 participants, leaving the final data set slightly short of the recommended number. However, in retrospect, this was of little consequence for the final model. As illustrated in the results that follow, the final structural model did not include every relationship that was presented in the measurement model, due to EQS programming limitations. Therefore, certain variables were not included in the tested model to the extent that they were originally intended.

Measures

Person-Organization fit (P-O fit). P-O fit was assessed using a 3-item measure developed by Cable and DeRue (2002) (see Appendix C; items 7-9). Respondents were asked to indicate agreement on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Because past research has defined P-O fit as values congruence (see Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman 1989; Kristof, 1996), this measures assess the perceived compatibility between organizational values and that of employees' own values. Example items included, "My personal values match my organization's values and culture," and "The things that I value in life are very similar to the things my organization values." In using confirmatory factor analysis to test a three-factor model, Cable and DeRue (2002) have found convergent and discriminant validity for this measure with N-S and D-A fit. In addition, this P-O fit scale has shown to significantly be related to

organizational identification, perceived organizational support, OCBs, turnover, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and occupational commitment. Internal reliability has found to be .91 and .92 across two separate samples (Cable & DeRue, 2002).

Person-Job fit (P-J fit). The current study used a P-J fit scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002). This scale assesses both N-S (see Appendix C; items 1-3) and D-A fit (see Appendix C; items 4-6), and has shown convergent and discriminant validity with P-O fit. Example items from the N-S scale included, “The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job,” and “The job that I currently holds gives me just about everything that I want.” This N-S measure has shown to be significantly related to organizational identification, perceived organizational support, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, occupational commitment, and pay raise. Alpha for the N-S scale has shown to be .89 and .93 (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Example items from the D-A scale include, “The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills,” and “My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me.” In addition, this scale assessing D-A fit has shown to be significantly related to organizational identification, perceived organizational support, job and career satisfaction, as well as occupational commitment. Internal reliability for the D-A scale was .89 with a single-firm sample and .84 with a multiple-firm sample. Respondents were asked to indicate agreement on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree for both the N-S and D-A scales.

Person-Supervisor fit (P-S fit). In order to assess P-S fit, I used an adapted scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002) that was initially developed to measure P-O fit.

One of the ways in which P-S fit has been operationalized is supervisor-subordinate value congruence (Krishnan, 2002). In accordance with this operationalization of P-S fit, items from this scale represent the perceived congruence of values between a supervisor and employee; an example item is: “The things I value in life are very similar to the things my supervisor values.” Similar to the other measures of P-E fit, participants were asked to indicate agreement on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Psychological empowerment. To measure psychological empowerment, a measure designed by Spreitzer (1995) that assesses the multidimensional components of meaning, impact, self-determination, and competence was used. This scale has been tested with confirmatory factor analyses and has demonstrated convergent and discriminant validity. Specifically, convergent validity was illustrated with significant correlations (e.g. .42-.62) between the four factors across two independent samples, and discriminant validity was moderately supported by evidence that the items assessing each sub-dimension loaded strongly on the appropriate factor. The psychological empowerment measure originally consists of 12 items, with three items assessing each of the sub-dimensions. In order to conserve time for participants, the item with the highest factor loading was used to assess each sub-dimension (see Appendix D). Thus, the final scale used to measure psychological empowerment consisted of four items, with each item representing an empowerment sub-dimension. Respondents were asked to indicate agreement on a seven point scale with items ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Internal reliability for the overall empowerment construct has shown to be

between .62-.72. Additionally, moderate test-retest reliability has been demonstrated over a 5-month time span with sub-dimension correlations ranging from .58-.74.

Example items included, “The work I do is meaningful to me” (meaning factor), and “My impact on what happens in my department is large” (impact factor).

Optimism. Employees’ optimism at work was assessed using four items from the *Life Orientation Test-Revised* (LOT-R) developed by Scheier et al. (1994) (see Appendix E). For the purposes of this study, items were modified to fit the work environment. The LOT-R originally consists of ten items: three negatively framed items, three positively framed items, and four filler items. In order to save time and space in the overall assessment, the four filler items were removed. In addition, further items were removed based upon low inter-item correlations and descriptives for the scale if an item was deleted. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with each item based on a five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Example items included, “I hardly ever expect things to go my way at work,” and “Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad at work.” Convergent validity has been shown by correlations in the expected directions with depression, hopelessness, self-esteem, perceived stress, and locus of control; test-retest reliability has also show to be adequate (Scheier et al., 1994). Furthermore, factor analysis has revealed that the scale is unidimensional (Burke, Joyner, Czech, & Wilson, 2000). Internal reliability has shown to be in the high .70s to low .80s range (Carver & Scheier, 2003).

Self-efficacy. The self-efficacy of employees was measured using four items from the *New General Self-Efficacy* (NGSE) scale created by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001)

(see Appendix F). The NGSE was originally developed to include 7 items from the original *General Self-Efficacy* scale and 7 new items. Six of the original fourteen items were dropped to yield a single-factor scale consisting of 8 items. Similar to the LOT-R, items were removed based upon low inter-item correlations and descriptives for the scale if an item was deleted in order to save space on the overall assessment and time in completing the assessment for respondents. Alpha levels using the original eight items have shown to be .87, .88, and .85; and test-retest reliability coefficients have shown to be .65, .66, and .62 (Chen et al., 2001). Using graduate students in Industrial-Organizational Psychology as raters, it was found that 98% of the original NGSE items were sorted as general self-efficacy, and 2% as self-esteem items. It has also been confirmed through factor analysis that the NGSE is distinct from other self-esteem measures. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree with each item on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. As with the LOT-R, items have been modified to fit the work environment. Example items included, “I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges at work,” and “When facing difficult tasks at work, I am certain that I will accomplish them.”

Engagement. Employees’ engagement in work was assessed using four items from a scale adapted from a previous measure used in past research on job engagement (Britt, 2003; Britt, Adler, & Bartone, 2001; Britt, Castro, & Adler, 2005). The original measure consists of six items which focus on employees’ perceived responsibility for job performance and how much job performance matters to the individual (see Appendix G). In order to save time and space in the overall assessment, items were removed based

upon low inter-item correlations and descriptives for the scale if an item was deleted. Example items included, “I am committed to performing my job well,” and “I really care about the outcomes that result from my job performance.” Respondents were asked to indicate their extent of agreement with each of the items using a scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Convergent validity has been demonstrated through correlations with job clarity and job control, which are variables theoretically related to job engagement (Britt, 1999; Britt et al., 2006).

Organizational Commitment. Employees’ organizational commitment was assessed using a measure created by Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996). Organizational commitment has been operationalized as involvement and attachment to a company, suggesting that employees wish to remain with their current organization. The original scale consists of six items, but due to respondent time constraints, I dropped the items down to four based upon low inter-item correlations and descriptives for the scale if an item was deleted (see Appendix H). Internal reliability using the four items that will be used in this study has shown to be .86. Example items included, “I do not feel a sense of belonging to my organization,” and “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.”

Intention to Leave. Incumbents’ intentions to leave the organization was assessed with a measure developed by Chatman (1991). Intention to leave as been operationalized by Sager, Griffeth, and Hom (1998) as occurring when “the employee decides to leave the organization at some unspecified point in the future” (p. 255). Intentions to leave has shown to be significantly related to turnover, and predicted by thoughts of quitting and

intentions to search for an alternate employer (Sager et al., 1998). The four items measuring intention to leave have shown to load onto one factor (Chatman, 1991). Employees' were asked to indicate agreement on a five point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (see Appendix I). Example items included, "I would prefer another more ideal job than the one I now work in," and "I intend to remain with this organization."

Job Performance. As previously mentioned, supervisor ratings of employee performance were used in this study. Due to the variety of jobs being measured in this study, a global measure of performance was used that assessed task performance, organizational/coworker support, teamwork, and cognitive/motivational effectiveness (see Appendix J). In all, the measure consisted of 17 items with one item measuring overall performance. Supervisors were asked to rate each employee's performance relative to other employees within the department. Given that past research has found performance appraisals conducted for research purposes only reflect actual performance more than performance appraisals conducted for administrative or developmental purposes (Jawahar & Williams, 1997), it was strongly emphasized within the performance appraisal that ratings were to be used for research purposes only. The four task performance items were chosen from Williams and Anderson (1991), which is an original six item measure with an internal reliability of .94. The remaining items were developed from information gathered from the human resource director, as well as from a performance measure used by Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (1986), who assessed performance of health care nurses. Example items included, "Adequately completes

assigned duties” (task performance), and “Helps other employees who have heavy workloads” (teamwork).

Job Satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction was measured with a three item scale developed by Friedman and Greenhaus (2001), which measures global job satisfaction, in addition to one item from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). Respondents were asked to indicate agreement on a seven point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (see Appendix K). Example items included, “All in all, I am satisfied with my job,” and “My job situation is very frustrating to me.” Internal consistency has been established for the Friedman and Greenhaus (2001) scale, with alpha reported as .87.

Perceived Stress. Employee stress was assessed using a four item shortened version of the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), developed by Cohen, Kamarck, and Mermelstein (1983). Past research has found internal reliability to be between .84-.86, and test-retest correlations to range from .55-.85 (Cohen et al., 1983). An example item is, “In the last month, how often have you felt things were going your way?” Respondents were asked to indicate on a five point Likert scale how often they have felt or thought a certain way (see Appendix L).

Employee Demographics. Employee demographics were assessed using a self-developed measure (see Appendix M). Items assessed employees’ gender, age, and race. Additionally, employees were asked to report their highest degree of education completed, current job title and tenure concerning their current position, length of time at their current organization, and length of time in their current profession. Employees were

also asked to report their department/unit name, the shift they generally work, and average hours worked per week.

Analyses

The majority of analyses involved used structural equation modeling techniques to test the relationships predicted in the hypotheses, as well as overall model fit. The software program EQS 6.1 was utilized and fit indices recommended by Kline (2005) were applied to test model fit. In addition, basic statistics, such as descriptives and internal reliability, were calculated using SPSS 14.0.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

Measurement Issues

Before transferring any data into EQS, the data were cleaned in SPSS. More specifically, univariate outliers on individual items were examined, and multivariate outliers were also checked using Mahalanobis distance values. In examining the skewness and kurtosis of each item, there were 7 items at time 1, and 7 items at time 2 with kurtosis above 3.00 (skewness for all items were at acceptable levels). One item from the engagement scale had a kurtosis of 6.60 at time 1, and 5.47 at time 2; therefore, this item was deleted from the dataset. Further analyses revealed that there were no further multivariate outliers.

Concerning supervisor ratings of performance, it is important to consider the possibility of differences in rating strategy among supervisors. More specifically, it is possible that differences in employees' performance ratings may be partially dependent on the rater/supervisor. To test for this degree of nesting concerning performance ratings by supervisor, a mixed model analysis was conducted to compute the ICC1 (Bliese & Halverson, 1998). The ICC1 indicates what percentage of variance in supervisor ratings is attributable to the rater/supervisor. In total, there were 31 raters/supervisors who rated anywhere from one to 21 employees.

In computing the ICC1, estimates of covariance parameters for the residual and intercept are computed. The residual value reflects the variance in ratings within supervisors, while the intercept value represents the variance between the

raters/supervisors. Results revealed that the ICC1 was 0.39, indicating that 39 percent of the variance in performance ratings is attributable to the raters/supervisors themselves. With such a moderate portion of the variance in performance ratings due to the supervisors themselves, it is important to group mean center in order to remove these effects. By mean centering according to supervisor, the confounding effects of individual rater characteristics on performance scores were removed.

One may also question the effect that the seven departments from which data were collected within the hospital may have on employee responses at time 1 and 2. For example, one department may indicate higher engagement and optimism than the other departments. However, if this were the case, the results most likely do not reflect a bias causing inaccurate representations of engagement and optimism, but true differences between the employees within each department. Exploratory one-way ANOVA tests of the scale means indicated no significant differences between departments on any scale across time 1 and time 2, except for job satisfaction measured at time 2, $F(6, 167) = 2.16$, $p < .05$. Post hoc tests reveal that a specific department was scoring on average, 0.87 points below one department, and 0.96 points below another department. Given that there was only a significant difference between a specific department and two others on the job satisfaction mean at time 2, it is unlikely that employees' scores depend on departmental membership; therefore, no ICC1 was calculated.

After addressing these specific measurement issues, data were imputed using the EM method in EQS. The EM method imputes missing data on individual items based upon two criteria: 1) the responses on other items a participant completed, and 2) the

inter-relationships found among all items in the full sample. The highest frequency of missing data occurred for an optimism variable at time 2, and 1.72 percent of the data for this variable was imputed.

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among the Measured Variables

Table 1 provides means, standard deviations, and internal reliabilities for each measure used in the present study. It is important to note that descriptives are provided using only the items that were used in the final measurement model. In general, participants reported moderate to high person-environment fit dimensions at both time periods; more specifically, incumbents perceived that the demands of the job were well met by their abilities. Psychological empowerment was also perceived to be quite high across both data collection periods. As an interesting side note, the organization from which we collected data had recently adopted specific policies and procedures to increase employee empowerment (e.g. independence, impact, etc.) before we collected data at time 1. Employees' high psychological empowerment may be a result of these adopted policies and procedures. Concerning the positive psychological states, respondents indicated having high levels of all three, particularly engagement, across both time periods. In general, employees reported high levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Interestingly though, employees also reported moderate stress levels and average intentions to leave across both time periods. Additionally, supervisors reported that their employees exhibited higher than average performance behaviors.

Most of the scales used in this study yielded alpha levels above .80, except for psychological empowerment across both time periods, perceived stress across both time

periods, and organizational commitment at time 1. Given that psychological empowerment is multi-dimensional in nature, and the scale used in the present study only incorporated one item from three dimensions (one item was dropped due to its multi-dimensional nature, as will be explained later), the low internal reliability is not surprising. Furthermore, while past research has found internal reliabilities to be above .80 for the perceived stress scale (see Cohen et al., 1983), these studies also utilized a fourteen item version of the stress scale. In an effort to save time and effort in the overall assessment, the number of items was reduced to four; the decreased item length may explain the lower reliabilities for the perceived stress measure.

In addition, correlations among the scales are reported in Table 2. As expected, the P-E fit indices were positively related to psychological empowerment at time 1. Furthermore, psychological empowerment was positively related to each of the PPSs at time 1 as well. Concerning the relationships among the P-E fit indices and each of the PPSs, all fit dimensions were related to optimism. Interestingly, only the P-J fit indices (needs-supply and demands-ability) were related to self-efficacy and engagement at time 1; P-O fit and P-S fit were only related to optimism. Conceptually, this makes sense given that N-S and D-A fit focus on the match pertaining to an individual's job preferences and specific job characteristics. Similarly, self-efficacy and engagement in this study assessed individuals' beliefs about performing well at their job. Hence, the focus of these measures is at the job-level, not the organization or supervisor level which P-O and P-S fit assess.

Consistent with past research findings (see Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), all P-E fit indices at time 1 were positively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction at time 2, and negatively related to intentions to leave at time 2. P-O and N-S fit at time 1 were negatively related to perceived stress at time 2, while D-A and P-S fit was not. Interestingly, there were vast differences among the relationships between the fit and performance dimensions. More specifically, P-S fit was positively related to every performance dimension, and N-S fit was positively related to each performance dimension except for teamwork. P-O fit was only positively related to organizational/coworker support, and D-A fit was not related to any performance dimension. Much like the P-E fit indices, psychological empowerment at time 1 was positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment at time 2, and negatively related to intentions to quit and perceived stress at time 2. However, psychological empowerment was not related to any performance dimension. Concerning the relationship between the PPSs and individual outcomes, optimism was positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment at time 2, and negatively related to intentions to quit and perceived stress at time 2. Self-efficacy and engagement were both related to job satisfaction at time 2. Additionally, self-efficacy was also negatively related to perceived stress at time 2 and engagement was negatively related to intentions to leave at time 2. Regarding performance, optimism was positively related to every dimension except for teamwork; however, neither self-efficacy or engagement were related to any performance dimension.

Analysis of the Measurement Model

In creating the measurement model, I first began by adding all time 1 indicators, which proved to be 12 factors. In running the model with only time 1 indicators, it was apparent that three within-factor covariances needed to be added to the model. Two of the within-factor covariances were added due to similar wording across the items and the reverse nature of the items; two items were from the intentions to leave scale and two items were from the perceived stress scale. The other covariance was added between two items to the initially four-item psychological empowerment scale. Items one and two in the psychological empowerment scale had extremely high kurtosis (9.46 and 7.08, respectively). As a result, these two items were picking up the majority of the variance within the scale. Adding an error covariance between items three and four of the psychological empowerment scale created a better fit for the model. Additionally, an item from the self-efficacy scale and an item from the job satisfaction scale were removed due to their multi-dimensional nature, which noticeably improved the fit of the model.

A subsequent run of the model which still included only time 1 factors revealed three additional covariances that needed to be addressed. All three of the covariances that were identified were across-factor variances. After examining these items, it was apparent that the covariances needed to be added to the model due to similarity in wording.

All time two indicators were then added to the measurement model, one factor at a time. After building the model up to 24 factors, which excluded the four performance

dimensions, EQS was unable to process any subsequent models due to virtual memory limitations. As a result, four observed variables were created; these included: 1) P-O fit at time 1, 2) P-S fit at time 1, 3) P-O fit at time 2, and 4) P-S fit at time 2. In creating these observed variables, the previous factors and their indicators were no longer used in the measurement model, thus freeing up parameters in the model. These four observed variables were chosen because all had good measurement properties and factor loadings above .80. Furthermore, the internal reliability of these scales were all above .90. Additionally, the scales were invariant from time 1 to time 2, indicating that there was no significant difference in these scales across the two time periods.

After creating the four observed variables, the remaining four performance factors and their respective indicators were put into the measurement model. It is worth noting that the four performance dimensions provided a better fit to the model than one overall performance dimension. Therefore, all subsequent models and analyses incorporated the specific performance dimensions. Analyses revealed that eight across-factor covariances and two within-factor covariances needed to be added to the model. In reviewing the items, it was apparent that the ten covariances needed to be added due to similarity in wording. Furthermore, nine items (i.e. six of which were the same items across the two time periods- for example, psychological empowerment item one at time 1 and time 2) were further removed from the model due to their multi-dimensional nature. These included psychological empowerment item one, organizational commitment item two, intentions to leave item three, task performance item four, organizational support performance item four, and motivational performance item three. In removing the nine

items and adding the ten covariances, the fit of the final measurement model (see Figure 1) was subsequently improved and resulted in acceptable fit indices of CFI= .91, RMSEA= .04. The CFI is a comparative fit index that examines the fit of the proposed model to that of a null model (Bentler, 1990), while the RMSEA is an absolute fit index (Steiger, 1990). It should be noted that for the sake of creating a readable illustration, covariances are not illustrated in Figure 1. All factor loadings are reported in Table 3. It is important to note that perceived stress and the performance dimension scales were treated as reflective factors, rather than formative. Reflective scales consist of items that all theoretically contribute to an underlying construct in a similar, if not equivalent, fashion. Formative scales are generally comprised of items that do not assume similarity and are often summed to create an overall score. While many stress scales can be formative, the measure used in this study was reflective, given that the items were similar in nature and were all assessing the degree of stress of the respondent. Furthermore, seeing that the performance dimensions were kept separate, the individual scales possessed items that were all related to each other, thereby taking on a reflective nature.

In establishing the final measurement model, measurement invariance was tested for across the two time periods. Constraints were imposed on the paths from the factors to their respective indicators. In doing such, analyses revealed whether there was a significant difference in a scale from time 1 to time 2. In total, 41 constraints were imposed; two of these were found to be significant. They included the perceived stress items three and four. In total, only 5 percent of the variance in the measurement model was due to significant differences among two perceived stress items from time 1 to time

2. Therefore, measurement invariance was judged not to be a significant problem in the present study.

Analysis of a Structural Model

Although Figure 1 presents a measurement model of the relationships to be tested in this study, it does not appropriately illustrate how these relationships are tested in a structural equation model. It is important to note that in building the structural model from the measurement model, additional equations to test the hypotheses of this study were added to the EQS syntax. However, in adding additional parameters into the model, EQS was unable to sufficiently run due to limitations with virtual memory. Therefore, the structural model presented in Figure 2 includes only those factors from time 1 and 2 that are included in the hypotheses. Start values were used to assist the EQS program in determining where to begin calculations.

In running the structural model, it was apparent that five covariances needed to be added to the model. These included a covariance between the observed variables of P-S and P-O fit, as well as between the P-S fit observed variable and the N-S and D-A fit factors, and between the P-O fit observed variable and the N-S and D-A fit factors. Conceptually, this makes sense seeing that the two observed variables and the two factors are all examining an aspect of person-environment fit. This model produced fit indices of CFI= .90, RMSEA= .05, both of which are acceptable values, indicating that this model explains the data quite well.

Tests of Hypotheses

With good fit for the structural model established, the results of the hypotheses can now be examined. The hypotheses are restated below, with empirical results either supporting or not supporting each hypothesis. Note that the direct and indirect effects are also represented in Table 4 for easier interpretation.

H1a: P-O fit will be positively related to psychological empowerment.

Results analyzing the relationship between P-O fit and psychological empowerment at time 1 revealed that P-O fit did not have a significant direct effect on psychological empowerment ($B = .01, t = .54, SE = .02, ns$). Therefore, hypothesis 1a was not supported.

H1b: N-S fit and D-A fit, two aspects of P-J fit, will be positively related to psychological empowerment.

Results analyzing the relationship between N-S fit and psychological empowerment at time 1 revealed that N-S fit did have a significant direct effect on psychological empowerment at time 1 ($B = .25, t = 3.70, SE = .07, p < .05$). However, the relationship between D-A fit and psychological empowerment was found to be non-significant ($B = -.02, t = -.54, SE = .04, ns$). Therefore, hypothesis 1b was partially supported.

H1c: P-S fit will be positively related to psychological empowerment.

Analysis of the relationship between P-S fit and psychological empowerment revealed that P-S fit did not have a significant direct effect on psychological

empowerment ($B = -.01, t = -.23, SE = .03, ns$). Thus, hypothesis 1c was found to be unsupported.

H2a: Psychological empowerment will be positively related to optimism.

Results testing the direct effect of psychological empowerment on optimism revealed a significant relationship ($B = 1.01, t = 3.14, SE = .32, p < .05$). Therefore, hypothesis 2a was supported.

H2b: Psychological empowerment will be positively related to self-efficacy.

The path between psychological empowerment and self-efficacy at time 1 was also found to be significant ($B = .79, t = 3.53, SE = .22, p < .05$). Hence, psychological empowerment has a direct effect on self-efficacy, thus supporting hypothesis 2b.

H2c: Psychological empowerment will be positively related to engagement in work.

Results analyzing the relationship between psychological empowerment and engagement at time 1 revealed that psychological empowerment did indeed have a significant direct effect on engagement ($B = .62, t = 3.17, SE = .19, p < .05$). Hypothesis 2c was also supported.

H3a: The relationship between P-O fit and each positive psychological state will be significantly mediated by psychological empowerment.

In order to test any mediating hypotheses, the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982) needs to be used because EQS only allows for the testing of direct effects, not indirect effects. In testing for the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between P-O fit and optimism, analyses revealed the mediating effect (ME) to be .012,

SE= .02, $z= 0.51$, ns. Furthermore, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between P-O fit and self-efficacy was also found to be non-significant with a mediating effect of .010, SE= .02, $z= 0.52$, ns. Similarly, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between P-O fit and engagement was found to be .01, SE= .01, $z= 0.51$, ns. Therefore, hypothesis 3a was not supported.

H3b: The relationship between N-S fit and D-A fit, the two aspects of P-J fit, and each positive psychological state will be significantly mediated by psychological empowerment.

Results revealed that psychological empowerment did indeed have a significant mediating effect on N-S fit and each of the PPSs. More specifically, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on N-S fit and optimism was .25, SE= .11, $z= 2.39$, $p<.05$. The mediating effect of psychological empowerment on N-S fit and self-efficacy was .20, SE= .08, $z= 2.55$, $p<.05$, and the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on N-S fit and engagement was .15, SE= .06, $z= 2.41$, $p<.05$.

Unfortunately, results also revealed that psychological empowerment did not have a significant mediating effect on D-A fit and optimism (ME= -.02, SE= .04, $z= -0.52$, ns), nor on D-A fit and self-efficacy (ME= -.02, SE= .04, $z= -0.52$, ns), nor on D-A fit and engagement (ME= -.01, SE= .03, $z= -0.52$, ns). As a result, hypothesis 3b was partially supported.

H3c: The relationship between P-S fit and each positive psychological state will be significantly mediated by psychological empowerment.

In testing for the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between P-S fit and optimism, analyses revealed the non-significant mediating effect to be $-.01$, $SE = .03$, $z = -0.24$, ns. Furthermore, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between P-S fit and self-efficacy was also found to be non-significant with a mediating effect of $-.004$, $SE = .02$, $z = -0.24$, ns. Similarly, the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between P-S fit and engagement was found to be $-.003$, $SE = .02$, $z = -0.24$, ns. Similar to hypothesis 3a, 3b was not supported.

H4a: Optimism at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2.

Results analyzing the relationships between optimism at time 1 and each of the time 2 outcomes revealed that optimism had a significant, positive direct effect on organizational commitment ($B = 4.35$, $t = 4.38$, $SE = .99$, $p < .05$), a significant direct effect on job satisfaction ($B = 4.01$, $t = 4.31$, $SE = .93$, $p < .05$), a significant direct effect on task performance ($B = .38$, $t = 1.97$, $SE = .19$, $p < .05$), a significant direct effect on organizational/coworker support performance ($B = .81$, $t = 3.02$, $SE = .27$, $p < .05$), a significant direct effect on teamwork performance ($B = .44$, $t = 2.17$, $SE = .20$, $p < .05$), and a significant direct effect on cognitive/motivational performance ($B = .57$, $t = 2.57$, $SE = .22$, $p < .05$). In addition, optimism also had a significant, negative direct effect on intentions to leave ($B = -2.93$, $t = -4.31$, $SE = .68$, $p < .05$) and on perceived stress ($B = -.51$, $t = -2.50$, $SE = .20$, $p < .05$). In all, hypothesis 4a was fully supported.

H4b: Self-efficacy at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2.

Interestingly, self-efficacy also had a significant, but negative direct effect on organizational commitment ($B = -1.30$, $t = -4.51$, $SE = .29$, $p < .05$), job satisfaction ($B = -.55$, $t = -2.24$, $SE = .25$, $p < .05$), organizational/coworker support performance ($B = -.54$, $t = -3.19$, $SE = .17$, $p < .05$), and teamwork performance ($B = -.41$, $t = -2.79$, $SE = .15$, $p < .05$), and a significant, but positive direct effect on intentions to leave ($B = .91$, $t = 4.33$, $SE = .21$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, self-efficacy did not have a significant direct effect on perceived stress, task performance, or cognitive/motivational performance. Even though self-efficacy had five significant direct effects on the outcome factors, these effects were all in the opposite direction than was previously proposed; therefore, hypothesis 4b was unsupported.

H4c: Engagement at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2.

Unfortunately, engagement at time 1 did not have a significant direct effect on any of the time 2 outcome factors. Therefore, hypothesis 4c was unsupported.

H5a: Psychological empowerment at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the mediation of optimism.

Results analyzing the mediating effect of optimism on the relationship between psychological empowerment and the individual outcomes revealed that optimism significantly mediated the relationship between empowerment and organizational commitment (ME= 4.38, SE= 1.72, $z= 2.55$, $p<.05$), job satisfaction (ME= 4.04, SE= 1.59, $z= 2.54$, $p<.05$), coworker/organizational support performance (ME= .81, SE= .37, $z= 2.17$, $p<.05$), cognitive/motivational performance (ME= .57, SE= .29, $z= 1.99$, $p<.05$), intentions to leave (ME= -2.95, SE= 1.16, $z= -2.54$, $p<.05$), and perceived stress (ME= -.51, SE= .26, $z= -1.96$, $p<.05$). Furthermore, the mediating effect of optimism was nearing significance on the relationship between psychological empowerment and task performance (ME= .38, SE= .23, $z= 1.67$, $p<.10$), and teamwork performance (ME= .44, SE= .25, $z= 1.79$, $p<.10$). Therefore, hypothesis 5a was almost fully supported.

H5b: Psychological empowerment at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the mediation of self-efficacy.

Similar to the outcome of hypothesis 4b, self-efficacy significantly moderated the relationship between psychological empowerment and four outcomes; however, these relationships were not in the expected direction. More specifically, self-efficacy significantly mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational commitment (ME= -1.03, SE= .37, $z= -2.78$, $p<.05$), coworker/organizational support performance (ME= -.43, SE= .18, $z= -2.37$, $p<.05$), teamwork performance (ME= -.32, SE= .15, $z= -2.19$, $p<.05$), and intentions to leave

(ME= .72, SE= .26, $z= 2.74$, $p<.05$). Furthermore, the mediating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between psychological empowerment and job satisfaction was nearing significance with a mediating effect of -.44, SE= .23, $z= -1.89$, $p<.10$. The relationship between psychological empowerment and cognitive/motivational performance, and between psychological empowerment and perceived stress was not found to be significantly mediated by self-efficacy. Given that the significant findings were not in the hypothesized direction, hypothesis 5b was unsupported.

H5c: Psychological empowerment at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 the mediation of engagement in work.

Unfortunately, engagement did not significantly mediate the relationships between psychological empowerment and the proposed outcomes at time 2. Therefore, hypothesis 5c was unsupported.

H6a: P-O fit at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and the PPSs.

Due to the non-significant direct effect of P-O fit on psychological empowerment (i.e. hypothesis 1a was unsupported), and further seeing that P-O fit failed to have a significant indirect effect on any of the PPSs (i.e. hypothesis 3a was unsupported), it therefore logically follows that hypothesis 6a would be unsupported.

H6b: N-S fit and D-A fit, the two aspects of P-J fit, at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and the PPSs.

Similar to single mediating effects, the standard error and coefficient of the paths from the IV to the mediating variable (MV), as well as from the MV to the DV are needed to test for sequential mediation. With sequential mediation, however, an additional path coefficient is needed from the MV1 to MV2. Thus, three paths are used in the calculation: 1) IV – MV1, 2) MV1 – MV2, and 3) MV2 – DV. In addition, the multivariate standard error (see Taylor, MacKinnon, & Tein, 2007) was calculated and used to test the significance of the mediating pathway according to the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982).

Through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and optimism, results revealed that N-S fit had a significant indirect effect on organizational commitment (ME= 1.10, SE= .52, $z= 2.10$, $p<.05$), on job satisfaction (ME= 1.01, SE= .49, $z= 2.09$, $p<.05$), and on intentions to quit (ME= -.74, SE= .35, $z= -2.09$, $p<.05$). In addition, the sequential mediation of N-S fit through empowerment and optimism was nearing significance on coworker/organizational support (ME= .20, SE= .11, $z= 1.87$, $p<.10$), on cognitive/motivational effectiveness (ME= .14, SE= .08, $z= 1.75$, $p<.10$), and on perceived stress (ME= -.13, SE= .07, $z= -1.73$, $p<.10$). In using the PPS of self-efficacy as the MV2 (MV1 was still psychological empowerment), N-S fit was found to

have an indirect effect on organizational commitment (ME= -.26, SE= .12, $z = -2.22$, $p < .05$), on coworker/organizational support (ME= -.11, SE= .05, $z = 1.99$, $p < .05$), and on intentions to quit (ME= .18, SE= .08, $z = 2.20$, $p < .05$). Furthermore, the sequential mediation of N-S fit through empowerment and self-efficacy was nearing significance on job satisfaction (ME= -.11, SE= .07, $z = -1.68$, $p < .10$), as well as on teamwork (ME= -.08, SE= .04, $z = -1.88$, $p < .10$).

Note that similar to the other mediating effects using self-efficacy (i.e. hypothesis 5b), effects are in the opposite direction as had been previously proposed. Because N-S fit had significant sequential mediating effects in using both optimism and self-efficacy as MV2, the results of the sequential mediation are only reported here and not in Table 4.

Due to the non-significant direct effect of D-A fit on psychological empowerment (hypothesis 1b), and the failure of D-A fit to have an indirect effect on any of the PPSs (hypothesis 3b), it logically follows that D-A fit would not have an indirect effect through sequential mediation on any of the individual or organizational outcomes. However, hypothesis 6b was partially supported given the significant sequential mediation findings using N-S fit as the IV.

H6c: P-S fit at time 1 will be positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, the performance dimensions, and negatively related to intentions to leave and perceived stress at time 2 through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and the PPSs.

Similar to hypothesis 6a, the sequential mediation of P-S fit on any of the outcome variables will be non-significant, given the fact that previous analyses revealed

no significant direct effect from P-S fit to empowerment (hypothesis 1c), nor a direct effect from P-S fit to any of the PPSs (hypothesis 3c). Therefore, hypothesis 6c was unsupported.

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

This research tested theoretical models of the relationships among various P-E fit indices, psychological empowerment, PPSs, and both individual and organizational outcomes. The results of this study yielded many findings supporting key hypotheses. Given that a multi-dimensional approach was taken to examine the various P-E fit indices, as well as the proximal and distal outcomes of such, the findings are particularly valuable. Interestingly, out of the four P-E fit indices examined in this study, only N-S fit was shown to be related to the proposed outcomes. Throughout this discussion, I will first focus on the direct and indirect relationships found in this study, with proper explanations given for each finding. Additionally, I will explore how these specific findings contribute to the field of not only I-O psychology, but positive psychology as well. Last, the limitations of this research will be discussed, along with future research directions.

Direct Relationships

Concerning the direct relationships between the P-E fit indices and psychological empowerment, N-S fit was the only dimension found to have a significant direct effect on psychological empowerment. It may be that psychological empowerment is more job-specific, rather than a phenomenon that occurs at the organizational or supervisor level. For example, the items in the empowerment scale assess the capabilities, opportunities, and impact individuals have in their work activities and their job. Although Spreitzer (1995) has indicated that the concept of psychological empowerment is associated with

the workplace, she has never indicated specifically at what level within the workplace empowerment would best be understood. However, given the nature of the scale items, it may be assumed that individuals derive empowerment from their jobs, not their organization, or through a relationship with their supervisor. This may explain why P-O fit and P-S fit failed to have a direct effect on empowerment.

In addition, D-A fit also failed to have a direct effect on psychological empowerment. Remember that D-A fit has been defined as the match between the demands of a job (e.g. requirements concerning knowledge, skill level, etc.) and an employee's specific KSAOs, while N-S fit has been conceptualized as the match between an employee's needs, desires, and preferences, and how these needs are met by the job performed (Edwards, 1991). In looking at the distinct definitions of both D-A and N-S fit, it is somewhat apparent as to why N-S fit had a direct effect on empowerment and D-A fit did not. In essence, employees may have the KSAOs needed to do a job, but may derive no meaning or empowerment out of being able to do their job, especially if they are over-qualified for their specific position. However, if an employee's needs and preferences are met by the job that they currently hold, a sense of competence, impact, and independence is likely to be a direct result. This conceptualization may help to explain why N-S fit, but not D-A fit, had a direct effect on psychological empowerment.

Although N-S fit was the only fit dimension to have a direct effect on psychological empowerment, results revealed that psychological empowerment did in fact have a direct effect on all three PPSs. Even though past research has not examined the relationship between psychological empowerment and any PPS, Spreitzer (1995) has

found a significant relationship between empowerment and self-esteem, and Geralis and Terziovski (2003) found that empowerment was related to employee well-being. Given that employees with high psychological empowerment are likely to feel competent, independent, and impactful, it is not surprising that empowerment would have a direct effect on optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement. Hence, employees high in psychological empowerment are more likely to hold favorable expectancies about their future, believe that they can accomplish many of their job tasks, and invest a large part of themselves into their job performance.

Past research examining the outcomes of optimism have found optimism at time 1 to be related to job satisfaction, personal accomplishment, and intentions to quit at time 2 (Kirk & Koeske, 1995). Indeed, the present study also found that optimism at time 1 had a positive direct effect on job satisfaction and a negative direct effect on intentions to quit at time 2. Furthermore, this study contributes to research in the area of positive psychology by showing that optimism also had a positive direct effect on organizational commitment, task performance, organizational/coworker support, cognitive/motivational effectiveness, teamwork, and a negative direct effect on perceived stress at time 2. Thus, it is quite apparent that employees who have a positive orientation and expect good things to happen to them at work will likely be better performers, have higher commitment to their organization and lower intentions to quit, perceive to be less stressed, and experience higher job satisfaction than those employees who are more pessimistic.

Self-efficacy was found to have a direct effect on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, coworker/organizational support, teamwork, and intentions to quit.

Interestingly though, these effects were all in the opposite direction than had been originally hypothesized. Thus, individuals with high self-efficacy were more likely to have lower organizational commitment, job satisfaction, coworker support, and teamwork. Furthermore, those employees high in self-efficacy possessed higher intentions to quit as well.

Past research examining the relationship between self-efficacy and some of these distal outcomes found that among health care employees who were deemed benevolent, there was a greater negative relationship between self-efficacy and job satisfaction, as well as a stronger positive relationship between self-efficacy and intent to leave over employees who were labeled as entitled. (O'Neill & Mone, 1998). The authors used equity theory (see Festinger, 1954 for an overview) as a basis for their explanation regarding the above findings. In equity theory, benevolents are seen as individuals who are 'givers' and have a high tolerance for under-reward. Entitled individuals on the other hand prefer their outcomes to exceed their inputs relative to others; entitleds' derive contentment from 'getting a better deal' than those around them. As such, the moderating effect of equity sensitivity in this study lessened the satisfaction and increased intentions to leave for those individuals high in self-efficacy relative to those low in self-efficacy. Given that this study's sample was very similar to that of O'Neill and Mone's (1998), it is likely that the employees sampled would be considered 'givers' rather than 'takers.' Furthermore, the mean self-efficacy in this study was 4.15 on a 5-point scale. While the relationships found between self-efficacy and the distal outcomes in this study are somewhat at odds with the generally positive effects found in the

positive psychology literature, they do seem to be somewhat consistent with past research (also see Mone, 1994). Given the high level of self-efficacy obtained in this study, it may be the case that employees need additional career opportunities, redesigned work, or altered reward systems in order to negate the effects found in this study.

Unlike optimism or self-efficacy, engagement did not have a direct effect on any of the distal outcomes. This is surprising given that past research has found engagement to be related to both job performance (Britt et al., 2006; Harter et al., 2003) and turnover (Harter et al., 2003). Notably, the mean of engagement on a 5-point scale in this study was 4.57, with a SD of 0.47. As one can see, there is very little variance among employees' ratings of engagement. This may explain the lack of findings in this study surrounding engagement.

Indirect Relationships

Regarding the significant indirect effects found in this study, N-S fit was found to have an indirect effect on all three PPSs, optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement, through the mediation of psychological empowerment. It is likely the case that when employees' feel that their needs and requirements are being fulfilled by their job, they are more likely to be assured about their capabilities, have an impact within their work role, and experience job autonomy. As a result, employees' confidence about future work goals, their belief in their ability to obtain those work goals, and their engagement in work is likely to increase. Given the findings that P-O fit, D-A fit, and P-S fit failed to have direct effects on psychological empowerment, the results concerning the lack of significant indirect effects with these factors is not surprising.

In addition, psychological empowerment was found to have a significant indirect effect on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, coworker/organizational support, intentions to quit, and perceived stress through the mediation of optimism. Furthermore, the indirect effects on task performance and teamwork through optimism were nearing significance; it is likely that with a larger sample size, these indirect effects would have been significant. Through the mediation of self-efficacy, psychological empowerment also had an indirect effect on organizational commitment, coworker/organizational support, teamwork, and intentions to quit. Taken together, these findings support the idea that through the mediation of specific PPSs, namely, optimism and self-efficacy, psychological empowerment can have an effect on both individual and organizational outcomes. These findings are consistent with the research by Spreitzer (1995), who found performance effectiveness to be a significant outcome of empowerment. Furthermore, Gernalis and Terziovski (2003) found that empowerment significantly predicted well-being. Hence, this study adds to the literature of psychological empowerment in that analyses revealed empowerment was predictive of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intentions to quit, as well as performance and stress at time 2, which has yet to be established in the literature.

Possibly most important, N-S fit at time 1 had an indirect effect on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to quit, and coworker/organizational support at time 2 through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and two PPSs, namely, optimism and self-efficacy (note that analyses were ran separately in considering optimism and self-efficacy as the MV2). This finding has important implications for how

N-S fit may, over time, affect specific outcomes. First, much concern has been raised regarding the heavy reliance on single-source reporting of fit-outcome relationships, which is likely to lead to common rater bias (see Edwards, 1993). One suggestion to reduce the impact of rater bias, proposed by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), is to temporally separate the measurement of the predictor and the criterion. Given that a time-delay is likely to reduce consistency and illusory correlations between constructs (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003), larger relationships between fit and its respected attitudinal outcomes are expected in a concurrent study, as opposed to a longitudinal study. Yet, this study was able to find significant indirect effects of N-S fit on four vital criteria, thus providing stronger evidence for the relationships among N-S fit and its outcomes.

Secondly, psychological empowerment and two PPSs were found to sequentially mediate the relationship between N-S fit and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to quit, and coworker/organizational support at time 2. This finding suggests that when employees feel that their needs and preferences are met by their job, they are more likely to feel as if they have an impact in their job and are self-assured about their capabilities to perform their work. In turn, this leads to increased states of optimism and self-efficacy, which as a result, significantly affects organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to quit, and coworker/organizational support.

Overall Findings

Overall, the novel results of this study have important implications for the fields of work motivation and positive psychology. First of all, this study is the first in its kind

to examine P-E fit with a positive psychological approach. Generally, most fit dimensions are studied in relationship to stress, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. For example, in their meta-analysis, Verquer et al. (2003) found P-O fit to be related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment throughout most of the datasets used in their study. Furthermore, Van Harrison (1978, 1985) has found through multiple studies that P-O fit is negatively related to strain. However, until this study, I had yet to see how P-E fit might be related to certain positive constructs, such as psychological empowerment and PPSs. Indeed, this study did reveal that N-S fit was the only fit dimension to have a direct effect on psychological empowerment and indirect effects on optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement.

Furthermore, this study took a multi-dimensional look at P-E fit and how different fit indices may relate to separate outcomes. Although Saks and Ashforth (2002) examined P-J and P-O fit in the same study, the authors failed to separate P-J fit out into N-S and D-A fit. Furthermore, these authors found that P-J and P-O fit were both related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intentions to quit. However, Saks and Ashforth's (2002) study was cross-sectional in nature, whereas this study was longitudinal in design and not only replicated these findings for N-S fit, but showed support for an indirect effect from N-S to coworker/organizational support as well. In fact, given the combination of this study with Saks and Ashforth's findings, it may be the case that P-O fit is not longitudinally related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intentions to quit. In addition, while Cable and DeRue (2002) did utilize the two distinct dimensions of N-S and D-A fit in their study on the convergent and

discriminant validity of subjective fit, they failed to incorporate P-S fit into their research. To my knowledge, this research is the only one to date that has incorporated all dimensions of fit (excluding P-G fit). Furthermore, this study utilized the two sub-dimensions of P-J fit: N-S and D-A fit, which has rarely been done in the literature. In replicating the findings of Cable and DeRue (2002), N-S fit was found to have an indirect relationship on job satisfaction while D-A fit was not. However, while Cable and DeRue (2002) utilized regression techniques and a cross-sectional design, this study utilized SEM and a longitudinal design, and was still able to find that N-S fit had an indirect effect on specific outcomes through the sequential mediation of psychological empowerment and two PPSs.

In her 2005 meta-analysis, Kristof-Brown called for future research in the P-E fit domain to concentrate on additional personal and environmental characteristics that may act as moderators of the fit-outcome relationships. In fact, a handful of studies have already begun to examine how certain moderators impact P-E fit indices and their outcomes (see Shaw & Gupta, 2004). Although examining the moderators of fit is important for the field, it is equally important to research the potential mediators of fit and its outcomes. While surprising given the vast amount of research on P-E fit, I have yet to see any studies examine the effect of mediators between any fit construct with either individual or organizational outcomes. Yet, this study incorporates a sequential mediation approach to examine both individual and organizational outcomes and found that psychological empowerment and both optimism and self-efficacy were revealed as significant mediators of the fit-outcome relationships.

Limitations

Before discussing the practical implications of this study, the potential limitations should be discussed. One previously mentioned limitation was the need to shorten the measures used in this study. Of notable shortening was the psychological empowerment scale. While originally 12 items, with 3 items measuring each of the 4 dimensions, the psychological empowerment scale was initially reduced to 4 items, with one item measuring each of the 4 dimensions in order to save time in completing the overall assessment. However, in assessing the measurement model, item one (i.e. the meaning dimension) was found to be multi-dimensional in nature, with the Lagrange Multiplier test suggesting multiple covariances between this item and others. As a result, this item was dropped from the empowerment scale in order to increase model fit. The result was a 3 item scale with one dimension of empowerment missing from analyses. Although a preferred alternative would have been to use the entire 12 item empowerment scale, analyses did reveal significant findings among empowerment and its antecedents and consequences. It is likely that if the 12 item scale had been used, the direct and indirect effects incorporating empowerment would have been stronger.

Another limitation of the current study was that due to EQS memory limitations, the observed variables of P-O and P-S fit (at both time 1 and time 2) were used in the measurement model instead of the factors and their respective indicators. This was done in order to incorporate all constructs across both time periods into the model. Although the factor loadings of these items were all above .80, measurement invariance was established, and the alpha levels of all scales were above .90, it would have been

preferable to use the factors instead of the observed variables in the measurement model. As a result of using the observed variables in the measurement model, they of course had to be used in the structural model as well. Analyses revealed that both P-O and P-S fit did not have any significant direct effects. Potentially, results may have been different if actual P-O and P-S fit factors were used instead of their observed variables.

Additional limitations of this study may be due to faking effects. Although the researchers took great pre-caution to inform employees that their responses would remain confidential, there were a handful of participants who still verbally questioned the confidentiality of their responses. Given that such extreme precautions were taken to inform the participants of the importance of this study and the positive organizational implications that could result from honest responses to our assessment, it is unlikely that faking effects took place.

One last potential limitation worth noting is that the scale means in this study were generally very positive and above average. On top of that, the standard deviations were generally small, indicating that the variance in these factors may not have been much (hence the high kurtosis mentioned previously). However, given that this study still found many significant relationships, this potential limitation may therefore be considered a strength of the study. That is, given a different sample, the variance in these factors may increase, and thus, the findings reported in this study may be even stronger.

Practical Implications

There are several noteworthy practical implications of this research for both organizations and employees. Specifically, given the significant findings surrounding N-

S fit, it is equally important for employees to ensure that they express their needs and preferences in a job, as it is for organizational developers to guarantee that those needs and preferences are being met by the job. Findings support the hypothesis that psychological empowerment, optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement in work are proximal outcomes of N-S fit, while organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to quit, and coworker/organizational support are distal outcomes. As such, in order to reap the positive outcomes of N-S fit, it is vital that employees first perceive that their needs and preferences are being supplied in their job.

This research also supported the significant findings involving self-efficacy. Interestingly though, the findings provided through this study revealed negative relationships among self-efficacy and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational/coworker support, teamwork, and a positive direct effect on intentions to leave. While initially these findings may seem counter-intuitive, it may be that the employees used in this sample are extremely confident in their abilities to perform their work, potentially to the point that they are bored or unsatisfied with their work tasks. As a result, additional career opportunities, redesigned work tasks, or a different reward system may need to be implemented. Because self-efficacy is treated as a state, and therefore malleable, and due to its domain specificity (i.e. one's work role), it may be the case that with restructuring of the job or the reward system, one's confidence in their abilities to perform their work tasks may still be average or above average, but not so significant to the point that where they are bored or under-satisfied with their job tasks.

Overall, a sound practical suggestion for organizations would be to collect information regarding what needs and preferences employees' are looking for to be met in a job. If job needs and preferences are not being met, it may be the case that employees are in a role that provides them with a poor P-J fit. As a solution, organizations should look to utilize certain job resources, such as job rotation or a flexible work schedule, or even a job switch for employees with extremely low P-J fit.

Directions for Future Research

The current study was one of the first to implement a positive psychological approach to studying P-E fit. Furthermore, in taking a multi-dimensional approach to examining fit, it was found that certain P-E fit indices have specific proximal and longitudinal outcomes, where as other fit indices were found to be un-related to all criteria. At its best though, this study only provides a specific contribution to the field. Areas of future research, such as examining P-E fit as the dependent variables, utilizing polynomial regression techniques to assess fit, and measuring fit in a manner that is more likely to provide an actual level of fit, are discussed below.

Much of the research to date examining any dimension of P-E fit has treated fit as the main predictor, rather than the criterion (Kristof-Brown, 2005). More specifically, what are the mechanisms that may stimulate a level of high fit, or what does it mean to employees or applicants to 'fit' with their job? Although past research have utilized applicant samples in examining fit (see Saks & Ashforth, 1997), much of this research has focused on applicants' perceptions of how well they believe they would fit with their potential job or employer, failing to concentrate on what may predict these perceptions of

potential fit. Researchers have continuously used Schneider's ASA model to theoretically explain why fit or misfit may have occurred (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995). However, the empirical examination using the ASA model to explain through which mechanisms high levels of fit occur has yet to be done.

Furthermore, while Edwards (1991) has proposed that future research begin utilizing polynomial regression techniques, few researchers to date have actually done so. In using polynomial regression analyses to examine fit, it has been found that misfit effects are often asymmetrical (Edwards, 1991). This implies that a comparison of the person and his/her environment are providing different perceptions of where misfit is occurring. In using polynomial regression, organizations are more likely to find out on what dimensions misfit is taking place. As a result, organizations can take the necessary steps to correct this misfit.

Methodologically, there is a need to provide a better conceptualization of what 'fit' is. This study used a subjective approach to examining fit, such that fit was assessed solely through the perceptions of the employees. Future research examining fit should take an objective approach, such that fit should be operationalized through the match of an employee profile with that of an organization's profile. O'Reilly et al. (1991) have adopted this approach in designing the OCP, the values-based instrument that can be used in a selection setting to examine whether applicants' values are compatible with that of the organization's values. In doing such, the applicant creates a profile of his/her preferred values that is matched to the organization's profile of values created by the organization's subject matters experts (SMEs). Only by examining different

operationalizations of what fit is can we begin to know how to best conceptualize this vast research on P-E fit.

Conclusion

In using a longitudinal approach, this study aimed to integrate the prior research conducted on P-E fit and positive psychological concepts. More specifically, a multi-dimensional approach to P-E fit was used to examine the potential proximal and distal outcomes of such. Results indicate that N-S fit has a direct effect on psychological empowerment, and in turn, an indirect effect on optimism, self-efficacy, and engagement in work. Furthermore, through sequential mediation, N-S fit was found to have an indirect effect on organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to leave, and coworker/organizational support. The other fit indices, D-A, P-O, and P-S fit were not found to have a direct effect or indirect effect on any of the proposed distal or proximal outcomes. This study also empirically highlights the importance of examining mediators between the relationships of fit and both individual and organizational outcomes.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Person-Environment Fit

Please indicate to what extent you agree that each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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 I want from a job.					
4. The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills.					
5. My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job.					
6. My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me.					
7. The things I value in life are very similar to the things my organization values.					
8. My personal values match my organization's values and culture.					
9. My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the things I value in life.					
13. The things I value in life are very similar to the things my supervisor values.					
14. My personal values match my supervisor's values and beliefs.					
15. My supervisor's values and beliefs provide a good fit with the things I value in life.					

Appendix B

Psychological Empowerment

Please indicate to what extent you agree that each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. The work I do is meaningful to me.							
2. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.							
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.							
4. My impact on what happens in my department is large.							

Appendix C

Optimism

Please indicate to what extent you agree that each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. If something can go wrong for me at work, it will.					
2. I hardly ever expect things to go my way at work.					
3. I rarely count on good things happening to me at work.					
4. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad at work.					

Appendix D

Self-Efficacy

Please indicate to what extent you agree that each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. When facing difficult tasks at work, I am certain that I will accomplish them.					
2. At work, I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.					
3. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges at work.					
4. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks at work.					

Appendix E

Engagement in Work

Please indicate to what extent you agree that each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I am committed to performing well at my job.					
2. How well I do in my job matters a great deal to me.					
3. I really care about the outcomes that result from my job performance.					
4. I invest a large part of myself into my job performance.					

Appendix F

Organizational Commitment

Please indicate to what extent you agree with each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I do not feel a sense of belonging to my organization.							
2. I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization.							
3. I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organization.							
4. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.							

Appendix G

Intention to Leave

Please indicate to what extent you agree that each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I would prefer another more ideal job than the one I now work in.					
2. I have thought seriously about changing organizations since I began working here.					
3. I intend to remain with this organization.					
4. If I have my own way, I will be working for this organization three years from now.					

Appendix H

Job Performance

INSTRUCTIONS:

Note that these ratings are being collected FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES only. They will not be part of the subordinate's record and should not be shared with the subordinates. Please consider each employee you are rating. Then, using the scale provided, indicate how well this employee's performance is relative to his/her coworkers in the department.

Performance compared to other employees in the department:	Worst than Most	Worst than Average	Average	Better than Average	Better than Most
TASK PERFORMANCE:					
1. Adequately completes assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Attends to aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
ORGANIZATIONAL/ COWORKER SUPPORT:					
5. Helps smooth out relationships with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Tries to help and support coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Avoids becoming angry or hostile with coworkers or supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Offers suggestions to improve the department.	1	2	3	4	5
TEAMWORK:					
9. Helps other employees who have heavy workloads.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Communicates with coworkers regarding patient care.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Communicates any problems to the appropriate individual.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Helps new employees get oriented with the hospital.	1	2	3	4	5
COGNITIVE/ MOTIVATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS:					
13. Handles important details with sustained and focused attention.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Works with determination despite obstacles, setbacks, or frustration.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Remains calm, self-assured, and organized when reacting to difficult situations.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Maintains concentration when working long hours.	1	2	3	4	5
17. OVERALL PERFORMANCE	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix I

Job Satisfaction

Please indicate to what extent you agree with each of the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Somewhat Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.							
2. In general, I don't like my job.							
3. In general, I like working here.							
4. My job situation is very frustrating to me.							

Appendix J

Perceived Stress

For the following items, please indicate how often you have felt or thought a certain way using the following scale:	Very Often	Fairly Often	Sometimes	Almost Never	Never
1. In the last month, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?					
2. In the last month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?					
3. In the last month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?					
4. In the last month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome?					
5. At the end of the day, my job leaves me "stressed out".					
6. I feel a great deal of stress because of my job.					

Table 1.

Range, Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha Levels of Proximal and Longitudinal Outcomes of Person-Environment Fit.

Measure	Range	M	SD	Alpha Level
1. Person-Organization Fit	1.00-5.00	3.33	0.77	.90
2. Needs-Supply Fit	1.67-5.00	3.70	0.83	.89
3. Demands-Ability Fit	1.67-5.00	4.07	0.63	.85
4. Person-Supervisor Fit	1.00-5.00	3.27	0.94	.96
5. Psychological Empowerment	2.33-7.00	5.51	0.97	.61
6. Optimism	1.50-5.00	3.79	0.62	.80
7. Self-efficacy	2.00-5.00	4.15	0.49	.85
8. Engagement	3.00-5.00	4.57	0.47	.84
9. Organizational Commitment	1.33-7.00	4.94	1.27	.77
10. Intention to Leave	1.00-5.00	2.45	0.98	.84
11. Job Satisfaction	1.00-7.00	5.77	1.09	.91
12. Perceived Stress	1.00-4.25	2.41	0.70	.75
13. T2 Person-Organization Fit	1.00-5.00	3.43	0.82	.95
14. T2 Needs-Supply Fit	1.00-5.00	3.69	0.82	.91
15. T2 Demands-Ability Fit	2.00-5.00	4.01	0.59	.80
16. T2 Person-Supervisor Fit	1.00-5.00	3.27	0.98	.98
17. T2 Psychological Empowerment	1.33-7.00	5.42	1.00	.60
18. T2 Optimism	2.00-5.00	3.76	0.64	.85
19. T2 Self-efficacy	2.67-5.00	4.09	0.49	.83
20. T2 Engagement	3.00-5.00	4.46	0.49	.86
21. T2 Organizational Commitment	1.00-7.00	4.92	1.36	.85
22. T2 Intention to Leave	1.00-5.00	2.53	0.98	.83
23. T2 Task Performance	2.33-5.00	4.01	0.81	.95
24. T2 Organizational Performance	1.00-5.00	3.78	0.88	.88
25. T2 Teamwork Performance	2.00-5.00	3.94	0.79	.89
26. T2 Motivational Performance	2.00-5.00	3.88	0.84	.90
27. T2 Job Satisfaction	1.00-7.00	5.60	1.22	.90
28. T2 Perceived Stress	1.00-4.50	2.31	0.67	.73

Table 2. Correlations Among the Proximal and Longitudinal Outcomes of Person-Environment Fit.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Person-Organization Fit	-									
2. Needs-Supply Fit	.450**	-								
3. Demands-Ability Fit	.309**	.581**	-							
4. Person-Supervisor Fit	.514**	.549**	.332**	-						
5. Psychological Empowerment	.297**	.523**	.353**	.353**	-					
6. Optimism	.226**	.374**	.293**	.337**	.356**	-				
7. Self-efficacy	.092	.175**	.174*	.071	.443**	.252**	-			
8. Engagement	.130	.236**	.278**	.035	.268**	.153*	.312**	-		
9. Organizational Commitment	.532**	.626**	.355**	.547**	.493**	.423**	.217**	.141	-	
10. Intention to Leave	-.431**	-.712**	-.352**	-.558**	-.497**	-.465**	-.167*	-.237	-.608**	-
11. Job Satisfaction	.426**	.804**	.441**	.558**	.507**	.391**	.174*	.189**	.619**	-.758**
12. Perceived Stress	-.162*	-.228**	-.175*	-.086	-.217**	-.341**	-.212**	-.160*	-.257**	.273**
13. T2 Person-Organization Fit	.484**	.427**	.232**	.469**	.223**	.273**	.231**	.228*	.494**	-.401**
14. T2 Needs-Supply Fit	.220**	.631**	.358**	.399**	.392**	.339**	.172*	.131	.486**	-.603**
15. T2 Demands-Ability Fit	.150*	.406**	.492**	.323**	.314**	.259**	.235**	.166*	.344**	-.361**
16. T2 Person-Supervisor Fit	.358**	.388**	.236**	.654**	.248**	.215**	.087	.071	.463**	-.400**
17. T2 Psychological Emp.	.304**	.408**	.260**	.323**	.550**	.215**	.358**	.167*	.429**	-.414**
18. T2 Optimism	.262**	.297**	.237**	.295**	.367**	.538**	.301**	.201**	.415**	-.405**
19. T2 Self-efficacy	.147*	.143	.268**	.130	.216**	.251**	.396**	.189**	.022	-.199**
20. T2 Engagement	.164*	.142	.266**	.162*	.161*	.166*	.199**	.454**	.194**	-.210**
21. T2 Organizational Comm.	.376**	.560**	.263**	.449**	.413**	.406**	.107	.187**	.657**	-.626**
22. T2 Intention to Leave	-.225**	-.524**	-.242**	-.394**	-.347**	-.376**	-.130	-.228**	-.472**	.700**
23. T2 Task Performance	.079	.163*	.123	.267**	.091	.183*	.053	.040	.135	-.218**
24. T2 Organizational Perf.	.152*	.211**	.100	.358**	.065	.222**	-.107	.022	.228**	-.204**
25. T2 Teamwork Performance	.071	.135	.073	.313**	.016	.139	-.062	-.037	.197**	-.154*
26. T2 Motivational Performance	.110	.151*	.042	.249**	.137	.266**	.067	.002	.205**	-.177*
27. T2 Job Satisfaction	.247**	.567**	.259**	.427**	.347**	.313**	.161*	.177*	.455**	-.578**
28. T2 Perceived Stress	-.112	-.152*	-.110	-.018	-.191**	-.413**	-.163*	-.129	-.241**	.251**

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 2 Continued. Correlations Among the Proximal and Longitudinal Outcomes of Person-Environment Fit.

Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Person-Organization Fit										
2. Needs-Supply Fit										
3. Demands-Ability Fit										
4. Person-Supervisor Fit										
5. Psychological Empowerment										
6. Optimism										
7. Self-efficacy										
8. Engagement										
9. Organizational Commitment										
10. Intention to Leave										
11. Job Satisfaction	-									
12. Perceived Stress	-.300**	-								
13. T2 Person-Organization Fit	.436**	-.142	-							
14. T2 Needs-Supply Fit	.592**	-.168*	.523**	-						
15. T2 Demands-Ability Fit	.352**	-.101	.380**	.616**	-					
16. T2 Person-Supervisor Fit	.342**	-.017	.537**	.397**	.299**	-				
17. T2 Psychological Emp.	.443**	-.158*	.416**	.514**	.424**	.332**	-			
18. T2 Optimism	.339**	-.295**	.426**	.464**	.337**	.350**	.457**	-		
19. T2 Self-efficacy	.153*	-.169*	.125	.182*	.303**	.106	.312**	.453**	-	
20. T2 Engagement	.202**	-.134	.208**	.101	.233**	.112	.176*	.287**	.369**	-
21. T2 Organizational Comm.	.586**	-.219**	.591**	.707**	.485**	.489**	.545**	.517**	.057	.203**
22. T2 Intention to Leave	-.528**	.187**	-.449**	-.754**	-.518**	-.426**	-.412**	-.461**	-.100	-.182*
23. T2 Task Performance	.156**	.007	.203**	.223**	.247**	.229**	.204**	.247**	.159*	.128
24. T2 Organizational Perf.	.198**	-.013	.145	.196**	.162*	.303**	.238**	.247**	-.001	.053
25. T2 Teamwork Performance	.119	-.010	.151*	.200**	.189**	.279**	.143	.217**	.054	.051
26. T2 Motivational Performance	.142	-.096	.178*	.203**	.158*	.255**	.252**	.298**	.126	.065
27. T2 Job Satisfaction	.631**	-.113	.580**	.801**	.440**	.491**	.587**	.506**	.168*	.192**
28. T2 Perceived Stress	-.259**	.532**	-.109	-.226**	-.154*	-.027	-.257**	-.383**	-.148*	-.156*

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 2 Continued. Correlations Among the Proximal and Longitudinal Outcomes of Person-Environment Fit.

Variable	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1. Person-Organization Fit								
2. Needs-Supply Fit								
3. Demands-Ability Fit								
4. Person-Supervisor Fit								
5. Psychological Empowerment								
6. Optimism								
7. Self-efficacy								
8. Engagement								
9. Organizational Commitment								
10. Intention to Leave								
11. Job Satisfaction								
12. Perceived Stress								
13. T2 Person-Organization Fit								
14. T2 Needs-Supply Fit								
15. T2 Demands-Ability Fit								
16. T2 Person-Supervisor Fit								
17. T2 Psychological Emp.								
18. T2 Optimism								
19. T2 Self-efficacy								
20. T2 Engagement								
21. T2 Organizational Comm.	-							
22. T2 Intention to Leave	-.755**	-						
23. T2 Task Performance	.224**	-.241**	-					
24. T2 Organizational Perf.	.356**	-.282**	.638**	-				
25. T2 Teamwork Performance	.264**	-.241**	.764**	.799**	-			
26. T2 Motivational Performance	.269**	-.223**	.849**	.669**	.768**	-		
27. T2 Job Satisfaction	.716**	-.709**	.188**	.268**	.212**	.200**	-	
28. T2 Perceived Stress	-.232**	.211**	-.068	-.071	.022	-.138	-.198**	-

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed)

Table 3.
Factor Loadings of Proximal and Longitudinal Outcomes of Person-Environment Fit.

Factor	Item Loadings (In order of survey appearance)
1. Person-Organization Fit	.82, .88, .91
2. Needs-Supply Fit	.90, .89, .78
3. Demands-Ability Fit	.74, .87, .88
4. Person-Supervisor Fit	.93, .96, .96
5. Psychological Empowerment (excluding item 1)	.37, .72, .67
6. Optimism	.61, .82, .90, .49
7. Self-efficacy (excluding item 4)	.70, .90, .83
8. Engagement (excluding item 3)	.85, .89, .70
9. Organizational Commitment (excluding item 2)	.78, .78, .66
10. Intention to Leave (excluding item 3)	.84, .80, .77
11. Job Satisfaction (excluding item 4)	.94, .86, .84
12. Perceived Stress	.54, .57, .92, .47
13. T2 Person-Organization Fit	.90, .96, .93
14. T2 Needs-Supply Fit	.89, .91, .86
15. T2 Demands-Ability Fit	.72, .83, .76
16. T2 Person-Supervisor Fit	.96, .98, .97
17. T2 Psychological Emp. (excluding item 1)	.38, .77, .65
18. T2 Optimism	.73, .91, .85, .59
19. T2 Self-efficacy (excluding item 4)	.67, .87, .81
20. T2 Engagement (excluding item 3)	.87, .98, .66
21. T2 Organizational Comm. (excluding item 2)	.83, .84, .74
22. T2 Intention to Leave (excluding item 3)	.80, .82, .76
23. T2 Task Performance (excluding item 4)	.91, .90, .90
24. T2 Organizational Perf. (excluding item 4)	.89, .84, .72
25. T2 Teamwork Performance	.80, .81, .78, .72
26. T2 Motivational Performance (excluding item 3)	.87, .81, .83
27. T2 Job Satisfaction (excluding item 4)	.94, .84, .76
28. T2 Perceived Stress	.45, .49, .80, .56

Table 4. Decomposition of Direct and Indirect Effects.

Unstandardized Direct Effects	P-O Fit	P-S Fit	N-S Fit	D-A Fit	Psychological Empowerment	Optimism	Self-efficacy	Engagement
Psychological Empowerment	.01	-.01	.25*	-.02				
Optimism					1.01*			
Self-Efficacy					.79*			
Engagement					.62*			
Organizational Commitment						4.35*	-1.30*	-.09
Job Satisfaction						4.01*	-.56*	.07
Task Perf.						.38*	-.15	-.06
Org/Coworker Support Perf.						.81*	-.54*	-.10
Cog/Motivation Perf.						.57*	-.11	-.08
Teamwork Perf.						.44*	-.41*	-.06
Int. to Leave						-2.93*	.91*	-.21
Perceived Stress						-.51*	-.12	-.02

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .10$

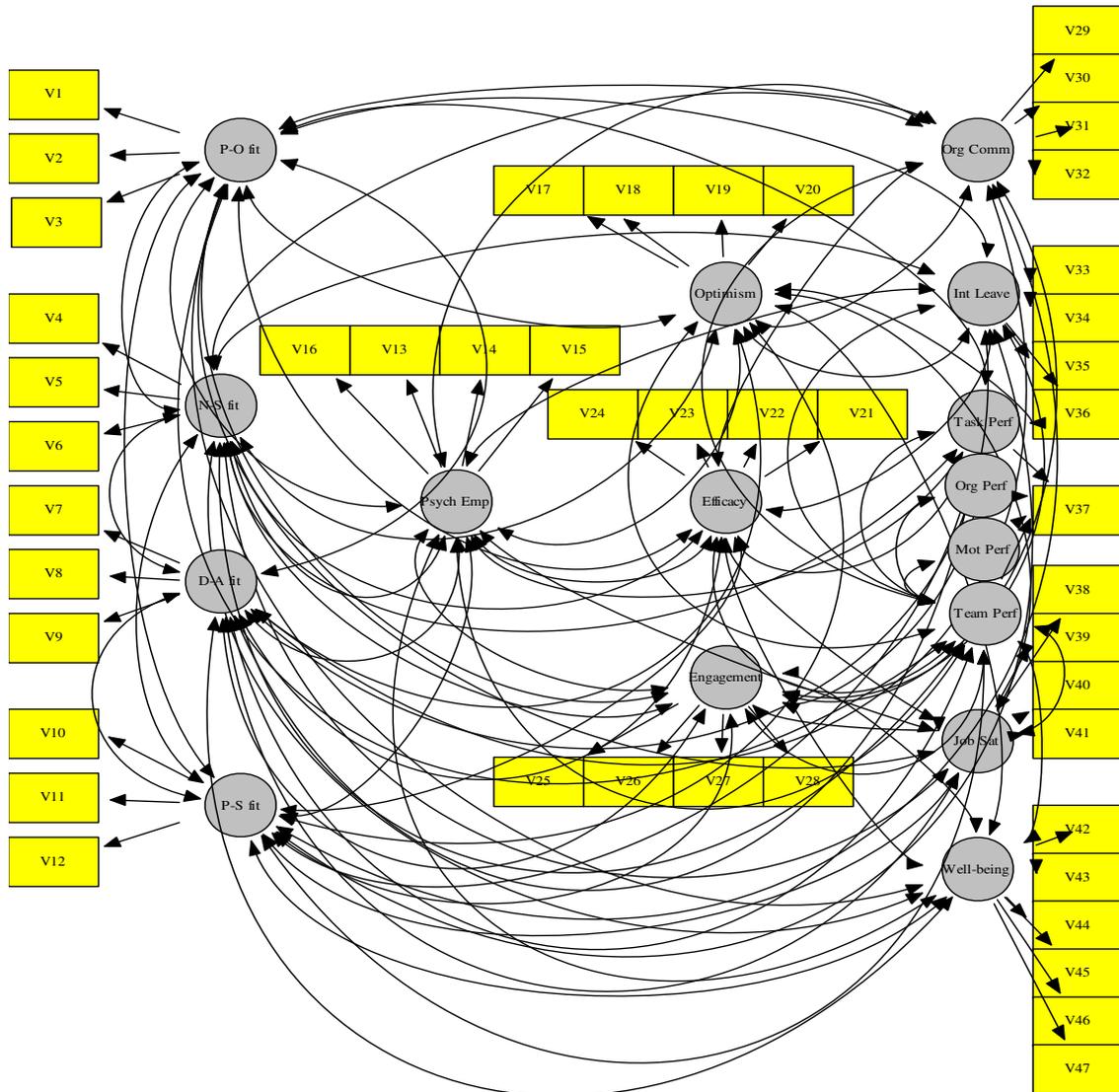
Table 4 Continued. Decomposition of Direct and Indirect Effects.

Unstandardized Indirect Effects	P-O Fit	P-S Fit	N-S Fit	D-A Fit	Psychological Empowerment (through optimism, self-efficacy, engagement)		
Psychological Empowerment							
Optimism	.01	-.01	.25*	-.02			
Self-Efficacy	.01	-.004	.20*	-.02			
Engagement	.01	-.003	.15*	-.01			
Organizational Commitment					4.38*	-1.03*	-.01
Job Satisfaction					4.04*	-.44**	-.05
Task Perf.					.38**	-1.12	.04
Org/Coworker Support Perf.					.81*	-.43*	-.04
Cog/Motivation Perf.					.57*	-.09	-.06
Teamwork Perf.					.44**	-.32*	-.05
Int. to Leave					-2.95*	.72*	-.03
Perceived Stress					-.51*	-.09	-.13

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .10$

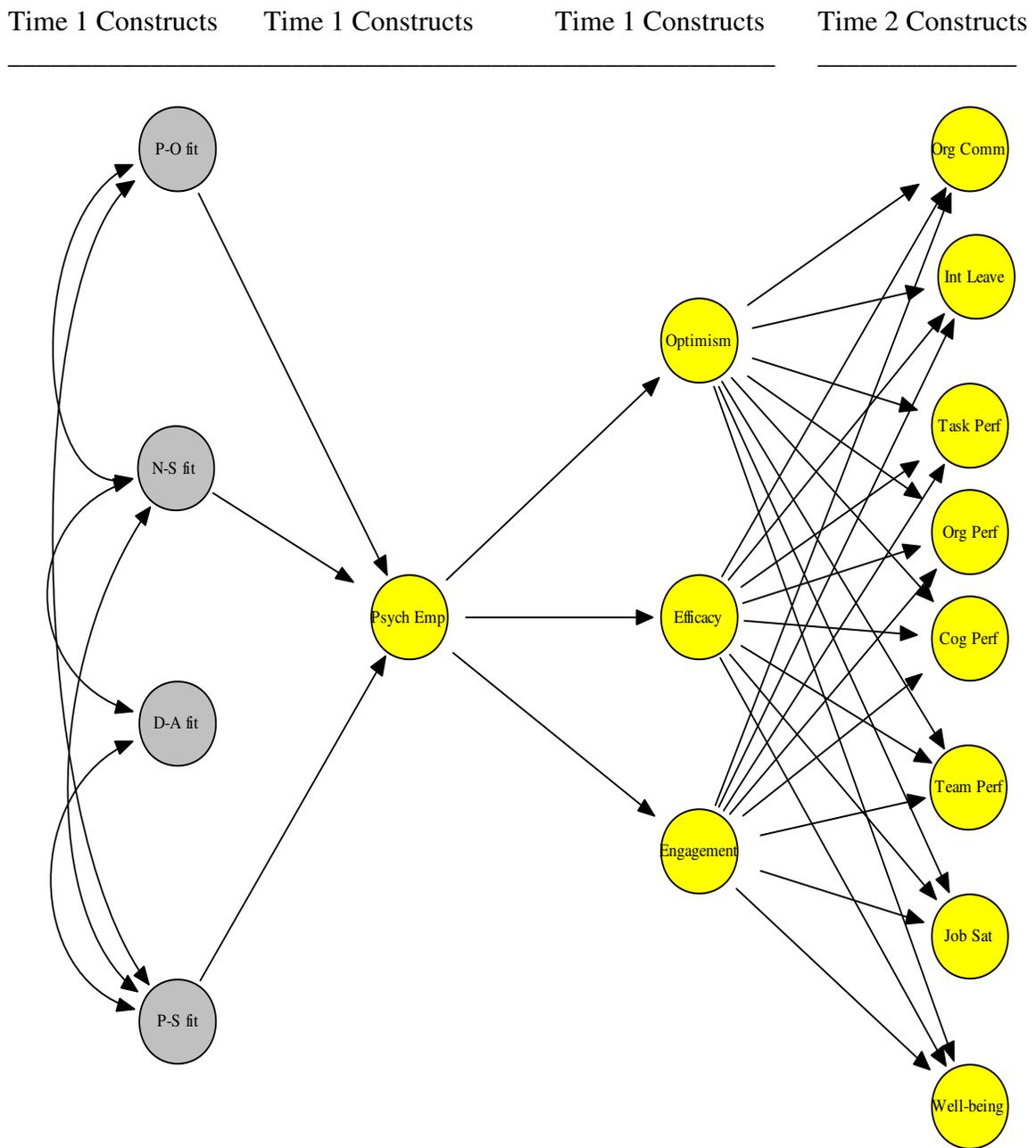
Figure 1. Proposed Measurement Model.

Time 1 Constructs Time 1 Constructs Time 1 Constructs Time 2 Constructs



*Note: Errors are omitted. In order to increase readability, the four performance factors in the above model only possess one indicator. In analyses, all indicators were used.

Figure 2. Proposed Structural Model.



*Note: Errors and correlation disturbances for the outcome measures are omitted.

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