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Gary J. GREGURAS
Singapore Management University, garygreguras@smu.edu.sg

James M. DIEFENDORFF
University of Akron
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Different Fits Satisfy Different Needs: Linking Person-Environment Fit to Employee Attitudes and Performance Using Self-Determination Theory

Gary J. Greguras
Singapore Management University
Lee Kong Chian School of Business
50 Stamford Road
Singapore 178899
Phone: 65.6828.0747
Fax: 65.6828.0777
Email: garygreguras@smu.edu.sg

James M. Diefendorff
Department of Psychology
University of Akron
Akron, OH 44325
Phone: 330.972.7317
Fax: 330.972.5174
Email: jdiefen@uakron.edu
Abstract

Integrating and expanding upon the person-environment fit (PE fit) and the self-determination theory literatures, we hypothesized and tested two competing models in which the satisfaction of the psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence mediated or partially mediated the relations between different types of PE fit (i.e., person-organization, person-group, and person-job fit) with employee attitudes (i.e., affective organizational commitment, job satisfaction) and overall job performance. Data from 164 full-time working employees and their supervisors were collected across three time periods. Results indicated that different types of PE fit predicted different types of psychological need satisfaction, and the satisfying of different psychological needs predicted different employee outcomes. Further, person-organization and person-job fit had both direct and indirect effects on employee attitudes. These results begin to explicate the processes through which different types of PE fit differentially relate to employee attitudes and behaviors.
Different Fits Satisfy Different Needs: Linking Person-Environment Fit to Employee Attitudes and Performance Using Self-Determination Theory

The match between employees and their work environments is one of the most widely researched topics in organizational behavior (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Schneider, 2001). This match between characteristics of individuals and their work environments is commonly referred to as person-environment fit (PE fit), or simply fit. Understanding PE fit is important because of its influence on outcomes at each phase of employees’ organizational life cycles. For example, perceptions of fit predict decisions to join organizations (Cable & Judge, 1996; Turban & Keon, 1993), behaviors and attitudes while employed (Tziner, 1987; Westerman & Cyr, 2004), and intentions to quit and exit the organization (O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

Why does fit relate to such a large and diverse set of employee attitudes and behaviors? Much of the theoretical rationale suggests that fit influences outcomes through the fulfillment of needs. As Arthur, Bell, Villado, and Doverspike (2006) note: “Theoretically, the relation between fit and attitudes is predicated on the reasoning that when there is fit, the environment affords individuals the opportunity to fulfill their needs…Need fulfillment results in favorable attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment” (p. 787). This rationale suggests that need fulfillment mediates the relations between fit and outcome variables, yet this theoretical assumption remains largely untested (for an exception, see Cable & Edwards, 2004). The lack of research investigating this fundamental theoretical proposition is especially surprising given the large amount of PE fit research. Although much is known about the correlates
of PE fit, much less is known about the processes through which PE fit influences employee work-related outcomes.

One theoretical framework that emphasizes the importance of psychological need satisfaction for well-being and optimal performance and that may explain why PE fit relates to employee attitudes and behaviors is self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985a; 1991). Self-determination theory (SDT) posits that individuals have three universal psychological needs pertaining to autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2001). According to SDT, the satisfaction of these psychological needs is essential for psychological growth, optimal functioning, and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Given the importance of satisfying these psychological needs, much of the SDT research has focused on elements of the social context that facilitate or thwart their satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000); PE fit may be one such element. Although SDT has been widely supported in a variety of disciplines and has been theorized to impact employees’ attitudes and behaviors, it has received little attention in organizational contexts (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Sheldon, Turban, Brown, Barrick, & Judge, 2003).

The current study integrates and builds upon the PE fit and SDT literatures to hypothesize and test two competing models in which psychological need fulfillment mediates or partially mediates the relations between different types of PE fit (e.g., person-organization fit, person-group fit) and employee attitudes and performance. In doing so, the current study makes the following contributions. First, as noted above, we provide a test of a fundamental tenet of PE fit theory that psychological need fulfillment explains how fit relates to employee outcomes. Second, the current study examines whether different types of fit satisfy different psychological needs, and whether the satisfaction of
these psychological needs relate to attitudes and performance. In doing so, the current study begins to explore the processes through which PE fit influences employee outcomes. Third, we assess multiple types of fit which enables us to examine the unique effects of different types of fit on attitudes and performance. As Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) noted in their meta-analysis of PE fit: “…research comparing the effects of simultaneous assessments of multiple kinds of fit is needed” (p. 323). Fourth, we conceptualize and examine “underexplored areas of fit” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 321) by including person-group fit (PG fit) in our hypothesized model. Fifth, we contribute to the SDT literature by investigating various types of fit as antecedents to the satisfaction of psychological needs. Applying the SDT framework to a work context also provides an assessment of the efficacy of SDT constructs to predict work-related criteria.

We begin by providing a brief overview of the various conceptualizations and types of PE fit. We also review PE fit research as it pertains to need fulfillment and discuss the basic theoretical framework and concepts of SDT. We then integrate these literatures to present and test two competing theoretical models in which psychological need satisfaction mediates or partially mediates the relations between PE fit and employee attitudes and performance.

PE Fit

Conceptualizations of PE fit typically distinguish between supplementary and complementary fit (see Kristof, 1996). Supplementary fit occurs when both the employee and the work environment possess the same characteristics (Kristof, 1996). For example, supplementary fit exists if the employee and the organization both value innovativeness. Supplementary fit has been operationalized in a variety of different ways including being
defined as the similarity between employees and organizations in their values, attitudes, personality traits, or goals (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Of these, value congruence is the most common operationalization and represents the similarity between individual values and those of the organization or its members (Chatman, 1989). In contrast, complementary fit occurs when the employee and the work environment possess different characteristics, but in doing so, add something that is missing to the other. That is, with complementary fit, the employee or the organization provides something that the other entity needs or wants. Integrating these different conceptualizations, Kristof (1996) offered the following definition of fit: “…fit is defined as the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both” (pp. 4-5).

In addition to the conceptual distinctions between supplementary and complementary fit, it is widely accepted that fit is a multidimensional concept (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998). The most commonly investigated types of fit include person-vocation fit (PV fit), person-organization fit (PO fit), and person-job fit (PJ fit), with less research examining person-group fit (PG fit) or person-supervisor fit (PS fit). Research suggests that these different types of fit are only moderately related to each other and that each relates differently to criteria (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). For example, research indicates that job satisfaction correlates more strongly with PJ fit than with PO fit, whereas, organizational commitment correlates more strongly with PO fit than PJ fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Although there is a substantial amount of research investigating the bivariate relations between PE fit and employee criteria, little research has examined the processes
through which PE fit relates to employee outcomes. As noted above, theoretically the fulfillment of psychological needs mediates the relations between PE fit and employee outcomes (Arthur et al., 2006). Cable and Edwards (2004) conducted the only study we could locate that investigated whether psychological need fulfillment mediates the relation of value congruence (supplementary PE fit) with employee work-related criteria. Their results indicated that need fulfillment partially mediated the relations between value congruence and employee attitudes. More specifically, they observed that the direct (i.e., unmediated) effect of fit on criteria was significant in every instance and in over half of the analyses was larger than the indirect effect (i.e., mediated through need fulfillment). In their directions for future research, Cable and Edwards (2004) suggested assessing the relations between value congruence, psychological need satisfactions, and employee outcomes using different samples, types of fit, and scales of values and psychological needs; the current study incorporates each of these suggestions.

In summary, the fit literature indicates that there are several conceptualizations (i.e., supplementary and complementary fit) and types of fit (e.g., PG fit, PS fit) that differentially relate to employee attitudes and behaviors. Limited research suggests that psychological need fulfillment partially mediates the relations between PE fit and employee outcomes. Additional research that investigates the relations between PE fit, psychological need satisfactions, and employee outcomes is needed to enhance our understanding of the processes through which, or reasons why, various types of fit differentially relate to employee outcomes. We contend that different types of fit may satisfy different psychological needs, and that the satisfaction of different psychological needs relates to distinct employee outcomes. Because SDT articulates the importance of
psychological need satisfaction in producing well-being, favorable attitudes, and positive behaviors, we believe SDT may be especially well-equipped for describing the processes through which various types of fit differentially relate to employee outcomes.

Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory is a motivational theory based on the premise that human beings inherently desire to develop and grow toward their fullest potential (for a detailed discussion, see Deci & Ryan 1991, 2001). According to SDT, the degree to which individuals actually develop to their fullest potential and function optimally depends on their ability to satisfy their innate psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2001). SDT argues that there are three innate psychological needs that are essential for optimal functioning: need for autonomy (i.e., need to exercise control over one’s actions), need for relatedness (i.e., need to feel connected with others), and need for competence (i.e., need to have an effect on one’s outcomes and surroundings). The satisfaction of these psychological needs is associated with high levels of intrinsic motivation, which relate to favorable outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2001). Research supports the relations of the psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness with positive outcomes (e.g., well-being) over time and across cultures (e.g., Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Usonov, & Kornazheva, 2001; Sheldon et al., 2004; Sheldon, Elliot, Kim, & Kasser, 2001).

Because of the integral role that psychological need satisfaction plays in influencing individual outcomes, SDT research typically has examined individual tendencies (e.g., personality traits) and elements of the social environments (e.g., reward structures) that facilitate or thwart the satisfaction of the psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000;
Sheldon et al., 2003). Extending SDT to an organizational context, it can be argued that factors that facilitate or thwart the satisfaction of one’s innate psychological needs impact employee intrinsic motivation, performance, job satisfaction, and other work-related criteria (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Sheldon et al., 2003). A basic premise of the current paper is that PE fit (misfit) is one factor that facilitates (thwarts) the satisfaction of these psychological needs, and therefore, leads to favorable (unfavorable) outcomes.

Present Investigation

We build upon the PE fit and SDT literatures by developing and testing two competing theoretical models in which satisfying employees’ psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence mediates (Model A) or partially mediates (Model B) the relations between various types of PE fit and employee attitudes and behavior. Model A is based on the theoretical rationale that PE fit influences employee outcomes through the satisfaction of psychological needs (Arthur et al., 2006). Model B is based on Cable and Edwards’s (2004) results that indicated value congruence (i.e., PE fit) directly and indirectly relates to employee work-related outcomes. Contrasting these competing theoretical models will allow us to identify the model that provides the most useful explanations and best fit to the data (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982).

In developing these two models, we theorize that different types of fit align with different psychological needs, and that the satisfaction of each psychological need uniquely relates to employee outcomes. Similar to Kristof-Brown, Jansen, and Colbert (2002), we examined employees’ fit with multiple systems of their work environments by assessing PO fit, PJ fit, and PG fit. We focused on subjective measures of fit because it is
the perception of fit or misfit that influences employee attitudes and behaviors (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Endler & Magnusson, 1976; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982).

_Hypothesized Model A: Full Mediation_

_**Linking PE fit to Psychological Need Satisfaction**_

The hypothesized models are presented in Figure 1 (Model A is represented by the solid lines, Model B is represented by the solid and dashed lines). Consistent with the majority of PO fit research, we conceptualize PO fit as the degree of value congruence between employees and the value systems of their organizations (Chatman, 1989; Kristof, 1996). Organizations’ value systems affect what organizations offer their employees (Schein, 1992), and similarly, employees’ values affect what they desire from their organizations (Cable & Edwards, 2004). To the degree that the value systems of employees and organizations are congruent, employees should be able to satisfy their needs.

We hypothesize that employees whose value systems match their organizations’ will be better able to satisfy their needs for autonomy. Organizations may support employee autonomy need satisfaction in a variety of ways including considering employees’ perspectives, offering opportunities for input, and sharing information across organizational levels (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994). Different employees likely prefer to satisfy their needs for autonomy in different ways. For example, some employees may prefer to participate in decision making while others may prefer to work independently. Further, if an employee prefers to participate in decision making and his organization allows him to do so, the employee should experience autonomy need satisfaction. However, if that same employee works in an organization that allows him to
work independently, but not to participate in decision making, he will likely not satisfy his need for autonomy. Therefore, we hypothesize that the degree of correspondence between employee and organizational values (i.e., PO fit) is expected to positively relate to employee autonomy need satisfaction.

We also hypothesize that employees whose values match their organizations will be more likely to satisfy their needs for relatedness and competence. Specifically, employees might desire, and organizations provide, various avenues for satisfying employees’ relatedness needs. Organizations, for example, might sponsor team building retreats, support a common break room which facilitates interactions among employees, or encourage mentoring or socialization initiatives to increase the bond among employees. As noted above, employees likely differ in how they prefer to satisfy their psychological needs. For example, some employees may prefer mentoring while others may prefer team building retreats. The degree of correspondence between what employees desire and what organizations offer (PO fit) is expected to positively relate to relatedness need satisfaction. Similarly, PO fit should increase the likelihood that employees feel competent (Chatman, 1989; Swann, 1983). That is, organizations may offer a variety of programs or resources to develop the competencies of their employees (e.g., by offering training programs, implementing multisource feedback systems, providing opportunities for employee skill development). Consistent with the rationale presented above, employees likely prefer different mechanisms in which to satisfy their competence needs. We expect that competence need satisfaction will positively relate to the degree to which the organization and employee value the same mechanisms or opportunities for skill development.
Hypothesis 1: PO fit positively relates to autonomy need satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: PO fit positively relates to relatedness need satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: PO fit positively relates to competence need satisfaction.

We also expect PG fit to positively relate to the satisfaction of employees’ relatedness needs. PG fit refers to the interpersonal compatibility between employees and their work groups (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). The compatibility among coworkers likely enhances workplace interactions and facilitates communication (Adkins, Ravlin, & Meglino, 1996). Consistent with Byrne’s (1971) similarity-attraction paradigm, coworkers who share common values also find it easier to work together and to develop stronger bonds with one another than with dissimilar coworkers (Jackson et al., 1991). Because employees who perceive themselves to be compatible with their coworkers are more likely to interact, communicate, and develop bonds with them, we predict that PG fit positively relates to employees’ relatedness need satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: PG fit positively relates to relatedness need satisfaction.

PJ fit refers to the match between an employee’s skills and abilities and those required to effectively perform one’s job (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). We hypothesize that employees with the appropriate skills and abilities for a particular job should feel more competent engaging in job-related activities compared to individuals who do not perceive that their abilities match job demands (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Specifically, employees with high PJ fit should receive favorable feedback about their performance from the task and others (e.g., supervisors), and this favorable feedback should increase their feelings of competence. Consistent with this rationale, favorable task feedback has been found to positively relate to one’s perceived competence (Sansone, 1986).
Hypothesis 5: PJ fit positively relates to competence need satisfaction.

Linking Need Satisfaction to Employee Outcomes

As proposed by Gangé and Deci (2005), the satisfaction of the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence is predicted to positively relate to job satisfaction. Similarly, several researchers have argued that employees’ whose needs are met should experience higher levels of job satisfaction than employees whose needs are not met (Locke, 1976; Cable & DeRue, 2002). Consistent with previous research demonstrating that each need satisfaction has an independent effect on well-being (Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000), we hypothesize that each of these need satisfactions positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: Autonomy need satisfaction positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: Relatedness need satisfaction positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8: Competence need satisfaction positively relates to job satisfaction.

Affective organizational commitment is commitment based on employees’ involvement and identification with the organization and reflects employees’ desires to stay with an organization because they want to stay (Meyer & Allen, 1991). We anticipated that autonomy need satisfaction would predict affective organizational commitment. Much of the organizational research on autonomy investigates organizational mechanisms that result in employee autonomy or supervisory support for autonomy (e.g., Deci, Connell, & Ryan, 1989). That is, autonomy is often tied to factors under the organization’s or supervisor’s control. As such, a person’s level of autonomy need satisfaction is predicted to positively relate to affective organizational commitment because, if employees left the organization, the organizational or supervisory support for
autonomy would be forfeited. Consistent with this rationale, a meta-analysis by Spector (1986) indicated that autonomy positively related to organizational commitment.

*Hypothesis 9*: Autonomy need satisfaction positively relates to affective organizational commitment.

Job performance is largely dependent on employees having the appropriate skills and competencies (e.g., Bartram, 2005; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). According to SDT, individuals who satisfy their needs for competence will be intrinsically motivated, and this intrinsic motivation leads to optimal performance (Deci & Ryan, 2001). Consistent with this rationale, past research has observed that competence need satisfaction positively relates to job performance (e.g., Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004).

*Hypothesis 10*: Competence need satisfaction positively relates to job performance.

**Hypothesized Model B: Partial Mediation**

*Linking PE Fit Directly to Employee Outcomes*

Consistent with the results of Cable and Edwards (2004), our competing Model B proposes several direct effects of PE fit on employee outcomes in addition to the indirect effects hypothesized above. Model B, therefore, contains all of the paths included in Model A but adds several direct paths from PE fit to employee outcomes. Below we provide theoretical rationale for linking the various types of fit directly to employee outcomes (see Figure 1). As a note of explanation, we did not hypothesize relations between fit and an employee outcome if Kristof-Brown et al.’s (2005) meta-analysis indicated that there was no relation between the two factors [e.g., PJ fit did not relate to
job performance in Kristof-Brown et al.’s (2005) meta-analysis, so we do not hypothesize this relation in the current study).

We hypothesize that PO fit positively relates to affective organizational commitment. As noted by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), fit with an organization should relate to organizational attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment). Employees who perceive themselves to fit with their organizations likely develop bonds with (Cable & DeRue, 2002), define themselves in terms of (Saks & Ashforth, 1997), and adopt the mission of (Cable & DeRue, 2002) their organizations. This increased compatibility likely increases their commitment to and desire to stay with the organization. We also expected PO fit to directly relate to job satisfaction. Specifically, researchers have identified a number of job satisfaction facets that includes, for example, opportunities for promotion, benefits, and pay (e.g., Spector, 1985). As such, we expect that the degree to which the organizations offer, and employees value, these features (PO fit), will be positively related to employee job satisfaction. Consistent with these ideas, research consistently observes that PO fit positively relates to organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

*Hypothesis 11*: PO fit positively relates to affective organizational commitment.

*Hypothesis 12*: PO fit positively relates to overall job satisfaction.

Research has identified coworkers as an important source of job satisfaction (e.g., Job Descriptive Index, Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Indeed, several measures of job satisfaction include items that refer to satisfaction with coworkers (e.g., Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979). Coworkers are an important source of job satisfaction because employees often depend on and interact with coworkers as part of their jobs. As noted by Locke
co-workers will be more satisfied with one another when they perceive one another to share similar rather than dissimilar values. Such an increase in co-worker satisfaction is expected to positively influence overall job satisfaction (Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999). We also hypothesized that PG fit would relate to employee performance. Employees who share similar values may perform at higher levels because they likely are better able to predict the behaviors of their co-workers, agree about which workplace behaviors are important, develop beneficial working relationships, and communicate with one another more effectively (Adkins et al., 1996). Consistent with this rationale, research demonstrates that PG fit positively correlates with job satisfaction and job performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Hypothesis 13: PG fit positively relates to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 14: PG fit positively relates to job performance.

PJ fit theoretically is expected to positively relate to job attitudes (Edwards, 1991; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005) because perceptions about the job should relate to attitudes about the job (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Research consistently observes that PJ fit positively correlates with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). The degree to which employees perceive that their abilities match the requirements of the job or that the job provides them with what they desire, they should be more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organizations.

Hypothesis 15: PJ fit positively relates to affective organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 16: PJ fit positively relates to job satisfaction.

METHODS

Participants
Data from 164 full-time employees were analyzed in the current study. This sample was 92.1% Chinese, 3.7% Malay, 3.0% Indian, and 0.6% Eurasian with the remaining 0.6% of participants not reporting their race. The mean age of the sample was 35.54 years ($SD = 11.89$) and 59.1% of the sample were female. Participants worked an average of 47.20 ($SD = 13.07$) hours per week, had an average tenure of 7.18 ($SD = 9.25$) years with their current organizations, and an average tenure of 3.92 ($SD = 6.20$) years in their current positions. Participants worked in a variety of industries and occupations (31.1% service industry; 12.8% government; 11.6% financial industry; 6.7% manufacturing industry; 3.7% transportation industry; 1.8% human services; 32.3% other). The majority of participants were in non-managerial positions (55.4%) with fewer participants in first (12.8%), middle (23.8%), or upper-level (4.3%) managerial positions (3.7% of respondents did not report organizational level).

**Measures**

*Person-organization fit.* We used three commonly used items to measure PO fit (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1989). A sample item includes “My personal values match my organization’s values and culture.” The estimated reliability of this three item measure was $\alpha = .86$. These items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all) through 5 (completely). Note that all fit items were responded to using this same 5-point scale.

*Person-group fit.* We adapted Cable and DeRue’s (2002) PO fit items to measure PG fit. Specifically, we substituted the word “coworker” for “organization” in the original items. A sample item includes “The things I value in life are similar to the things
my coworkers value.” In the current study, the estimated reliability of this three item scale was $\alpha = .88$.

**Person-job fit.** PJ fit is often conceptualized as demands-abilities (DA fit) fit (Edwards, 1991; Kristof-Brown, 2000). DA fit refers to the extent to which job requirements match the skills and abilities of the employee. Three items developed by Cable and DeRue (2002) were used to measure how well employees perceive their abilities to fit with the demands of their jobs. A sample item includes “The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills.” The reliability of this scale was $\alpha = .82$.

**Need satisfaction.** We measured need satisfaction with the Basic Need Satisfaction at Work Scale (see Deci et al., 2001), which consists of 21 items used to assess the extent to which individuals experience satisfaction with their three basic psychological needs at work (i.e., autonomy, competence, and relatedness). Sample items include “I am free to express my ideas and opinions on the job” (autonomy satisfaction), “I really like the people I work with” (relatedness satisfaction), and “Most days I feel a sense of accomplishment from working” (competence satisfaction). Items were responded to using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (not at all true) through 7 (very true). The estimated reliability was $\alpha = .66$ for the 7-item autonomy satisfaction scale, $\alpha = .85$ for the 8-item relatedness satisfaction scale, and $\alpha = .67$ for the 6-item competence satisfaction scale.

**Affective organizational commitment.** We used Allen and Meyer’s (1990) eight item measure of affective organizational commitment. These eight items formed a scale with an estimated reliability of $\alpha = .83$ in the current study. A sample item includes “I
would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization” and was responded to on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

*Job satisfaction.* Overall job satisfaction was measured with three items developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkings, and Klesh (1983). A sample item includes “All in all, I am satisfied with my job” and was responded to on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) through 5 (strongly agree). The estimated reliability of this scale in the current study was $\alpha = .84$.

*Job performance.* Supervisors evaluated subordinate overall job performance using three items developed by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994). Although the stem for each of these three items remains the same (i.e., This subordinate’s overall job performance), each item utilizes different rating anchors. Specifically, the first item’s anchors ranged from 1 (does not meet standards for job performance) through 3 (meets standards for job performance) through 5 (exceeds standards for job performance). The second item’s anchors ranged from 1 (performs at a lower level compared with others in the same job) through 3 (performs at an average level compared to others in the same job) through 5 (performs at a higher level compared with others in the same job). The third item’s anchors ranged from 1 (contributes less to the organization’s effectiveness than most) through 3 (makes an average contribution to the organization’s effectiveness) through 5 (contributes more to the organization’s effectiveness than most). The estimated reliability of this three item scale was $\alpha = .87$ in the current study.

*Procedure*

As part of a voluntary class project, students were asked to recruit up to two participants for this study. Prior to the distribution of surveys, students were asked to
identify up to two participants who would be willing to (a) complete several surveys over the course of the semester, and (b) ask their supervisors to complete a short survey. For all surveys, students distributed the survey packets to the participants and the participants returned their completed surveys directly to the investigators in an enclosed self-addressed postage-paid envelope. Surveys were coded with a number so that we could match surveys across the three administration periods. Students did not receive extra credit for recruiting participants, nor were they penalized if they chose not to participate in this project.

After participants had been identified, Time 1 survey packets were distributed. Included with the Time 1 survey was a letter describing the entire project and its duration. Participants were informed that their responses were voluntary, that their responses would be used for research purposes only, and that the information they provided would be confidential. All surveys were in English which is the official language of education and business in the country in which this study was conducted. Time 1 surveys collected demographic information and included all of the perceived fit measures. Consistent with Cable and DeRue (2002), the items for all fit scales were presented in random order and decoy items about personality (e.g., I am full of ideas) were interspersed among the fit items to reduce the possibility of response sets in the data. Three weeks later, Time 2 survey packets were distributed. Time 2 surveys included items measuring competence, autonomy, and relatedness need satisfaction. Time 3 surveys were distributed three weeks after the distribution of Time 2 surveys and measured affective organizational commitment and overall job satisfaction. Additionally, at Time 3, we included a supervisor survey packet with the participant packet. Employees were instructed to ask
their supervisors to complete the supervisor survey. The supervisor survey packet included a letter which described the study. The supervisor survey included the overall job performance measure. Supervisors returned the survey directly to the researchers via a self-addressed postage-paid envelope. As a check on the quality of the data, we called 35 (11.8%) Time 1 respondents (see below) and asked them to confirm their completion of the surveys and to verify one of their responses (e.g., age). All of the 35 respondents (100%) confirmed their participation and accurately confirmed one of their responses.

At Time 1, surveys were distributed to 318 employees of whom 296 completed and returned the surveys (93.08%). Of these 296 respondents, 244 completed and returned Time 2 surveys (82.43%). Of these 244 respondents, 200 respondents completed Time 3 surveys (81.97%). These 200 respondents who completed all three surveys did not differ from the 96 respondents who did not complete all surveys on gender, age, organizational level, tenure with the organization, or tenure in their current position (all \( p > .05 \)). Of the 200 employees completing all three surveys, 164 of their supervisors provided usable data from the supervisor version of the survey. These 164 matched employee-supervisor dyads comprise the sample used in the current study. As such, of the 318 employees initially asked to participate in this study, 164 had complete data (51.57%).

Analytical Strategy

Consistent with recommendations from Anderson and Gerbing (1988) and Schumacker and Lomax (1996), this study used a two-step approach in testing the proposed measurement and structural models. In this two-step approach, confirmatory factor analyses were first conducted to determine an appropriate measurement model.
After identifying a satisfactory measurement model, the relations between these latent constructs were tested via a structural model. To assess the appropriateness of applying structural constraints to the measurement model, we compared the fit of each structural model to that of the measurement model using the chi-square difference test (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993).

The measurement and structural models in this study were evaluated using LISREL 8.52 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2003). Missing data were replaced with the mean of the other responses (.017% of the cases). Three testlets (item parcels) were used as indicators for the affective organizational commitment, autonomy satisfaction, relatedness satisfaction, and competence satisfaction latent constructs. All other latent constructs were indicated by three items. We chose to use testlets where possible to maximize parameter estimate stability (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1994).

RESULTS

Measurement Model

Results from the confirmatory factor analysis of the hypothesized measurement model indicated that this model fit the data well (see Table 1). All indicators loaded significantly on their corresponding latent constructs ($p < .01$). Several alternative measurement models were assessed. These alternative measurement models included: (a) allowing the autonomy, relatedness, and competence satisfaction indicators to load on one latent overall need satisfaction factor ($\Delta \chi^2(15) = 157.70, p < .01$); (b) allowing the affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction indicators to load on the same latent job attitude factor ($\Delta \chi^2(8) = 31.11, p < .01$); (c) allowing autonomy, relatedness, and competence need satisfaction indicators to combine with the job satisfaction
indicators to form the same overall job satisfaction factor ($\Delta \chi^2(21) = 455.71, p < .01$); and (d) allowing PO fit, PG fit, and PJ fit indicators to load on the same overall PE fit factor ($\Delta \chi^2(15) = 417.64, p < .01$). As noted by the change in chi-square values, results indicated that the hypothesized measurement model fit the data significantly better than any of the alternative measurement models.

Table 2 reports the means, standard deviations, estimated reliabilities, and intercorrelations of the study variables. Overall, the high degree of correspondence between the relations observed in the current study and previous studies suggests that the variables assessed in our study are operating in a manner similar to past research. For example [meta-analyzed correlations from Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) are in parentheses], PO fit positively correlated with affective organizational commitment .58 (.56), job satisfaction .50 (.41), PJ fit .44 (.37), and PG fit .40 (.39). Similarly, PG fit correlated with job satisfaction .20 (.24). Results indicated that PO fit nor PJ fit significantly correlated with overall job performance which is consistent with Kristof-Brown et al.’s (2005) results. The average intercorrelation of the three psychological need satisfactions was .53 in the current study which is similar to Deci, Ryan, Gagné, Leone, Usunov, and Kornazheva (2001) who observed an average intercorrelation of .51 across two samples. Consistent with previous meta-analyses (e.g., Iaffaldano & Muchinskty, 1985), job satisfaction correlated with job performance .17.

Hypothesized Models

We assessed the fit of the hypothesized models by constraining relations among latent variables in the measurement model that were not included as structural paths in Figure 1 to be zero. Autonomy, competence, and relatedness satisfactions were allowed
to correlate in the structural models. We also allowed job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, and job performance to correlate. Model A (full mediation) fit the data well but resulted in a significant decrease in fit when compared to the measurement model ($\Delta\chi^2 (17) = 64.27, p < .05$). Model B (partial mediation) also fit the data well (see Table 1) and fit the data significantly better than did Model A ($\Delta\chi^2 (6) = 54.34, p < .05$). Because Model B fit the data better than Model A and, because Model B did not result in a significant decrease in fit when compared to the measurement model ($\Delta\chi^2 (11) = 9.93, p > .05$), we retain Model B as the best-fitting model.

Figure 2 presents the estimated standardized path coefficients for the best-fitting model (Model B). In this model, the links between PO fit and autonomy ($\gamma = .44, p < .01$), relatedness ($\gamma = .24, p < .01$), and competence need satisfaction ($\gamma = .30, p < .01$) were significant, supporting Hypotheses 1 – 3, respectively. PG fit significantly predicted relatedness need satisfaction ($\gamma = .31, p < .01$) in support of Hypothesis 4. Consistent with Hypothesis 5, PJ fit positively related to competence need satisfaction ($\gamma = .30, p < .01$). Hypotheses 6-8 predicted that autonomy ($\beta = .07, p > .05$), relatedness ($\beta = .04, p > .05$), and competence ($\beta = .22, p > .05$) need satisfaction would positively relate to overall job satisfaction; Hypotheses 6 – 8 are not supported. Hypothesis 9 is supported because autonomy need satisfaction significantly related to affective organizational commitment ($\beta = .19, p < .01$). Results indicated that competence need satisfaction significantly related to overall job performance ($\beta = .23, p < .05$); Hypothesis 10 is supported. PO fit positively related to affective organizational commitment ($\gamma = .41, p < .01$) and job satisfaction ($\gamma = .33, p < .01$); Hypotheses 11 and 12 are supported. Contrary to our expectations, PG fit did not predict job satisfaction ($\beta = -.03, p > .05$) or
job performance ($\beta = -.14, p > .05$); Hypotheses 13 and 14 are not supported. PJ fit positively related with affective organizational commitment ($\gamma = .29, p < .01$) and overall job satisfaction ($\gamma = .26, p < .05$, one-tailed); Hypotheses 15 and 16 are supported, respectively.

Table 3 presents the direct and indirect effects of fit on employee outcomes. As indicated in Table 3, PO fit had a significant indirect effect on affective commitment through autonomy need satisfaction ($p < .05$), and marginally significant indirect effects on job satisfaction (through all three need satisfactions) and job performance (through competence need satisfaction) ($p < .10$). PJ fit had a significant indirect effect on job performance through competence need satisfaction. ($p < .05$). Model B accounted for 19% of the variance in autonomy, 23% of the variance in relatedness, and 27% of the variance in competence need satisfaction. This model also accounted for 51% of the variance in employee affective organizational commitment, 51% of the variance in job satisfaction, and 6% of the variance in supervisor ratings of job performance. We expected PE fit to account for a large amount of variance in these factors given that the three types of PE fit included in this study covered a large part of the work environment and because each type of fit might be expected to tap different mechanism through which fit relates to need satisfaction or employee outcomes.

Although results indicated that autonomy, relatedness, and competence need satisfaction did not uniquely predict job satisfaction, this resulted from the three psychological need satisfactions sharing the same variance with the job satisfaction criterion. We conducted additional analyses in which we constrained the paths between two of the psychological need satisfactions and job satisfaction to be zero while allowing
the path between the third need satisfaction and job satisfaction to be estimated. The model only estimating the path between autonomy need satisfaction and job satisfaction (and not between relatedness and competence need satisfaction with job satisfaction) did not result in a significant decrease in model fit compared to Model B ($\Delta \chi^2 (2) = 0.44, p > .05$). Similarly, the model only estimating the path between competence need satisfaction and job satisfaction did not result in a significant decrease in model fit compared to Model B ($\Delta \chi^2 (2) = 0.18, p > .05$). In contrast, the model only estimating the path between relatedness need satisfaction and job satisfaction did result in a significant decrease in model fit compared to Model B ($\Delta \chi^2 (2) = 8.54, p < .05$). As such, with respect to job satisfaction in the current model, it appears that the effects of autonomy and competence need satisfaction on job satisfaction are relatively strong, but redundant, whereas the effect of relatedness need satisfaction on job satisfaction is smaller.

**DISCUSSION**

The aim of the current study was to explore the processes through which different types of PE fit relate to employee attitudes and behaviors. To do so, we integrated the PE fit and SDT literatures to hypothesize that different types of fit satisfy different innate psychological needs, and the satisfaction of these different psychological needs relates to various employee outcomes. Based on the existing PE fit theoretical propositions and empirical findings, we hypothesized two competing models. One model hypothesized indirect effects, and the second model hypothesized both direct and indirect effects, of PE fit on attitudes and performance through the satisfaction of the psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. Consistent with Cable and Edwards (2004), our results indicate that PE fit influences employee outcomes both directly and indirectly.
Below we discuss the implications of our results for both PE fit and SDT theory as well as the implications of our results for employees and organizations.

Multiple Conceptualizations of Fit

Over the past several decades, the PE fit research has evolved from conceptualizing fit as employees’ overall fit with their work environment to more specific types of fit that identify the degree to which employees’ match specific elements of their work context (e.g., fit with the job, fit with coworkers). Despite refinements in how fit is conceptualized and measured, little research has validated multidimensional conceptualizations of fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) or has investigated how different types of fit uniquely predict employee outcomes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2002). Results from our factor analysis indicate that employees have separate fit perceptions for their organizations, coworkers, and jobs. The average intercorrelation of fit perceptions in the current study was only $r = .34$ indicating that, not only do employees form distinct fit perceptions for different aspects of their work environments, these perceptions largely do not overlap. Our results also indicated, consistent with past research (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), that different conceptualizations of fit uniquely predict, and differentially relate, to employee criteria (e.g., PO fit correlated more strongly with affective commitment than PG fit did, $z = 3.556, p < .01$). As discussed below, a main focus of our study was to examine the processes through which different types of fit uniquely relate to criteria.

Linking PE Fit to Employee Attitudes and Behaviors

PO Fit
Results from the current study indicated that employees who perceived themselves to fit better with their organizations reported higher levels of autonomy, relatedness, and competence need satisfaction. PO fit likely relates to need satisfaction because, when employees’ and organizations’ values are aligned, organizations are more likely to offer employees what they desire in terms of satisfying these basic psychological needs (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Further, PO fit evidenced several indirect effects on employee outcomes through psychological need satisfaction. Specifically, autonomy need satisfaction mediated the relation between PO fit and affective organizational commitment; competence need satisfaction mediated the relation between PO fit and job performance, and all three psychological need satisfactions mediated the relation between PO fit and job satisfaction. These results begin to explicate the processes through which PO fit relates to employee attitudes and performance.

PO fit also directly influenced affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction. These results are consistent with Cable and Edwards (2004) who observed that value congruence influences employee outcomes both directly and indirectly through psychological need fulfillment. As Posner, Kouzes, and Schmidt (1985) note, value congruence may be inherently desirable and satisfying such that some of its effects on employee outcomes would be direct as observed in the current study. PO fit may also influence the attributions employees make about the decisions or actions of their organizations (Cable & DeRue, 2002). As such, these attributions may represent another process through which PO fit influences employee outcomes. Future research should explore various attributional processes as possible mediators of the relations between different types of PE fit and employee outcomes.
Our results also help to bridge two existing theoretical frameworks. Specifically, Schneider’s (1987) attraction-selection-attrition model (ASA Model) posits that employees are attracted to, join, and stay in organizations that share similar characteristics or values as their own. Deci and Ryan’s (1985a; 2001) SDT argues that individuals seek situations that allow themselves to satisfy their psychological needs. We would argue that individuals are attracted to organizations with similar values (ASA Model) because this similarity allows them to satisfy their innate psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (SDT), which in turn, relates to their commitment and desire to stay in the organization. Our results suggest that psychological need satisfaction might predict both self-selection and turnover, as described in the ASA model.

**PG Fit**

PG fit positively related to relatedness satisfaction such that employees who shared similar values with their coworkers reported liking, and being liked, by one another more than coworkers who shared dissimilar values. These findings are reminiscent of findings in social-psychological research that indicate people like those who hold similar attitudes and opinions (e.g., Byrne, Clore, & Smeaton, 1986). Byrne (1971) argues that people are attracted to and like individuals with similar attitudes or values because, by surrounding themselves with similar people, they are able to seek consensual validation of their personal characteristics (e.g., values, opinions) and achieve consistency among elements of their belief systems.

Contrary to our expectations, PG fit did not directly predict job satisfaction or job performance. Although recent research observed that PG fit predicts job satisfaction and
performance, typically these relations have been rather weak (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Further, the vast majority of existing studies have investigated PG fit in isolation (e.g., Adkins et al., 1996) rather than in conjunction with other types of PE fit as was done in the current study. Taken together, it perhaps is not surprising that the potentially weak relations were not observed in the current study which simultaneously considered PO fit, PJ fit, and PG fit. Also contrary to our expectations, PG fit did not indirectly predict job satisfaction through relatedness need satisfaction. Again, this may have resulted from having numerous predictors of job satisfaction sharing common variance, as suggested by the supplementary analyses reported above. Another explanation that is consistent with past research is that relatedness need satisfaction plays a more distal and weaker role than autonomy or competence need satisfaction in affecting outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2001). As such, when considered simultaneously with autonomy and competence need satisfaction, relatedness need satisfaction may not emerge as a significant predictor of employee job satisfaction.

Although our results suggest few effects of PG fit on the employee outcomes investigated in the current study, PG fit may be more important in organizations where work is organized around teams. Similarly, different operationalizations of PG fit (e.g., congruence of personality traits; Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003) may result in PG fit relating more strongly to employee attitudes or behaviors. Future research should continue to explore how different operationalizations of PG fit affect its relations with psychological need satisfactions and employee outcomes.

*PJ Fit*
Employees with skills and abilities that match the requirements of their jobs are expected to perform their jobs effectively (e.g., Bartram, 2005; Campbell et al., 1993; Hunter & Hunter, 1984). Our results support this expectation but suggest that PJ fit indirectly influences job performance through competence need satisfaction. Specifically, our results indicate that, when employees perceive that their abilities and skills match the requirements of the job, they feel more competent in performing their jobs, and those who feel more competent perform at higher levels than employees who feel less competent. According to SDT, the satisfying of one’s need for competence increases one’s autonomous motivation, and this autonomous motivation leads to optimal performance (Deci & Ryan, 2001).

It is worth noting that in the current study the bivariate correlation between PJ fit and job performance was not significant. Failure to observe a significant relation between PJ fit and job performance is consistent with several existing studies (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002). Across studies, the relation between PJ fit and job performance has been inconsistent (Edwards, 1991) and when correlations are meta-analyzed across studies the results often suggest there is no relation between PJ fit and job performance (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). The inconsistency in results across studies might be explained by the omission of important variables (Edwards, 1991). Our results suggest that competence need satisfaction may be an intervening variable that helps explicate the processes through which PJ fit relates to job performance. As such, it appears that PJ fit is a distal predictor of job performance and that this effect may not be detected in bivariate tests (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). As argued by Shrout and Bolger (2002): “…for distal processes, for which the usual bivariate tests of association have limited power, we
recommend that the mediation analysis proceed on the basis of the strength of the theoretical arguments rather than on the basis of the statistical test of X on Y” (p. 430). As such, despite not observing a significant correlation between PJ fit and job performance, our theoretical arguments and results suggest that competence need satisfaction mediates the relation between PJ fit and job performance.

PJ fit also directly related to affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction. These findings indicate that individuals who perceive a match between their own skills and abilities and the demands of the job are more likely to be emotionally attached to their organization and satisfied with their job. Further, these effects were independent of need satisfaction suggesting that PJ fit relates to these outcomes directly. Such findings may indicate a direct emotional reaction to the perception of PJ fit that leads individuals to experience satisfaction and an affective attachment to the company. Demonstration of links between PJ fit and affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction is consistent with past work (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Limitations, Strengths, and Future Research

As with any study, there are certain limitations that suggest potentially useful avenues for future research. One limitation is that two of our measures evidenced marginal reliabilities (i.e., $\alpha = .66$ for the autonomy satisfaction scale and $\alpha = .67$ for the competence satisfaction scale). Although these existing scales have been validated in previous studies (e.g., Deci et al., 2001), and the current study supports their criterion-related validity, optimally these scales would have surpassed the commonly accepted minimum reliability standard of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). A second limitation is that we only assessed demands-abilities fit when operationalizing PJ fit. Although this is a
common operationalization of PJ fit, Cable and DeRue (2002) observed that needs-supplies fit (i.e., whether the employee’s needs are supplied by the job) is another aspect of PJ fit. Future research should explore the unique effects of demands-abilities and needs-supplies fit on employee outcomes.

The current study also had several strengths. By simultaneously investigating several different types or underexplored types of fit (e.g., PG fit), we addressed several “noticeable gaps in the fit literature” (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005, p. 320). Future research should continue to include additional and different types of fit (e.g., person-supervisor fit) in single studies to better understand how various types of fit relate to one another and outcomes. A second strength of the current study is that we utilized a diverse field sample. We examined employees’ fit perceptions from a variety different organizations, jobs, levels, and occupations which increases our confidence about the generalizability of our results. As Edwards (1991) noted, most studies have relied on samples from within the same job, company, or industry which likely restricts the range on the measures thereby potentially limiting the inferences and generalizations from those studies. Another strength is that we separated the measurement of variables across three time periods and measured performance from the supervisor’s perspective (rather than the employee’s perspective) to reduce same-source bias of the variables all being measured from the employee’s perspective at the same time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). We recognize that measuring most of our variables from the same source represents a potential limitation of the current study by potentially inflating the relations between variables; however, we agree with Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) who noted that such relations “may reflect reality rather than artifactual bias” (p. 319).
Implications

Our results indicate that employee attitudes and performance will be enhanced when employees perceive themselves to fit with their work context and when they are able to satisfy their psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. Earlier we noted that PO fit relates to employees’ attitudes and behaviors throughout their organizational life cycles. We return to employees’ organizational life cycles to illustrate the implications of the current study. Beginning with the hiring of employees, selection systems should be designed to maximize the fit between new hires and organizations. The good news is that research suggests that applicants choose organizations (Cable & Judge, 1996) and recruiters prefer applicants (Cable & Judge, 1997) that are perceived as a good fit. Attracting and hiring employees who fit with the organization, job, and coworkers may be facilitated in a variety of ways. For example, organizations that provide specific information in their advertisements about the organization and vacant positions allow potential candidates to better assess their fit with various elements of the work context (Feldman, Bearden, & Hardesty, 2006). Using realistic job previews also helps applicants make better informed decisions about their PE fit (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1990). Further, continuing to develop and use assessments (e.g., simulations; situational judgment tests) that assess whether applicant characteristics match those required by the job should also increase eventual fit between employees and the work context. Given the importance of psychological need satisfaction in the current study, selection systems might be expanded to use Deci and Ryan’s (1985b) measure of individual differences in causality orientations to select individuals with higher dispositional levels of psychological need satisfactions.
Once individuals have entered the organization, organizational socialization tactics can also increase perceptions of fit. For example, employees whose organizations inform them about career timelines and career stages within the organization report higher levels of PO fit (Cable & Parsons, 2001). Further, it is important for organizations to create cultures that positively impact employees’ psychological need satisfactions. For example, management styles that support autonomy needs, reward structures or performance systems that provide feedback about one’s competency, or organizationally sponsored events (e.g., retreats) that satisfy relatedness needs would be expected to increase employee need satisfactions (Deci et al., 1989). In turn, organizational cultures that promote psychological need satisfaction also increase employee internalization of organizations values (e.g., PO fit) and norms (Lynch, Plant, & Ryan, 2005; Ryan, 1995) which creates a reciprocal influence between PO fit and psychological need satisfaction.

In sum, we believe our results, combined with those of past research, can be used to better a variety of managerial practices and policies.

Conclusion

“Research on the conditions that foster versus undermine positive human potentials has both theoretical import and practical significance because it can contribute not only to formal knowledge of the causes of human behavior but also to the design of social environments that optimize people’s development, performance, and well-being (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68).” The current study considered PE fit as an element of the work context that might foster or undermine employee psychological need satisfactions, attitudes, and performance. We sought to contribute to the PE fit and SDT literatures by exploring innate psychological needs derived from SDT as potential mechanisms through
which different types of fit differentially relate to employee attitudes and behaviors. Our results suggest that the processes linking fit to employee outcomes differ for various types of fit and the specific employee outcome explored. Research that explicates the complexities through which PE fit influences employee attitudes and behaviors will continue to inform our theories and practice about the role that fit plays in employee and organizational life.
REFERENCES


Cable, D. M., & DeRue, D. S. (2002). The convergent and discriminant validity of


Table 1

*Summary of Fit Statistics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$\chi^2$/df</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Measurement Model</td>
<td>396.71</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Fully Mediated Model A</td>
<td>460.98</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>.056</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.093</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Partially Mediated Model B</td>
<td>406.64</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes:* $N = 164$. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; SRMR = standardized root-mean-square residual.
### Table 2

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations Among Study Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. P-Organization Fit</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td><strong>.86</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. P-Group Fit</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>.40</strong></td>
<td><strong>.88</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3. P-Job Fit</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>.44</strong></td>
<td><strong>.18</strong></td>
<td><strong>.82</strong></td>
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<td>4. Autonomy Sat.</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>.36</strong></td>
<td><strong>.09</strong></td>
<td><strong>.23</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Relatedness Sat.</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>.34</strong></td>
<td><strong>.34</strong></td>
<td><strong>.21</strong></td>
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<td>6. Competence Sat.</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>.34</strong></td>
<td><strong>.13</strong></td>
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<td>7. Affective Commitment</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.27</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>.58</strong></td>
<td><strong>.26</strong></td>
<td><strong>.47</strong></td>
<td><strong>.31</strong></td>
<td><strong>.37</strong></td>
<td><strong>.43</strong></td>
<td><strong>.83</strong></td>
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<td>8. Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>.50</strong></td>
<td><strong>.20</strong></td>
<td><strong>.48</strong></td>
<td><strong>.37</strong></td>
<td><strong>.39</strong></td>
<td><strong>.48</strong></td>
<td><strong>.74</strong></td>
<td><strong>.84</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Job Performance</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>.09</strong></td>
<td><strong>-.10</strong></td>
<td><strong>.04</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Reliability estimates for scales presented on diagonal.  
* *p < .05.  
Autonomy, Relatedness, and Competence Need Satisfactions were measured using 7-point scales whereas all other variables were measured using 5-point scales.
Table 3

*Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects of PE Fit on Endogenous Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Affective Commitment</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction</th>
<th>Job Performance</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PO Fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct effect</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect effect</td>
<td>.08*</td>
<td>.11†</td>
<td>.07†</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total effect</td>
<td>.50 **</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.07†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PG Fit</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Direct effect</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indirect effect</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total effect</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.14</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PJ Fit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct effect</td>
<td>.29*</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect effect</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
<td>.07*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total effect</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.07*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model R²</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

† < .10
* p < .05
** p < .01
Figure Captions

Figure 1. Hypothesized Competing Models A & B

Notes. Model A is the fully mediated model and does not include the dotted lines in the figure. Model B is the partially mediated model and includes both the solid and dotted lines indicated in the figure.

Figure 2. Final Model.

Notes. PO fit correlated .53 with PJ fit and .47 with PG fit. PJ fit and PG fit correlated .23. Autonomy satisfaction correlated with relatedness satisfaction .46 and with competence satisfaction .67. Relatedness satisfaction correlated with competence satisfaction .44. Affective organizational commitment correlated with job satisfaction .36 and with job performance .06. Job satisfaction and job performance correlated .09.
Figure 1

Hypothesized Structural Model
Figure 2

*Best Fitting Model*

![Diagram showing the relationships between Person-Org. Fit, Person-Group Fit, Person-Job Fit, Autonomy Need Satisfaction, Relatedness Need Satisfaction, Competence Need Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction, Affective Organizational Commitment, and Job Performance. The diagram includes arrows indicating the direction of the relationships and coefficients for each relationship.](image-url)