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# What we do to fit in: personality, coping, and Person-Environment fit

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# WHAT WE DO TO FIT IN:
# PERSONALITY, COPING, AND PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT

**by**

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PH.D. THESIS

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## ABSTRACT

Person-Environment (PE) Fit has been a subject of research interest for over 100 years, and although much is known about the consequences of PE fit and the types of PE fit, the actions that people take in pursuit of this desirable condition are less well understood. This dissertation develops and tests a model that explains how personality traits influence individuals' choice of coping mechanisms used in pursuit of PE Fit and their ability to use them effectively. Achievement and anxiety motivations influence the choice of coping mechanisms used in pursuit of fit. The effectiveness of these coping mechanisms to change the level of PE fit is determined by individuals' ability to respond to feedback from the environment, indicated by narcissism. I also explore the influence of aspects of change in the environment that drive individuals to cope with uncertainty during times of change. Finally, the level of fit achieved and the changes in fit made over time influence individuals' well-being and organizational commitment. I test this model using a sample of student teams assessed over the course of 5 time periods and a field study sample of working adults assesses over the course of 4 time periods. I analyzed these data using Regression, Structural Equation Modeling, and Latent Growth Modeling.

## PUBLIC ABSTRACT

Nearly everyone has experienced the feeling of not fitting in at one time or another and we all know that it can be an unpleasant and distracting experience. Fitting in at work has been an area of study in the fields of Organizational Behavior and Human Resources for nearly 100 years because employees who do not fit in are more likely to be unhappy at work, to leave their jobs, and to be unproductive. Most of this research has focused on the positive (and occasionally the negative) consequences of fitting in at work and on the way that people and organizations pursue good fitting employees through the application, recruiting, and hiring processes. The purpose of this study is to explore how people work to achieve good fit when their fit is threatened by changes in the organization. This study also considers the role that personality differences play in determining how people cope with the stress associated with not fitting in and whether or not they are able to improve their fit. Finally, I describe how experiencing change in fit also affects individuals' well-being, their satisfaction at work, and their desire to quit their job or stay in an environment where they do not fit in.

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# CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION

Person-Environment (PE) fit has been of interest to employers and employees for decades because the presence of fit predicts many positive outcomes for individuals and organizations. For organizations, the concept of fit applies not only to finding the right person to perform each job, but also to finding people who are comfortable and productive in the culture of the organization. When organizations attract and hire people who fit, those employees are more likely to remain (Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995), reducing costly turnover (Johnson, 1995). From the individual's point of view, fitting in well at work contributes to outcomes associated with well-being and career success. These include higher job satisfaction, decreased strain, higher desire to stay in the job, and increased satisfaction with specific elements of the environment such as the work itself and coworkers (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). PE fit is a complex and multifaceted construct that includes the individual's fit with different aspects of the environment (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006) and experiencing misfit with any part of the environment creates stress (Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998). Individuals also benefit from fit because it fulfills different essential needs (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009). Thus, fit plays a role in individuals' well-being because people feel they are at their best when they are in the right culture, with the right people, doing the right kind of work.

Nearly all of the explorations of individuals' actions in pursuit of fit have focused on the job search and socialization phases of employment. This only tells part of the story, however, because fit remains salient throughout employees' tenure and continues to influence their decisions to stay or go (Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaneil, & Hill, 1999; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee,

Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). For this reason, attending to the fit and misfit experiences of existing employees, and not just newcomers, may reveal fruitful means of reducing turnover. Fit is particularly salient during times of change, which are commonly associated with withdrawal and turnover (Fugate, Prussia, & Kinicki, 2012). As modern organizations face internal and external changes more and more frequently, fit and misfit become recurring issues. For this reason, considering the adjustments in fit of employees in the post-socialization stage is an important area for researchers to address. Most empirical research has treated PE Fit as a stable construct whose levels are established during the hiring process, although theoretical treatments of PE fit have emphasized the dynamic nature of fit (Chatman, 1989; Harrison, 1978). As individuals and organizations change, their degree of fit also shifts, vacillating between fit and misfit over time. When misfit emerges, needs are unfulfilled, yet researchers rarely explore what people do when they used to fit but then do not. For some, the answer is to leave the job or the organization, but for many it is more complicated because leaving may not be possible (Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer, & Sablynski, 2007). During those times, employees make substantial efforts to resolve or manage the condition of misfit (Kristof-Brown, Talbot, Billsberry, Follmer, & Astrove, 2013).

Recently, the role of incumbents' actions to increase fit has started to appear in the literature, but many questions remain unanswered. It is unclear how individuals effect change to resolve misfit, or how they maintain the desirable state of fit. A burgeoning stream of PE fit research has explored both theoretically (Yu, 2013) and empirically (Wang, Zhan, McCune, & Truxillo, 2011) individuals' motivations to pursue fit. Their work provides an avenue for understanding the individual-level actions that produce changes in PE fit. Yu's (2013) Motivational Model of Fit explains that the desire for fit motivates individuals to take an agentic role (Yu, 2013) in shaping their experience of fit. He proposes that they do this by employing

misfit management tactics, such as coping and adjustment. Although Yu's (2013) model articulates connections between needs and tactics, he invites researchers to explore the boundary conditions that influence individual use of these tactics in pursuit of fit. He suggests that personality traits influence the ability to achieve and maintain fit, because they influence tactic selection in response to misfit. Consistent with Yu's recommendations, the proposed study addresses the key question of how individuals pursue fit, and the role of individual differences in predicting these actions.

To investigate the role of personality in individuals' pursuit of fit, I rely on previous research that has described the role of personality in the stress process. Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) provide a theoretical framework that describes the influence of personality on individuals' experience of stress and strain, and the use and effectiveness of various coping mechanisms in response to stress. This framework informs my approach, because it describes the stages at which personality influences the response to a stressor, in this case – misfit. When people experience the stress of misfit they may choose different coping mechanisms and use them with different levels of success. This process depends, in part, on individual differences in personality.

Following Yu's (2013) Motivational Model of Fit, I treat fit as a desired goal that individuals are motivated to achieve. By exploring the reactions to misfit through a motivational lens informed by the stress process, I seek to identify how personality traits determine the use of coping mechanisms in response to misfit, and the effectiveness of these mechanisms in influencing PE fit over time. Understanding the pursuit of fit as both a response to stress and as a motivational process provides the opportunity to take a fresh approach to the role of personality in fit. Unlike prior research (Judge & Kristof-Brown, 2004; Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003), I treat

personality as a predictor of actions taken in pursuit of fit, rather than a set of characteristics on which fit exists.

For this reason, personality traits that speak to a person's tendency to appraise situations as changeable or unchangeable (Park, 1998; Parkes, 1984) are relevant to how that person approaches misfit. Kanfer and Heggestad (1997) describe two superordinate motivational orientations, achievement and anxiety orientation (described as approach and avoid temperaments elsewhere (Elliot & Thrash, 2002)), that account for individual differences in motivated behavior and the control of the self in response to challenging situations. This taxonomy provides a useful framework for considering the individual differences that influence the selection of tactics in response to misfit.

The model I test begins with personality traits that represent achievement and anxiety motivations: approach temperament, proactive personality, avoidance temperament, and neuroticism. These traits influence the choice of different coping mechanisms that address the strain of misfit either by seeking change in the source of misfit, seeking change in the emotional reaction to misfit, or shifting attention away from the source of misfit. These different ways of coping are likely to effect changes in the experience of misfit that follow different trajectories, either increasing, decreasing, or maintaining levels of fit over time. A different personality trait, narcissism, influences the effectiveness of the coping mechanisms that are used in the pursuit of fit. I also explore the role of changes to the environment as contributors to the relationship between personality, coping, and fit. Finally, I propose that the experience of change in fit will also affect individual attitudes and well-being. Taken as a whole, this model addresses the research question: *How does personality affect coping responses to PE misfit, and how do these responses affect the individual?*

This dissertation consists of four parts. First, I review previous research related to PE fit, coping, and personality that has informed the development of my research question. I then develop a set of hypotheses that articulate specific relationships between these constructs. Second, I describe a study that provided preliminary information about some of the relationships in the model. This first set of data was collected from a sample of 500 undergraduates at the University of Iowa. Third, I describe the second study which tests the full model using data collected from a sample of working adults who were asked about their personality, coping, and fit over a three-month period. The data analysis approach for both studies relied on Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and Latent Growth Modeling to quantify relationships between latent variables and change over time. Finally, I discuss the theoretical implications of these results which include new insights into how individuals cope with changes in themselves and their environments when these changes affect their PE fit.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## Person-Environment Fit

Scholars who explore the relationships between people and their environments have approached the question of *how* they fit or misfit with one another in numerous ways. The core of PE fit theory is that people and environments may be compatible or incompatible and this relationship affects how people behave. As Lewin (1935) described it, behavior is a function of the person and the environment: $B = f(P,E)$. This relationship between person and environment can take many forms, and the lack of consensus about what constitutes fit has led researchers to approach the question of fit in a number of ways (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011) distinguished by what aspects of the environment are considered in the PE relationship, how fit is conceived, and how it is measured.

First, different types of fit describe the individual's fit *to* different aspects of their environment (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Fit can be considered very broadly as the individual's fit to the environment as a whole (PE fit), or it can be considered as the individual's fit to any particular aspect of the environment. In the Industrial-Organizational Psychology literature, different aspects of the organizational context define each type of fit. The broadest conceptualization of fit is Person-Vocation (PV) fit, which assesses the individual's compatibility with the type of work that they do or their compatibility with their profession. This is usually described as a compatibility between the individual's vocational interests (Holland, 1997) and the demands of the work. A similar, but more specific, type of fit is Person-Job (PJ) fit. This assesses compatibility, not just with the type of work but also the specific tasks of a job. For example, one may have fit with the vocation (PV fit), but not fit with a specific position and

its requirements (PJ fit). Individuals experience Person-Organization (PO) fit when they are compatible with the organization as a whole, and this kind of fit is often operationalized as values congruence (Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1989). This may take the form of either complementary fit or supplementary fit (Kristof, 1996), each of which I will discuss shortly. Fit may also be considered at the level of the relationships between individuals and their coworkers. Individuals experience Person-Group (PG) fit when they are compatible with their peers or work teams. This type of fit parallels other types in that it may be considered from a supplementary or complementary perspective (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Fit also occurs at the dyad level between one individual and another. Depending on the roles they are in, is referred to as Person-Individual (PI) fit or Person-Supervisor (PS) fit.

Second, conceptualizations of fit differ in that they may be either complementary or supplementary. Supplementary fit is characterized by similarity between an individual and aspects of their environment. In this case, an individual fits because "he or she supplements, embellishes, or possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals in this environment" (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 269). The simplest example of supplementary fit is at the individual level where people may share similar characteristics, such as personality traits, and therefore feel that they fit with one another. This kind of fit may also occur between individuals and organizations when they share similar characteristics, such as organizational culture/personality, values, and goals (Kristof, 1996). Complementary fit is a different form of compatibility that results from differences between the person and environment. This form of fit occurs when "characteristics of an individual serve to 'make whole' or complement the characteristics of an environment." (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987, p. 271). This complementarity occurs when the environment is lacking a necessary feature that the individual

supplies or vice versa. This takes the form of *demands-abilities fit*, which is the congruence between an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities and the demands of a job. The individual fills a need that the organization has, and thereby creates fit. Considering complementary fit from the individual's perspective brings us to *needs-supplies fit*, where the individual's needs, such as personal income, are filled by the organization (Caplan, 1987). The distinction between complementary and supplementary fit is one that recurs in many areas of fit research because any type of fit can be described in these terms.

Third, measures of fit also differ. They may be either objective or subjective and these differ methodologically and predict outcomes differently. Objective approaches to the measurement of fit compare measurements of attributes of the person and the environment. Subjective approaches, on the other hand, ask individuals to assess their perceived fit with the environment or aspects of it. Comparing these two methods of measurement reveals that they do not yield the same results (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). The discrepancies can take many forms, for example, employees who have qualities that are objectively similar to those of their organization, such as similarities in values, may not consistently rate their own P-O fit as high. Additionally, meta-analytic evidence has demonstrated that not only do objective calculations and subjective assessments differ, but also that the subjective assessments are more strongly correlated with outcomes of interest such as performance, commitment, and turnover (Arthur, Bell, Villado, & Doverspike, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Oh et al., 2014; Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003). This finding indicates that in cases where objective and subjective measures of fit differ, the individual's own assessment of their fit is more likely to influence their attitudes and actions than the objective measure is.

**Person Environment Fit and Change over Time**

Although much of the research on PE fit has focused on the outcomes associated with fit at one particular moment in time, PE fit is subject to change because it is a function of both the person and the environment, each of which is dynamic over time. Just as individuals change over time as their skills, experience, and attitudes shift, so do environments change as people come and go, as job demands change, and as organizations adjust to their environments (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). PE fit is a multi-faceted construct that is influenced by a person's relationships with many aspects of their work environment, including PO, PG, PJ, PV, PS, and PI fit (Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006). As each of these aspects of the environment changes, the individual's fit with that element will also change, and may affect the person's overall sense of PE fit. As fit changes over time, both individuals and organizations act to maintain, restore, or perhaps establish for the first time, the desirable state of fit.

There is little research that investigates change in fit over time. In the research that does exist, most has treated change in fit as resulting from actions taken by the organization, not the individual. Schneider's (1987) Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) theory states that organizations attract and select individuals who will fit well, and those who do not fit will leave. As a result of this process, organizations become more homogenous over time. This theory suggests that organizations' actions in pursuit of fit consist of the recruiting and selection processes that bring new employees in, but these are not the only mechanisms through which organizations effect changes in their employees' fit. Organizations also design socialization programs to help new employees adjust and, in addition to achieving training goals (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007), they also affect PO fit in the early days of employment. Organizational efforts to improve fit in this way involve orienting newcomers to

their environments and increasing understanding of the organization's values and attempts to instill those values in the individual. Cable and Parsons (2001) found that programs designed to increase individuals' understanding of the organization and its values increase perceptions of PO fit based on value congruence by both increasing the accuracy of individuals' assessments of the organization's values and shifting the individual's values to be more aligned with those of the organization. In a similar study, Cooper-Thomas, Van Vianen, and Anderson (2004) compared changes in both perceived and actual (subjective and objective) PO fit before and after employees participated in organizational socialization programs. They found that objective PO fit was relatively stable because employees' values did not change as a result of socialization efforts, but that subjective fit was improved as employees received social support through the socialization process. These results indicate that that this kind of socialization effort improves PO fit not by changing the new employees but by validating newcomer's original perceptions about the values of the organization and building relationships with newcomers. These studies demonstrate that organizations act to increase PO fit after the selection process, and they achieve this by adjusting perceptions of fit (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004) and, to a lesser extent, by changing the individual to become more suitable to the organization (Cable & Parsons, 2001).

Compared to organizational actions, such as recruitment, selection, and socialization, the actions that individuals take in pursuit of fit have been underexplored. Most research that addresses fit from the perspective of the individual focuses on the outcomes of PE fit, not the actions that individuals take to pursue fit. Treating fit as an outcome of individual actions, just as it is treated as an outcome of organizational efforts, can reveal the role that individuals take in shaping their own fit. There is currently very little research that treats fit as a dependent variable and that describes individual level precursors of fit. One exception is DeRue and Morgeson's

(2007) study of student teams which examined the role of performance feedback and personality on Person-Team and Person-Role Fit. They found that fit with the team was relatively stable over time, because this was assessed as a function of value congruence and the individuals' values did not change. Fit with the role, however, changed over time as a function of an interaction between performance and individual self-efficacy. Specifically, those individuals with higher self-efficacy felt stronger fit with their roles when they achieved high performance, while those with lower self-efficacy reported lower person-role fit when performance was high. This study found that performance feedback contributes to the individual's perception of fit, and that different individuals interpret this feedback differently and draw different conclusions about their fit. Along with their findings about the stability of values-based fit, this suggests that some types of fit are more likely to change over time and that dispositional differences contribute to those changes.

In another recent study that explored individual precursors to changes in fit, Wang et al. (2011) focused on different types of PE fit as mediators of the positive effects of adaptability on job attitudes and performance. This approach treated adaptability, essentially the willingness and ability to change, as an individual difference that predicted newcomers' improving fit over time. Adaptability was assessed using the I-APAPT measure (Ployhart & Bliese, 2006), which measures several types of adaptability relevant to the workplace. They found that specific types of adaptability determined change in types of fit specific to each category of adaptability. For example, cultural adaptability predicted change in PO fit ($\gamma = .13$) and interpersonal adaptability predicted change in PG fit ($\gamma = .20$). Interestingly, work stress adaptability predicted both demands-abilities ($\gamma = .23$) and needs-supplies ($\gamma = .21$) fit. This suggests that reactions to stress influence fit in at least two ways. First, adaptability to work stress improves individuals' ability

to meet the demands of their jobs. Second, it contributes to their impression that the job better meets their needs. The inclusion of both types of fit here reveals that adaptability to stress affects both objective and subjective fit. The work stress section of the I-ADAPT measure assesses the degree to which people experience strain from exposure to stress, but not the behavioral or cognitive strategies that people use to manage stressful experiences. Although this is an incomplete assessment of how people may respond to stress, it provides evidence that individual differences in the reactivity to stress account for some change in fit. For this reason, individuals' reactions to stress should be investigated as precursors to change in fit.

In a study that explored the effects of socialization practices in seven South Korean organizations, Kim, Cable, and Kim (2005) found that institutional socialization tactics interacted with newcomers' behaviors to predict PO fit. Although they did not predict change in fit as some of the preceding studies have, they did treat PO fit as a dependent variable revealing that both organizational and individual actions influence fit. Specifically, they found that two behaviors magnified the effects of institutionalized socialization: positive framing and general socializing. PO fit was highest for individuals who engaged in these activities in contexts where institutional socializing was high, demonstrating that individual as well as organizational actions contributed to PO fit. The behaviors they measured were chosen because they were aspects of proactivity that had been previously demonstrated to be present in those who successfully navigated organizational entry (Ashford & Black, 1996). Although they did not use a dispositional measure to test the effects of personality on fit-inducing or promoting behaviors, they did choose a set of behaviors that are typical of those high in dispositional proactivity. These results, therefore, suggest that proactive personality is one of the personality traits that may predict behaviors that successfully improve fit.

The majority of the research that has investigated the antecedents of PE fit has been conducted in the socialization context, focusing on the three months following hiring. As the studies described above demonstrate, aspects of both the individual and the organization contribute to changes in fit during this early phase. Research that describes the effects that individuals' dispositions have on their fit as they make their way in new environments is revealing, but only tells part of the story. In a review of the organizational tactics, individual dispositions and social interactions that influence fit, Kammeyer-Mueller (2007) described the process of adjustment as one that continues throughout an employee's tenure. He notes that most empirical research on dynamic fit focuses on newcomers and does not address the influence of the dispositions of incumbent employees on this process.

One notable exception is a study of organizational change as a predictor of change in fit. Caldwell, Herold, and Fedor (2004) surveyed members of 21 different organizations which had recently undergone changes and identified both organizational efforts and individual differences that moderated change in PO and PJ fit following organizational change. Specifically they found that organizations could mitigate the effects of change on fit through management support and fair implementation of change, especially when change had negative consequences for individuals or was severe. Differences in individuals' mastery orientation also moderated the effects of change on PJ fit such that low-mastery individuals reported reduced PJ fit, while high-mastery individuals did not report change in their PJ fit. This implies that those with higher mastery orientation experienced more stable fit perceptions during times of change. They argue that this is due to the motivational nature of mastery orientation that made these employees better able to adjust to new job requirements, thus keeping PJ fit stable regardless of changes to the job

itself. This finding is a rare piece of evidence in support of the idea that personality contributes to individuals' capability to manage their fit over time.

Recent qualitative research on how people experience fit at work indicates that most people think about fit and actively work to maintain it (Kristof-Brown, Talbot, Billsberry, Follmer, & Lolkus, 2013). Participants in this study described their efforts to correct misfit when it occurred and their efforts to maintain good fit continuously over time. Those who perceived that they did not fit with some aspect of their work environment attempted to correct this by making changes to themselves, their environments, or to their perceptions of their fit. Others, who perceived themselves to fit well, explained that they fit only as a result of their constant efforts to maintain fit. These efforts to achieve and maintain fit included many behaviors described by the literature on stress and coping, including changing the self, changing perceptions, seeking advice, venting emotions, avoidance, reframing, and denial. The use of coping in response to misfit supports early theories of misfit as a source of stress (Edwards et al., 1998; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982),, but the observation that this use of coping is recurring and constant suggests that some degree of working toward fit is always present. These descriptions of constant effort to achieve and maintain fit, even when it is high, are consistent with Yu's (2013) conceptualization of fit as a goal that people pursue through motivated action. The insight that the work done in pursuit of fit is constant suggests that the level of fit that people experience over time is a result of the work that they put in to its maintenance.

The preceding review suggests that PE fit is a dynamic and changeable state that depends on the influence of organizational actions and individuals' traits and behaviors. Together these studies provide evidence that different types of PE fit change for different reasons. They also demonstrate that individual differences contribute to these changes. Individual differences

contribute to an individual's ability to improve their fit because they lead people to react differently to the stress of misfit. Although fit changes as a result of organizational actions, the effectiveness of organizational programs designed to change fit is also influenced by the actions of individuals. Creating a better understanding of how people act in pursuit of fit and the characteristics that distinguish them from one another will provide important insights into how fit can be best maintained.

**Coping Mechanisms**

Change is constantly occurring in organizations (Leana & Barry, 2000), what this means is that people constantly need to maintain their fit as things change. Change in any aspect of the work environment will affect objective fit and although some of these changes may improve fit, such as when a reanalysis of a position's requirements brings demands and abilities into alignment, many of these changes will produce misfit. This may occur when an individual transitions to a new role, when a job description changes, when an organization's culture shifts, when coworkers enter or leave the work environment, or simply when individuals grow out of their jobs. When any of these changes in fit occur, the individual will experience the stress of misfit and will attempt to resolve or mitigate this stress. Early theories of PE fit treated misfit as a stressor that individuals addressed through the use of coping and defense mechanisms (French, Rodgers, & Cobb, 1974; Harrison, 1978); therefore, the literature on stress and coping informs my approach to understanding how individuals respond to the experience of misfit and fit.

According to Harrison (1978), people react to the stress of not fitting in through the use of either coping or defense mechanisms. Coping mechanisms are those actions that individuals take to adjust the objective fit between themselves and their environments, which he calls environmental mastery and adjustment. Defense mechanisms are distinct from coping in that

they adjust the subjective fit by adjusting perceptions of the self or environment. These defense mechanisms are subconscious actions that distort perceptions and may include denial of the experience of stress, directing attention away from the stressor, or diminishing its importance (French et al., 1974). This conceptualization of coping and defense was specific to the fit context and was, therefore, dependent on the distinction between objective and subjective perceptions of the self and environment. Although research on PE fit in the following years made many empirical advances in phenomenological distinctions between objective and subjective perceptions of fit (Edwards et al., 2006), research on individuals' efforts to resolve subjective and objective misfit has been largely theoretical (Edwards et al., 1998), rather than empirical.

Later developments in coping research focused on the role of appraisal of stressors in determining how individuals cope in a variety of contexts. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) describe two types of appraisal that determine the coping response to a stressful encounter. The primary appraisal is an evaluation of the threat posed. If the person determines that the encounter is neutral or positive, there is no coping response. If a person perceives a threat to their well-being they experience stress. This stress may be due to either a threat or a challenge, both of which require a coping response.

The secondary appraisal assesses the changeability or manageability of the stressor, and this determines whether the individual will turn to problem-focused or emotion-focused coping. *Problem-focused coping* is similar to Harrison's (1978) conception of coping that addresses objective changes in fit, and is used when the secondary appraisal determines that sources can be altered in some way. *Emotion-focused coping* is similar to the defense mechanisms that create changes in subjective fit in that they seek to change the emotional response to the stress and not change the nature of the stressor itself. It is, therefore, used when the secondary appraisal

determines that the stressor is beyond the individual's control. When people do not believe that they can eliminate the stressor, they turn to other ways to alleviate the distress. Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) description of emotion-focused coping responses includes avoidance, reappraisal, seeking emotional support, and redirection of attention away from the stressor.

By drawing the distinction between problem-focused coping, which directly addresses the source of stress, and emotion-focused coping that manages the emotions resulting from stress, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) laid the groundwork for modern typologies of coping mechanisms. The distinction that they made between problem and emotion-focused coping parallels the distinction Harrison (1978) and French et al. (1982) made between coping and defense mechanisms in their descriptions of misfit remediation. Where Harrison's (1978) distinction between coping and defense mechanisms was specific to the context of fit and misfit, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) described the responses to a broader range of stressors. They describe the two major functions of coping as "the regulation of distressing emotions [emotion focused coping] and doing something to change for the better the problem causing the distress [problem-focused coping]" (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985, p. 152). Thus, the distinction between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping lies in the target of the coping efforts; one targets the sources of the stress and the other targets the reaction to the stressor.

Later work addressed stressors in a wide range of contexts including workplace stress, health, and personal relationships. Although a number of situation-specific coping typologies have been proposed, with some having as many as 15 distinct dimensions of coping, such as the Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) COPE inventory, a three-type system that is applicable to a broad range of contexts currently dominates the coping literature (Endler & Parker, 1990). Application of factor analysis to the Lazarus and Folkman typology of coping mechanisms led

Endler and Parker (1990) to draw a distinction between emotion-focused coping and avoidance, while retaining the original problem-focused dimension, which they describe as task-focused coping. They found avoidance to be theoretically and empirically distinct from other aspects of emotion-focused coping, such as reappraisal and social support because the latter altered the perception of stress and the emotional reaction to it, whereas avoidance did not.

Endler and Parker (1990, 1994) validated the distinction between types of coping and concluded that coping behaviors fell into three categories: problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance. They developed the Multidimensional Coping Inventory (MDI) to measure each of these dimensions. Although they found the three factors to be empirically distinct, the operationalizations of emotion-focused coping and avoidance involve some conceptual overlap. In the MDI, emotion-focused coping involves the experience of negative emotions, self-blame, and cognitive distraction, while avoidance involves more direct behavioral distraction from the problem at hand. Although these differences are important, both dimensions include items that involve distracting oneself from the problem. A later, and shorter, measure of coping styles based on the Endler and Parker typology (Howerton & Van Gundy, 2009) draws a clearer distinction between the two. Here, emotion-focused coping involves efforts to ameliorate the emotional pain that results from stress by seeking emotional support or advice from others. In this way, it is more clearly distinct from avoidance because the individual remains engaged in attempts to reduce their strain, while the use of avoidance does nothing in this regard and the strain continues to be present and unresolved. Thus, the Howerton and VanGundy (2009) conceptualization of emotion-focused coping is more clearly distinct from avoidance.

**Organizational Change, Stress, and Coping**

Research that addresses the influence of personality on coping behaviors accounts for the stability in individuals' coping behaviors, but exposure to different kinds of stressors contributes to individuals choice to cope in different ways at different times (Cheng, Lau, & Chan, 2014). This flexibility in coping is driven by individuals' appraisals of threats that their environments may pose to their well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). These threat appraisals are driven not only by individual differences in perceptions, but also by differences in the situations that people face (Fugate et al., 2012). Due to the effect of organizational change on PE fit (Caldwell et al., 2004), the threat appraisals associated with this kind of change are particularly relevant to the question of how coping with stress affects PE fit. Most of the research on individuals' reactions to organizational change has approached this issue from a stress and coping perspective, because many perceive change to be threatening and they, therefore, experience an increase in psychological strain during times of change (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004). An exploration of the literature on coping with organizational change reveals how individuals appraise the threats posed by organizational change and how perceptions of the nature of change influence the coping responses to change.

In a longitudinal study of 141 employees during a 12 month period of major organizational restructuring, Fugate, Harrison, and Kinicki (2011) examined the reciprocal relationship between negative appraisals of the change and negative emotions surrounding the change. Their findings indicate that both negative appraisals ($\beta = -.80$) and emotions ($\beta = -.33$) precede reductions in control coping, which is similar to problem-focused coping. They also found that those who used fewer control coping techniques had higher levels of intention to quit ($\gamma = -.23$) and this intention to quit was associated with higher voluntary turnover ($\gamma = .21$). This

study reveals the importance of appraisals in the stress process following organizational change and describes one path that drives individuals to leave following change, but does not address the full range of coping behaviors that may be used in this situation. In a similar study that explored how both individual differences and characteristics of the change itself (i.e. fairness) influenced threat appraisal, Fugate and colleagues (2012) found that an individual's positive orientation to change and change-related fairness contributed commensurately ($\beta$ = -.42 and $\beta$ = -.44, respectively) to appraising a change as threatening. This finding highlights the importance of assessing features of the change in addition to individual differences when evaluating the use of coping during times of stress, because both features of the environment and the person contributed to the appraisal of change as threatening, and therefore a trigger for the use of coping mechanisms.

Rafferty and Griffin (2006) assessed the consequences of change with a specific focus on the features of change that contribute to the negative consequences of dealing with this kind of stress. They developed measures of the frequency, planning, degree of transformation, and uncertainty of organizational change. The uncertainty of the change was the degree to which employees thought the change was unpredictable, did not know how to react to it, and were unable to predict the effects of the change. They found that all four features contributed to decreases in job satisfaction and increases in turnover intention, and that uncertainty mediated the effects of frequency, planning, and transformation on the attitudinal outcomes. They describe their findings using Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) theory of stress and coping because their goal was to describe the features of change that contribute to the cognitive appraisal of how threatening change events are. Their findings suggest that organizational changes that are surrounded with more uncertainty are those that are most likely to be perceived as threatening

and to induce coping reactions. Although Rafferty and Griffin (2006) identified the crucial role of uncertainty in employees' reactions to change, they did not address how uncertainty predicts the use of specific coping behaviors or how individual differences influence the use of different coping behaviors in response to change.

Together these studies suggest that organizational change is associated with negative outcomes for individuals (e.g. lower satisfaction and higher turnover) when it is perceived as threatening and stressful. The determination of whether or not change is threatening depends on both characteristics of the individual and features of the change in the environment itself, specifically the uncertain nature of change. Although the literature on stress appraisal and change speaks to *why* change is stressful (i.e. because uncertainty is threatening), it does not address the question of how individuals manage that stress. For answers to the question of which types of coping – problem-focused, emotion-focused, or avoidance – individuals use, we must consult the literature on personality as a predictor of coping.

**Personality and Coping**

The choice to implement any one type of coping is part of a larger process that is influenced by personality. Bolger and Zuckerman's (1995) model of personality in the stress process explains how individuals differ in their experience and management of stress at four stages: *exposure, reactivity, choice,* and *effectiveness*. Differences in the experience of stress are due to personality traits that affect how much stress people are exposed to (*exposure*) and how reactive they are (*reactivity*). Personality also affects how people manage the stressors they experience by influencing the choice of which coping responses they use (*choice*), and how effectively they use them to alleviate the source of stress (*effectiveness*). Although personality may influence the exposure and reactivity to the stress of misfit, the focus in this research is on

the choice and effectiveness path of this model because my goal is to understand what people do to cope with misfit once they perceive it.

The decision to use any one of these types of coping is one that depends on identifying a strategy that fits the situation. Although a recent meta-analysis of coping flexibility has demonstrated that most people have used each strategy at one time or another (Cheng et al., 2014), strategy selection is heavily influenced by personality factors (Connor-Smith & Flaschbart, 2007). Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) mechanisms hinge on the individual's assessment of the situation, which explains why dispositional factors influence how people react to stress. Personality influences these choices because those who appraise situations as changeable cope differently that those who do not.

**Achievement and Anxiety Motivation**

There have been a number of efforts to describe the personality traits that predict the use of different types of coping, but none have described the relationship between personality and coping in a motivational context. Considering coping in the context of motivation provides an opportunity to explore why individuals manage stress differently because both coping and motivation are informed by individuals' cognitive appraisals of their ability to change a situation or themselves. By considering the pursuit of fit in a motivational context, Yu (2013) raised questions about how personality constructs that have specific relevance to motivation relate to the pursuit of fit. Kanfer and Heggestad (1997) described a taxonomy of motivation relevant personality traits that separated traits into either *anxiety orientation* or *achievement orientation*. Those with a high anxiety orientation are likely to avoid stressful situations and tend to be more driven by fear of failure than hope of success. Their emotional reactions to the stress of goal pursuit distract them from task-oriented behaviors that would aid in goal pursuit. Those with an

achievement orientation pursue goals more directly because they are focused on task mastery and personal excellence. In the context of fit, these two orientations may explain why some individuals seek changes to themselves or their environments in the face of misfit, while others adjust their perceptions, manage their emotional responses to misfit, or try to avoid situations of misfit altogether.

Although these two orientations reflect seemingly opposite approaches to goal pursuit, these traits are empirically orthogonal. In fact, the shared variance between approach and avoid traits is generally small to moderate and negative (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994), suggesting that many individuals are influenced by both achievement and anxiety. For this reason, the complexity of individuals' efforts to fit in would be best described by simultaneous consideration of both achievement and anxiety orientations. Only one study has explored the relationship between a mastery orientation (which is a similar construct similar to achievement orientation) and the effort to fit in (Caldwell et al., 2004) and the relationship between anxiety and fit has not been examined. Simultaneous consideration of personality traits that reflect achievement and anxiety tendencies will allow a better understanding of where these tendencies overlap and where they account for unique variance in the use of coping mechanisms. Below I describe the approach and avoid temperaments (Elliot & Thrash, 2008) that are the personality traits that are most closely associated with achievement and anxiety motivations. I have also included proactive personality and neuroticism, two personality traits that typify the achievement and anxiety orientations, respectively.

**Approach and Avoid Temperaments**

The personality traits most directly related to the achievement and anxiety motivation framework are the approach and avoid temperaments (Elliot & Thrash, 2002, 2008, 2010). Elliot

and Thrash (2002) established the approach and avoidance framework as personality traits related to individuals' motivational dispositions. These temperaments characterize basic dimensions of personality informed by trait adjective, affective disposition, and biological disposition typologies. In Elliot and Thrash's (2002) multi-study validation paper, they bridged these three approaches and found that approach and avoid temperaments were higher order factors that included elements of these three typologies. Specifically, extraversion, positive emotionality, and the behavioral activation system loaded together, and neuroticism, negative emotionality, and the behavioral inhibition system loaded together – making up the approach and avoidance temperaments, respectively. The primary distinction between these two traits is that those with an approach temperament are primarily motivated by their desire to seek out positive stimuli and those with an avoid temperament are driven by their desire to direct their behavior away from negative stimuli (Elliot, 2008). In this case, stimuli include objects, events and possibilities, and the tendency to either approach or avoid them applies to both present and potential stimuli. Those who have an approach temperament seek out positive stimuli that are not yet in their presence, and work to retain the positive elements of their experience that are already present. Likewise, those who tend to avoid not only work to prevent negative events in the future, they also pull away from negative stimuli in the present.

Research that has drawn connections between the approach and avoid temperaments and coping have been mostly in the clinical (Moos & Holahan, 2003) and social psychology literatures (Litman, 2006; Roth & Cohen, 1986). For this reason, I have also included two personality traits that typify each motivationally relevant domain and have been described extensively in the management literature.

**Proactive Personality**

Proactive personality is another achievement oriented personality trait that describes the tendency to take charge of a situation and initiate action (Bateman & Crant, 1993). This trait is particularly relevant to motivated behavior because it is narrowly focused on individuals' tendency to "scan for opportunities, show initiative, take action, and persevere until they reach closure by bringing about change" (Bateman & Crant, 1993, p. 105). Meta-analysis of relationships between proactive personality and the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality dimensions reveals that proactive personality correlates moderately with three of the FFM traits: extraversion ($\rho = .41$), conscientiousness ($\rho = .34$), and openness to experience ($\rho = .34$) (Fuller & Marler, 2009).

Proactive personality is related to other similar traits in the achievement orientation domain, including psychological empowerment ($\rho = .45$) and role breadth self-efficacy ($\rho = .49$). Fuller and Marler (2009) conclude that proactive personality predicts performance beyond any one the FFM personality dimensions, but not as well as the FFM as a set. They also note that unlike other personality constructs, measures of proactive personality are uncontaminated by the influence of social desirability ($\rho = .01$). Extraversion is often considered to be the FFM factor that is more representative of the achievement or approach temperament (Elliot & Thrash, 2002, 2008) but because proactive personality is a more valid predictor of motivated behavior in the workplace than extraversion alone it may be a construct that represents this temperament more parsimoniously than using several FFM traits. I have chosen to focus on proactive personality as the personality trait most characteristic of the achievement oriented domain of personality, because it is a valid single measure that can predict both performance and interpersonal outcomes.

Early research on proactivity found this trait to be a strong predictor of performance outcomes and positive changes in attitudes and relationships as well. In a review of the effects of proactive behavior on organizations Crant (2000) summarized the many task and career oriented performance outcomes that those with a proactive personality tend to achieve, including individual job performance (Crant, 1995), performance in teams (Kirkman and Rosen, 1999) and earning promotions and progressively higher salaries (Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). These findings demonstrate that those high in this trait are able to get things done at work and be noticed for doing so. Proactive personality also contributes to outcomes that require both task oriented achievement and interpersonal skills such as being seen as a charismatic leader (Crant & Bateman, 2000). The breadth of these findings shows that this trait is particularly effective as a predictor of efficacy in the workplace. This ability to get things done at work suggests that those high in this trait are able to have an impact on their environments. When considered in the context of misfit, this ability may also indicate that those high in this trait will be able to manage misfit by seeking change in their environments.

The tendency of those high in proactivity to have an impact on their environments also has also been shown to influence their ability to build relationships and form positive attitudes at work. Specifically, research on individual actions taken during the socialization process has highlighted the role of proactive behaviors, such as information seeking, building relationships, and negotiating job changes (Ashford & Black, 1996; Morrison, 1993). During these early stages, proactive behaviors are associated with improved role clarity and social integration, and reduced turnover (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

More recently, research has assessed not just proactive behaviors, but proactivity at the trait level. Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) assessed proactive personality as a predictor

of both proximal and distal outcomes for newcomers and found that it predicted the development of both task mastery and group integration, leading to greater organizational commitment and less withdrawal and turnover over time. This provides further evidence that proactive personality is an effective predictor of both social and task oriented outcomes. In another example of the social effects of proactive personality in the workplace, Li, Liang, and Crant (2010) found that those higher in proactivity were more likely to engage in positive extra-role behaviors and to build strong relationships with their supervisors. The strength of these relationships mediates the effect of proactivity on job satisfaction, indicating that those with higher levels of this trait are more satisfied at work not simply because they are more productive, but because they have stronger social ties as well. This suggests that the trait of proactivity may also influence the ability to fit in because it facilitates the building of relationships and social networks (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Research on how proactive individuals cope with stress has been predominantly future focused. Whereas Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) identified the roles that personality has in the individual's experience of stress both before and after it occurs, descriptions of proactive coping have focused only on the effect of proactivity on the exposure to stressors. Aspinwall and Taylor (1997) first identified proactive coping as a set of actions taken in advance of the occurrence of stress that are intended to prevent it from happening and accumulate resources in preparation for stress management. They explain how stress may be prevented by proactivity, but not how proactive individuals react to it once it occurs. This kind of coping is associated with positive affect and well-being (Greenglass & Fiksenbaum, 2009) and has primarily been applied in the context of preparing for aging and future threats to physical health (Aspinwall, 2005). Crant (2000) describes a few studies that connect proactivity with coping with workplace stress and

these include accounts of the actions of proactive individuals after they are exposed to changes on the job and job loss. Proactivity in the face of job change leads to positive individual outcomes when people approach change as a growth opportunity instead of resisting it (Nicholson, 1984; Nicholson & West, 1988). In this way, the proactive approach to change leads to positive individual growth and adjustment to organizational needs. The internal and external effects of proactivity also apply in the context of the stress of job loss and job search. In this case, those who most successfully cope with losing a job and finding a new one do so by assessing themselves and their situation positively and engaging in proactive job search behaviors (Kinicki & Latack, 1990; Wanberg, 1997). Although some of the research on proactive reactions to stress on the job has included behaviors that are consistent with problem-focused coping (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005; Fuller & Marler, 2009; Grant & Ashford, 2008), others have included some emotion-focused cognitions, such as reframing. This suggests that proactive people may engage in more than one type of coping, but no research has addressed a direct link between proactive personality and these other specific types of coping.

**Neuroticism**

Neuroticism is an anxiety-oriented personality trait that is characterized by personal insecurity, hostility, and depression (Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001). As one element of the FFM of personality, neuroticism has often been evaluated as a contributor to work related attitudes and performance. In a second order meta-analysis of FFM traits and job performance, Barrick et al. (2001) found emotional stability (the positive end of measures of neuroticism) to be second only to conscientiousness as a predictor of job performance across a range of criteria, including supervisor ratings ($\rho = .13$) and teamwork ($\rho = .22$). The meta-analytic correlation between neuroticism and appraisals of satisfaction is the strongest of any of the FFM traits (job

satisfaction, ρ = -.29; life satisfaction, ρ = -.30), and this relationship is slightly stronger in longitudinal designs (job satisfaction, ρ = -.32) (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). The strength of neuroticism's relationship with these attitudes is consistent with the other findings that demonstrate that those high in this trait are likely to experience more negative life events (Magnus, Diener, Fujita, & Pavot, 1993), to experience challenges as more stressful (Schneider, Rench, Lyons, & Riffle, 2012), and to struggle with interpersonal conflict (Bolger & Schilling, 1991; Gunthert, Cohen, & Armeli, 1999). The tendency to experience both interpersonal and task related difficulties distinguishes those high in neuroticism from others in that they are more likely to experience negative emotions when they face everyday situations. For this reason, this trait has been of interest to stress researchers.

Neuroticism contributes to the experience of negative emotions and strain through its influence on the stress process. Personality influences the degree of strain suffered because it determines individuals' exposure to stressors, their reactivity to stressors, their choice of coping mechanisms in response to stress and the effectiveness of coping (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995) (see above). Although neuroticism contributes to the experience of strain through each of these paths, it has the weakest influence on exposure. In a longitudinal study of the 4-stage coping model, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) found that those high in neuroticism are only slightly more likely to experience interpersonal conflict stressors, but are much more likely than those low in neuroticism to experience anger and depression as a result of this exposure. Those high in neuroticism were also more likely to engage in coping responses to interpersonal conflict. The coping responses they used included problem solving, seeking social support, and avoidance. They were no more likely that those low in neuroticism to accept responsibility for the problem

or to distance themselves from the situation[1]. Differences in coping effectiveness only emerged for those who responded to conflict with attempts at self-controlling and avoidance. Those who were high in neuroticism and attempted self-controlling experienced more depression as a result of conflict than those who were low in neuroticism, suggesting that those high in neuroticism execute this particular kind of coping in an ineffective way. Those high in neuroticism experienced differential effectiveness of avoidance in the other direction; they were less depressed than those who were low in neuroticism and reacted to conflict in this way. This leads to the conclusion that those high in neuroticism get more comfort from avoiding stressful situations and that they are unable to employ self-control in coping successfully. When this pattern is repeated over time, they are likely to learn to repeat the form of coping that is most effective for them, which is avoidance.

Later research also expanded the understanding of neuroticism's influence on the stress process as it relates to interpersonal stressors. In a study of the daily stressors that affected the lives of University students, Gunthert et al. (1999) identified the range of types of stressors experienced by those high in neuroticism. When given the opportunity to report the most stressful event each day for a period of 14 days, participants identified events in six categories: interpersonal, academic, illness, work, fatigue, and other. The only category whose frequency of reporting had a significant correlation with neuroticism was interpersonal ($r = .20$). Although these results may have been different for a sample that included working adults, they are consistent with previous studies that report a correlation between neuroticism and interpersonal conflict. Participants also described their appraisal of the situation and the coping strategy they

[1] This study used the Ways of Coping questionnaire (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986), which distinguishes distancing from avoidance in that distancing involves efforts to forget that the problem exists or diminish its importance, but avoidance involves efforts to direct attention away from the problem in ways that do not reduce its importance.

used in response to it. Neuroticism correlated with appraisals of the stressfulness of the situation (r = .19) and with the assessment that coping was likely to help (r = -.28), indicating that neuroticism influenced reactivity to stress and beliefs about coping effectiveness. The coping strategies that correlated significantly with neuroticism were: hostile reaction (r = .24), catharsis (r = .20), wishful thinking (r = .19), and acceptance (r = .16). Of these, only acceptance was associated with a decrease in negative affect in the following days. This indicates that neuroticism influences the stress process primarily at the coping choice phase, because those higher in neuroticism are more likely to choose ineffective coping responses, such as hostile reactions.

Although some research has indicated that people high in neuroticism appraise task oriented challenges as more stressful than those low in neuroticism (e.g., Schneider et al., 2012), most research indicates that interpersonal challenges present the greatest source of stress. This particular difficulty with interpersonal situations would indicate that PG fit is likely to be salient for those high in neuroticism, and to pose a challenge. Because they are more likely to see interpersonal stressors as distressing, and are less likely to engage in productive coping reactions to these stressors, people high in neuroticism are likely to misfit in their environments and to cope with it poorly, such that the misfit continues despite effort.

**Narcissism**

The Dark Triad of personality traits includes narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy (Paulhus & Williams, 2002) which are a set of destructive personality traits present in those with personality disorders, but are also present to a lesser degree in subclinical populations. Narcissism is characterized by extreme self-enhancement, grandiosity, entitlement, dominance, and superiority (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). Together these characteristics describe

a prioritization of the self over others, which negatively impacts relationships and self-regulatory processes (Campbell, Hoffman, Campbell, & Marchisio, 2011).

Although some people who are high in narcissism are able to rise to positions of authority through the use of self-promotion, this trait tends to lead to tension in the workplace and poor quality social exchanges with coworkers (Campbell, Bush, Brunell, & Shelton, 2005; Campbell et al., 2011). The presence of narcissism among managers may also have negative long term effects on organizations, because managers who have a singular focus on what is best for themselves tend to drive away more productive and pro-socially focused employees (Lubit, 2002). This limited capacity for positive social exchanges in the workplace also increases the frequency and severity of negative behaviors at work (O'Boyle Jr, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012). The presence of narcissism also damages relationships because those who have this trait tend to have a defensive style of self sufficiency that limits their ability to be influenced by others because they dismiss feedback and offers of assistance from others (Almond, 2004). This resistance to information and feedback from others is central to the self-regulatory model of narcissism, which describes narcissism as a trait that inhibits the individual's ability to respond to feedback in a productive way because they prioritize self-aggrandizing information and respond with hostility to information that may threaten the self-concept (Campbell, Reeder, Sedikides, & Elliot, 2000). Those who are high in narcissism tend to be inflexible and resistant to change. This resistance, based on a self-promoting approach to interactions with others, negatively influences the ability to cope with stressful situations, which often requires adjustment based on assessment of one's own role in the source of stress (Kelsey, Ornduff, McCann, & Reiff, 2001). This inability to acknowledge one's own flaws limits the capacity to

cope with stress. For this reason, those who are high in narcissism are unlikely to successfully implement coping mechanisms in pursuit of fit.

# CHAPTER THREE

# HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

## Overview of the Proposed Model

As the review above describes, there are relationships between personality, coping, and fit that are suggested by the existing literature, but have not yet been empirically quantified. I propose a model in which personality traits affect both the choice of coping mechanisms and the effectiveness of their use in pursuit of PE fit. Although it is likely that the relationship between coping and fit is reciprocal and cyclical, it is consistent with theory to model coping as an antecedent to fit because coping is the work that people do when they pursue fit as a goal (Yu, 2013). Modeling a process that is constant, changing over time, and reciprocal poses a challenge because it is necessary to choose a starting point. The threat of not fitting is a constant source of stress for many people that inspires constant work to maintain fit (Kristof-Brown et al, 2013) and the kind of coping that people use in response to other kinds of stress is largely predicted by individual differences in personality (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995). For these reasons, my model treats personality as antecedent to coping and coping as antecedent to the level and change of fit.

In the first stage of the model, achievement and anxiety orientations, represented by approach temperament, proactive personality, avoid temperament, and neuroticism, determine the choice of coping mechanisms used in pursuit of fit.

In the second stage of the model, the differences in effectiveness among the three coping mechanisms, problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping, and avoidance, produce different changes in PE fit. This model focuses on two aspects of fit, PG and PJ fit, because these two types of fit are proximal to the daily experience of the individual and they represent a social and a task focused aspect of the environment. In addition to influencing the choice of which

coping mechanisms to use, personality also influences the individual's ability to effectively implement these strategies. This model proposes that narcissism influences the effectiveness of the different coping mechanisms because the individual's tendency to focus on themselves or others affects their ability to act in pursuit of improved fit. Finally, these changes in fit produce attitudinal outcomes traditionally associated with fit, including job satisfaction and intention to quit. In addition to these, I assess burnout, which may result from the exertion of effort used in pursuit of fit. A more complete articulation of each stage of the model follows.

**Achievement and Anxiety Motivations Determine the Choice of Coping Mechanisms**

The response to perceived misfit proceeds in two stages. The first is the choice of coping mechanism which is influenced by personality (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995). Those with an achievement motivation are likely to react to stress by identifying the source of the stress and working to eliminate it. This is typical of those who see most obstacles as problems that are within their control, which is an element of the achievement motivation (Elliot & Thrash, 2002), such as those with an approach temperament (Litman, 2006; Roth & Cohen, 1986) or proactive personality (Batemen & Crant, 1993; Diefendorff & Chandler, 2011). In the context of misfit, these people are more likely to actively pursue changes to themselves and their environments to improve or maintain fit by resolving the perceived incompatibility between themselves and their environments.

Those with an approach temperament are characterized by their motivation to seek out positive stimuli in a wide variety of contexts. When people with this kind of temperament are faced with misfit at work, they are likely to seek out the positive condition of fit, by addressing the problem of misfit directly through the use of problem-focused coping mechanisms. Although previous research has not addressed the role of approach temperament in the pursuit of fit, one

study has used the approach – avoid framework to explain job search behavior, which may be a reaction to the condition of misfit with a previous employer (Zimmerman, Boswell, Shipp, Dunford, & Boudreau, 2012). In this study, Zimmerman and colleagues found that those with an approach motivation were more likely to be satisfied in their current position and less likely to seek out other employment, but were confident that they could find other work. This suggests that those who have this temperament were able to resolve problems in their current work environment, and as a result were more satisfied. Although this study does not directly speak to the question of coping and fit, it is consistent with a model in which those with an approach temperament actively cope with fit problems as they arise.

The relationships between approach temperament and coping in non-work related contexts also suggest that those with this temperament would rely on problem-focused coping. In a study that explored the relationships between approach and avoidance motivation and elements of the COPE inventory (Litman, 2006), the types of coping that were most strongly correlated with approach motives (operationalized as Behavioral Activation System traits) were those that fell in the problem-focused coping sub-dimension (planning, r = .35; active = .42) (Litman, 2006). Finally, those who have an approach temperament are more likely to have developed a strong system of social support that serves to facilitate a problem-focused approach to coping with stress by providing interpersonal resources, such as strong, supportive relationships (Moos & Holahan, 2003). Because those with an approach temperament are more likely to actively seek out positive outcomes, such as fit, and are more likely to have the interpersonal resources to do so, they are more likely to rely on problem-focused approaches when attempting to resolve or mitigate misfit.

> *Hypothesis 1a: Approach temperament will be positively associated with the use of problem-focused coping mechanisms.*

Like problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping involves reaching out to others in times of stress. In the context of misfit, this would involve seeking others' advice on how to resolve the incompatibility between the self and the environment or expressing the emotions inspired by the experience of misfit. These kinds of responses to misfit are consistent with the approach temperament because they indicate personal involvement with seeking resolution to the unpleasant condition of misfit – or seeking out the pleasant condition of fit. Those with an approach temperament are likely to engage in these behaviors because they seek positive stimuli, such as compatibility with the environment, and are likely to use all tactics that may facilitate achievement of this goal, including seeking emotional support or advice from others.

*Hypothesis 1b: Approach temperament will be positively associated with the use of emotion-focused coping mechanisms.*

People with an approach temperament tend to assess their environments and themselves as essentially within their control, and for this reason are likely to effect change in pursuit of their goals. Those who do not believe that they can effect change when situations cause them stress are more likely to use avoidance coping mechanisms, like denial or suppression of the experience (Parkes, 1984), than to try to directly approach the problem. The assessment of changeability is central to the decision to take on a problem directly or to avoid it, such that those who believe a problem is changeable are less likely to avoid it. The assessment of powerlessness in the face of stress, or the inability to resolve the issue that is causing the stress, is associated with the decision to avoid a stressor as a way to make it less painful. In the context of misfit, avoidance coping would include directing attention away from the source of misfit, denying that the misfit exists, or engaging in an alternate activity that distracts from the stressor. Because those with an approach temperament are likely to have faced many challenges successfully in the

past and come to know themselves as agents of change, they are unlikely to resort to these methods when faced with misfit.

*Hypothesis 1c: Approach temperament will be negatively associated with the use of avoidance coping mechanisms.*

Proactivity has been associated with the anticipation of stress and attempts to prevent it through planning and resource accumulation (Aspinwall, 2005; Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997), which speaks to the role of proactive personality in the exposure phase of the stress process, but there has been little attention to the likely connection between proactive personality and coping *reactions* to stress. Due to proactive personality's validity as a predictor of task related and interpersonal outcomes (Fuller & Marler, 2009; Grant & Ashford, 2008; Li et al., 2010) and its demonstrated potential to predict adjustment (Kammeyer-Mueller, 2007; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), this trait is a likely contributor to an individual's ability to cope in the face of misfit and improve fit over time. Just as proactive people foresee potential stressors in their environment and work to prevent them from occurring, those with a proactive personality are likely to react to existing stressors in a way that is consistent with their characteristically active approach to problem solving. This approach is rooted in the proactive person's view of the world as one that can be changed through their actions and their view of themselves as flexible and changeable in response to the demands of situations. The role of assessing the situation as one that can be changed is also consistent with Lazarus and Folkman (1984)'s theory that the stress process hinges on the appraisal of stressors as either within or beyond the individual's control. This appraisal of controllability then determines how the individual will cope with the stress.

Proactive people are likely to attempt to resolve misfit with their environments by either changing their environments or changing themselves to fit the environment. The tendency of proactive people to influence their environment is central to the definition of this trait that

Bateman and Crant (1993) originally proposed which described it as "a dimension of behavior whereby people influence their environments" (p.113). Although previous research has not addressed this tendency to change one's environment in the context of resolving misfit, it stands to reason that proactive people would react to stressful misfit in this way because it is consistent with the proactive person's response to other situations that would necessitate change. Previous research has established proactive personality as a predictor of negotiating job changes during the socialization process, where people are first likely to realize that they do not fit as well as they had hoped (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). In a study of the progression from intention to quit to voluntary turnover, Allen et al. (2005) found a curvilinear relationship between proactive personality and turnover such that those who are most proactive are less likely to leave positions they had at one point intended to quit, while those who are only moderately proactive will proceed with a plan to quit. They conclude that this suggests that those with high levels of proactive personality will continue the process of seeking change in their environments until the problems that engendered the original plan to leave have been resolved.

This externally-focused approach to seeking change was central to the early work on proactivity in the workplace, but later work expanded the conceptualization of proactivity at work to include change to the self as well. Grant and Ashford (2008) described the essence of proactive behavior as being impactful. According to their conceptualization, this desire and ability to create impact includes the ability to change the self and the environment. They describe proactive people as "focused on the goal of meaningfully altering the self, others, or the contexts in which they are situated" (p.9). This extension of the idea of proactivity as being both self and other focused means that those with this personality trait who experience misfit are likely to seek adjustments to their environments or to change themselves in whatever way is necessary to

achieve fit. This may include strategizing about how to create fit, considering the steps necessary to implement that strategy, and concentrating on talking the actions necessary to implement a plan to make the necessary adjustments. These behaviors are all consistent with a problem-focused coping approach (Howerton & Van Gundy, 2009) to resolving the stress of misfit.

*Hypothesis 1d: Proactive personality will be positively associated with the use of problem-focused coping mechanisms.*

In the same way that those with an approach temperament are likely to address the stress of misfit with both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, proactive people are also likely to employ both approaches. In addition to the task focused and action-oriented side of proactive personality, these individuals also seek to effect change thorough interpersonal development and relationship building. Specifically during organizational entry, proactive people are more likely than others to reach out to others, thus increasing the social integration among newcomers (Morrison, 1993), increasing positive framing and relationship building (Ashford & Black, 1996; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), integrating better into groups (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), and building stronger relationships with their supervisors (Li et al., 2010). The specific actions that proactive people take in the social context include positive framing, seeking and offering emotional support, actively regulating their emotions, and seeking out opportunities to build relationships and social networks (Grant & Ashford, 2008). These actions could contribute to the resolution of misfit by seeking the advice of others that may help them to develop a better understanding the source of misfit and seeking emotional support from friends and relatives. These behaviors are all consistent with an emotion-focused coping approach (Howerton & Van Gundy, 2009) to resolving the stress of misfit.

*Hypothesis 1e: Proactive personality will be positively associated with the use of emotion-focused coping mechanisms.*

Alternatively, those with an anxiety motivation, such as those with an avoid temperament (Litman, 2006; Roth & Cohen, 1986) or those who are more neurotic (Elliot & Thrash, 2002), are more likely to see problems as beyond their control. For this reason, they are more likely to either react emotionally, or to distance themselves from the source of stress. In the context of misfit, these people are more likely to react emotionally or to avoid the problem, instead of working toward change to create fit.

When people react emotionally to the experience of misfit by letting their feelings out or focusing on the experience of distress, they are engaging in emotion-focused coping. Instead of working toward resolving the areas of incompatibility between the self and the environment by seeking change, this kind of reaction turns the attention that could be spent on seeking change toward the expression of emotion. This is consistent with an avoid temperament because it involves an anxious response to stress instead of a response that would seek to achieve fit.

*Hypothesis 2a: Avoid temperament will be positively associated with the use of emotion-focused coping mechanisms.*

Those with an avoid temperament tend to assess their environments as essentially beyond their control, and for this reason are likely direct their attention away from the causes and consequences of misfit. Those who do not believe that they can effect change when situations cause them stress are more likely to use avoidance coping mechanisms, like denial or suppression of the experience (Parkes, 1984), than to try to directly approach the problem. The assessment of changeability is central to the decision to take on a problem directly or to avoid it, such that those who believe a problem is changeable are less likely to avoid it. The assessment of powerlessness in the face of stress, or the inability to resolve the issue that is causing the stress, is associated with the decision to avoid a stressor as a way to make it less painful. In the context of misfit, avoidance coping would include directing attention away from the source of

misfit, denying that the misfit exists, or engaging in an alternate activity that distracts from the misfit. Because those with an avoid temperament tend to respond to most problems or challenges in this way, I propose they are likely to resort to avoidance when faced with misfit.

*Hypothesis 2b: Avoid temperament will be positively associated with the use of avoidance coping mechanisms.*

Those high in neuroticism tend to have stronger emotional reactions to stress than others, and for this reason, tend to focus their efforts on the emotional aspects of any situation. When those high in neuroticism are faced with daily stressors, they tend to react with self-blame, hostile reactions, and seeking catharsis though expressing their emotions (Gunthert et al., 1999). Because their focus is the emotional aspect of the stressful experience, when they do act to attempt some kind of resolution to a stressful situation, they are more likely to choose to seek emotional solace instead of the action oriented resolutions discussed above. The Howerton and Van Gundy (2009) conceptualization of emotion-focused coping includes behaviors that are consistent with this emotive reaction to stress, including letting the feelings out and expressing the emotions. Although there are no meta-analytic results that directly address the relationship between neuroticism and emotion-focused coping, effect sizes for related constructs are available. Connor-Smith and Flaschbart (2007) reported the following corrected correlations for the relationships between neuroticism and emotional social support ($\rho = .12$), wishful thinking ($\rho = .37$), mixed emotion focus ($\rho = .29$), and negative emotion focus ($\rho = .45$). Given the similarity of emotion-focused coping with these other emotion and socially oriented concepts, I propose the following relationship between neuroticism and emotion-focused coping.

*Hypothesis 2c: Neuroticism will be positively associated with the use of emotion-focused coping mechanisms.*

Similarly, the tendency of those high in neuroticism to appraise situations as beyond their

control (Gunthert et al., 1999), is a logical precursor to their frequent decision to avoid stressful situations instead of attempting to resolve them. Once people believe that they cannot change a situation, the only approach that has a hope of relieving the stress is separating themselves from the situation. Although avoiding a problem is often considered to be counter-productive, the tendency of people high in neuroticism to respond to stress in this way may actually be adaptive. If people high in neuroticism are correct in their assessment that a situation is unresolvable, continuing to express negative feelings and to attempt to change the situation may only make things worse. In a analysis of the outcomes of coping with daily stressors, Gunthert et al. (1999) found that for people high in neuroticism who engaged in a variety of coping strategies including information seeking, direct action, seeking social support, expressing hostility, religion, relaxation, and acceptance, only acceptance was effective in reducing negative emotion. For this group, all other attempts at coping made things worse by increasing their negative affect. It is unclear whether acceptance, in their study, indicates acceptance due to finding an acceptable resolution to the stress, or acceptance due to giving up and living with the source of stress. In either case, acceptance was one of the most passive options and this passive option was the only one that resulted in a reduction of negative emotions. This result may be due to the accuracy of the tendency of those high in neuroticism to appraise situations as beyond their control. When people have lived through this cycle of attempting to resolve stress in a number of ways and only finding solace in acceptance, they may learn that distancing themselves from the situation quickly is a convenient shortcut. For this reason, when acceptance is too painful or difficult, turning to avoidance may be seen as the next best thing.

Previous research that explored traits similar to neuroticism, including self-derogation and instability, found that people high in these traits are more likely to turn to daydreaming and

isolation in the face of stress (Greenwald & Harder, 1997). This reliance on avoidant behavior, that includes avoiding not only the problem, but also avoiding the social support that might help the person mitigate the problem, may be an unfortunate consequence of the erosion of relationships that often follows neurotic behavior (Moos & Holahan, 2003). Meta-analysis of correlations between neuroticism and avoidance coping mechanisms have found consistent relationships between this trait and avoidance ($\rho = .13$), and related constructs such as broad disengagement ($\rho = .26$), withdrawal ($\rho = .29$), and denial ($\rho = .23$) (Connor-Smith & Flaschbart, 2007). Therefore, I propose the following relationship between neuroticism and avoidance coping.

*Hypothesis 2d: Neuroticism will be positively associated with the use of avoidance coping mechanisms.*

**Uncertainty of Change Moderates the Effect of Personality on Coping**

In addition to the influence of personality on the choice of coping mechanisms, aspects of the environment may also influence coping behavior, because behavior is a function of the person and their environment (Lewin, 1935, 1943). Organizational change has been identified as an environmental predictor of changes in PE fit (Caldwell et al., 2004). The focus of my research is to identify how people cope in pursuit of fit; I therefore explore organizational change as the environmental feature that may influence coping. In particular, I focus on the uncertainty of change, which has been identified as the central feature of organizational change that is stressful (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Uncertainty in this context speaks to the employees' perception that they do not know what will change, how it will affect them, or how they should respond to it.

Those who have an approach temperament tend to see their environments as within their control (Elliot & Thrash, 2002, 2008), and for this reason tend to use more problem-focused coping mechanisms (Litman, 2006; Moos & Holahan, 2003). Although this is true in general,

varying situations cue those with an approach temperament to employ problem-focused coping as needed. Trait Activation Theory states that "the behavioral expression of a trait requires arousal of that trait by trait-relevant situational cues" (Tett & Guterman, 2000, p. 398). Applying this theory to the case of uncertain situations suggests that because of their goal-oriented approach to problem solving (Kanfer & Heggestad, 1997), people with an approach temperament will seek to resolve uncertainty through problem-focused coping. Those high in approach temperament are likely to see the questions raised by uncertainty as challenges to be overcome and opportunities to solve problems (Tett & Burnett, 2003). In this way, uncertainty should activate the approach temperament and magnify the use of problem-focused coping mechanisms. For this reason, I predict that those with high approach temperament will report more problem-solving coping mechanisms when they perceive the uncertainty of change to be high.

> *Hypothesis 3a: The uncertainty of change will moderate the effect of approach temperament on problem-focused coping such that those high in approach temperament will use more problem-focused coping when uncertainty is high than those who are low in approach temperament.*

Similarly, Trait Activation Theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000) suggests that high levels of uncertainty are likely to affect the coping behaviors of those with high avoid temperament. The uncertainty that surrounds change is associated with the negative emotional reactions that people often have to change (Rafferty & Griffin, 2006). Even among those who are not predisposed to avoidant behavior, the presence of these negative emotions predicts the use of fewer active coping mechanisms (Fugate et al., 2011). Unlike strong situations which compel individuals to act against their dispositions (Mischel, 1977), uncertain situations provide few behavioral cues other than the negative emotions that they elicit. The tendency of those with avoid temperaments to experience more negative emotions (Elliot & Thrash, 2002) and to engage in more avoidance coping behaviors (Litman, 2006; Moos &

Holahan, 2003) suggests that uncertainty will magnify the effect of avoid temperament on coping behavior. For this reason, I predict that those with high avoid temperament will report more avoidance coping behaviors when they perceive the uncertainty of change to be high.

> *Hypothesis 3b: The uncertainty of change will moderate the effect of avoid temperament on avoidance coping such that those high in avoid temperament will use more avoidance coping when uncertainty is high.*

**Coping Mechanisms and Change in Fit**

The second stage of the model describes the expected relationships of each coping mechanism with changes in fit. In this phase, each type of coping is distinguished from the others in terms of its effectiveness for creating change in perceived fit. Like the choice stage of the model, I also propose that the effectiveness stage is influenced by personality (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995) (see Figure 2).

The conceptualization of fit as dynamic (Jansen & Shipp, 2013; Yu, 2013) is central to this model, because the focus is on how individuals act in pursuit of fit. If individuals can effect change in their perceptions of fit either through internal or external adjustments, it is first necessary to demonstrate that fit is changeable and not static. Relatively little empirical research has treated fit as a construct that changes and most studies that have done so have focused on changes in PO fit during organizational entry (Bauer et al., 2007; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2005). In most cases, these changes in fit occur because the organization has made efforts to adjust the attitudes, knowledge, and skills of newcomers in a way that increases their perceived fit by making them more aware of their environments or, through training, adjusting their skills to match the needs of the environment. The current study's focus is on individuals' fit to their jobs and their groups, which are likely to be types of fit that the individual can improve through their own actions. Change in PG and PJ fit may also occur

when aspects of the group, the job, or the individual change over time, without the deliberate actions of the individual. Change in PJ fit may occur through adjustments to the requirements of the job (Ashford & Black, 1996; Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003), adjustments to the skills of the individual (Kim et al., 2005), or through changes in the individual's perceptions of the nature of the work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Similarly, PG fit can change when individuals work to integrate themselves with their social groups at work (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000) or when members leave, changing its composition. There are many different circumstances that would lead to change in PJ and PG fit over time, and repeated measures of these constructs over time are likely to reveal changes in each type of fit.

*Hypothesis 4a: Individual perceptions of PJ fit will change over time.*
*Hypothesis 4b: Individual perceptions of PG fit will change over time.*

Coping reactions to stressors, such as misfit, attempt to eliminate or reduce strain through three mechanisms: seeking change in the problem that causes the distress, regulating the emotions associated with stress, and separating the person from the experience of stress (Carver et al., 1989). These three mechanisms correspond to the three types of coping described by Endler and Parker (1990). Problem-focused coping addresses misfit by seeking change in either the person or the environment in order to reduce the misfit. Emotion-focused coping addresses misfit by changing the person's emotional reaction to misfit. Avoidance coping addresses misfit by directing the people's attention away from the aspects of their environment with which they do not fit. Each of these approaches may be effective in reducing the strain of misfit by having different effects on fit. I anticipate that problem-focused coping will produce changes in fit by making adjustments to aspects of the person or the environment. Emotion-focused coping will improve fit through changes in individuals' interpretations of themselves or their environments, and avoidance coping will not change misfit or may make it worse.

People who employ problem-focused coping in response to the experience of misfit seek changes in themselves or their environments as a way to make one more compatible with the other. This kind of coping may be used to address misfit with any aspect of the environment, which in this study is PG and PJ fit. Problem-focused coping has been studied in the broader context of stress management and is usually found to be the most effective of the three primary types of coping because it directly addresses the source of stress (Cheng et al., 2014; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Although there have been no direct tests of the effects of problem-focused coping on fit, related literatures have suggested that using this approach is likely to be effective in improving perceived fit. In a recent meta-analysis of socialization tactics and outcomes, Bauer et al. (2007) found that newcomers who take an active role in their socialization feel more effective, socially accepted, and have a better understanding of their roles than those who take a less active role. This suggests that those who use a problem-focused approach to coping with misfit, which would include taking steps to adjust to a new role, are likely to see improvements in perceived fit. Similarly, Wang and colleagues (2011) recently studied the effects of different types of adaptability on fit. Specifically, those who are interpersonally adaptable achieve better perceived PG fit, those who are culturally adaptable achieve better PO fit, and those with high learning adaptability see improvements in their demands-abilities fit (Wang et al., 2011). Although this study did not explore which actions individuals take in pursuit of fit, their results suggest that individual actions associated with adaptability may also improve fit with different aspects of the environment.

Those who seek to improve their fit with problem-focused coping may also seek adjustments to their environments. These environmental adjustments may take the form of adjustments to the social structure or relationships in the workplace and these would influence

change in PG fit. Environmental adjustments could also affect PJ fit if specific job requirements or expectations changed. In a longitudinal study of newcomer socialization, Ashford and Black (1996) found that those who sought changes to their jobs in the first 6 months were more satisfied with their jobs after a year. It seems likely that this increase in satisfaction was a result of improved fit between the person and the negotiated requirements of the job. These kinds of negotiations about the nature of a job are described by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) in their work on job crafting. These adjustments made by individuals to their jobs include changes to the design of the job, such as altering the type and number of job tasks, as well as changing the social environment, such as altering with whom one interacts at work. These changes match the definition of problem-focused coping because they change the nature of the source of the stress (i.e., job requirements or coworkers), and could be implemented to cope with the stress of misfit. Thus, I propose that problem-focused coping will be an effective way to reduce misfit at work.

*Hypothesis 5a: The use of problem-focused coping mechanisms will be positively associated with an increase in PJ fit.*

*Hypothesis 5b: The use of problem-focused coping mechanisms will be positively associated with an increase in PG fit.*

Those who employ emotion-focused coping seek change in their emotional response to the stress of misfit by seeking advice or expressing their feelings. As a result of these efforts they are likely to experience changes to their subjective assessment of fit with their jobs or their coworkers. Although the aspects of the environment and the person that are incompatible are not as likely to change as with problem-focused coping, the perceptions of fit may change by the person modifying his or her framing of the situation or emotional reaction to it. As with problem-focused coping, there have been no direct tests of the effects of emotion-focused coping on fit, but the socialization literature describes some related concepts. In the Ashford and Black (1996) study of newcomers' socialization tactics, positive framing was linked to improvements in both

satisfaction and job performance. This change may be a result of improvements in fit assessments. When people change their perspective of a situation by putting it in a positive light or changing their framing of the situation, they are likely to perceive themselves to fit better in that situation. As Yu's (2013) Motivational Model of Fit suggests, these kinds of reassessments are driven by the individual's desire to fit in and adjusting the perception of misfit to fit is one way to satisfy this drive.

The effectiveness of perception shift is consistent with the effectiveness of emotion-focused coping that has been demonstrated in other contexts. For example, Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, and Scott (2009) use a daily diary methodology to explore the outcomes of different coping approaches to workplace stress and found that the use of emotion-focused coping was associated with reductions in strain following a stressful event. This reduction in strain does not necessarily indicate that the stressor is no longer present, but indicates that the perception of its threat has been reduced. Seeking resolution to misfit using emotion-focused tactics could be relevant to either type of fit included in this model. For example, seeking emotional support or advice could help a person come to a better understanding of their job requirements, or could help them to feel better about misfit with other members of the group. Applying emotion-focused coping to the problem of misfit at work is likely to improve perceptions of fit by altering the perception of the degree of misfit either through the use of positive framing or through bolstering social support by expressing emotion to others. For these reasons, those who use this coping approach are likely to report increases in both PG and PJ fit.

*Hypothesis 6a: The use of emotion-focused coping mechanisms will be positively associated with an increase in perceived PJ fit.*

*Hypothesis 6b: The use of emotion-focused coping mechanisms will be positively associated with an increase in perceived PG fit.*

Those who employ avoidance coping in response perceived misfit seek to change neither

their personal or environmental characteristics, nor their perception of misfit. Therefore, they should not experience changes in perceived fit. The use of avoidance coping in other contexts is consistently associated with continued unresolved stress, because this coping mechanism addresses neither the stressor nor the reaction to it (Endler & Parker, 1994). In the Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2009) study described above, the use of avoidance coping was associated with increase in both the presence of stressors and the experience of strain. This suggests that the use of avoidance coping neither resolves the source of stress, nor makes the experience of it more tolerable. In the context of misfit, avoidance coping would involve avoiding an aspect of the environment with which one does not fit, either the job or coworkers, leaving the source of misfit unchanged. The use of avoidance in response to PJ misfit would involve not only resistance to feedback about performance, but also a reluctance to seek out such feedback. For this reason, those who do not fit with the requirements of their jobs are likely to experience continued decreasing PJ when they use avoidance coping. The use of avoidance in this context is also likely to be particularly ineffective in resolving PG misfit because of its social aspects. Studies of socialization tactics have demonstrated that social aspects of the work environment, such as social acceptance (Bauer et al., 2007) and building relationships (Li et al., 2010), are particularly salient as people find their way in new organizations. Those who use avoidance tend to have fewer social recourses (Billings & Moos, 1981) and they are, therefore, likely to experience less fit and the use of these tactics is likely to result in decreasing fit over time.

*Hypothesis 7a: Avoidance coping will be negatively associated with increase in PJ fit.*
*Hypothesis 7b: Avoidance coping will be negatively associated with increase in PG fit.*

**Narcissism Moderates Coping Effectiveness**

In addition to influencing the choice of which coping mechanisms individuals would use in response to stress, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) proposed that personality also influences the

effectiveness of coping mechanisms. They proposed that some people would be better able to implement coping strategies in response to stressors because of differences in their personality. In the context of misfit and fit, the effectiveness of coping mechanisms is likely to be influenced by personality traits that influence an individual's ability to effect change in their environments, themselves, or their relationships. Resolving misfit or maintaining fit through the use of coping mechanisms requires interpersonal skills, self-awareness, and willingness to change. A common thread among these abilities is that they each require taking the perspective of others when evaluating situations and the personality trait most associated with the lack of this ability is narcissism (Giammarco & Vernon, 2014). For this reason, I propose that the effectiveness of each coping mechanism will be moderated by narcissism, variance in which creates either a selfish or other-focused approach to the pursuit of fit (See Figure 2).

The self-regulatory model of narcissism is particularly informative when considering how those high in narcissism would implement coping mechanisms in pursuit of fit, because it speaks to individuals' ability to respond to feedback in a productive way by changing aspects of themselves or their behavior when necessary (Campbell et al., 2000). These self-serving biases are likely to thwart successful attempts to fit in because adjustments to the self would require an honest self-evaluation to determine how personal change might benefit efforts to fit in. If only positive information about the self is retained, this would become impossible. Likewise, aggressive reactions to negative feedback from the environment are likely to be detrimental to efforts to work with others to make changes to the environment. Thus, high levels of narcissism would inhibit the ability to change the self or the environment when implementing problem-focused coping in the pursuit of PE fit.

Similarly, the emotional reactions of narcissists to stressful situations are likely to

diminish the effectiveness of emotion-focused coping. One of the advantages of using emotion-focused coping tactics in response to stressful situations is that seeking social support and understanding the experiences of others is part of this process. By seeking social support in response to misfit, a central feature of emotion-focused coping (Endler & Parker, 1994; Pearsall, Ellis, & Stein, 2009), people may come to a more positive interpretation of their circumstances. This path to fit is likely to be unavailable to those high in narcissism, because they are less able to connect with others through this kind of mutual understanding (Kelsey et al., 2001). Those high in narcissism should achieve fewer positive changes in fit as a result of the use of emotion-focused coping, because their tendency to focus on the self to the exclusion of others will limit the effective use of all misfit-reducing tactics.

> *Hypothesis 8a: Narcissism will moderate the relationship between problem-focused coping mechanisms and change in fit such that those with high narcissism will perceive a decrease in PJ fit and those with low narcissism will perceive an increase in PJ fit when using problem-focused coping mechanisms.*
>
> *Hypothesis 8b: Narcissism will moderate the relationship between problem-focused coping mechanisms and change in fit such that those with high narcissism will perceive a decrease in PG fit and those with low narcissism will perceive an increase in PG fit when using problem-focused coping mechanisms.*
>
> *Hypothesis 8c: Narcissism will moderate the relationship between emotion-focused coping mechanisms and change in PJ fit such that those with high narcissism will perceive a decrease in PJ fit and those with low narcissism will perceive an increase in fit when using emotion-focused coping mechanisms.*
>
> *Hypothesis 8d: Narcissism will moderate the relationship between emotion-focused coping mechanisms and change in PG fit such that those with high narcissism will perceive a decrease in PG fit and those with low narcissism will perceive an increase in fit when using emotion-focused coping mechanisms.*

Finally, narcissism is likely to influence the effectiveness of avoidance in response to misfit. Although avoidance is generally an unproductive approach to coping, those high in narcissism may implement this form of coping effectively. Responding to misfit with avoidance would involve setting aside the source of misfit, deliberately avoiding it or pretending it does not

exist. For those low in narcissism, this may be more difficult because they would remain concerned about not fitting in because they care about their relationships with others and the impressions they form more than those high in narcissism would. For someone with high narcissism, avoidance may be an effective way to manage misfit because it is easier to dismiss the concerns of others for those who prioritize self aggrandizement and superiority over others (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). For this reason, those high in narcissism may be able to effectively avoid aspects of the environment that are sources of misfit, in a way that those low in narcissism can not successfully avoid them. This effective avoidance would then lead those high in narcissism to believe that they do fit better, thus increasing perceptions of fit.

*Hypothesis 8e: Narcissism will moderate the relationship between avoidance coping mechanisms and change in PJ fit such that those with high narcissism will perceive an increase in PJ fit and those with low narcissism will perceive a decrease in fit when using avoidance coping mechanisms.*

*Hypothesis 8f: Narcissism will moderate the relationship between avoidance coping mechanisms and change in PG fit such that those with high narcissism will perceive an increase in PG fit and those with low narcissism will perceive a decrease in fit when using avoidance coping mechanisms.*

**Outcomes of Changes in PE Fit**

In the final stage of the model, we see the effect that changes in fit have on job satisfaction, commitment, and well-being. PG and PJ fit have well-established relationships with both job satisfaction and intention to quit. Much of the research on PE fit has treated fit as an antecedent of outcomes that are important to organizations, with job satisfaction and intention to quit being two of the most frequently assessed. These two constructs are particularly important to organizations because they are attitudinal precursors to employees' performance and turnover decisions (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). For this reason, organizations that can improve job satisfaction and reduce intention to quit will experience fewer of the costs associated with turnover (Trevor & Nyberg, 2008). These relationships have been validated by multiple meta-

analyses (Arthur et al., 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Oh et al., 2014; Verquer et al., 2003). The relationship between PE fit and job satisfaction is consistently positive and substantial across different types of fit including PO fit ($\rho$ = .44), PG fit ($\rho$ = .41), PS fit ($\rho$ = .44), and PJ fit ($\rho$ = .56) (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Likewise, the relationships between different types of PE fit and intention to quit are consistently negative, though smaller in size: PO fit ($\rho$ = -.35), PG fit ($\rho$ = -.22), and PJ fit ($\rho$ = -.46) (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

I expect that changes in PG and PJ fit should follow the established relationships, such that increases in fit will be associated with higher job satisfaction and lower intention to quit. These relationships will be a result, not only of the higher level of perceived fit achieved by those who have experienced increases in fit, but also due to the affective consequences of improvement in fit. Literature on affective responses to change in attitude or condition, suggest that the positive affective responses associated with good fit will be magnified for those who have experienced positive change in fit instead of steadily high levels of fit. For example, in a study of newcomers that evaluated the difference in satisfaction between the previous job and the new job, Boswell, Shipp, Payne, and Culertson (2009) found that those who moved from a job where they perceived that the organization had not fulfilled its commitments (i.e. there was low NS fit) experienced higher initial satisfaction than those who were not moving from an environment where NS fit was low. This suggests that even the possibility of being in an environment with improved fit will be associated with a spike in job satisfaction. Similarly, Bledow, Schmitt, Frese, and Kuhnel (2011) found that, more than a steady level of positive affect, a shift from negative to positive is predictive of work engagement. There is only one empirical paper that assesses the effects of change in fit on job satisfaction and turnover intention. Its results are consistent with the prediction that positive change in fit will be

positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to turnover intentions (Wang et al., 2011). Because both PG and PJ fit are associated with job satisfaction and intention to quit, changes in either should similarly affect these outcomes.

*Hypothesis 9a: Level of PJ fit will be positively associated with Job Satisfaction.*
*Hypothesis 9b: Increase in PJ fit will be positively associated with Job Satisfaction.*
*Hypothesis 9c: Level of PG fit will be positively associated with Job Satisfaction.*
*Hypothesis 9d: Increase in PG fit will be positively associated with Job Satisfaction.*
*Hypothesis 10a: Level of PJ fit will be negatively associated with Intention to Quit.*
*Hypothesis 10b: Increase in PJ fit will be negatively associated with Intention to Quit*
*Hypothesis 10c: Level of PG fit will be negatively associated with Intention to Quit.*
*Hypothesis 10d: Increase in PG fit will be negatively associated with Intention to Quit.*

In Schneider's (1987, 1995) ASA model, he has cautioned that one negative outcome of high levels of fit within an organization is that organizations may become myopic due to the absence of diversity. Although this potential negative outcome of fit is relevant for organizations, other individual level negative consequences of fit have not yet been explored (Dickson, Resick, & Godlstein, 2008).

Research on coping has revealed that in addition to the positive outcomes of coping, such as reduction of stress and strain, there are costs to engaging in these processes. Specifically, coping requires effort and results in depletion of limited personal resources (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Both problem-focused coping mechanisms and emotion-focused coping mechanisms require people to spend their energy on self-regulatory processes that seek to reduce misfit, and for this reason, these potentially productive approaches to misfit are likely to have the negative consequence of increasing burnout because they involve the use of effort and the expenditure of personal resources.

*Hypothesis 11a: The use of problem-focused coping mechanisms will be positively associated with burnout.*

*Hypothesis 11b: The use of emotion-focused coping mechanisms will be positively associated with burnout*

# CHAPTER FOUR

# STUDY 1 METHODS

## Overview of the Studies

In order to test the model described in the previous chapter, I used a two-stage approach consisting of two studies. The data for the Study 1 come from a sample of students and allows preliminary tests of some of the relationships in the model, testing hypotheses 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8, shown in Figure 3. Study 2 includes some adjustments to the model based on lessons learned from the Study 1 and tests the full model, hypotheses 1 - 11.

## Study 1 Sample

I collected the data from a sample of undergraduate business students at the University of Iowa. Students were enrolled in an Introduction to Management course and received course credit in exchange for answering a series of 5 surveys over the course of the semester. The sample was 60.5% male, 34.2% female, and 5.2% did not identify their gender. The racial composition of the sample was 70.0% European-American/White, 18.1% Asian, 3.6% Hispanic, 1.3% African-American, 1.6% reported their race as other or mixed race, and 5.2% did not identify their race. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 50, with a mean age of 20.4, and a standard deviation of 2.7. These demographics are reported in Table 1 and are representative of the School population from which they are drawn.

Surveys were made available to 533 students, 486 of whom completed the first survey. Participants were excluded from the study when they provided incomplete data or when they provided incorrect answers to attention check questions in the survey. Following the recommendation of Meade and Craig (2012), I included attention check questions to identify respondents who were answering carelessly or randomly. These types of responses are likely in

long surveys and in surveys administered to students for course credit; this survey met both of these criteria. In each wave of the survey, there was a question that simply asked participants to choose a specific answer, such as "Please choose strongly agree as the answer to this question." When participants answered this question incorrectly, I excluded their data from that wave of the survey, but included data they had provided in other waves if they had answered the attention checks accurately and provided complete information. This resulted in the exclusion of data from a total of 55 respondents, some of whom had invalid responses at more than one time point. The total number of participants excluded at each time point for this reason were: T1 = 31, T2 = 18, T3 = 12, T4 = 13. For some tests, the data from participants who responded to some but not all waves of the survey was included, resulting in different sample sizes for different analyses. The minimum sample size for any of the tests I report is 260 participants who completed all 5 surveys, for a minimum response rate of 48.8%.

**Study 1 Data Collection**

The data for this study was collected over the course of one 16-week semester, and included 5 surveys. The first wave of the survey included questions about demographic information and measures of personality traits. This first survey, referred to hereafter as Time 0, was completed at the beginning of the semester. After the administration of this survey the students were randomly assigned to project teams of 3-4 students that they continued to work with through the rest of the semester. All participants in this sample were in a new team which was formed between Time 0 and Time 1, which provided the opportunity to measure their perceptions of fit and their use of coping in the context of a substantial recent change to their work environment. Together these teams completed 4 projects as part of their regular coursework, which were written assignments requiring collaboration and contribution from each

team member. The four remaining surveys, referred to hereafter as Times 1, 2, 3, and 4, were administered following the completion of each of 4 projects. Refer to Appendix A for the full survey. Each of the surveys at Times 1 through 4 included measures of different coping mechanisms used in response to stress in the group, and measures of fit with the group. The repeated administration of these measures allowed the tests of change in coping and fit over time. Table 2 reports the correlations, means, and standard deviations for the Study 1 variables.

**Study 1 Measures**

All responses were made on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," except where otherwise indicated.

*Approach and Avoidance Temperament.* I used the Elliot and Thrash (2010) measure of Approach and Avoidance temperaments. This is a 12-item scale, which includes 6 items that measure approach temperament and 6 items that measure avoidance temperament. It was collected at Time 0. The items that measured approach include: "Thinking about the things I want really energizes me" and "It doesn't take a lot to get me exited and motivated." The items that measured avoid include: "It doesn't take much to make me worry" and "When it looks like something bad could happen I have a strong urge to escape." The reliability of the approach (Chronbach's $\alpha = .78$) and avoidance (Chronbach's $\alpha = .79$) measures were both acceptable. The correlation between the two was $r = -.07$, indicating that the constructs can be treated as orthogonal.

*Neuroticism*. I measured neuroticism at Time 0 using the 10 item scale for neuroticism that is part of the International Personality Item Pool measure of the FFM (Goldberg et al., 2006). The measure includes items such as "I worry about things," "I seldom feel blue" (reverse

scored), and "I get irritated easily." The reliability of this measure was acceptable, (Chronbach's $\alpha = .82$).

*Proactive Personality.* I used the Bateman and Crant (1993) measure of proactive personality. This is a 17-item scale, which was collected at Time 0. The measure includes items such as "I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life," "I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas," and "I tend to let others take the initiative to start new projects" (reverse scored). The reliability of this measure was acceptable, (Chronbach's $\alpha = .87$).

*Narcissism.* I used the narcissism subscale of the Jonason and Webster (2010) Dark Triad measure, which also included items assessing Machiavellianism and Psychopathy that were not used here. The measure of narcissism was administered at Time 0 and included 4 items: "I want others to admire me," "I tend to want others to pay attention to me," "I tend to seek prestige or status," and "I tend to expect special favors from others." Responses were made on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The reliability of this measure was acceptable, (Chronbach's $\alpha = .87$).

*Coping Mechanisms Used*. I used a modified version of the Coping Style Questionnaire (Howerton & Van Gundy, 2009) to assess which coping mechanisms participants used in response the stress they experienced within their groups. The measure of coping mechanisms used consisted of the same 12 items used to measure the general coping style, with a different prompt that asked participants to indicate what they had done in response to stress in their current work group. The prompt read: "Please select the option below that best describes how you respond to stressful events that have occurred while you are working with your group in this class." This measure was repeated at times 1, 2, 3, and 4. I then averaged the responses to this scale from times 1, 2, and 3 to indicate what participants had done over the course of the first

three time periods in response to stress within the group. This average was used in the tests of hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, and 9, but not in the tests of hypotheses 6-8 which were conducted using RCM and relied on the measurements made at each time period. The reliability of the problem-focused (Chronbach's $\alpha$ = .86),emotion-focused (Chronbach's $\alpha$ = .88), and avoidance coping (Chronbach's $\alpha$ = .89) measures were all acceptable.

*PG fit.* I assessed PG fit using the Vogel and Feldman (2009) scale because it assesses the social aspects of PG fit which would be particularly salient to the student sample. I modified the scale very slightly by changing the word "job" to "class." This is a 5-item measure including items such as, "Working with the other people in my group is one of the best parts of this class," "I get along well with the people I work with on a day-to-day basis," and "If I had more free time, I would enjoy spending more time with my group members socially." I repeated this measure at times 1, 2, 3, and 4. The reliability of the scale was acceptable at each time period (Chronbach's $\alpha$, T1 = .74, T2 =. 76, T3 = .77, T4 = .76).

*PJ fit.* The Study 1 sample was composed of student teams, not employees. As members of these teams, working with the team was each student's "job" in the context of this class and this measure assesses how well individuals perceive the fit of their abilities within the demands of the team and the team's tasks. To measure PJ fit in this sample I assessed Complementary DA fit using the Piasentin and Chapman (2007) scale. This is a measure of the perceived complementary fit within the group in terms of skills and abilities. This allows assessment of not only the participant's perceptions of social PG fit, but also their perceptions of task-based fit on their abilities and those of their team members. The published scale includes 8 items, one of which refers to the team's fit within the organization; the remaining 7 items refer to the individual's perceived fit within the team. I used the 7 team-focused items, and omitted the

organization-focused item, because it was not relevant in this context. The items used included: "My team members rely on me because I have competencies that they do not have," "People in my team seem to value that I am different from the typical team mate," and "My knowledge, skills, and abilities offer something that my other team members do not have." The reliability of the scale was acceptable at each time period (Chronbach's $\alpha$, T1 = .85, T2 =. 87, T3 = .89, T4 = .91). It is notable that the reliability of this measure increased over time suggesting that the subjects had a more stabilized perception of their fit with the demands of the team as time went on.

# CHAPTER FIVE

# STUDY 1 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## Study 1 Tests of the Measurement Model

I first tested the fit of the measurement model using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in Mplus Version 7 (Muthén and Muthén, 1998-2012). Following the recommendations of Williams and O'Boyle (2008) I conducted a CFA using a parceling approach, which estimates fewer parameters and limits the bias present in each. The measurement model, including the 4 personality variables (approach temperament, avoid temperament, proactive personality, and neuroticism) and the Time 1 measurements of PG fit, PJ fit, and the three types of coping, had good fit to the data (df = 305, $\chi^2$ = 517.58, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .05) (See Table 3 for model fit statistics). I tested an alternate model in which all indicators loaded on three latent variables, representing personality, coping, and fit, which had worse fit to the data (df = 348, $\chi^2$ = 4129.87, CFI = .39, RMSEA = .15, SRMR = .19) and a $\chi^2$ difference test was significant ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 3612.29, $p < .05$).

*Non-Independence of Fit Measures*

In order to identify the role of data non-independence as a result of the participants being nested with work groups, I calculated ICC values for the measures that identified phenomena that were potentially influenced by group membership. Kenny and Judd (1996) describe the reasons that "observations may be dependent, for instance, because they share some common feature, come from some common source, are affected by social interaction, or are arranged spatially or sequentially in time" (p. 138). Each participant in this sample was member of a team and two of the variables collected refer to the individual's assessment of their role in that team: these are PJ and PG fit. These observations are likely to have been influenced the participant's

group membership, because multiple members of the same group are likely to be influenced by characteristics of the group and by social interactions within the group. For example, if a group consists of 4 members all of whom are similar in skill level and personality, each member of the group is likely to notice this similarity and respond to questions about their fit within the group in the same way. The statistics reported in Table 5, show that group membership moderately influenced the assessments of PG fit, but did not influence the assessments of PJ fit. This conclusion is based on Bliese's (2000) assertion that non-zero values of ICC(1) indicate that group membership affects individual level observations.

Non-independence of the measures is also relevant to the repeated measures of each type of fit, because the repetition of the same measure within the same population is likely to generate responses that are related to one another. I assessed the non-independence of the measures over time by estimating the ICC values for PG and PJ fit at times 1, 2, 3, and 4. These values were ICC = .61 for PG fit and ICC = .66 for PJ fit. These values indicate that fit at each time period was non-independent from fit at the other time periods. This non-independence is consistent with the idea that fit at each time period is related to the previous assessment of fit, but may have changed between each measure. This similarity between measures must be accounted for statistically.

*Tests of Measurement Invariance*

I also performed tests of measurement invariance as described by Chan and Schmitt (2000) and Vandenberg and Lance (2000). These tests confirm that repeated administrations of scales that measure latent variables are structurally equivalent and, therefore, can be treated as measures of the same construct over time – a necessary assumption of longitudinal panel designs. I conducted a three-step test for each of the repeated measures including PG fit, PJ fit,

Problem-Focused Coping, Emotion-Focused Coping, and Avoidance Coping and results of these tests are reported in Table 4 The first step is the omnibus test that demonstrates the equality of the covariance structure at each time point. This test is considered to be satisfied when the model tested has excellent fit to the data as it does for all of the variables tested (See Table 4). The second step is the test of configural invariance, which demonstrates that members of different groups have the same understanding of the construct domain across time. As with the omnibus test, this test is considered to be satisfied when the model tested has excellent fit to the data as it does for all of the variables tested (See Table 4). The final step in demonstrating measurement invariance is the test of metric invariance, which demonstrates the quality of factor loadings for each indicator across time. In this case the test is satisfied when a $\chi^2$ difference test shows that the metric invariance model is *not* significantly different from the configural invariance model. This test was not significant for any of the variables (See Table 4) therefore the indicators used to measure each latent variable did have the same factor loadings across all four time periods, which suggests that it is acceptable to consider all of the repeated measures in this design to be reliable and consistent measures of their respective constructs over time.

**Study 1 Hypothesis Tests and *Post Hoc* Analyses**

*Personality Traits as Predictors of the use of Different Coping Mechanisms*

Hypotheses 1 and 2 propose that personality traits predict the use of different coping mechanisms. To test these predictors I performed a hierarchical linear regression using SPSS (Version 22). In order to assess the validity of each personality trait as a predictor of coping throughout the period of the data collection, I regressed the averages of each coping mechanism over times 1, 2, and 3 on the four personality traits measured in a stepwise fashion, using a two-tailed test with $\alpha$ set at .05. The two-step hierarchical regression allows the effects of each set of

personality traits on coping through evaluation of $\Delta R^2$ for each model. Table 6 reports these results. Model 1 regressed the use of problem-focused coping on avoidance and approach temperaments. Model 2 added neuroticism and proactive personality into the equation to determine if they predicted the use of each type of coping over and above approach and avoidance temperaments. The regression of the 4 personality traits on problem-focused coping revealed that the approach temperament ($\beta = .27$, $p < .05$) and proactive personality ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) each predicted the use of problem-focused coping mechanisms, providing support for hypotheses 1a and 1d. Although proactive personality was a significant predictor, adding it and neuroticism to the model accounted for negligible additional variance in the use of problem-focused coping ($\Delta R^2 = .03$).

For emotion-focused coping, approach temperament ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$) and neuroticism ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$) were both significant predictors, providing support for hypotheses 1b and 2c. Neither proactive personality ($\beta = .14$, *ns*) nor avoidance ($\beta = .03$, *ns*) were significant, therefore, hypotheses 1e and 2a were not supported.

The regression of avoidance coping on the four traits produced significant results for approach temperament ($\beta = -.43$, $p < .05$) and avoidance temperament ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$), providing support for hypotheses 1c and 2b. Neuroticism ($\beta = .10$, *ns*), however, was not significant; therefore, hypothesis 2d was not supported. These results indicate that, in this sample, the approach temperament was a significant positive predictor of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping and a significant negative predictor of avoidance coping. The avoidance temperament was a significant positive predictor only of avoidance coping. Proactive personality was also only a valid predictor of problem-focused coping, while neuroticism was a valid predictor of emotion-focused coping. Together these results indicate that all four traits

account for some variance in the use of different coping mechanisms, but the addition of proactive personality and neuroticism to the model accounts for negligible additional variance ($\Delta R^2$ problem-focused coping = .03; $\Delta R^2$ emotion-focused coping = .06; $\Delta R^2$ avoidance coping = .01). For this reason, I excluded the narrower traits of proactive personality and neuroticism from the model and focused on the effects of approach and avoid temperaments.

I also tested hypotheses 1 and 2 using SEM by modeling the effects of the approach and avoid temperaments on all three of the coping mechanisms. These tests allow generation of standardized estimates of the effect of each temperament on the use of each coping mechanisms while controlling for the other effects in this stage of the model. Table 7 summarizes these results. Approach temperament is a positive predictor of problem-focused coping (std $\beta$ = .43, 95% CI: .34, .52) and emotion-focused coping (std $\beta$ = .15, 95% CI: .04, .26) and negative predictor of avoidance coping (std $\beta$ = -.22, 95% CI: -.32, -.12), providing additional support for hypothesis 1 a, b, and c. Avoid temperament is a positive predictor of emotion-focused coping (std $\beta$ = .23, 95% CI: .12, .33) and avoidance coping (std $\beta$ = .32, 95% CI: .23, .42), providing additional support for hypothesis 2 a and b.

*Change in Fit over Time*

Hypotheses 4a and 4b propose that PJ fit and PG fit will change over time. I tested these hypotheses by modeling the slope for each type of fit over four time periods using LGM. The standardized estimate of the slope in PJ fit was significant and positive (.17, 95% CI: .02, .31), indicating that PJ fit improved over time and providing support for hypothesis 4a. I also tested the quadratic term for PJ fit over all four time periods to determine if the change was curvilinear. This test was not significant (-.15, 95% CI: -.46, .16), confirming that the change was not curvilinear. The standardized estimate of the slope in PG fit was significant and negative (-.85,

95% CI: .-1.13, -.58), indicating that PG fit decreased over time and providing support for hypothesis 4b although the change was in the opposite direction of what was expected. I also tested the quadratic term for PG fit over all four time periods to determine if the change was curvilinear. In this case, the model with the quadratic term could not be estimated. Instead, I compared the means of PG fit at each time period (T1 = 4.0, T2 = 3.7, T3 = 3.7, T4 = 3.6), which indicated that most of the change occurred between Time 1 and Time 2 and that the change in PG fit was consistently negative over time and did not change direction at a later time point. I, therefore, treat the change in PG fit as linear in all subsequent tests.

*Post Hoc Tests of Change in Coping over Time*

Although change in coping over time was not hypothesized, I also conducted tests of change in the use of coping mechanisms because it is possible that coping, as well as fit, changed over time. I assessed these changes using the same methods as those used to test hypotheses 4 a and b. Problem-focused coping had a negative slope from Time 1 to Time 4 (-.50, 95% CI: -.69, -.30), and the quadratic term was not significant (.02, 95% CI: -.16, .19). Emotion-focused coping had a negative slope from Time 1 to Time 4 (-.32, 95% CI: -.62, -.02), and the quadratic term was not significant (.02, 95% CI: -.16, .22). Avoidance coping had a positive slope from Time 1 to Time 4 (.39, 95% CI: .19, .60), and the quadratic term was significant (-.43, 95% CI: -.81, -.06). These results indicate that the subjects in the Study 1 sample used fewer problem-focused and fewer emotion-focused coping mechanisms over time, but increased their use of avoidance coping.

*Coping Mechanisms as Predictors of Change in Fit over Time*

Hypotheses 5 – 7 propose that the use of different coping mechanisms predicts change in fit over time. I tested these hypotheses by modeling the relationships between the use of each

coping mechanism and a latent growth model of the intercept and slope of each type of fit. The relationships with the intercept represent relationships with the overall level of that variable; and the relationships with the slope represent relationships with the change in that variable. The results of these analyses are reported in Table 8; Table 9 models 1-3 report the fit statistics for these models. The results of these tests were mixed and indicated that problem-focused coping is associated with the level of PJ fit (std β = .39, 95% CI: .27, .50), and the level of PG fit (std β = .25, 95% CI: .12, .37), but not a change in PJ fit (std β = .17, 95% CI: -.01, .36) or a change in PG fit (std β = -.06, 95% CI: -.23, .11) over time, therefore hypotheses 5 a and b were not supported. Emotion-focused coping was not associated the level of PJ fit (std β = .07, 95% CI: -.06, .21) or the level of PG fit (std β = -.08, 95% CI: -.21, .05), but was associated with change in PJ fit (std β = .34, 95% CI: .14, .54) but not change in PG fit (std β = .09, 95% CI: -.08, .26) over time. Therefore, hypotheses 6 a was supported, but hypothesis 6 b was not. Avoidance coping was not associated the level of PJ fit (std β = -.12, 95% CI: -.25, .01) or the change in PJ fit (std β = .11, 95% CI: -.08, .30). It was associated with the level of PG fit (std β = -.28, 95% CI: -.41, -.16) but not the change in PG fit (std β = .07, 95% CI: -.10, .25) over time. Therefore, hypotheses 7 a and b were not supported.

The positive relationship between problem-focused coping and PJ and PG fit indicates that those who used more problem-focused coping experienced higher levels of both PJ and PG fit across all time periods. Similarly, the negative relationship between avoidance coping and the level of PG fit indicates that those who used more of this type of coping had lower PG fit. The one supported relationship with a change in fit was a positive relationship between emotion-focused coping and change in PJ fit, which had a positive slope. This result indicates that those who used more emotion-focused coping also experienced an increase their PJ fit. These analyses

leave several questions unanswered because they do not include assessments of the change in coping, and they do not indicate whether the change in fit results from the use of different types of coping, or if change in fit precipitates change in coping.

*Post Hoc Tests of the Relationships between Change in Fit and Change in Coping*

In order to address the questions unanswered by the tests of hypotheses 5-7, I tested nine alternate models of the relationships between change in fit and change in coping. The first set of alternatives, numbered models 4, 5, and 6 in Tables 9 and 10, addressed the question of whether the overall level of fit across all time periods was associated with either the level or the change in coping over time. These models tested the effects of the averaged level of PJ and PG fit over all 4 time periods on the intercept and slope of each type of coping. In these models, the average PJ (std $\beta$ = .54, 95% CI: .38, .70) and PG fit (std $\beta$ = .29, 95% CI: .12, .45) were associated with the level of problem-focused coping, but not the change in the use of problem-focused coping. Similarly, the average PJ fit was associated with the level of emotion-focused coping (std $\beta$ = .25, 95% CI: .11, .40), but not its change. Finally, the average PG fit was negatively associated with the level of avoidance coping (std $\beta$ = -.21, 95% CI: -.36, -.06), but not its change. Much like the results of the tests of hypotheses 5, 6, and 7, these results indicate that those who experience higher levels of PJ and PG fit tend to use more problem-focused coping, those with higher PJ fit tend to use more emotion-focused coping, and those with lower PG fit tend to use more avoidance coping.

In order to address the question of whether changes in fit precede changes in coping or if changes in coping precede changes in fit, I first tested models 7, 8, and 9 which assess changes in fit as predictors of changes in coping. In these models, I used the level and change of fit at times 1-3 as predictors of the level and change in coping at times 2-4. In these models, the level of PJ

fit at times 1-3 predicted the level of problem-focused coping at times 2-4 (std β = .53, 95% CI: .18, .88) and the level of PG fit at times 1-3 predicted the level of problem-focused coping at times 2-4 (std β = .54, 95% CI: .16, .91). This indicated that those with high PJ and PG fit in the beginning continued to use more problem-focused coping than those with lower levels of fit did. There was also a negative relationship between the change in PG fit and the level of avoidance coping (std β = -.34, 95% CI: -.65, -.03), indicating that those with decreasing levels of PG fit used more avoidance coping over time.

Second, I tested models 10, 11, and 12, which assessed changes in coping as predictors of changes in fit. In these models, I used the level and change of coping at times 1-3 as predictors of the level and change in fit at times 2-4. These results are summarized in Table 11. In this set of tests, the level of problem-focused coping at times 1-3 predicted the level of PJ fit (std β = .55, 95% CI: .36, .75) and the level of PG fit (std β = .49, 95% CI: .31, .66) at times 2-4. Neither emotion-focused coping nor avoidance coping were valid predictors of the level or change in fit at times 2-4. In the case of emotion-focused coping, no results were available because the model did not converge, and the avoidance coping model did not support coping as a predictor of the level or the change of PJ or PG fit.

In order to assess the role of fit at Time 1 as a predictor of the use of coping mechanisms, I tested model 13 which is the same as model 10, with the addition of Time 1 PJ and PG fit as predictors of the level and change in the use of problem-focused coping over Times 1, 2, and 3. The results of this model are reported in Table 11. In this model, the relationships between T1 PJ and PG fit and the intercept for problem-focused coping are .67 (95% CI: .57, .76) and .38 (95% CI: .26, .50), respectively. The relationships between PJ and PG fit at Time 1 and the slope of problem-focused coping over Times 1, 2, and 3 are .64 (95% CI: .42, .86) and -.71 (95% CI: -

1.1, -.23), respectively. Because the problem-focused coping slope is negative, this means that those with higher PJ fit at Time 1 use more problem-focused coping over time, and those with higher PG fit at time 1 use less problem-focused coping over time. Additionally, the relationships between of problem-focused coping over Times 1, 2, and 3 and PJ fit over Times 2, 3, and 4 ($\gamma$ = .59, 95% CI: .36, .83) and PG fit over Times 2, 3, and 4 ($\gamma$ = .65, 95% CI: .38, .91) are positive and significant. Indicating that those who use problem-focused coping in response to stress have higher fit. The slope of problem-focused coping over Times 1, 2, and 3 is negative and has a negative relationship with the level of PJ fit ($\gamma$ = -.56, 95% CI: -.85, -.28) and a positive relationship with the level of PG fit ($\gamma$ = .74, 95% CI: .38, 1.1). This result indicates that those who increase their use of problem-focused coping have higher PJ fit, and lower PG fit. Given the student team context, this could indicate that team members who try to resolve team stress using problem-focused approaches do so at the cost of fitting in socially with their teams.

Together the results of these additional analyses reveal that the relationship between problem-focused coping and both types of fit is moderate and relatively stable over time. The consistent, positive relationship between each operationalization of problem-focused coping (average of Times 1-4, intercept of Times 1-3, and the intercept of Times 2-4) and the levels of both types of fit indicates that those who have high levels of PJ and PG fit tend to maintain their use of this type of coping. None of the models that tested the use of problem-focused coping as a predictor of increase in fit had statistically significant results for this relationship. This suggests that the use of problem-focused coping is associated with the level of PJ and PG fit over time, but that additional tests would be necessary to conclude that the use of this type of coping causes a either an increase or a decrease in PJ or PG fit.

Considering the results for all tests of the relationships between emotion-focused coping and fit provides less clarity. Although the average of emotion-focused coping over all 4 time periods was associated with an increase in PJ fit (see Table 8) and the test of change in fit over times 1-3 as a predictor of the use of coping at times 2-4 was not significant (See Table 10, model 8), the model that tested emotion-focused coping at times 1-3 as a predictor of change in fit at times 2-4 did not converge. I, therefore, cannot conclude that the use of this type of coping predicts a change in fit, although it is clear that change in fit does not lead to an increase in the use of this type of coping. It may be that those who use more emotion-focused coping experience an increase in their PJ fit for other reasons.

The analyses of the relationships between avoidance coping and fit show that there is a negative relationship between the Time 1-4 average of avoidance coping on the level of PG fit and negative relationship between the Time 1-4 average of PG fit and the level of avoidance coping. These both indicate that the use of more avoidance coping is associated with lower levels of PG fit, but they do not reveal whether avoidance leads to a decrease in PG fit or if those with lower levels of PG fit tend to use more avoidance. Comparing the results from models 9 and 12 (See Tables 10 and 11) reveals that change in PG fit precedes the use of more avoidance coping, but that change in the use of avoidance coping does not have a relationship with fit. Specifically, model 9 shows a negative relationship between the slope of PG fit from times 1-3 (which was negative) and the level of avoidance coping from times 2-4. This means that experiencing a decrease in PG fit is a likely precursor to using more avoidance coping.

*Narcissism as a Moderator of Coping Effectiveness*

Hypotheses 8 a – f propose that narcissism moderates the relationship between the use of coping mechanisms and change in fit. To explore narcissism as a moderator of coping's

effectiveness, I tested latent interaction models using SEM in MPlus7. The results of these are reported in Table 12. I tested the interaction of narcissism and each type of coping as predictors of the intercepts and slopes of each type of fit. Although narcissism did not moderate the effect of problem-focused, emotion-focused, or avoidance coping on the level or change of either type of fit, two of the relationships were close to being statistically significant because their 95% confidence intervals only barely included zero. These were the interaction of problem-focused coping and narcissism predicting the slope of PJ fit ($\beta = .04$, 95% CI: -.001, .09), and the interaction of avoidance coping and narcissism predicting the slope of PG fit ($\beta = .03$, 95% CI: -.002, .06). These results do not provide support for hypotheses 8 a-f, but they do suggest that a real relationship may exist between narcissism and the effectiveness of some coping mechanisms.

**Study 1 Discussion**

This study provides support for important aspects of the model, but questions remain about the relationships and the generalizability of the findings. First, it provides support for much of the first half of the model that proposes a relationship between achievement and anxiety motivations and the use of different coping mechanisms. In this sample, approach and avoid temperaments, neuroticism, and to a lesser degree, proactive personality, predicted the use of different coping mechanisms. Second, these data provide support for the claim that fit changes over time. In this case, both perceived PG and PJ fit changed during the course of the data collection; PJ fit increased and PG fit decreased. Third, these data provide limited support for the second phase of the model in which coping affects change in fit over time. Finally, this study provides did not support the proposition that that narcissism moderates the effectiveness of coping mechanisms used in pursuit of fit. Although the results of this analysis are promising in

that they provide evidence that supports some aspects of the model, the mixed of support for the effect of coping on change in fit requires further attention.

The results of the Study 1 data analysis indicated that there is a relationship between the use of coping mechanisms and the level of fit, but provides limited support for a relationship between coping and change in fit. These results provided support for the thesis that that the use of coping mechanisms influences individuals' perceptions of their own fit. However, this study did not capture the effect that these coping mechanisms have on fit over time. PJ fit was higher for those who used problem-focused coping, but only emotion-focused coping was associated with an increase in PJ fit over time (see Table 8). In addition, PG fit was higher for those who used problem-focused coping in response to team stress and lower for those who used avoidance coping (see Table 8). *Post Hoc* tests revealed that there is a consistent positive relationship between problem-focused coping and PJ and PG fit, but did not provide support for change in fit as a predictor of problem-focused coping or for problem-focused coping as a predictor of change in fit. In addition, the *post hoc* tests also revealed that a decrease in PG fit from Time 1-3 precedes higher levels of avoidance coping at Times 2-4 (See Table 10, model 9). Two possible explanations for this mixed support for the hypotheses are that the sample was not appropriate to capture this relationship and that the design was insufficient to capture the relationships between the use of coping mechanisms and change in fit. First, the student sample and the temporary nature of the student teams may be a factor. When students are faced with a team where they do not fit they may be more likely to withdraw because they know that the situation is temporary. Those in a similar situation on the job would be more likely to engage in efforts to improve their fit because the personal and professional costs of changing organizations or positions may motivate them to resolve the misfit. The potential lack of motivation to achieve fit among the

student participants limits the generalizability of these findings, and may have weakened the potential of the design to capture the relationships of interest. This suggests that a field sample may more effectively capture this relationship.

Second, the prompts in the survey did not directly address the stress resulting from misfit in their teams. The questions about the use of coping mechanisms were asked in the context of stress in the team, which could have come from sources other than misfit, such as time pressure or a challenging workload. Continuing research on this model will more directly connect the experience of misfit to the use of coping mechanisms in the minds of the participants. For these reasons, I sampled from a population of employed adults for Study 2 and made modifications to the data collection and research design.

# CHAPTER SIX

# STUDY 2 METHODS

## Overview

The second study was conducted in the field using a sample of working adults. This sample improves the generalizability of the results from Study 1 to a broader working population and allows testing of the hypotheses that were not testable using a student sample. For this reason, it includes measures that allow tests of all relationships in the model including uncertainty of change, job satisfaction, intention to quit, and burnout, which were not assessed in the Study 1. The design of the Study 2 was refined based on the findings of the Study 1 described above. Due to the negligible effects of proactive personality and neuroticism in the Study 1 results, they have ben removed from the model. The final model tested in Study 2 is shown in Figure 4.

This study employs a repeated measures design which asks participants to report their experiences multiple times in order to allow the measurement of within-person change. This allows detection of changes in fit perceptions that come following efforts to improve or maintain fit using coping mechanisms. Repeated measures of job attitudes have been used in the organizational literature before, but this approach has not been used in the fit literature, even though researchers interested in the temporal aspects of fit have called for the use of repeated measures (Jansen & Shipp, 2013).

## Study 2 Sample

In order to determine the optimal sample size to reduce the chances of both type I and Type II errors, I conducted a power analysis for the multiple linear regression model using the G*Power analysis software (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). Following the

recommendations of Austin, Boyle, and Lualhati (1998) I set $\alpha$ to .05 and $\beta$ to .80, and estimated the effect size at .15, based on the effect sizes from the first study. This produced a recommended sample size of 129 for a multiple linear regression model using 4 predictors, in this case the 4 personality traits used in hypotheses 1-4. The sample size should also be informed by the use of LGM that will be used to test hypotheses 6 -12. Although power analysis formulas for these analyses are not available, previously published research does provide some guidance. When modeling growth longitudinally, power is a function of model complexity and number of measurements over time (Bliese & Ployhart, 2002). The analyses proposed here that will require the largest sample size are the SEM analyses of the full model. The traditionally recommended sample size for these analyses is 10 people per indicator in the model. In order to limit the data collection demands for this study, I collapsed each measured latent variable in the final model to a single indicator and test the full path model using these single indicators and tested each stage of the model separately, which allows testing more complex models with a smaller sample size (cf. Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008). Using this technique, I limit the number of indicators per model to no more than 8, allowing these limited models to be tested using a sample size of 80 or more.

The sample was collected from a population of current students in the MBA program of a large Midwestern University. I recruited participants by visiting evening MBA classes, which are more likely to include students who are currently employed. During the visit, I briefly described the study and asked those interested to complete a form that supplied me with their name and email address. I visited a total of 10 classes, in the areas of Management, Business Analytics, Managerial Economics, and Entrepreneurship, with a total combined enrollment of 323. An invitation to participate in the study was also published on the on-line message board of 4

additional MBA classes, with a total enrollment of 139. These recruiting efforts reached up to 462 students. The actual number of students who I reached is likely somewhat lower because some students were enrolled in more than one of the classes, and would be counted twice in the total of 462 students, and some students were late or absent from the class on the night of enrollment. A total of 222 people volunteered to participate and provided their contact information.

**Study 2 Data Collection**

Each of the volunteers received an email with an invitation to participate in the first wave of the study, a link to an online survey administered through the Qualtrics website, and their unique study ID. The study ID was a 5 digit number assigned to them which allowed matching data for each participant anonymously over the four time points. After reading the informed consent letter and agreeing to participate in the study, participants were screened for eligibility based on their employment, and those who were not employed at least part-time were thanked for their time and told they were not eligible to participate.

The study consisted of 4 online surveys: baseline (Time 1), repeated reports of coping and fit (times 1, 2, 3, & 4), and outcomes (Time 4). Table 13 provides a summary of the data collection timeline. First, I administered a survey to all participants that asked about basic demographic information, personality traits, and baseline measures of PJ and PG fit. This was followed by the repeated measures phase, a 2 month period of data collection during which participants completed repeated measures of their use of coping mechanisms in response to misfit or in an effort to maintain fit. Participants also repeated the measures of PG and PJ fit, giving a total of 4 measures of each type of fit. In the final outcome survey, participants completed measures of job satisfaction, intention to quit, and burnout. After all of the surveys

were complete, participants were entered in a raffle for one of 15 $50 credits at an online retailer as compensation for their time.

Of the 222 volunteers, 133 completed the first survey, 92 completed the second survey, 63 completed the third survey, and 62 completed the fourth survey. As I did in the Study 1, I followed the recommendation of Meade and Craig (2012) by including attention check questions to identify respondents who answered the questions carelessly or randomly. A total of 14 respondents answered these questions incorrectly and were removed from the data, leaving a time one N of 119. Respondents who omitted answers to all questions in a scale were also excluded from analyses that included the variable in question. The sample consisted of 49 men and 47 women; 23 participants did not supply their gender. Their ages ranged from 22 to 52, with a mean of 27 and a SD of 13.1. They were 71% European American, 5% Asian, 3% Hispanic, 2% African American, and 18% did not supply their race. The majority of respondents were employed in manufacturing (34%) or finance, insurance, and real estate (24%). The participants' organizational tenure ranged from 4 months to 19 years, with a mean of 4.9 years and a SD of 3.7 years. The participants' job tenure ranged from 1 month to 10 years, with a mean of 2.3 years and a SD of 2.2 years. Ninety participants (76%) indicated that they had experienced changes in their workplace in the 6 months prior to the first wave of the study, including changes to job requirements and changes to the people with whom they worked. Table 14 provides more complete information about the demographics of the survey.

**Study 2 Measures**

Four of the measures that I used in the Study 1 were used in the Study 2 as well. These are the measures for Approach and Avoid Temperaments (Elliot & Thrash, 2010), Narcissism (Jonason & Webster, 2010), Proactive Personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993), and Neuroticism

(Goldberg et al., 2006). The Study 2 reliabilities for these four scales were acceptable (Chronbach's $\alpha$ = .75, .81, .76, .90, .74, respectively). Participants were asked to respond on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The following measures replace measures used in Study 1 or are measures of additional constructs not assessed in the Study 1. Appendix B provides all of the scales that were used in Study 2.

*Coping Mechanisms used in response to misfit*. In order to address the concern that the Study 1 measures of coping mechanisms used were not specifically relevant to the stress of misfit, participants in the field study were directed to consider which coping mechanisms they used to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work. This was instead of being prompted to respond with the coping mechanisms they had used in response to stress in their teams, as was done in Study 1. Each of the items in the Howerton and Van Gundy (2009) scale were adjusted to directly ask participants to indicate their use of coping *in relation to fit*. For example, the prompt "You try to come up with a strategy about what to do," was changed to "You try to come up with a strategy about what to do to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work" (See Appendix B). Moving to a more focused measure should improve the sensitivity of this study to detect the relationships of interest by narrowing the participants' focus on their use of coping in response to misfit, and not simply their use of coping in response to stress. The reliabilities for the modified scale were good: Problem-focused coping at Times 1-4 (Chronbach's $\alpha$ = .93, .98, .96, .92); Emotion-focused coping at Times 1-4 (Chronbach's $\alpha$ = .83, .92, .86, .86); and Avoidance coping at Times 1-4 (Chronbach's $\alpha$ = .74, .87, .86, .65)

*PJ fit.* I assessed the participants' fit with the demands of their job using the Person-Job Demands Abilities Fit scale developed by Cable and DeRue (2002). This is a 3-item scale that includes the following items: "The match is very good between the demands of my job and my

personal skills," "My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job," and "My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me." This scale has produced sufficient reliabilities in previous studies (i.e. $\alpha = .84$ (Cable & DeRue, 2002); $\alpha = .84$ (Vogel & Feldman, 2009). In this data set the reliabilities at Times 1-4 were adequate (Chronbach's $\alpha = .86, .96, .97, .96$).

*PG Fit.* I assessed the participants' PG fit with items based on the scale development work presented by Kristof-Brown, Li, and Nielsen (2016). This scale differs from the PG fit measure used in Study 1 because the questions are more focused on fit with people in a work context, while the Vogel and Feldman (2009) measure used in Study 1 asks about more social aspects of fit. This is a 7-item scale that includes the following items: "I do not feel like I am part of my workgroup. *(Reverse Scored),"* "I am compatible with other members of my workgroup," and "I think other people would say that I fit well into this workgroup." In this data set the reliabilities at Times 1-4 were adequate (Chronbach's $\alpha = .90, .93, .92, .95$).

*Job Satisfaction*. I assessed the participants' job satisfaction at Time 4 using a brief and general measure of job satisfaction developed by (Messersmith, Patel, Lepak, & Gould-Williams, 2011). The items in this scale are "In general, I like working here," "In general, I don't like my job" (reverse scored), and "All things considered, I feel pretty good about this job." This scale produced sufficient reliability (Chronbach's $\alpha = .90$).

*Intention to Quit*. I assessed the participants' intention to quit their current job using the measure from Ballinger, Lehman, and Schoorman (2010). This is a three-item measure that includes the following prompts: "I am actively looking for a job outside my current company," "As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my current company," and "I am seriously thinking about quitting my job." This scale produced sufficient reliability (Chronbach's $\alpha = .94$).

*Burnout*. I assessed the levels of burnout using a 9-item measure that includes 3 items to assess each of the sub-dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998). This is an abbreviated version of the Maslach and Jackson (1981) measure of experienced burnout. Items from this measure include: "I feel emotionally drained from my work," "I've become more callous toward people since taking this job," and "I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job." This scale was originally used in a health care context and two of the items refer to patient relationships. I have, therefore, adjusted these to remove the reference to patients, making them relevant to a general working population. For example, in the prompt, "I really don't care what happens to my patients," the phrase "to my patients" will be replaced with "at work." This scale produced sufficient reliability (Chronbach's $\alpha = .89$).

*Control variable*. I entered job tenure as a control into the models that predicted fit because the time in a position is often a factor in the level of fit experienced (Bauer et al., 2007; Cable & Parsons, 2001; Cooper-Thomas et al., 2004; Ellis et al., 2015; Fang, Duffy, & Shaw, 2011; Kim et al., 2005; Morrison, 1993; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

# CHAPTER SEVEN

# STUDY 2 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## Study 2 Tests of the Measurement Model

Table 15 is a table of the correlations of all of the study variables averaged over all of the time points. The first step in my data analysis was to demonstrate the validity of the measurement model by conducting a CFA for all study variables and comparing the hypothesized measurement model to alternate models. I did this using SEM in Mplus version 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). First, I estimated a model using each of the indicators loaded on their respective latent variables, using a parceling approach for the variables with more than 4 indicators as suggested by Williams & O'Boyle (2008). This model had good fit to the data ($\chi^2$ = 263.74, df = 181, CFI = .93 RMSEA = .07). Next, I compared the fit of this model to two alternate CFAs. In the first alternate CFA, the indicators for PG and PJ fit were all loaded on one factor. This model had worse fit to the data ($\chi^2$ =396.98, df = 188, CFI = .85, RMSEA = .10), and a $\chi^2$ difference test was significant ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 133.24, df = 7, $p$ <.05 ), indicating that the hypothesized measurement model was preferred to the first alternate and that separating the types of fit into two latent variables was more consistent with the data. In the second alternate CFA, the indicators of each of the types coping were loaded on a single factor. This model had worse fit to the data ($\chi^2$ = 497.11, df = 195, CFI = .78, RMSEA = .12), and a $\chi^2$ difference test was significant ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 233.37, df = 14, $p$ <.05 ), indicating that the hypothesized measurement model was preferred to the second alternate and that separating the measures of coping into three types was more consistent with the data.

*Tests of Measurement Invariance*

I also performed tests of measurement invariance as described by Chan and Schmitt (2000). These tests are designed to confirm that repeated administrations of scales that measure latent variables are structurally equivalent and, therefore, can be treated as measures of the same construct over time. I conducted three tests for each of the repeated measures including PG fit, PJ fit, Uncertainty of Change, Problem-focused Coping, Emotion-focused Coping, and Avoidance Coping. Results of these tests are reported in Table 17. The first step is the omnibus test that demonstrates the equality of the covariance structure at each time point. This test is considered to be satisfied when the model tested has excellent fit to the data as it does for all of the variables tested (See Table 17). The second step is the test of configural invariance, which demonstrates that members of different groups have the same understanding of the construct domain across time. As with the omnibus test, this test is considered to be satisfied when the model tested has excellent fit to the data as it does for all of the variables tested (See Table 17). The final step in demonstrating measurement invariance is the test of metric invariance, which demonstrates the quality of factor loadings for each indicator across time. In this case the test is satisfied when a $\chi^2$ difference test shows that the metric invariance model is *not* significantly different from the configural invariance model. This test was not significant for any of the variables (See Table 17). This indicates that the indicators used to measure each of the variables had the same factor loadings across all four time periods. Together, the tests of metric invariance for the repeated measures in Study 2 indicate that all variables should be treated as measures of the same constructs over time.

**Study 2 Hypothesis Tests and *Post Hoc* Analyses**

I used SEM, regression analysis, and Latent Growth Modeling (LGM) to quantify the relationships between variables at each stage of the model in a five-step approach that isolated the effects of the variables at each stage of the model. I used this approach to maximize the complexity of the model that could be predicted with the sample size available (cf. Dulac et al., 2008). First, I tested hypotheses 1 and 2 by testing a structural model that used approach and avoid temperament to predict problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping, and avoidance coping at Time 1. Second, I tested uncertainty of change as a moderator of the relationships between approach and avoid temperaments and coping at Time 1 using regression. Third, I used LGM to test the effect of each type of coping on the level and change of PJ and PG fit. I also conducted several *post hoc* analyses to test the causal order of the coping and fit relationship. Fourth, I tested narcissism as moderator of these relationships. Fifth, I tested the effects of the level and change of PJ and PG fit on job satisfaction, intention to quit, and burnout. I also used SEM to calculate the direct and indirect effects of the use of problem-focused anemotion-focused coping on burnout, as mediated by the level of PJ and PG fit at Time 3. Results of these tests are reported in Tables 18 – 26.

*Personality Traits as Predictors of the Use of Different Coping Mechanisms*

Hypotheses 1 a, b, and c and 2 a and b predicted that the approach and avoid temperaments would predict the use problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance coping. The SEM results reported in Table 18 shows that the approach temperament did predict the use of emotion-focused coping ($\beta$ = .28, 95% CI = .10, .45), but not the use of problem-focused coping ($\beta$ = .14, 95% CI = -.05, .32) or avoidance coping ($\beta$ = -.17, 95% CI = -.36, .01), because the confidence intervals for these relationships included zero. Thus, the data support hypothesis 1

b, but not hypotheses 1 a and c. Avoid temperament was also a predictor of emotion-focused coping (β = .17, 95% CI = .01, .33), but not avoidance coping (β = .07, 95% CI = -.11, .26). Thus the data support hypothesis 2 a, but not hypothesis 2 b. Hypotheses 1 d and e predict that proactive personality will be positively associated with problem-focused and emotion focused coping and hypotheses 2 c and d predict that neuroticism will be positively associated with emotion-focused coping and avoidance coping. Only the relationship between proactive personality and emotion-focused coping was significant in the Study 2 data, providing support for 1e. Similar to the results for study 1, the addition of these variables to the model accounts for negligible additional variance ($\Delta R^2$ problem-focused coping = .03; $\Delta R^2$ emotion-focused coping = .05; $\Delta R^2$ avoidance coping = .03). As with Study 1, I excluded the narrower traits from the model and focused on the effects of approach and avoid temperaments.

Hypotheses 3 a and b predicted that the uncertainty of change would moderate the relationships between approach and avoid temperaments and problem-focused and avoidance coping, such that approach temperament would magnify the use of problem-focused coping when uncertainty was high and avoid temperament would magnify the use of avoidance coping when uncertainty was high. I tested these hypotheses using two-stage regression analysis, first entering the mean centered approach and avoid temperaments and mean centered uncertainty as predictors of coping, then adding the interaction term to the equation. These results are summarized in Table 19. The data supported the interaction of approach temperament and uncertainty of change as a predictor of problem-focused coping (β = .44, 95CI: .07, .80). Figure 5 shows that the interaction follows the hypothesized form, which is that that when uncertainty of change is high, those with a high level of approach temperament used more problem-focused coping mechanisms, and used fewer when uncertainty was low. The results did not support the

interaction of avoid temperament and uncertainty of change (β = .05, *NS*). Thus, hypothesis 3a was supported and hypothesis 3b was not.

*Change in Fit over Time*

Hypotheses 4 a and b predict that PJ and PG fit will change over time. I tested these hypotheses by modeling the intercept and slope of the means of PJ fit and PG fit at each time point. The results for PJ fit indicate that the slope was significantly different from zero (-.39, 95% CI: -.65, -.12), supporting hypothesis 4a. I also tested the quadratic term of PJ fit over all four time periods, and this was not significant (95% CI: -.28, .19), indicating that the change was linear. Alternatively, the results for PG fit indicate that the slope was not significantly different from zero (95% CI: -.03, .05), thus PG fit did not change over time and hypothesis 4b was not supported by the data.

*Post Hoc Tests of Change in Coping over Time*

As in Study 1, I conducted tests of change in the use of coping mechanisms using the same methods I used to test hypotheses 4 a and b. In this sample, neither problem-focused coping (-.31, 95% CI: -.92, .27), nor emotion-focused coping (-.91, 95% CI: -2.1, .32), nor avoidance coping (-.33, 95% CI: -.69, .04) had a slope significantly different from zero and therefore did not change over time in this sample. This indicates that the participants in Study 2 used all types of coping consistently over time.

*Coping Mechanisms as Predictors of Change in Fit over Time*

Hypotheses 5 a and b, 6 a and b, and 7 a and b, predict that each type of coping predicts change of both PJ and PG fit. I tested these hypotheses using LGM by modeling the effects of the intercepts and the slopes of the lines representing the changes in fit across times 1, 2, 3, and 4; the intercepts represent the level of fit and the slopes represent the change in fit over time. The

results of these tests are summarized in Table 20. In this sample, hypothesis 4b was not supported because the slope for PG fit was not significantly different from zero; the slope could therefore not be estimated in the latent growth models. For this same reason, hypotheses 5 b, 6 b, and 7 b could not be tested because they describe predictors of change in PG fit which did not occur. I, therefore, tested hypotheses 5 a, 6 a, and 7a in the same way that I did for Study 1, by testing each type of coping as a predictor of the intercept and slope of PJ fit representing its level and change. I tested coping as a predictor of only the level of PG fit by modeling the intercept of the PG fit and not its slope. In addition, I included job tenure in the model as a control variable, as I did in all models predicting fit.

The results indicate that the use of problem-focused coping at Time 1 predicts the intercept of PG fit (β = .26, 95% CI: .07, .41), but not the intercept (β = .05, 95% CI: -.20, .26) or slope of PJ fit (β = -.03, 95% CI: -.33, .22). Thus, hypothesis 5a was not supported. The results also indicated that the use of emotion-focused coping at Time 1 did not predict the intercept of PJ fit (β = -.21, 95% CI: -.47, .05), the slope of PJ fit (β = -.01, 95% CI: -.33, .32) or the intercept (β = -.07, 95% CI: -.27, .12) of PG fit. Thus, hypothesis 6a was not supported. Finally, the use of avoidance coping predicted the intercept of PG fit (β = -.49, 95% CI: -.64, -.34), but not the intercept of PJ fit (β = -.26, 95% CI: -.53, .00), or the slope of PJ fit (β = -.17, 95% CI: -.48, .15). Thus, hypotheses 7a was not supported. Together these results indicate that those who use problem-focused coping experienced higher levels of PG fit and those who used avoidance coping experienced lower levels of PG fit. However, no changes in fit were associated with the use of coping mechanisms in this sample. As in Study 1, the tests of hypotheses 5, 6, and 7 leave some questions unanswered. Although those who used more problem-focused coping experienced higher levels of PG fit and those who used more avoidance coping experienced

lower levels of PG fit, it is not clear if the use of coping precipitated the level of fit or if the perception of PG fit influenced how people coped.

*Post Hoc Tests of the Relationships between Change in Fit and Change in Coping*

As I did with the Study 1 analyses, I conducted nine post hoc analyses in order to address some of the questions left unanswered by the tests of hypotheses 5, 6, and 7. In this case, the questions were somewhat different because, unlike in Study 1, there were no changes in PG fit or any of the three types of coping over time. I conducted each of the post hoc analyses used in Study 1, but I excluded the slopes of PG fit and slopes of each type of coping from these models because there was no change in these variables over time in this sample. The results of these tests are reported in Tables 21, 22, and 23. First, in models 4, 5, and 6, I tested the average levels of PJ and PG fit over all four time periods as predictors of the intercepts of the level of each type of coping. In these models, the only relationship that was significant was that between the average level of PG fit and the use of avoidance coping ($\beta$ = -.85, 95% CI: -1.1, -.64). This is consistent with the Study 1 results that indicate that those who experience lower levels of PG fit use more avoidance coping. In models 7, 8, and 9 (See Tables 21 and 22), I tested the intercept of PG fit modeled at times 1, 2, and 3 and the intercept and slope of PJ fit modeled at Times 1, 2, and 3 as predictors of these use of each type of coping at times 2, 3, and 4. In these tests, the change in PJ fit, which was negative in this sample, had strong, positive relationships with problem-focused coping ($\beta$ = .62, 95% CI: .39, .81), emotion-focused coping ($\beta$ = .66, 95% CI: .44, .88), and avoidance coping ($\beta$ = .62, 95% CI: .39, .86). This indicates that as people perceived their PJ fit decreasing over time, they used more of every type of coping. There was also a strong, negative relationship between the level of PG fit at times 1, 2, and 3 and the use of avoidance coping at times 2, 3, and 4 ($\beta$ = -.68, 95% CI: -.98, -.38), indicating that low levels of PG fit are associated

with the use of more avoidance coping. Finally, in models 10, 11, and 12 (see Tables 21 and 23), I tested the use of coping at times 1, 2, and 3 as predictors of the intercept and slope of PJ fit at times 2, 3, and 4 and the intercept of PG fit at times 2, 3, and 4. In these models, the use of problem-focused coping predicted higher PG fit (β = .34, 95% CI: .03, .64), and the use of avoidance coping predicted lower levels of PG fit (β = -.72, 95% CI: -1.0, -.39). The results of these *post hoc* tests indicate that the positive relationship between problem-focused coping and PG fit and the negative relationship between avoidance coping and PG fit are stable over time. The results do not reveal whether or not the use of coping affects change in PG fit, or if change in PG fit precipitates the use of more coping. The results describe a different pattern in the relationships of coping with PJ fit. Because there was a decrease in PJ fit over time in this sample, it was possible to observe that decrease in fit from Time 1 to Time 3 predicted the use of more coping at the later time periods. When I tested this relationship in the reverse order, with the use of coping at earlier time periods and the measure of change in PJ fit at the later time periods, the relationship no longer held, indicating that the use of coping was a reaction to decrease in fit and was not a precursor to this change in fit.

As I did with Study 1, I also tested models similar to models 10, 11, and 12, with the addition of PJ and PG fit at Time 1 as predictors of coping over Times 1, 2, and 3. Due to the stability of all three types of coping and of PG fit in the data for Study 2, these models could not be estimated because there were no slopes to evaluate as there were in the data from Study 1.

*Narcissism as a Moderator of Coping Effectiveness*

Hypotheses 8 a-f state that narcissism will moderate the relationships between each type of coping and the changes in PJ and PG fit. I tested these hypotheses by modeling the latent interaction between narcissism and each type of coping as predictors of the change of PG fit and

PJ fit. I did not conduct tests of hypotheses 5b, 6b, and 7b involving the change in PG fit, because there was no change in PG fit over time in this sample. I did include the slope of PG fit in the tests of hypotheses 8 a – f, because it was possible that PG fit changed for subsets of this population with high or low levels of narcissism. These results of these tests are summarized in Table 24. Of the 6 relationships tested, only the interaction between emotion-focused coping and narcissism as predictors of the slope in PJ fit had a confidence interval that did not include zero ($\beta$ = .21, 95% CI: .07, .36). Figure 8 shows the form of this interaction, which is that those with high narcissism report less change in PJ fit when they use more emotion-focused coping, and those with low levels of narcissism report more change in PJ fit when they use more emotion-focused coping. In this sample, the change in PJ fit over time was negative; therefore, this interaction indicates that those with high levels of narcissism experience less of a decrease in their PJ fit when they use emotion-focused coping. This is not consistent with the hypothesized form of the interaction, which was that those with high narcissism would report a decrease in PJ fit when using problem-focused coping mechanisms, because they would be unable to form the relationships necessary to derive social support from this type of coping. Contrary to this proposition, it appears that those high in narcissism did perceive less of a decrease in their PJ fit when they used emotion-focused coping. For this reason, hypotheses 8 a through f were not supported, although one of the interactions was significant.

Hypotheses 9 a-d and 10a-d state that the level and changes of PJ fit and PG fit will predict the level of job satisfaction and intention to quit at Time 4. I tested these hypotheses by using LGM to model the effects of the intercept of PJ and PG fit, representing the level of each type of fit, and the slope of PJ fit, representing the change in fit, on the two outcomes. I was not able to test hypotheses 9 d and 10 d, because there was no change in PG fit over time in this

sample, and the PG fit slope could therefore not be associated with either outcome. These results are summarized in Table 25. The results indicate that the level of PJ fit (β = .50, 95% CI: .20, .80) and the level of PG fit (β = .73, 95% CI: .60, .86) are strongly associated with job satisfaction. The change in PJ fit was associated with neither job satisfaction (β = .13, 95% CI: -.28, .54) nor intention to quit (β = -.30, 95% CI: -.63, .02). Thus, hypotheses 9 a and c and 10 a and c were supported, but hypotheses 9 b and 10 b were not.

Hypotheses 11 a and b state that the use of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping will be associated with higher levels of burnout. I tested these hypotheses by modeling the direct effects of each type of coping on burnout. These results are summarized in Table 26. The results indicate that problem-focused coping has no effect on burnout directly (β = -.18, 95% CI: -.39, .08)). There was also no effect of emotion-focused coping on burnout (β = -.04, 95% CI: -.33, .24). Although there was a strong negative relationship between the level of PG fit and burnout (β = -.66, 95% CI: -.89, -.43), coping does not appear to be related to levels of burnout in this sample. Therefore, there was no support for hypotheses 11 a and b.

**Study 2 Discussion**

The tests of the hypotheses using the Study 2 data provide mixed support for the model proposed in this study. The first phase of the model describes the effects of approach and avoid temperaments and uncertainty of change on the use of problem-focused, emotion-focused, and avoidance coping. Tests of the hypotheses in this phase indicate that those high in approach temperament and those high in avoid temperament are likely to use emotion-focused coping. Those high in approach temperament were more likely to use problem-focused coping only when the uncertainty of change was high. This indicates that, for this sample, differences in personality were magnified when conditions were more uncertain. The lack of support for the relationship

between avoid temperament and avoidance coping is surprising, and may be due to participants' reluctance to admit to having characteristics and engaging in behaviors that are unflattering.

The second phase of the model describes the effects of each of the coping mechanisms on the level and change of PJ and PG fit and the effect of narcissism on these relationships. The results indicate that those who use problem-focused coping experience higher levels of PG fit, but not higher PJ fit. Those who used avoidance coping experienced lower levels of PG fit, and the relationship with avoidance coping and PJ fit was negative and marginally significant. These relationships were stable over time in this sample, because PG fit and each of the types of coping were stable over time. Although PJ fit decreased over time, none of the types of coping predicted this change. *Post Hoc* analyses did show that there was a relationship between decrease in PJ fit and increase in all types of coping. This suggests that experiencing a decrease in PJ fit may have led the participants in this sample to try to address this misfit through the use of coping, although they were not able to correct the problem during the time frame of the study. Although I had hypothesized change in both types of fit over time, I had not predicted that PJ fit would decrease. This decrease in PJ fit, may have been a consequence of the source of this sample. All of the participants in Study 2 were enrolled in a evening professional MBA program. For this reason, they may have experienced a collective decrease in PJ fit because their progression through the MBA program should have continually increased their skills and abilities, making them more over-qualified for their current positions as time went on, creating a misfit between their abilities and the demands of their jobs.

Moderation of the relationships between coping and fit by narcissism was found only for the relationship between emotion-focused coping and the change in PJ fit. This interaction did not follow the hypothesized form, and indicated that those high in narcissism perceived less of a

decrease in PJ fit over time when they used emotion-focused coping. I had predicted that those high in narcissism would see fewer benefits from emotion-focused coping, because they were less likely to have formed the kinds of relationships that would allow them to seek social support from others. It may be, however, that the venting of emotions that is part of emotion-focused coping is satisfying to those high in narcissism, and results in them perceiving better fit.

The final phase of the model shows the effects of the level and change in fit and the use of coping mechanisms on three individual level outcomes: job satisfaction, intention to quit, and burnout. For the outcomes, the level of PJ fit and the level of PG fit are positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to intention to quit. Neither the use of problem-focused coping nor emotion-focused coping was a significant predictor of burnout in this sample. This is somewhat surprising because a coping and burnout relationship is supported in other literatures. This may be an artifact of the decrease in sample size over the course of the longitudinal data collection. If those who experienced higher levels of burnout dropped out of the study before completing the final wave of the survey, the relationship between coping and burnout would not be supported by the data.

Although this study's mixed support of my hypotheses raises some questions about the validity of this model, there are some aspects of the model that were supported in both studies. Table 27 provides a comparison of hypothesis support between the two studies and the areas of agreement and disagreement are discussed in the next chapter.

# CHAPTER EIGHT

## GENERAL DISCUSSION

The studies presented here provide new insights into individuals' roles in managing their own fit. I have approached the question by treating fit as a goal pursued through the use of coping mechanisms that would relieve the strain of misfit. Although early theoretical work on PE fit described misfit as a stressor that would inspire a coping response (French et al., 1982; French et al., 1974), and later reviews have called for empirical demonstrations of this response to misfit (Edwards, 2008; Edwards et al., 1998), there have not yet been any quantitative demonstrations of the use of coping mechanisms in pursuit of PE fit. Recent qualitative work suggests that individuals maintain fit through constant, sustained coping efforts and they use similar coping when their fit is threatened by change in their environments (Kristof-Brown et al., 2013). Although there has been little attention paid to the role of coping in PE fit over the last 40 years, there has been extensive research on the role of personality in the coping process (Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Connor-Smith & Flaschbart, 2007; Gallagher, 1996; Gunthert et al., 1999). Personality has also been considered extensively by PE fit researchers (Judge & Kristof-Brown, 2004), but rarely as a predictor of actions taken in pursuit of fit (Wang et al, 2011). Recent developments in PE fit theory have redirected attention to the actions that people take in pursuit of fit, and have treated these actions as motivated behaviors used in pursuit of a goal (Yu, 2009, 2013). Such behaviors are likely to be influenced by motivation relevant personality traits. By drawing from the literatures on personality, coping, and PE fit, I have developed a model that describes how individuals' personalities predict the use and effectiveness of coping in pursuit of fit. The model also indicates that the ability to achieve fit through motivated action is influenced by individuals' tendency to approach or avoid challenges, their perceptions of change in their

environment, and the coping mechanisms the individual uses in pursuit of fit. The level and change in fit achieved as a result of these actions then influence important individual level outcomes that contribute to employee well-being and commitment.

**Theoretical Implications**

Because Yu (2009, 2013) describes fit as a motivated state, I approached the question of how individual differences influence the choice of coping mechanisms used in the pursuit of fit by focusing on motivation-relevant personality traits that are known to predict actions taken in pursuit of goals. Following the typology of motivation relevant personality traits described by Kanfer and Heggestad (1997), I used traits that are associated with either achievement motivations or anxiety motivations. In Study 1, I tested the effectiveness of four personality traits falling into this typology to predict the use of coping mechanisms. The traits associated with achievement motivations were approach temperament (Elliot & Thrash, 2008, 2010) and proactive personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The traits associated with anxiety motivations were avoid temperament (Elliot & Thrash, 2008, 2010) and neuroticism (McCrae & Costa, 1987). The findings of Study 1 showed that the approach and avoid temperaments together accounted for most of the variance in use of coping mechanisms as both temperaments were related to the use of each type of coping, and that adding proactive personality and neuroticism to the model added little predictive value. For this reason and for the sake of parsimony, I used only approach and avoid temperaments to predict the use of coping mechanisms in the field study.

The Study 2 findings provided mixed support for the hypothesized relationships between the approach and avoid temperaments and different types of coping. In this sample, the approach and avoid temperaments were associated with the use of emotion-focused coping, but not

problem-focused or avoidance coping. This more limited support could be due to the change in the measures of coping from Study 1 to Study 2. In Study 1, the coping scale prompts asked to participants to report which behaviors they used "in response to stressful events that have occurred while you are working with your group in this class." In Study 2, participants were given more focused directions asking them to indicate which coping behaviors they used "to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work." This narrower focus on coping specifically in pursuit if fit, instead of coping used in response to any kind of team-related stressor, may have contributed to the lack of support for the relationships between approach and avoid temperaments and problem-focused and avoidance coping.

Approach temperament is characteristic of people who tend to believe that they can effect change in their environments and to take action in pursuit of change (Elliot & Thrash, 2008, 2010). Consistent with these tendencies, I found in Study 1 that those with an approach temperament were likely to use both problem-focused and emotion-focused approaches to resolving stress. The theoretical connection between approach temperament and problem-focused coping is quite direct in this context because problem-focused coping involves individuals' efforts to change aspects of themselves or their environments that contribute to improving fit. It stands to reason that those who believe that they can effect change would approach problems in this way. The confirmed negative relationship between approach temperament and avoidance coping is also consistent with the tendency of those with an approach temperament to resolve stress by seeking change to the factors that cause it. Those who seek active resolutions to problems are unlikely to avoid them. In Study 2, however, the relationship between the approach temperament and problem-focused coping was not supported,

indicating that this relationship was stronger in the general context of coping with stress, but may not hold when the specific stressor is PJ or PG misfit.

The theoretical connection between approach temperament and emotion-focused coping is somewhat less obvious. Emotion-focused coping includes strategies such as seeking advice and emotional support that may not change the fit between the person and the environment, but could change individuals' perceptions of their fit. This change in fit perceptions could be similarly effective to other approaches, because it is the fit perception, not the actual fit that is most closely antecedent to positive attitudes (Kristof-Brown, et al., 2005). For this reason, it follows that those who seek active resolutions to their fit-related problems may choose to adjust their own perceptions as a way to mitigate the stress associated with poor fit. This relationship was supported by the data from both studies, indicating that the use of emotion-focused coping is associated with the approach and avoid temperaments when it is described as a reaction to stress in general, and PJ and PG misfit specifically. Although it makes sense that those with an approach temperament seek change and may do so by managing their own emotions and perceptions, it also stands to reason that those with an avoid temperament may focus on their emotions as a way to set seemingly unresolvable problems, such as misfit, aside. This finding is consistent with Kanfer and Heggestad's (1997) observation that those who are high in both achievement and anxiety orientation tend to spend substantial personal resources managing their emotions as well as pursuing their goals.

The perception of uncertainty created by change in the environment was presented as another influence on the choice of coping mechanisms. Consistent with the predictions of Trait Activation Theory (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000) the present research found that those high in approach temperament used more problem-focused approaches when

uncertainty was high, but that those with an avoid temperament are no more likely to use avoidance coping when uncertainty is high. This finding suggests that those with an approach temperament are unlikely to tolerate misfit that develops as a result of organizational change. Instead, they make changes to themselves or their environments in order to resolve change related misfit, but only when change in the environment creates perceptions of uncertainty.

The relationship between coping and the level of PG and PJ fit is the core theoretical contribution of this research. Although there is some evidence that individual differences contribute to differences in fit (Wang et al., 2011), these are the first studies to identify specific behaviors used in pursuit of fit and to quantify their effects. In addition to testing the hypotheses that predicted that the use of coping would affect change in each type of fit, I tested several *post hoc* models that compare coping as a predictor of fit to fit as a predictor of coping. Comparing the findings of the two studies reveals some areas of agreement and some areas where the findings differed. Both samples were appropriate for assessing the way that people used coping to manage the stress of change that might affect their fit. In study 1, all of the participants were facing change because they were all simultaneously starting to work together on new project teams. In Study 2, the majority of the participants (76%) were experiencing some kind of change in their workplaces and were likely to need to address the stress of these changes in some way. The findings of both studies indicate that problem-focused coping is associated with higher levels of PG fit, and that avoidance coping is related to lower levels of PG fit. Neither study provided support for the use of problem-focused or emotion-focused coping to increase fit, or the use of avoidance coping as a predictor of decrease in fit. Instead, the *post hoc* tests revealed that relationships between the level of coping and fit were more consistent than relationships between the change in coping and the change in fit, with the consistent, negative relationship between

avoidance coping and PG fit in both samples being the strongest. This tells us that those who avoid efforts to achieve or maintain fit experience lower levels of PG fit, and those who use problem-focused coping approaches in their efforts to achieve and maintain fit experience higher PJ and PG fit. These relationships appear to be stable over time, although we do see higher levels of coping in time periods following a decrease in fit.

There were differences in how coping and fit changed over time in the two studies. In Study 1, PJ fit increased over time and PG fit decreased. In Study 2, PJ fit decreased and PG fit was stable. These differences can likely be attributed to the different contexts in which I collected the two samples. Sample 1 consisted of students evaluating their fit on a project team over the course of one semester. In this context, it makes sense that PJ fit would increase as the students came to a better understanding of how to work together and that PG fit could decrease as group conflicts developed over project completion. In this sample, I also found that those who perceived higher levels of PJ and PG fit were more likely to use higher levels of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, suggesting that fit within the group contributed to the team members' willingness to engage in active efforts to cope with team stress. In this sample, I also found that the negative PG fit slope from Time 1 to Time 3 had a negative relationship with the use of avoidance coping at Times 2 through 4, indicating that as things got worse the team members were less likely to simply ignore or avoid the problems. However, this negative relationship with avoidance did not correspond to a positive relationship with problem-focused or emotion-focused coping. The students were, therefore, neither avoiding their decreasing PG fit nor resolving it.

The Study 2 sample consisted of working adults who were all enrolled in an evening MBA program, who experienced decreasing PJ fit and stable PG fit, which can each be

understood as consequences of their context. The stable PG fit may be simply be the result of the fact that the mean job tenure for this group was 2.2 years, indicating that most members of the sample had had time to get to know the people they worked with. The decreasing PJ fit for this sample may be a result of their enrollment in an evening MBA program or may be a result of the environmental changes that the majority of the participants reported. The data was collected over the course of 3-4 months during which they progressed through a curriculum, which was likely to have improved their job-related skills making them more and more overqualified for their current positions as time went on. As with the Study 1 sample, the *post hoc* tests of change in coping and fit revealed that coping did not predict change in fit, but that change in fit did trigger a coping response. Specifically, the Study 2 results showed that there were strong, positive relationships between the negative PJ fit slope from times 1 to 3 and the use of each type of coping from times 2 through 4, indicating that as things got worse the participants tried to resolve their PJ fit through the use of coping.

The lack of evidence that the use of coping resolved misfit may be the result of insufficient time passing between the measures of the use of coping and the resulting levels of fit, indicating that the work that people do to maintain fit is not measureable over short periods of time. It is also possible that resolving misfit through the use of coping is not the most effective way to achieve fit. Other related behaviors, such as job-crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), impression management (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrap, 2008), or building relationships (Wheeler, Buckley, Halbesleben, Brouer, & Ferris, 2005), may be more directly related to improving or achieving fit. Another explanation is that improving fit by effectively coping with misfit is both difficult and rare. Detecting this kind of change would require not only sampling from a population that was struggling with fit, but also identifying the circumstances under

which such efforts would be most effective. These studies represent a first effort to identify actions that people take to achieve or maintain perceived fit. Although they have revealed that coping mechanisms play a role, questions about when they are most effective and what other methods may also be used to improve fit remain.

These two studies also explored narcissism as one possible explanation of variance in the effectiveness of coping mechanisms used in pursuit of fit. Considered together, the findings from Study 1 and Study 2 provide mixed results that suggest the role of perception is important to the understanding of the influence of narcissism. Although the Study 1 results did not support narcissism as a moderator of the effects of any type of coping on the level or change in either type of fit, several of these relationships were very close to being statistically significant, indicating that narcissism may play a role in these relationships. In Study 2, the participants high in narcissism reported less of a decrease in PJ fit when they used more emotion-focused coping, but those low in narcissism reported more of a decrease in PJ fit when they used emotion-focused coping. This result was contrary to the hypothesized form of the model and may be due to differences in the way that those high in narcissism perceive the effectiveness of venting their emotions in a bad situation, such as a decrease in fit. I had hypothesized that those high in narcissism would not see an increase in fit as a result of emotion-focused coping because they would not have formed the relationships necessary to enjoy the benefits of social support in times of stress. But a *post hoc* explanation for the non-hypothesized result is that those high in narcissism perceive more change in their own fit more as a result of venting their emotions. These results could be accounted for by considering that those high in narcissism are less responsive to feedback from their environments and more likely to perceive themselves as fitting well even when they may not. The interaction with narcissism could reflect that those high in this

trait have magnified perception of their own effectiveness at achieving PJ fit. In order to fully understand how narcissism influences the effectiveness of those seeking fit, it may be necessary to employ both self- and other-reports of fit to demonstrate when fit is artificially magnified by the narcissist and when it is actually improved through effort.

In the final stage of the model, I assessed two individual level outcomes likely to be affected by the level and change in fit. These are job satisfaction and intention to quit. Although Study 2 showed strong support for the relationship between the levels of PJ and PG fit and these individual outcomes, change in fit was not found to be related to these attitudes. The participants in the field study reported a strong, positive relationship between their levels of PJ and PG fit and their job satisfaction and a strong, negative relationship between their levels of PJ and PG fit and their intention to quit. The Study 2 sample experienced no change in PG fit over time and a decrease in PJ fit over time. The lack of a relationship between the decrease in PJ fit and job satisfaction or intention to quit could be attributed to the relatively small size of the change in PJ fit observed.

Unlike job satisfaction and intention to quit, which are likely to be directly influenced by an individual's level of fit, burnout results from expending effort toward achieving fit (Maslach, 1982; Maslach & Jackson, 1981). For this reason, I assessed the effects of using coping mechanisms on burnout, which were not significant in these data. This lack of evidence for the effects of coping on burnout may be due to the dropout rate by the Time 4 data collection. There were fewer participants in the Time 4 survey than any of the others, and this may have been due to the loss of participants who were experiencing more burnout and were therefore less likely to continue their participation in this study. Another explanation for the lack of support for these

hypotheses is that the effort used in pursuit of fit may be producing some increases in fit that alleviate the strain of extending effort, thereby preventing the experience of burnout.

Altogether the implications of this model are that individuals' traits influence the choice of behaviors they use to pursue fit. One element of the environment, uncertainty of change, influences this process by magnifying the effect of personality on the choice of strategies used to reduce misfit. By considering the influences of both the individual and the environment on fit, this research sheds light on how the person and the environment each contribute the individual's perception of PE fit. It also highlights the importance of coping mechanisms in responding to changes in fit, particularly during times of change, although questions remain regarding the effectiveness of behaviors that may contribute to the achievement and maintenance of fit over time.

**Managerial Implications**

This research points to the importance of the relationship between coping and PE fit, which provides insights that may be useful to managers who wish to advise their employees on how to achieve of maintain fit. The insight that PE fit is dynamic and related to the actions that people take in response to the stress of misfit is one that may inform new approaches to coaching employees in how they might best respond to change and pursue fit with the demands of their jobs and with the groups in which they work.

More specifically, Study 2 points to the importance of individuals' ability to respond to uncertainty in their environments as they seek to maintain fit in times of change. For this reason, managers should include considerations about long-term fit and adaptability in their assessments of the fit of potential new hires. While most research on the role of fit in hiring has focused on the correspondence between the organization's culture and the applicant's values, or on the

organization's needs and the applicant's abilities (Bretz, Rynes, & Gerhart, 1993; Kristof-Brown, 2000; Tsai, Chi, Huang, & Hsu, 2011), the present research suggests that the applicant's ability to cope with change may also contribute to a new hire's long-term fit. When those who are a good fit at the time of hire are not willing or able to adjust as the organization changes over time, they are likely to experience decreases in fit and consequently to be less satisfied and less committed to the organization as it changes. For this reason, considering long-term as well as short-term fit during the hiring process is advisable for managers who anticipate the need to retain staff through times of change.

Managers who are planning for change should also consider the importance of uncertainty in the change process and the potential implications for the fit of their employees when organizations change. It is, therefore, important to consider aspects of change that may be creating perceptions of uncertainty when trying to manage change in a way that allows individuals to maintain their sense of belonging in their environments. Managers who maintain open communication with employees during times of change may be able to reduce the negative effects of change on fit, not only by reducing the uncertainty in the situation, but also by creating opportunities for employees to find new ways to fit in their environments as organizations change.

Finally, the context from which I drew the Study 2 sample makes those results particularly revealing for managers of employees who are pursuing advanced training. I found that employees who were pursuing an MBA, while also working, experienced a decrease in PJ fit over the course of the study. For these employees, it is likely that they felt that they fit less well with the demands of their jobs over time because they became more and more overqualified as they progressed through their programs. This decrease in fit may lead employees to turnover

when they feel that they need to move to a new position or new organization in order to use their new skills. In order to avoid losing employees as they become more skilled, managers should ensure that development due to advanced training is directly linked to career advancement and the opportunity to use new skills (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011). The observable decrease in PJ fit during the MBA program suggests that managers should assist their employees in seeking out opportunities to use their new skills within their organizations even before advanced training is complete and to discuss career advancement appropriate to their new skills before the lack of opportunity becomes a source of frustration.

**Limitations and Future Research**

Like all research, the findings of these studies should be considered in light of their limitations. I will focus here on describing those limitations that may be addressed by future research that examines the questions raised here. These suggestions include assessment of which threats to fit lead to the use of coping mechanisms, a closer look at how different types of emotion-focused coping contribute to fit, refinement of the measure of coping in the context of fit, and continued study of the time frames over which change in fit is perceived and resolved, and different analytical approaches to identifying differences between those who achieve fit and those who do not.

Although uncertainty of change is assumed to indicate a threat to fit, this study did not include an assessment of the threat appraisal. Including an assessment of the degree to which the individual finds their experience of change to pose a threat to their fit would be more consistent with the theory of stress, appraisal, and coping described by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). By including a more precise measure of how change in the environment affects fit, future research may be able to identify more precisely when coping is used effectively to achieve or maintain fit.

The results indicate that both approach and avoid temperaments contribute to emotion-focused coping, and therefore, some questions remain about how people with these two temperaments might use emotion-focused approaches differently, or how those who are high in both temperaments use these coping mechanisms. The measures of emotion-focused coping used in these studies (Howerton & VanGundy, 2009) included different types of emotion-focused coping, such as seeking advice and venting of emotions, that have been treated as separate constructs in other conceptualizations of coping. For example, the COPE inventory (Litman, 2006) identifies several different types of emotion-focused coping, including positive reinterpretation, acceptance, denial, venting emotions, turning to religion, and seeking emotional social support. Future research could address this question by using a more granular measure of emotion-focused coping such as the COPE inventory (Litman, 2006) to identify differences between approach and avoid temperaments in how they use emotional approaches to fit related stress.

The measurement of the three types of coping in the context of misfit also poses a challenge. In Study 2, where the scale to measure the different types of coping was modified to indicate coping used "to achieve or maintain fit," the measures of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping where highly correlated. This strong relationship between the two of the three types of coping introduced multicollinearity into the model when all three types of coping were assessed as simultaneous predictors of the level of fit. The result of this multicollinearity was that the problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping accounted for similar variance in fit. It appears that participants used avoidance coping differently than they used problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, but may have used problem-focused and emotion-focused approaches similarly in this context because these two types of coping predicted outcomes similarly. Future

research should address this by drawing clearer distinctions between how people use each type of coping pursuit of fit.

Additionally, the one-month delays between each phase of data collection and the total length of time of these panel studies may have been insufficient to capture change in fit that may occur over longer periods of time. Extending the number of repeated measures would allow assessment of changes to fit that occur over longer periods of time and would inform a more complete understanding of how long it takes to achieve fit. In order to fully understand how quickly fit changes and how people respond to these changes, it may also be necessary to measure fit at shorter time-intervals. Doing so before and after organizational change events, such as reorganization, change in job requirements, or change in management structure, would allow integrating our understanding of how people coping with changes in fit with current theory that explains turnover as a response to shocks (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012; Lee et al., 1999). With these remaining questions in mind, future research should investigate changes to fit perceptions at both shorter time intervals and over longer periods of time.

Finally, the use of other analytical techniques, such as Latent Class Analysis (LCA) may reveal differences between groups of people who react to change in their fit differently. By identifying differences between groups who move from low to high fit, from high to low fit, or who maintain consistently high or low fit, the use of LCA could provide even more insight into the role of individual differences in changing fit over time.

**Conclusion**

This dissertation provides the first evidence of a relationship between the use of coping and change in PE fit. By turning attention to understanding the behavioral antecedents to fit, and behavioral responses to change in fit, this study contributes to the literatures on personality,

coping, and fit. Reconsidering fit as a goal pursued through motivated action sheds new light on this long studied phenomenon and provides the first steps into understanding what we do to fit in.

## APPENDIX A
## STUDY 1 SURVEY

**Time 0: Personality Measures**

**Approach and Avoid Temperaments** (Elliot & Thrash, 2010)
Following are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale provided, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

*Approach Items (This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
Thinking about the things I want really energizes me.
When I see an opportunity for something I like, I immediately get excited.
It doesn't take a lot to get me excited and motivated.
I'm always on the lookout for positive opportunities and experiences.
When good things happen to me, it affects me very strongly.
When I want something, I feel a strong desire to go after it.

*Avoid Items (This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
By nature, I am a very nervous person.
It doesn't take much to make me worry.
I feel anxiety and fear very deeply.
I react very strongly to bad experiences.
When it looks like something bad could happen, I have a strong urge to escape.
It is easy for me to imagine bad things that might happen to me.

**Neuroticism** (Goldberg, Johnson, Eber, Hogan, Ashton, & Cloninger, 2006)
Below, there are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you. Indicate how well each of the following statements characterizes your thoughts, feelings or actions using the following scale.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

I worry about things.
I seldom feel blue.
I am easily disturbed.
I get stressed out easily.
I am relaxed most of the time.
I get upset easily.
I change my mood a lot.
I have frequent mood swings.
I get irritated easily.
I often feel blue.

**Proactive Personality (**Bateman & Crant, 1993)
Please select the option below that best represents your view of yourself.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.
I feel driven to make a difference in my community, and maybe the world.
I tend to let others take the initiative to start new projects.
Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.
I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas.
Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.
If I see something I don't like, I fix it.
No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.
I excel at identifying opportunities.
I am always looking for better ways to do things.
If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.
I love to challenge the status quo.
When I have a problem, I tackle it head-on.
I am great at turning problems into opportunities.
I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.
If I see someone in trouble, I help out in any way I can.

**Narcissism** (Jonason & Webster, 2010)
Please select the option below that best represents your view of yourself.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

I tend to want others to admire me.
I tend to want others to pay attention to me.
I tend to seek prestige or status.
I tend to expect special favors from others.

**Time 1-4: Measures of coping and fit repeated 4 times**

**Coping Mechanisms Used** (modified from Howerton & VanGundy, 2009)
*Underlined sections were modifications made to the original scale to make it more appropriate to the context.*

Please select the option below that best describes how you respond to stressful events that have occurred while you are working with your group in this class.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

Problem-Focused Coping Items *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
You concentrate your efforts on doing something about it.

You try to come up with a strategy about what to do.
You think about what steps to take.
You take on additional action to try to get rid of the problem.

Emotion-Focused Coping Items *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
You try to get advice from someone about what to do.
You try to get emotional support from friends or relatives.
You let your feelings out.
You ask people with similar experiences what they did.
You feel a lot of emotional distress and you find yourself expressing those feelings a lot.

Avoidance Coping *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
You say to yourself "this isn't real."
You admit you can't deal with it and quit trying.
You refuse to believe that it has happened.

**Complementary Demands-Abilities fit used as a measure of PJ fit** (Piasenten & Champman, 2007)
*Underlined sections were modifications made to the original scale to make it more appropriate to the context.*

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about your experience with your group.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

My team members rely on me because I have competencies that they do not have.
When key decisions are made, my team members consult me because I have a different perspective than they do.
I feel like I stand out on this team.
My knowledge, skills, and abilities offer something that my other team members do not have.
I feel that I am a unique piece of the puzzle that makes this team work.
Even though my personality differs from my coworkers, it seems to complement their personalities.
People in my team seem to value that I am different from the typical team mate.

**Person-Group Fit** (Vogel & Feldman, 2009)
*Underlined sections were modifications made to the original scale to make it more appropriate to the context.*

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about your experience with your group.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

Working with the other people in my group is one of the best parts of this class.

I get along well with the people I work with on a day-to-day basis.
There is not much conflict among the members of my group.
If I had more free time, I would enjoy spending more time with my group members socially.
There are some people I work with I try to avoid when possible.

## APPENDIX B
## STUDY 2 SURVEY

**Time 0: Personality Measures (the measures from the Study 1 were used)**
Approach and Avoid Temperaments
Narcissism
Proactive Personality
Neuroticism

**Times 1 and 2: Coping and Fit Measures**
**Uncertainty of Change** (Rafferty and Griffin, 2006)
Following are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale provided, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

My work unit is changing in an unpredictable manner.
I am often uncertain about how to respond to change.
I am often unsure about the effect of change on my work unit.
I am often unsure how severely a change will affect my work unit.

**Person-Group Fit** (Kristof-Brown, Li, and Nielsen, 2016)
Following are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale provided, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

I do not feel like I am part of my workgroup. *(Reverse Scored)*
I am compatible with other members of my workgroup.
I fit in with my workgroup.
This workgroup is a good fit for me.
I think other people would say that I fit well into this workgroup.
I would probably fit in better with another workgroup. *(Reverse Scored)*
My workgroup is a good match for me.

**Person-Job Fit** (Cable & DeRue, 2002)
Following are several statements about you with which you may agree or disagree. Using the response scale provided, indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item.

Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

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

**Coping Styles Used to Achieve Fit** (modified from Howerton and Van Gundy, 2009)
*Underlined sections were modifications made to the original scale to make it more appropriate to the context.*

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about your recent experience.
Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

Problem-focused Coping *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
You concentrate your efforts on doing something to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work.
You try to come up with a strategy about what to do to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work.
You think about what steps to take to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work.
You take on additional action to try to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work.

Emotion-Focused Coping Items *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
You try to get advice from someone about what to do to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work.
You try to get emotional support about how to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work from friends or relatives.
You let your feelings out about achieving or maintaining a sense of fit at work.
You ask people with similar experiences of trying to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work what they did.
You feel a lot of emotional distress about achieving or maintaining a sense of fit at work and you find yourself expressing those feelings a lot.

Avoidance Coping *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
You say to yourself "I don't really need to achieve or maintain a sense of fit at work."
You admit you can't deal with achieving or maintaining a sense of fit at work and quit trying.
You refuse to believe that achieving or maintaining a sense of fit at work is something to worry about.

**Time 3: Coping, Fit, and Outcomes**
**PG Fit** (repeated from times 1 and 2)
**PJ Fit** (repeated from times 1 and 2)

**Job Satisfaction** (Messersmith, Patel, Lepak, & Gould-Williams, 2011)
Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about you experience at work.
Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

In general, I like working here.
In general, I don't like my job.
All things considered I feel pretty good about this job.

**Intention to Quit** (Ballinger, Lehman, & Schoorman, 2010)
Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about you experience at work.
Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

I am actively looking for a job outside my current company.
As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my current company.
I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.

**Burnout** (Iverson, Olekalans, & Erwin, 1998)
Please indicate your agreement with the following statements about you experience at work.
Response scale: Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neither agree nor disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree

Emotional Exhaustion *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
I feel emotionally drained from my work.
I feel used up at the end of the workday.
I feel burned out from my work.

Depersonalization *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
I've become more callous towards people since taking this job.
I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.
I really don't care what happens to some patients.

Personal Accomplishment *(This heading was not shown to subjects.)*
I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.
I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.
I feel good after working closely with my patients.

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## TABLES

**Table 1: Sample Demographics for Study 1**

| | Number | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| *Gender* | | |
| Male | 294 | 60.5% |
| Female | 166 | 34.2% |
| No response | 26 | 5.3% |
| *Race* | | |
| European American | 340 | 70.0% |
| Asian | 88 | 18.1% |
| Hispanic | 17 | 3.5% |
| African American | 7 | 1.4% |
| Other | 8 | 1.6% |
| No response | 25 | 5.1% |

**Table 2: Study 1 Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations for All Variables**

| | | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Neuroticism | 2.89 | 0.60 | *0.82* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Proactive | 3.65 | 0.47 | -.22* | *0.87* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | Avoidance | 2.74 | 0.70 | .62* | -.20* | *0.79* | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | Approach | 3.92 | 0.51 | -0.05 | .48* | -0.07 | *0.78* | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | Narcissism | 2.55 | 0.93 | .21* | -.11* | .16* | 0.05 | *0.87* | | | | | | | |
| 6 | PFC | 4.10 | 0.41 | 0.06 | .31* | -0.03 | .43* | -0.03 | *0.86* | | | | | | |
| 7 | EFC | 3.09 | 0.62 | .31* | 0.08 | .21* | .16* | .13* | .29* | *0.88* | | | | | |
| 8 | AC | 1.73 | 0.64 | .25* | -.13* | .33* | -.24* | .17* | -.25* | .40* | *0.89* | | | | |
| 9 | PJ fit T1 | 3.59 | 0.65 | 0.00 | .22* | -.12* | .27* | 0.04 | .36* | 0.10 | -0.06 | *0.85* | | | |
| 10 | PJ fit T4 | 3.66 | 0.69 | -0.07 | .21* | -.13* | .28* | .11* | .36* | .23* | -0.02 | .59* | *0.91* | | |
| 11 | PG fit T1 | 3.96 | 0.62 | -.12* | .19* | -.15* | .22* | -.10* | .25* | -0.03 | -.18* | 0.06 | 0.06 | *0.74* | |
| 12 | PG fit T4 | 3.61 | 0.71 | -.16* | 0.09 | -.16* | .15* | -.15* | .17* | 0.00 | -.13* | -0.05 | 0.06 | .56* | *0.76* |

- * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.
- Chronbach's $\alpha$ for all scales is reported on the diagonal.
- Proactive = Proactive Personality; Avoidance = Avoidance Temperament; Approach = Approach Temperament; PFC = Problem Focused Coping; EFC = Emotion Focused Coping; AC = Avoidance Coping; PFC, EFC, AC, T1,2,3 = Average of the use of each coping style over times 1, 2, and 3; PJ fit T1, T4 = PJ Fit at Time 1 and Time 4; PG fit T1, T4 = Person Group Fit at Time 1 and Time 4; PG fit $\Delta$ T1-4 = change in PG fit from Time 1 to time 4; PJ fit $\Delta$ T1-4 = change in PJ fit from Time 1 to Time 4

**Table 3: Study 1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Comparisons**

| | $\chi^2$ | df | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | 90% CI | SRMR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model 1 | | | | | | | |
| CFA All Latent Variables, without Parceling | 3906.54 | 2099 | .85 | .85 | .04 | .04, .04 | .07 |
| Model 2 | | | | | | | |
| CFA All Latent Variables, with Parceling | 517.58 | 305 | .97 | .96 | .04 | .03, .04 | .05 |
| Model 3 | | | | | | | |
| CFA Three Latent Variable Alternate Model | 4129.87 | 348 | .39 | .34 | .15 | .04, .15 | .19 |

**Table 4: Fit Statistics for the Study 1 Tests of Measurement Invariance**

| Variables and Models | $\chi^2$ | df | $\Delta\chi^2$ | p | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | RMSEA 90%CI | SRMR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *PG fit* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 102.86 | 45 | | | .98 | .98 | .05 | .04, .07 | .12 |
| Configural Invariance | 248.29 | 20 | | | .92 | .83 | .16 | .14, .18 | .05 |
| Metric Invariance | 349.41 | 34 | 101.12 | .99 | .89 | .87 | .15 | .13, .15 | .10 |
| *PJ fit* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 215.96 | 84 | | | .98 | .98 | .06 | .05, .07 | .08 |
| Configural Invariance | 478.16 | 56 | | | .93 | .89 | .13 | .12, .14 | .05 |
| Metric Invariance | 635.98 | 78 | 147.82 | .99 | .90 | .90 | .13 | .12, .14 | .14 |
| *Problem-Focused Coping* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 188.81 | 30 | | | .96 | .97 | .11 | .10, .12 | .17 |
| Configural Invariance | 64.76 | 8 | | | .99 | .96 | .13 | .10, .16 | .02 |
| Metric Invariance | 75.69 | 18 | 10.93 | .64 | .99 | .98 | .09 | .07, .11 | .06 |
| *Emotion-Focused Coping* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 66.62 | 45 | | | .99 | .99 | .03 | .01, .05 | .06 |
| Configural Invariance | 369.49 | 20 | | | .87 | .74 | .20 | .18, .22 | .07 |
| Metric Invariance | 610.03 | 34 | 240.54 | .99 | .79 | .75 | .20 | .18, .21 | .15 |
| *Avoidance Coping* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 117.08 | 18 | | | .98 | .98 | .11 | .09, .13 | .15 |
| Configural Invariance | 0 | 0 | | | 1.0 | 1.0 | .00 | .00, .00 | .00 |
| Metric Invariance | 22.05 | 6 | 22.05 | .99 | .99 | .99 | .08 | .05, .11 | .04 |

**Table 5: Study 1 Non-Independence Statistics for PJ fit and PG fit**

| | ICC1 |
|---|---|
| PJ fit Time 1 | 0.04 |
| PJ fit Time 2 | 0.03 |
| PJ fit Time 3 | 0.06 |
| PJ fit Time 4 | 0.02 |
| PG fit Time 1 | 0.26 |
| PG fit Time 2 | 0.25 |
| PG fit Time 3 | 0.18 |
| PG fit Time 4 | 0.22 |

**Table 6: Study 1 Regression of Coping Styles on Personality Predictors**

**Use of Problem Focused Coping Averaged over Times 1, 2, and 3**

| *Model and IVs* | | *β* | *Std. Error* | *Std. β* | *t* | *p* | *Δ $R^2$* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Avoidance | -.01 | .03 | -.02 | -.34 | .74 | |
| | Approach | **.33** | **.05** | **.41** | **7.19** | **.00** | .17 |
| 2 | Avoidance | -.04 | .04 | -.08 | -1.06 | .29 | |
| | Approach | **.27** | **.05** | **.34** | **2.04** | **.04** | |
| | Neuroticism | **.10** | **.05** | **.15** | **2.04** | **.04** | |
| | Proactive | **.14** | **.06** | **.17** | **2.51** | **.01** | .03 |

**Use of Emotion Focused Coping Averaged over Times 1, 2, and 3**

| *Model and IVs* | | *β* | *Std. Error* | *Std. β* | *t* | *p* | *Δ $R^2$* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Avoidance | **.18** | **.05** | **.21** | **3.48** | **.00** | |
| | Approach | **.20** | **.07** | **.17** | **2.78** | **.01** | .07 |
| 2 | Avoidance | .03 | .07 | .03 | .39 | .70 | |
| | Approach | .15 | .08 | .12 | 1.85 | .07 | |
| | Neuroticism | **.31** | **.08** | **.32** | **4.15** | **.00** | |
| | Proactive | .14 | .09 | .10 | 1.51 | .13 | .06 |

**Use of Avoidance Coping Averaged over Times 1, 2, and 3**

| *Model and IVs* | | *β* | *Std. Error* | *Std. β* | *t* | *p* | *Δ $R^2$* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Avoidance | **.27** | **.05** | **.31** | **5.37** | **.00** | |
| | Approach | **-.37** | **.07** | **-.29** | **-5.09** | **.00** | .18 |
| 2 | Avoidance | **.24** | **.07** | **.27** | **3.59** | **.00** | |
| | Approach | **-.43** | **.08** | **-.34** | **-5.30** | **.00** | |
| | Neuroticism | .10 | .08 | .10 | 1.31 | .19 | |
| | Proactive | .15 | .09 | .11 | 1.66 | .10 | .01 |

- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 7: Study 1 Tests of the Effect of Approach and Avoid Temperament on Coping**

| | Problem-Focused Coping | | | Emotion-Focused Coping | | | Avoidance Coping | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypothesis 1 a,b,c* | | | | | | | | | |
| Approach Temp | **.43** | **.05** | **.34, .52** | **.15** | **.06** | **.04, .26** | **-.22** | **.05** | **-.32, -.12** |
| *Hypothesis 2 a,b* | | | | | | | | | |
| Avoid Temp | | | | **.23** | **.05** | **.12, .33** | **.32** | **.05** | **.23, .42** |
| $R^2$ | .18 | | | .07 | | | .17 | | |

- Problem-Focused Coping, Emotion-Focused Coping, and Avoidance Coping are the averages of the use of each type of coping at times 1-4.
- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 8: Study 1 Tests of the Effects of Coping on the Level and Change of PJ and PG Fit**

| | Person-Job Fit | | | | | | Person-Group Fit | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | |
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypotheses 5 a,b* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Problem Focused Coping | **.39** | **.06** | **.27, .50** | .17 | .10 | -.01, .36 | **.25** | **.06** | **.12, .37** | -.06 | .09 | -.23, .11 |
| *Hypotheses 6 a,b* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Emotion Focused Coping | .07 | .07 | -.06, .21 | **.34** | **.10** | **.14, .54** | -.08 | .07 | -.21, .05 | .09 | .09 | -.08, .26 |
| *Hypotheses 7a,b* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Avoidance Coping | -.12 | .07 | -.25, .01 | .11 | .10 | -.08, .30 | **-.28** | **.06** | **-.41, -.16** | .07 | .09 | -.10, .25 |

- Problem-Focused Coping, Emotion-Focused Coping, and Avoidance Coping are the averages of the use of each type of coping at times 1-4.
- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 9: Study 1 Model Fit Comparisons for Hypothesized and *Post Hoc* Models of Change in Fit and Coping**

| | $\chi^2$ | df | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | 90% CI | SRMR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model 1 *Hypotheses 5 a, b* PFC → PJ & PG fit int and slope | 65.28 | 26 | .97 | .96 | .07 | .05, .09 | .10 |
| Model 2 *Hypotheses 6 a, b* EFC → PJ & PG fit int and slope | 66.08 | 26 | .97 | .96 | .07 | .05, .09 | .10 |
| Model 3 *Hypotheses 7 a, b* AC → PJ & PG fit int and slope | 67.78 | 26 | .97 | .96 | .07 | .05, .09 | .10 |
| Model 4 PJ & PG fit → PFC int & slope | 12. 62 | 9 | .99 | .98 | .04 | .00, .08 | .05 |
| Model 5 PJ & PG fit → EFC int & slope | 20.53 | 9 | .98 | .96 | .07 | .03, .10 | .07 |
| Model 6 PJ & PG fit → AC int & slope | 11.67 | 9 | .99 | .99 | .03 | .00, .08 | .04 |
| Model 7 PJ & PG fit int & slope → PFC int & slope | 58.06 | 18 | .97 | .94 | .07 | .05, .09 | .04 |
| Model 8 PJ & PG fit int & slope → EFC int & slope | 46.20 | 18 | .98 | .96 | .06 | .04, .08 | .02 |
| Model 9 PJ & PG fit int & slope → AC int & slope | 58.91 | 18 | .97 | .94 | .07 | .05, .09 | .04 |
| Model 10 PFC int & slope → PJ & PG fit int & slope | 32.48 | 18 | .99 | .98 | .04 | .02, .06 | .03 |
| Model 12 AC int & slope → PJ & PG fit int & slope | 40.49 | 18 | .99 | .97 | .05 | .03, .07 | .03 |
| Model 13 PJ & PG fit T1 →PFC int & slope → PJ & PG fit int & slope | 109.30 | 33 | .97 | .94 | .07 | .06, .09 | .05 |

**Table 10: Study 1 *Post Hoc* Tests of PJ and PG Fit as Predictors of Coping**

| | Coping | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | |
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Model 4 Alt H 5 a, b* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit → PFC | **.54** | **.08** | **.38, .70** | -.01 | .09 | -.19, .17 |
| PG fit → PFC | **.29** | **.08** | **.12, .45** | .02 | .09 | -.17, .20 |
| *Model 5 Alt H 6 a, b* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit → EFC | **.25** | **.07** | **.11, .40** | -.19 | .22 | -.61, .24 |
| PG fit → EFC | .05 | .08 | -.10, .20 | -.04 | .19 | -.41, .33 |
| *Model 6 Alt H 7 a, b* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit → AC | -.08 | .08 | -.23, .07 | -.17 | .18 | -.51, .17 |
| PG fit → AC | **-.21** | **.08** | **-.36, -.06** | -.39 | .24 | -.86, .08 |
| *Model 7* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit intercept → PFC | **.53** | **.18** | **.18, .88** | -.11 | .12 | -.41, .14 |
| PJ fit slope → PFC | .53 | .35 | -.16, 1.2 | -.26 | .32 | -.45, .27 |
| PG fit intercept → PFC | **.54** | **.19** | **.16, .91** | -.14 | .14 | -.35, .13 |
| PG fit slope → PFC | .15 | .23 | -.30, .59 | -.09 | .18 | -.89, .37 |
| *Model 8* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit intercept → EFC | .05 | .13 | -.20, .29 | -.09 | .08 | -.25, .07 |
| PJ fit slope → EFC | .45 | .38 | -.29, .46 | -.18 | .22 | -.61, .25 |
| PG fit intercept → EFC | .14 | .16 | -.18, .46 | .00 | .10 | -.18, .19 |
| PG fit slope → EFC | .45 | .22 | -.51, .35 | -.01 | .12 | -.25, .23 |
| *Model 9* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit intercept → AC | -.10 | .10 | -.30, .11 | -.23 | .13 | -.49, .03 |
| PJ fit slope → AC | .31 | .26 | -.20, .81 | -.14 | .24 | -.62, .33 |
| PG fit intercept → AC | -.07 | .12 | -.30, .16 | -.11 | .12 | -.35, .13 |
| PG fit slope → AC | **-.34** | **.16** | **-.65, -.03** | .14 | .15 | -.16, .43 |

- In models 4, 5, and 6 PG and PJ fit are the averages of each type of fit at times 1-4.
- In models 7, 8, and 9 PG and PJ fit are modeled at times 1, 2, and 3.
- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 11: Study 1 *Post Hoc* Tests of Coping Level and Change on the Level and Change of PJ and PG Fit**

| | Coping | | | | | | Person-Job Fit T 2, 3, 4 | | | | | | Person-Group Fit T 2, 3, 4 | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | |
| | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Model 10* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PFC int | | | | | | | **.55** | **.10** | **.36, .75** | .13 | .13 | -.13, .39 | **.49** | **.09** | **.31, .66** | -.43 | .48 | -.14, .52 |
| PFC slope | | | | | | | .07 | .16 | -.25, .38 | .25 | .20 | -.15, .64 | .18 | .14 | -.10, .45 | .53 | .64 | -.72, 1.8 |
| *Model 12* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| AC int | | | | | | | -.40 | .34 | -1.1, .26 | .32 | .53 | -.72, 1.4 | -.22 | .13 | -.48, .04 | .60 | .87 | -1.1, 2.3 |
| AC slope | | | | | | | .44 | .42 | -.38, 1.3 | -.80 | .63 | -2.0, .44 | -.20 | .17 | -.54, .13 | -.53 | .93 | -2.4, 1.3 |
| *Model 13* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| T1 PJ fit | **.67** | **.06** | **.57, .76** | **.64** | **.11** | **.42, .86** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| T1 PG fit | **.38** | **.05** | **.26, .50** | **-.71** | **.25** | **-1.1, -.23** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PFC int | | | | | | | **.59** | **.12** | **.36, .83** | .22 | .12 | -.02 .47 | **.65** | **.14** | **.38, .91** | -.24 | .18 | -.59, .12 |
| PFC slope | | | | | | | **-.56** | **.15** | **-.85, -.28** | .11 | .11 | -.10, .32 | **.74** | **.18** | **.38, 1.1** | -.19 | .16 | -.50, .12 |

- All β, SE, and Confidence Intervals are standardized.
- PFC, EFC, AC coping are modeled at times 1, 2, 3; Fit is modeled at times 2, 3, and 4.
- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 12: Study 1 Tests of Narcissism as a Moderator of Coping's Relationship with the Level and Change of PJ and PG Fit**

| | Person-Job Fit | | | | | | Person-Group Fit | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | |
| | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypotheses 8 a,b* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Problem Focused Coping | .44 | .08 | .28, .60 | .05 | .03 | .00, .11 | .35 | .10 | .15, .55 | -.02 | .03 | -.01, .02 |
| Narcissism | .11 | .30 | -.47, .69 | -.16 | .09 | -.35, .02 | -.54 | .41 | -1.34, .27 | .05 | .12 | -.18, .28 |
| PFC X Narcissism | -.02 | .07 | -.16, .12 | .04 | .02 | .00, .09 | .11 | .10 | -.08, .31 | -.02 | .03 | -.07, .04 |
| *Hypotheses 8 c,d* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Emotion Focused Coping | .05 | .05 | -.06, .15 | .06 | .02 | .03, .09 | -.05 | .06 | -.17, .07 | .03 | .02 | -.01, .07 |
| Narcissism | .18 | .15 | -.12, .47 | .02 | .06 | -.10, .13 | -.26 | .20 | -.65, .13 | -.11 | .06 | -.23, .02 |
| EFC X Narcissism | -.05 | .05 | -.14, .05 | .00 | .02 | -.04, .03 | .06 | .06 | -.06, .18 | .03 | .02 | -.14, .05 |
| *Hypotheses 8 e,f* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Avoidance Coping | -.09 | .05 | -.19, .00 | .02 | .02 | -.01, .05 | -.24 | .06 | -.35, -.12 | .02 | .01 | -.01, .02 |
| Narcissism | .09 | .08 | -.07, .26 | .03 | .03 | -.03, .08 | -.10 | .10 | -.30, .09 | -.07 | .03 | -.14, -.01 |
| AC X Narcissism | -.03 | .04 | -.11, .05 | -.01 | .01 | -.04, .02 | .03 | .05 | -.08, .13 | .03 | .02 | .00, .06 |

**Table 13: Timing of the Study 2 Data Collection**

| Measure | Baseline Time 1 Day 1 | Coping and Fit Time 2 Day 21-28 | Coping and Fit Time 3 Day 42-49 | Coping, Fit, and Outcomes Time 4 Day 63-70 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Demographics | X | | | |
| Job Tenure | X | | | |
| Organizational Tenure | X | | | |
| Approach Temperament | X | | | |
| Avoid Temperament | X | | | |
| Proactive Personality | X | | | |
| Neuroticism | X | | | |
| Problem Focused Coping | X | X | X | |
| Emotion Focused Coping | X | X | X | |
| Avoidance Coping | X | X | X | |
| PG fit | X | X | X | X |
| PJ fit | X | X | X | X |
| Job Satisfaction | | | | X |
| Intention to Quit | | | | X |
| Burnout | | | | X |

**Table 14: Sample Demographics for Study 2**

| *Gender* | Number | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 49 | 41% |
| Female | 47 | 39% |
| No response | 23 | 19% |
| *Race* | | |
| European American | 85 | 71% |
| Asian | 6 | 5% |
| Hispanic | 3 | 3% |
| African American | 2 | 2% |
| Other | 1 | 1% |
| No response | 22 | 18% |
| *Marital Status* | | |
| Married/Committed | 74 | 62% |
| Single | 23 | 19% |
| No response | 22 | 18% |
| *Education Level* | | |
| Some college | 1 | 1% |
| Bachelor's Degree | 73 | 61% |
| Master's or Law Degree | 21 | 18% |
| PHD or other equiv. | 2 | 2% |
| No response | 22 | 18% |
| *Industry* | | |
| Agriculture, forestry, or mining | 6 | 5% |
| Manufacturing | 41 | 34% |
| Transportation or public utilities | 4 | 3% |
| Retail trade | 1 | 1% |
| Finance, insurance, or real estate | 26 | 24% |
| Services | 5 | 4% |
| Communications | 2 | 2% |
| Non-profit | 8 | 7% |
| Public Administration | 1 | 1% |
| Education | 15 | 13% |
| Other/No response | 10 | 8% |

**Table 15: Study 2 Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations, and Scale Reliabilities for All Variables**

| | | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Approach | 3.93 | .49 | *.75* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Avoid | 2.49 | .75 | -.23* | *.81* | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 | Narc | 3.04 | .72 | .26* | -.02 | *.76* | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 | Proactive | 3.77 | .52 | .55* | -.34* | .09 | *.90* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 | Neuro | 2.58 | .68 | -.13 | .74* | .23* | *-.28** | *.74* | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 | Uncert | 2.37 | 1.01 | -.05 | .29* | .20* | *-.18* | *.30** | *.89* | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 | PFC | 3.16 | .86 | .33 | .27 | -.04 | .23 | .20 | -.04 | *.92* | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 | EFC | 2.85 | .67 | .46* | .26 | .06 | .18 | .24 | -.07 | .74* | *.84* | | | | | | | | |
| 9 | AC | 2.21 | .58 | -.38* | .26 | -.14 | -.35 | .15 | .38* | -.23 | -.19 | *.74* | | | | | | | |
| 10 | PJ fit T1 | 4.07 | .87 | .25* | -.18 | -.06 | .19 | -.20* | -.21* | .42* | .39* | -.18 | *.87* | | | | | | |
| 11 | PJ fit T4 | 3.97 | 1.04 | .14 | -.16 | .15 | .12 | -.10 | .22 | .36 | .32 | -.20 | .76* | *.96* | | | | | |
| 12 | PG fit T1 | 3.85 | .77 | .10 | -.08 | .01 | .00 | -.07 | -.19 | .26 | .16 | -.58* | .49* | .57* | *.91* | | | | |
| 13 | PG fit T4 | 3.80 | .84 | .17 | -.40* | .08 | .02 | -.19 | -.17 | .23 | .35 | -.64* | .47* | .57* | .87* | *.95* | | | |
| 14 | Job Sat | 3.91 | .86 | .15 | -.32* | .00 | .34* | -.31* | -.06 | .47* | .39 | -.69* | .44* | .53* | .67* | .74* | *.90* | | |
| 15 | ITQ | 2.04 | 1.02 | -.16 | .30* | .03 | -.27 | .19 | -.11 | -.47* | -.43* | .52* | -.44* | -.52* | -.63* | -.70* | -.78* | *.92* | |
| 16 | Burnout | 2.34 | .77 | -.18 | .39* | -.08 | -.32* | .34* | .03 | -.44* | -.40* | .71* | -.36* | -.48* | -.50* | -.62* | -.76* | .82* | *.88* |

- *Correlation is significant at the .05 level or above
- Approach = Approach Temperament, Avoid = Avoid Temperament, Narc = Narcissism, Proactive = Proactive Personality, and Neuro = Neuroticism were measured at Time 1.
- Uncert = Uncertainty of Change, PFC = Problem Focused Coping, EFC = Emotion Focused Coping, and AC = Avoidance Coping were measured at Times 1-3 and averaged across time points.
- PJ fit = Person-Job Fit; PG fit = Person-Group Fit were measured at Time 1 and Time 4
- Job Sat = Job Satisfaction, ITQ = Intention to Quit, and Burnout were measured at Time 4.

**Table 16: Study 2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Model Comparisons**

| Model | $\chi^2$ | df | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | RMSEA 90%CI | SRMR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model 1 | | | | | | | |
| CFA All Latent Variables with parceling | 263.74 | 181 | .92 | .90 | .07 | .06, .09 | .07 |
| Model 2 | | | | | | | |
| CFA alternate 1 PG and PJ fit one factor | 396.98 | 188 | .85 | .81 | .10 | .09, .11 | .09 |
| Model 3 | | | | | | | |
| CFA alternate 2 All coping one factor | 497.11 | 195 | .78 | .74 | .12 | .10, .13 | .12 |

**Table 17: Study 2 Fit Statistics for Tests of Measurement Invariance**

| Variables and Models | $\chi^2$ | df | $\Delta\chi^2$ | p | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | RMSEA 90%CI | SRMR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *PG fit* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 177.00 | 81 | | | .94 | .94 | .14 | .11, .16 | .12 |
| Configural Invariance | 162.66 | 56 | | | .93 | .90 | .17 | .14, .20 | .05 |
| Metric Invariance | 319.53 | 78 | 156.87 | .99 | .85 | .84 | .22 | .20, .25 | .31 |
| *PJ fit* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 38.60 | 18 | | | .97 | .98 | .13 | .08, .19 | .13 |
| Configural Invariance | 12.50 | 8 | | | .98 | .95 | .13 | .00, .27 | .04 |
| Metric Invariance | 3.40 | 6 | 9.10 | .99 | 1.0 | 1.0 | .00 | .00, .11 | .06 |
| *Problem Focused Coping* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 55.50 | 30 | | | .97 | .98 | .12 | .07, .17 | .07 |
| Configural Invariance | 24.83 | 8 | | | .98 | .94 | .19 | .11, .27 | .02 |
| Metric Invariance | 36.55 | 18 | 11.72 | .70 | .98 | .97 | .13 | .07, .19 | .09 |
| *Emotion Focused Coping* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 80.88 | 46 | | | .92 | .93 | .11 | .07, .15 | .14 |
| Configural Invariance | 52.58 | 20 | | | .93 | .85 | .16 | .11, .22 | .07 |
| Metric Invariance | 82.99 | 34 | 30.41 | .99 | .89 | .87 | .15 | .11, .19 | .12 |
| *Avoidance Coping* | | | | | | | | | |
| Omnibus test | 21.86 | 18 | | | .97 | .98 | .06 | .00, .14 | .15 |
| Configural Invariance | 0 | 0 | | | 1.0 | 1.0 | .00 | .00, .00 | .00 |
| Metric Invariance | 4.03 | 6 | 4.03 | .33 | 1.0 | 1.0 | .00 | .00, .12 | .05 |

**Table 18: Study 2 Tests of the Effect of Approach and Avoid Temperament on Coping**

| | Problem-Focused Coping | | | Emotion-Focused Coping | | | Avoidance Coping | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypothesis 1 a,b,c* | | | | | | | | | |
| Approach Temp | .14 | .10 | -.05, .32 | **.28** | **.09** | **.10, .45** | -.17 | .10 | -.36, .01 |
| *Hypothesis 2 a,b* | | | | | | | | | |
| Avoid Temp | | | | **.17** | **.08** | **.01, .33** | .07 | .10 | -.11, .26 |
| $R^2$ | .02 | | | .08 | | | .04 | | |

- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 19: Study 2 Tests of Uncertainty as a Moderator of Approach and Avoid Temperaments' Relationships with Coping**

| | Problem-Focused Coping | | | | | | | Avoidance Coping | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | β | SE | Std β | t | p | $\Delta R^2$ | | β | SE | Std β | t | p | $\Delta R^2$ |
| *Hypothesis 3a* | | | | | | | *Hypothesis 3b* | | | | | | |
| Model 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Approach | .26 | .18 | .14 | 1.4 | .15 | | Avoid | .09 | .11 | .08 | .76 | .45 | |
| Uncertainty | .04 | .09 | .04 | .42 | .67 | .02 | Uncertainty | .05 | .09 | .06 | .53 | .60 | .01 |
| Model 2 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Approach | .29 | .18 | .15 | 1.61 | .11 | | Avoid | .09 | .11 | .08 | .76 | .45 | |
| Uncertainty | .11 | .09 | .12 | 1.15 | .25 | | Uncertainty | .05 | .09 | .05 | .53 | .60 | |
| Approach X Uncert | **.44** | **.18** | **.24** | **2.39** | **.02** | .05 | Avoid X Uncert | .05 | .10 | .05 | .52 | .52 | .01 |

- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 20: Study 2 Tests of the Effects of Coping on the Level and Change of PJ and PG Fit**

| | Person-Job Fit | | | | | | Person-Group Fit | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | | *intercept* | | |
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypotheses 5 a,b* | | | | | | | | | |
| Problem Focused Coping | ,05 | .13 | -.20, .26 | -.03 | .15 | -.33, .22 | **.26** | **.09** | **.07, .41** |
| *Hypotheses 6 a,b* | | | | | | | | | |
| Emotion Focused Coping | -.21 | .13 | -.47, .05 | -.01 | .16 | -.33, .32 | -.07 | .10 | -.27, .12 |
| *Hypotheses 7a,b* | | | | | | | | | |
| Avoidance Coping | -.26 | .14 | -.53, .00 | -.17 | .16 | -.48, .15 | **-.49** | **.08** | **-.64, -.34** |

- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 21: Study 2 Model Fit Comparisons for Hypothesized and *Post Hoc* Models of Change in Fit and Coping**

| | $\chi^2$ | df | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | 90% CI | SRMR |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model 1 *Hypotheses 5 a, b* | | | | | | | |
| PFC → PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I | 34.90 | 23 | .95 | .94 | .07 | .00, .11 | .12 |
| Model 2 *Hypotheses 6 a, b* | | | | | | | |
| EFC → PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I | 40.34 | 27 | .95 | .93 | .07 | .01, .11 | .17 |
| Model 3 *Hypotheses 7 a, b* | | | | | | | |
| AC → PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I | 37.58 | 27 | .96 | .95 | .06 | .00, .10 | .17 |
| Model 4 | | | | | | | |
| PJ & PG fit → PFC | 21.09 | 14 | .85 | .85 | .15 | .00, .28 | .13 |
| Model 5 | | | | | | | |
| PJ & PG fit → EFC | 23.21 | 14 | .69 | .69 | .17 | .00, .29 | .15 |
| Model 6 | | | | | | | |
| PJ & PG fit → AC | 9.05 | 14 | 1.00 | 1.1 | .00 | .00, .13 | .09 |
| Model 7 | | | | | | | |
| PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I → PFC int | 63.78 | 31 | .87 | .84 | .09 | .06, .13 | .24 |
| Model 8 | | | | | | | |
| PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I → EFC int | 48.64 | 31 | .92 | .91 | .07 | .03, .11 | .28 |
| Model 9 | | | | | | | |
| PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I → AC int | 55.57 | 31 | .90 | .89 | .08 | .05, .12 | .28 |
| Model 10 | | | | | | | |
| PFC int → PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I | 75.72 | 31 | .81 | .78 | .11 | .08, .14 | .18 |
| Model 11 | | | | | | | |
| EFC int → PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I | 83.83 | 31 | .77 | .73 | .12 | .09, .15 | .14 |
| Model 12 | | | | | | | |
| AC int → PJ & PG fit I, S and PG I | 62.42 | 31 | .87 | .85 | .09 | .06, .13 | .17 |

**Table 22: Study 2 *Post Hoc* Tests of PJ and PG Fit as Predictors of Coping**

| | Coping | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | |
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Model 4 Alt H 5 a, b* | | | |
| PJ fit → PFC | .12 | .24 | -.36, .59 |
| PG fit → PFC | .05 | .25 | -.43, .53 |
| *Model 5 Alt H 6 a, b* | | | |
| PJ fit → EFC | -.01 | .27 | -.54, .52 |
| PG fit → EFC | .32 | .25 | -.16, .80 |
| *Model 6 Alt H 7 a, b* | | | |
| PJ fit → AC | .07 | .16 | -.25, .39 |
| PG fit → AC | **-.85** | **.11** | **-1.1, -.64** |
| *Model 7* | | | |
| PJ fit intercept → PFC | -.11 | .17 | -.43, .17 |
| PJ fit slope → PFC | **.62** | **.12** | **.39, .81** |
| PG fit intercept → PFC | -.01 | .14 | -.30, .23 |
| *Model 8* | | | |
| PJ fit intercept → EFC | .04 | .17 | -.29, .36 |
| PJ fit slope → EFC | **.66** | **.11** | **.44, .88** |
| PG fit intercept → EFC | -.10 | .15 | -.38, .19 |
| *Model 9* | | | |
| PJ fit intercept → AC | .19 | .18 | -.17, .55 |
| PJ fit slope → AC | **.62** | **.12** | **.39, .86** |
| PG fit intercept → AC | **-.68** | **.15** | **-.98, -.38** |

- In models 4, 5, and 6 PG and PJ fit are the averages of each type of fit at times 1-4.
- In models 7, 8, and 9 PG and PJ fit are modeled at times 1, 2, and 3 and coping is modeled at times 2, 3, and 4.
- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above.

**Table 23: Study 2 *Post Hoc* Tests of Coping Level and Change on the Level and Change of PJ and PG Fit**

| | Person-Job Fit T 2, 3, 4 | | | | | | Person-Group Fit T 2, 3, 4 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | | *intercept* | | |
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Model 10* | | | | | | | | | |
| PFC intercept | .23 | .22 | -.21, .66 | .07 | .41 | -.74, .87 | **.34** | **.16** | **.03, .64** |
| *Model 11* | | | | | | | | | |
| EFC intercept | -.03 | .24 | -.49, .44 | .24 | .61 | -.95, 1.4 | .11 | .18 | -.25, .46 |
| *Model 12* | | | | | | | | | |
| AC intercept | .24 | .23 | -.20, .69 | -.61 | .61 | -1.8, .60 | **-.72** | **.17** | **-1.0, -.39** |

- PFC, EFC, AC coping are measured at times 1, 2, 3.
- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above

**Table 24: Study 2 Tests of Narcissism as a Moderator of Coping's Relationship with the Level and Change of PJ and PG Fit**

| | Person-Job Fit | | | | | | Person-Group Fit | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | | *intercept* | | | *slope* | | |
| | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI | β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypotheses 8 a,b* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Problem Focused Coping | .05 | .10 | -.15, .24 | .02 | .04 | -.05, .08 | .20 | .09 | .02, .39 | -.01 | .02 | -.05, .08 |
| Narcissism | -.69 | .38 | -1.4, .06 | .25 | .24 | -.21, .72 | .60 | .63 | -.63, 1.8 | -.11 | .12 | -.34, .12 |
| PFC X Narcissism | .18 | .12 | -.05, .40 | -.05 | .08 | -.21, .11 | -.20 | .17 | -.53, .14 | .03 | .04 | -.05, .12 |
| *Hypotheses 8 c,d* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Emotion Focused Coping | -.17 | .10 | -.36, .01 | -.04 | .04 | -.10, .03 | -.08 | .09 | -.25, .08 | .03 | .02 | -.02, .07 |
| Narcissism | -.67 | .34 | -1.3, -.01 | -.51 | .22 | -.94, -.07 | -.14 | .54 | -1.2, .92 | .06 | .15 | -.23, .35 |
| EFC X Narcissism | .23 | .13 | -.02, .49 | **.21** | **.08** | **.07, .36** | .05 | .16 | -.27, .36 | -.03 | .06 | -.13, .08 |
| *Hypotheses 8 e,f* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Avoidance Coping | -.22 | .09 | -.40, -.04 | -.04 | .05 | -.13, .06 | -.48 | .08 | -.63, -.31 | .01 | .02 | -.03, .06 |
| Narcissism | .14 | .30 | -.45, .72 | -.06 | .22 | -.48, .37 | -.60 | .35 | -1.3, .08 | .07 | .11 | -.15, .28 |
| AC X Narcissism | -.13 | .13 | -.38, .13 | .06 | .09 | -.12, .23 | .22 | .16 | -.09, .54 | -.03 | .04 | -.11, .05 |

- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above

**Table 25: Study 2 Tests of the Effect of Level and Change of PJ and PG fit on Job Satisfaction and Intention to Quit**

| | Job Satisfaction | | | Intention to Quit | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Std β | SE | 95% CI | Std β | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypotheses 9-10 a* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit intercept | **.50** | **.15** | **.20, .80** | **-.44** | **.15** | **-.72, -.15** |
| *Hypotheses 9-10 b* | | | | | | |
| PJ fit slope | .13 | .21 | -.28, .54 | -.30 | .16 | -.63, .02 |
| *Hypotheses 9-10 c* | | | | | | |
| PG fit intercept | **.73** | **.06** | **.60, .86** | **-.69** | **.07** | **-.82, -.54** |

- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above

**Table 26: Study 2 Standardized Effects of Coping on Burnout**

| | Burnout | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Estimate | SE | 95% CI |
| *Hypothesis 11 a* | | | |
| Problem-Focused Coping | -.18 | .13 | -.39, .08 |
| *Hypothesis 11 b* | | | |
| Emotion-Focused Coping | -.04 | .14 | -.33, .24 |

- Relationships in bold are significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) or above

**Table 27: Summary of Support for Hypotheses in Studies 1 and 2**

| Hyp | Independent Variable | Direction | Dependent Variable | Study 1 | Study 2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 a | Approach temperament | + | Problem Focused Coping | S, S | NS |
| 1 b | Approach temperament | + | Emotion Focused Coping | S, S | S |
| 1 c | Approach temperament | - | Avoidance Coping | S, S | NS |
| 1 d | Proactive Personality | + | Problem Focused Coping | S | NS |
| 1 e | Proactive Personality | + | Emotion Focused Coping | NS | S |
| 2 a | Avoid temperament | + | Emotion Focused Coping | NS, S | S |
| 2 b | Avoid temperament | + | Avoidance Coping | S, S | NS |
| 2 c | Neuroticism | + | Emotion Focused Coping | S | NS |
| 2 d | Neuroticism | + | Avoidance Coping | NS | NS |
| 3 a | Uncertainty X Approach temperament | High uncertainty, high approach, high PFC | | – | S |
| 3 b | Uncertainty X Avoid temperament | High uncertainty, higher avoid, high AC | | – | NS |
| 4 a | Individual perceptions of PJ fit will change over time. | | | S + | S - |
| 4 b | Individual perceptions of PG fit will change over time. | | | S - | NS |
| *PH* | The use of problem-focused coping changes over time. | | | S - | NS |
| *PH* | The use of emotion-focused coping changes over time. | | | S - | NS |
| *PH* | The use of avoidance coping changes over time. | | | S - | NS |
| 5 a | Problem Focused Coping | + | Increase in PJ fit | NS | NS |
| 5 b | Problem Focused Coping | + | Increase in PG fit | NS | – |
| 6 a | Emotion Focused Coping | + | Increase in PJ fit | S rev | NS |
| 6 b | Emotion Focused Coping | + | Increase in PG fit | NS | – |
| 7 a | Avoidance Coping | - | Increase in PJ fit | NS | NS |
| 7 b | Avoidance Coping | - | Increase in PG fit | NS | – |
| 8 a | Problem Focused X Narcissism | High N high PFC decrease PJ fit | | NS | NS |
| 8 b | Problem Focused X Narcissism | High N, high PFC, decrease PG fit | | NS | NS |
| 8 c | Emotion Focused X Narcissism | High N, high EFC, decrease PJ fit | | NS | S rev |
| 8 d | Emotion Focused X Narcissism | High N, high EFC, decrease PG fit | | NS | NS |
| 8 e | Avoidant X Narcissism | High N, high AC, increase PJ fit | | NS | NS |
| 8 f | Avoidant X Narcissism | High N, high AC, increase PG fit | | NS | NS |

| Hyp | Independent Variable | Direction | Dependent Variable | Study 1 | Study 2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 a,b | Level and Increase in PJ fit | + | Job Satisfaction | – | S, NS |
| 9 c,d | Level and Increase in PG fit | + | Job Satisfaction | – | S, – |
| 10 a,b | Level and Increase in PJ fit | - | Intention to Quit | – | S, NS |
| 10 c,d | Level and Increase in PG fit | - | Intention to Quit | – | S, – |
| 11 a | Problem-Focused Coping | + | Burnout | – | NS |
| 11 b | Emotion-Focused Coping | + | Burnout | – | NS |

## FIGURES

**Figure 1: Theoretical Model of Personality and Coping as Antecedents of Change in Fit**

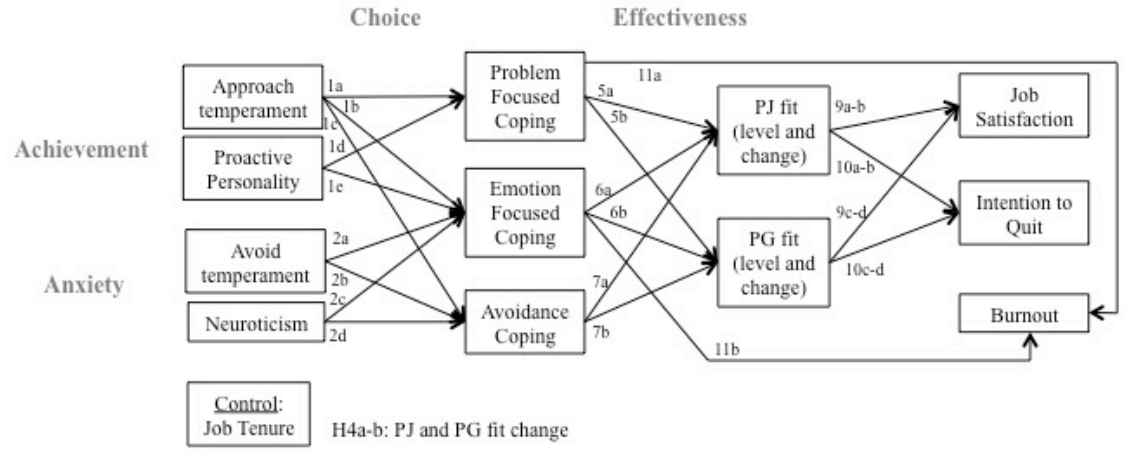


**Figure 2: Model of Personality and Coping as Antecedents of Change in PE Fit with Moderator**

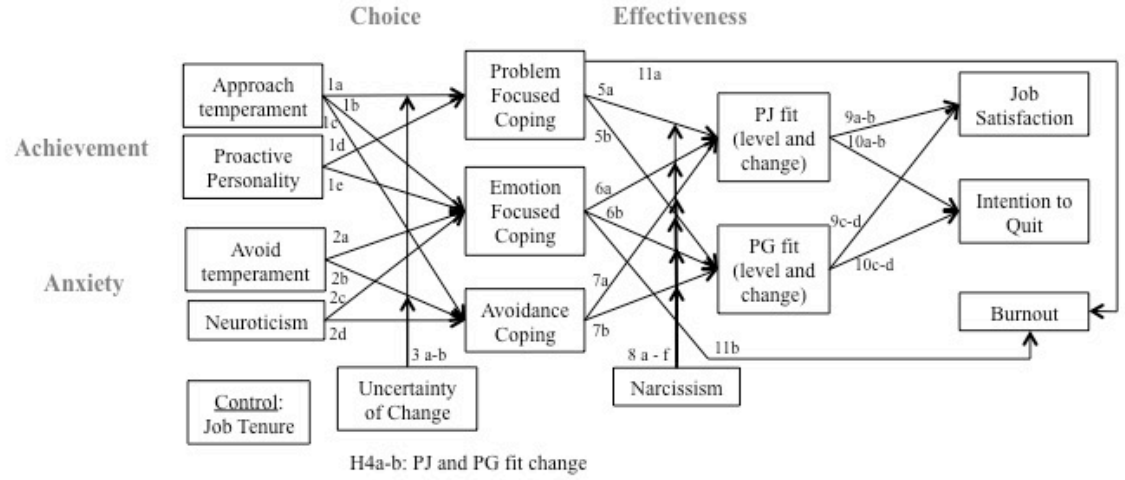

**Figure 3: Abbreviated Model Tested in Study 1**

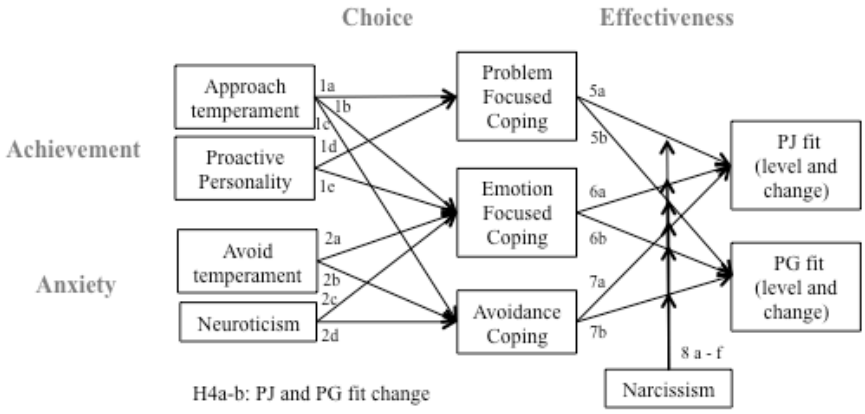


**Figure 4: Full Model with All Hypotheses Tested in Study 2**

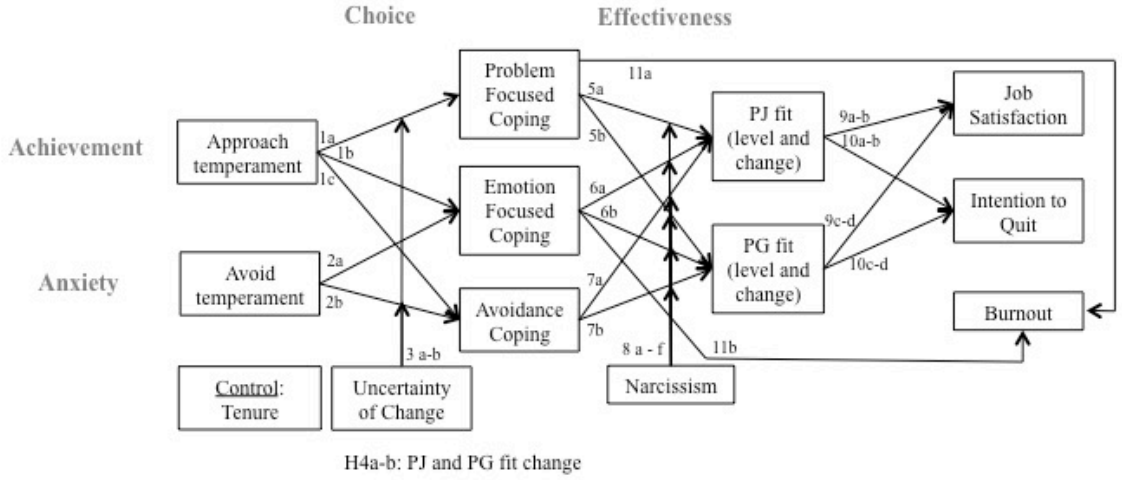

**Figure 5: Study 2 Interaction of Uncertainty and Approach Temperament Predicts the Use of Problem Focused Coping**

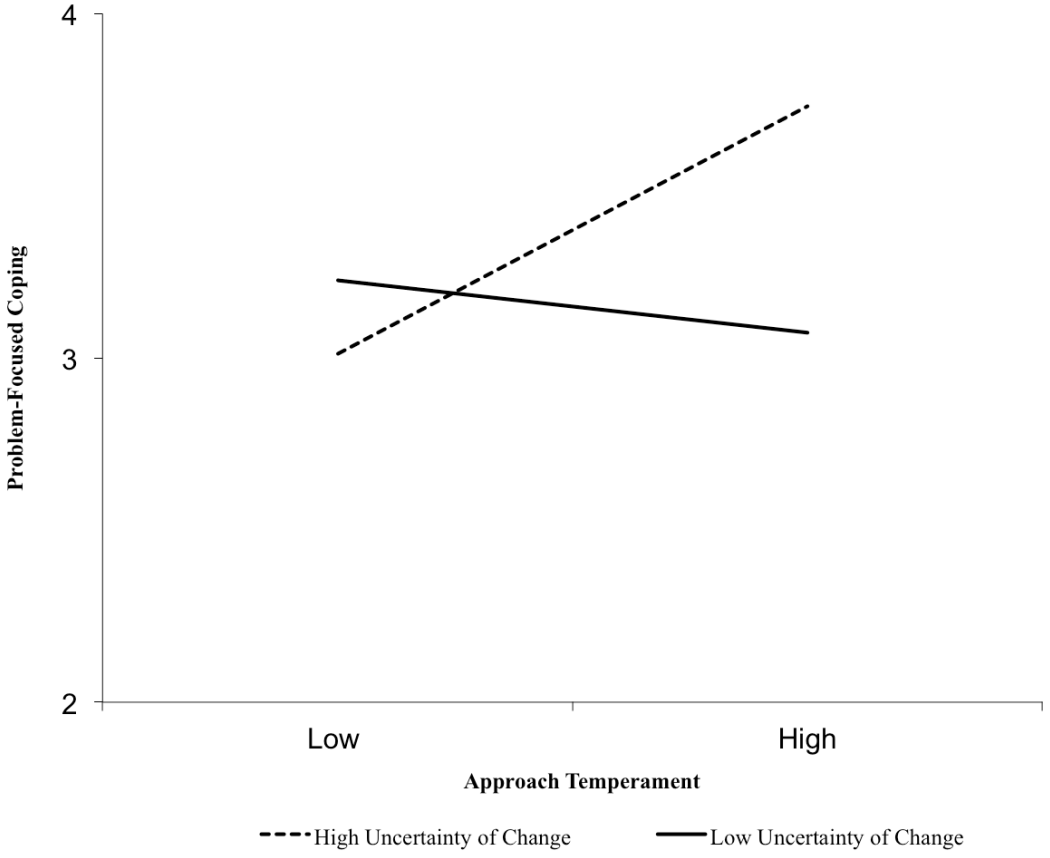

**Figure 6: Study 2 Interaction of Narcissism and Emotion-Focused Coping Predicts the Change in PJ Fit**