ABSTRACT

LOBENE, ELENI VAGIAS. Perceived Overqualification: A Model of Antecedents and Outcomes. (Under the direction of Adam Meade, Samuel Pond, and Mark Wilson.)

The purpose of this study is to explore the antecedents of perceived overqualification (POQ) and to investigate its relationship with relevant work behaviors and perceptions. Supervisory (N = 208) and self-reports (N = 415) were collected. Results indicate that POQ is predicted by narcissism and certain work dimensions, including task repetition and the presence of a uniform requirement. POQ is also related to lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and higher turnover intentions. Further research is needed to address POQ's relationship to absenteeism and truancy.

Perceived Overqualification: A Model of Antecedents and Outcomes

by
Eleni Vagias Lobene

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APPROVED BY:

_____   _____
Dr. Samuel Pond, III   Dr. Mark Wilson

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Dr. Adam Meade
Chair of Advisory Committee

DEDICATION

To my parents.

To Mom- you have been a constant source of encouragement and support throughout my life.

To Dad- you have always challenged and inspired me to strive to be my best.

BIOGRAPHY

I am a native to the suburbs of Washington D.C., Arlington, VA. I have two fantastic, supportive parents and a very talented filmmaker for a brother. I ironically started my academic career early, because I graduated from high school in three years in order to model. I ended up with a college degree, and meeting my future husband, in the following three years. I received my undergraduate degree from George Mason University in Psychology in 2007. In order to avoid being a preschool teacher post-graduation, I applied for doctoral programs and wound up at North Carolina State University in 2007. I married a wonderful, Christian man in 2008, Adam Lobene. In our free time (i.e., when I am not writing papers such as this one,) we volunteer at church, talk about the stock market, and go out to eat using coupons!

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Perceived Overqualification:

A Model of Antecedents and Outcomes

The concept of overqualification gained public attention in 1992, when the City of New London, Connecticut declined to hire an applicant as a police officer due to his "excessively high" score on an intelligence test. The U.S. District Court of Connecticut ruled in favor of the state on the grounds that there was a rational basis for the policy and that it was not arbitrary or illogical (Demonte & Arnold, 2000; Jordan v. City of New London & Harrigan, 1999). The judge decided there is no fundamental right to employment as a police officer and limiting the size of an applicant pool is a legitimate goal in hiring. The court further determined that it is a valid aim to increase employee tenure and reduce the likelihood of turnover by selecting employees with the most appropriate qualification levels.

Perceived vs. Actual Overqualification

Although others have defined excessive cognitive ability as the overarching characteristic of overqualification (Fine & Nevo, 2008), I believe that overqualification is better conceptualized holistically as possessing an excess of knowledge, skills, abilities, or other characteristics (KSAOs) beyond those required to perform a job. Previous experience and acquired capabilities can influence a person's qualification level and, consequently, his or her opportunities to perform. Fine (2007) distinguishes objective overqualification from perceived overqualification (POQ), with POQ being the degree to which an individual perceives him- or herself to be objectively overqualified. He defines POQ as being "the degree to which individuals perceive themselves (or others) as possessing more than the required job qualifications" (p. 61). Similarly, Johnson and Johnson (2002b) describe POQ as

resulting from incongruence between job demands and employee competencies. High levels of KSAOs may cause employees to feel overqualified regardless of their relevance to the job. The purpose of this study is to assess the antecedents of POQ and its influence on work behaviors and attitudes.

While POQ is a subjective experience, Maynard et al. (2006) argue that POQ is more relevant than actual, objective, levels of overqualification for predicting withdrawal behaviors as the psychological state of the employee has a more direct influence on behavior. Johnson et al. (2002) support the notion that POQ, as opposed to actual overqualification, is worth investigating, as it is a meaningful and applicable interpretation of the work environment by the employee. POQ has received inadequate attention prompting Fine and Nevo (2008) to call for future research on the causes and impact of POQ in the workplace.

Importance of Perceived Overqualification

The person-job fit literature shows that a stronger match between the individual and his or her environment can lead to better work outcomes including increased satisfaction and performance (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999), as well as motivation and retention (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). The match between job demands and worker abilities define qualification fit; low levels of which may lead to POQ. Each individual has specific qualifications and KSAOs, all of which he or she can use most effectively when matched with the ideal job. Proper matching of skill sets to a job likely prevents individuals from becoming under- or over-challenged. Qualification fit is more likely to lead to job satisfaction, which is better for the individual (Fine & Nevo, 2008), and is associated with organizational commitment and

lower turnover intentions (Maynard et al., 2006), which is beneficial to the organization (Brkich, Jeffs, & Carless, 2002). There are two conflicting approaches to making decisions about whether to hire overqualified candidates. According to Fine and Nevo (2008), some organizations currently avoid hiring overqualified individuals, nonetheless, some employers reportedly intentionally hire overqualified individuals in anticipation of eventual promotion (Bills, 1992). To date, very little is known about the appropriateness of either approach.

A recent study published in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* identifies some potential advantages of POQ when mitigated by job empowerment (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). Empowerment is defined as an employee's perceived authority to control how work is conducted, while holding responsibility for work outcomes (Hardy & Leiba-O'Sullivan, 1998; Hechanova-Alampay & Beehr, 2001). The study surveyed 244 Turkish retail associates and obtained objective performance data. The results indicated that empowerment ameliorated the negative effects of POQ on job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and actual turnover. A key contribution of their study is the positive link between POQ and objective performance. They found that individuals with higher POQ demonstrated higher performance than those with lower scores.

Erdogan and Bauer (2009) proposed that although employees with higher POQ are more likely to turnover, they are able to make valuable contributions that compensate for the cost of their shorter employment periods with the organization. They suggest that for the purposes of strategic job design, future research explore additional work dimensions that may affect the likelihood that employees experience POQ. This study fulfills their call to research

by investigating previously unexplored work dimensions and individual differences as antecedents of POQ.

The Current Study

The purpose of this study is to assess how an individual's perception of his or her job qualifications influences his or her behaviors in the work place. This study proposes to investigate both predictors and outcomes of POQ, as depicted in the proposed POQ Model presented in Figure 1. The predictors of interest include general mental ability (GMA) and narcissism while work dimensions are a proposed moderator of the relationship between GMA and POQ. Outcome variables include job satisfaction and organizational commitment, along with withdrawal components derived from Sagie et al.'s (2002) Progressive Model of Withdrawal: turnover intentions, absenteeism, and tardiness.

General Mental Ability. While many factors, including motivation, discipline, and other personality variables, influence occupational choice, career counselors often use intellectual ability as a key indicator of educational and occupational potential when recommending career paths to clients (Leverett, Matthews, Lassiter, & Bell, 2001). Such professional practices may have implications for career placement; and career selection may lead to individuals' experiences of varying qualification levels. GMA test scores represent an individual's capacity to reason, learn, and solve problems (Hull, 1928; Spearman, 1927). It is a popular employee selection tool (Le, Oh, Shaffer, & Schmidt, 2007) and a common predictor of job task performance (Hunter & Hunter, 1984; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998). Ghiselli (1973) explains that in traditional hiring approaches, employers always consider applicants with higher qualifications to be better. However, consistently favoring the highest-

ranking candidates on GMA may lead to the employment of individuals who feel

overqualified due to boredom from a lack of intellectual challenge, frustration due unutilized

skill-sets, or disappointment from being under-appreciated by superiors and coworkers.

Recently, Fine (2007) examined trainees from a leadership camp in Asia, measuring

POQ, negative attitudes, GMA, personality, and leadership training performance. Fine (2007)

found a positive correlation between POQ and GMA ($r = .30$) and stated that if POQ can be

predicted, researchers may be able to create ways to overcome the resulting negative

outcomes. He also found POQ related positively to leadership performance, whereas GMA

did not. Fine (2007) also reported that GMA predicted POQ such that people in the top 30%

of GMA scores were more than two times as likely to experience POQ in training scenarios.

Fine (2007) called for further research to investigate the relationship between POQ and GMA

in alternate contexts and cultures.

The Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) is a ubiquitous cognitive test battery

administered to students interested in applying to institutions of higher education. SAT has

been shown to be a reliable and valid indicator of GMA (Landy & Conte, 2004; Langlie,

1938; Paterson, Schneidler, &Williamson, 1938; Thorndike, 1947). Like previous studies

(e.g., Koenig, Frey, & Detterman, 2008; Linn, 1986), the SAT will serve as a measure of

GMA for this study. GMA is the primary predictor of POQ in the model displayed in Figure

1.

Hypothesis 1: GMA will positively correlate with POQ.

Narcissism. Narcissism is defined as an excessive sense of self-importance

characterized by fantasies of unlimited success, entitlement, arrogance, and a lack of

empathy (Judge, LePine, & Rich, 2006). Individuals who are highly narcissistic tend to be

less sensitive to criticism, seek rather than avoid feedback, and are not likely to internalize

negative criticism (Atlas & Them, 2008). Narcissism has also been associated with inflated

self-ratings of leadership, while being negatively related to others' ratings of leadership

(Judge et al., 2006). The same relationship was found regarding workplace deviance, in

which narcissists self-reported less deviance than informant supervisors (Judge et al., 2006).

Brown (1996) argues that narcissism is strongly associated with destructive patterns in the

workplace. She explains that these behaviors include being excessively controlling, critical of

others, and overreacting to perceived criticism, devaluing the input of others, and blaming.

Given the arrogant nature of narcissistic individuals, I propose that they are more likely to

perceive themselves to be overqualified for work. I propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Narcissism will positively correlate with POQ.

Work Dimensions. Mismatch between work dimensions and individual abilities, in

which the abilities exceed what are required by the job, is considered to lead to objective

overqualification which is a type of underemployment (Fine, 2007). The work dimensions of

interest chosen for this study include task repetitiveness, pay rate, clothing uniform

requirements, education level standards, and employment outside of one's field of interest.

These work dimensions are incorporated to potentially provide a more in-depth

understanding of the types of jobs and job characteristics that may lead to perceptions of

overqualification given certain GMA levels. Specifically, work dimensions are expected to

moderate the relationship between GMA and POQ. Furthermore, GMA is only expected to

lead to POQ if the individual is experiencing unfavorable job characteristics such as repetitiveness, low pay, or uniform requirements.

Repetitiveness is a component of jobs with little task variety, which can become a source of frustration for employees (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). In another study exploring the effects of task design on job satisfaction, Ganzach (1998) found that while intelligence is positively associated with job satisfaction because intelligent people tend to acquire more challenging jobs, intelligence is negatively associated with job satisfaction when task complexity is held constant. In combination with other core dimensions, task variety may lead to increased motivation, work quality, and satisfaction, as well as lower rates of turnover. Repetitiveness is a form of lower task variety; therefore, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: Repetitiveness will moderate the relationship between GMA and POQ.

Pay rate may also influence POQ, as being underpaid can lead to dissatisfaction and resentment. People do not want to be undervalued and low pay may indicate lower status and lower job importance (Landy & Conte, 2004). A perceived mismatch between compensation and the worth of one's contributions could lead to POQ. In a longitudinal study, Sightler and Adams (1999) found that pay rate differentiated those who stayed at the job and those who voluntarily left. This study will look at the pay ranges of individuals while controlling for hourly vs. salary compensation. Thorsteinson (2003) found little difference between full and part time workers in terms of job satisfaction, intentions to leave, and commitment, so it is expected that pay rate will be a predictor of POQ regardless of hours per week that are worked. I also hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4: Pay rate will moderate the relationship between GMA and POQ.

Uniform clothing requirements place constrictions on individuals' expression and place control into the hands of the employer. Uniforms inherently lessen environment flexibility and remove opportunity to individuate. Little research is available regarding the psychological effects of clothing uniform requirements, yet this model considers clothing uniforms to be a job dimension that can alter one's experience of work. I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 5: Clothing uniform requirements will moderate the relationship between GMA and POQ.

Like overqualification, holding a job that is below one's educational credentials is a form of underemployment (Maynard et al., 2006). Being over-educated for a position can lead to sentiments of being under-utilized and under-valued (Bills, 1992). Educational credentials will be controlled for in the analysis, rather than included as a predictor, as little variability is expected among college students.

Finally, employment outside one's field of interest is another form of underemployment that is an important factor to consider when investigating job dimensions and POQ (Maynard et al., 2006). There are instances in which students take positions unrelated to their fields of study just as laid-off workers sometimes must take jobs in other fields during economic recession. Such situations are typically undesirable because individuals wish to work in positions more directly aligned with their interests. Individuals who experience forced employment outside of their field are more likely expected to experience POQ. As an example, Maynard et al. (2006) found a negative relationship

between satisfaction and involuntary job-degree mismatch. As it is somewhat unlikely that many students will have worked in their field of interest, I will control statistically for relevance of the job to one's professional field.

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction is an individual's subjective assessment of work (Johnson & Johnson, 2002b) and is defined as the response of an individual to the circumstances of his or her working environment that is shaped by his or her interpretations and perceptions of the objective characteristics of the conditions (Johnson & Johnson, 1996, 2002b; Maynard et al., 2006). POQ can be a source of job dissatisfaction, which in turn, may lead to higher turnover intentions and other work withdrawal symptoms (Johnson & Johnson, 2002b). Fine and Nevo (2008) found a negative relationship between POQ and job satisfaction ($r = -.44$) for customer service representatives. Johnson and Johnson (2002b) looked at two components of POQ in relation to job satisfaction: perceived lack of growth opportunity and perceived mismatch of individual qualifications and job requirements (mismatch). They found that both perceived lack of growth opportunity ($r = -.57$) and mismatch ($r = -.33$) were significantly negatively related to work satisfaction. Another study involving postal workers found that POQ had a negative effect on job satisfaction, with POQ accounting for 34% of the variance (Johnson & Johnson, 2002a). In accordance with the findings of previous research, it is expected that individuals with higher POQ are more likely to experience job dissatisfaction.

Hypothesis 6: POQ will negatively predict job satisfaction.

Withdrawal Behaviors. While the literature has explored the effect of variables such as perceived organizational support (e.g., Eder & Eisenberger, 2008) and organizational

identification (e.g., van Knippenberg, van Dick, & Tavares, 2007) on withdrawal behaviors, previous research has not investigated the potential influence of POQ on employee withdrawal. This study will improve upon the original work of Fine and Nevo (2008) by examining the withdrawal behaviors that can result from dissatisfaction. Voluntary employee withdrawal behaviors include withholding effort at work, lateness, absenteeism, and turnover (Sagie et al., 2002). Among the consequences of employee withdrawal are unfinished work, unmet commitments, and reduced profitability (Sagie et al., 2002). Failing to select well-suited employees can eventually lead to the most expensive form of withdrawal, employee turnover (McCulloch & Turban, 2007; Sagie et al., 2002; Zimmerman, 2008).

Sagie et al.'s (2002) progressive model of withdrawal behavior involves an ordered progression from psychological withdrawal to turnover. Psychological withdrawal includes negative job attitudes and feelings, which lead to the second stage in the process, withholding effort. Withholding effort is characterized by the employee physically remaining in the workplace but not exerting a great deal of energy. According to the progressive model, withholding effort is the first observable form of employee withdrawal. The model then proposes that the behavior digresses to arriving late, leading to absenteeism, and ultimately turnover. Unlike previous models that have not included the influences of each stage of withdrawal on one another, the Sagie et al. (2002) model allows the stages to coexist and affect each other concurrently. They propose that all withdrawal forms are essential to the chain (see Figure 2) with psychological withdrawal (e.g., job dissatisfaction and stress) typically proceeding behavioral withdrawal (e.g., tardiness and absenteeism). However, withdrawal behaviors can also influence job attitudes. For example, if a lack of effort elicits

criticism from coworkers, such criticism may adversely affect one's job attitude. The model suggests a progressive course going from the least to most severe forms of withdrawal, but this order is not essential to the manifestation of the behaviors (see Figure 2).

This study adapts the behavioral withdrawal definitions outlined by Sagie et al. (2002) to include truancy, absenteeism, and turnover intentions. Truancy is assessed, rather than tardiness, as truancy includes both arriving late and leaving early. This inclusion provides a fuller picture of the time an employee is missing at work. Absence from work is also included in the model, as was originally outlined in the Sagie et al. (2002) model. Finally, rather than investigating actual turnover, turnover intentions is included. Previously, Maynard et al. (2006) found that POQ was predictive of turnover intentions. They defined turnover intentions as the extent to which an individual plans to leave an organization or position of employment. Turnover intentions are often measured instead of actual turnover as intentions reveal valuable information about an individual's plans and expectations (Mobley, 1977). Turnover intentions typically predict turnover (Mobley, 1977; Zimmerman, 2008) and the two constructs have similar relationships with variables like performance and tenure (Carless, Fewings-Hall, Hall, Hemsworth, & Coleman, 2007). Thus, though Sagie et al.'s (2002) model does not include turnover intentions, it will be included in this study. Truancy, absenteeism, and turnover intentions involve separating from, but still associating with, the workplace.

Hypothesis 7: POQ will positively predict truancy.

Hypothesis 8: POQ will positively predict absenteeism.

Hypothesis 9: POQ will positively predict turnover intentions.

Organizational Commitment. Organizational commitment is an individual's psychological bond to the organization, including a sense of job involvement, loyalty, and a belief in the organization's values (Salincik, 2003). High commitment is beneficial for both employers and employees (Pinder, 1998) offering employees a sense of identity, satisfaction, and security. However, today workers are not expected to remain within a single organization for the duration of their careers (Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005; Kickul, Lester, & Finkl, 2002). Moving around to several organizations is common in the modern work environment.

The study of commitment requires a multi-dimensional approach as multiple forms of commitment have been identified (Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005). Commitment has been conceptualized at the job, organizational, and occupational levels as individuals can be committed to different components of the work situation. Further, distinctions exist among the types of organizational commitment. Key dimensions of organizational commitment include calculative, attitudinal, affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005). Nonetheless, researchers typically conceptualize commitment in terms of three dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative (Allen & Meyer, 1990), which will be the aspects of commitment examined in this study.

Affective organizational commitment (AOC) is defined as "an affective or emotional attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 2). It is experienced when an individual wants to continue working for a specific organization and closely identifies with the organization (Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005; Porter, Steers,

Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). A 2005 meta-analysis found that AOC is positively related to job performance (ρ = .27) and negatively related to turnover (ρ = -.20). Previous findings also indicate that AOC is negatively related to POQ (Johnson et al., 2002; Maynard et al., 2006). These findings suggest that if an individual experiences POQ, he or she is more likely to want to leave the organization.

Hypothesis 10: POQ will negatively predict AOC.

Employees exhibit normative organizational commitment (NOC) when they remain with an organization in order to do what is responsible and morally right. NOC involves a sense of duty and obligation and is thought to function as a stable individual difference (e.g., Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005; Meyer & Allen, 1990). According to a recent meta-analysis, NOC is valuable to the organization because it is negatively related to turnover (ρ = -.16) and has a small positive relationship with job performance (ρ = .08; Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005). NOC has also been found to be moderately correlated with POQ (r = .24; Johnson et al., 2002). This positive correlation could be explained by the stable trait nature of NOC (Meyer & Allen, 2001). If NOC is in fact an inherent individual value then it will not vary based on characteristics of an employment situation (i.e., experience of POQ).

Research Question 1: Is POQ related to NOC?

Finally, continuance organizational commitment (COC) is commitment one feels toward the organization because the costs of leaving the organization are high (Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Morrow, 1993). COC involves the ease with which one can leave his or her current organization for another and is reportedly negatively related to job performance (ρ = -.12) and negatively related to turnover (ρ = -.25;

Cooper-Hakin & Viswesvaran, 2005). Limited research is available regarding the relationship between POQ and COC. It is expected that the experience of COC will be unaffected by the experience of POQ. Although it is unlikely that the individual's perceptions of qualification will impact need to stay with the organization. We will examine the following question:

Research Question 2: Is POQ related to COC?

Method

Procedures

College students are a population that may experience intellectual overqualification as a result of their typical desire for flexible, part-time work and lack of experience and educational credentials. Participants were students at a large southeastern university enrolled in introductory psychology courses. Students voluntarily participated in order to receive class credit. The registration process required participants to have taken the SAT and concurrently held a job at which a manager would be willing to fill out a short survey. Participants were assigned class credits for participating in the experiment upon completion.

The first segment of the study involved completing a 40-minute online survey. Following completion of the online survey, participants were prompted to provide their supervisors' email addresses in order for the supervisory survey to be administered. If they did not know their supervisors' email addresses, they were instructed to send it to a provided email address upon its acquisition. If the supervisor lacked email access, the student was instructed to provide a mailing address and a hard copy was mailed to the supervisor. Hard-copies of the survey were mailed on a case-by-case basis for 18 participants. Students were

awarded full credit upon providing the supervisors' email or physical addresses. The electronic survey, along with an explanation of the project, was in all cases sent directly to the manager.

Participants

A total of 452 students participated in the data collection. In order to ensure data quality, a seemingly irrelevant question was incorporated to screen inattentive participants who did not read each question. This item was embedded midway in the survey and requested a six-point Likert-scale response to the question "Mint chocolate chip is my favorite flavor of ice-cream." At the end of the survey, respondents were presented with the following request "One item on the preceding survey did not fit. It asked about ice-cream. What flavor of ice-cream was mentioned?" They were then required to enter a string of text as a response. Thirty-three of the original 452 participants were removed due to incorrect responses on this attention check. Of the remaining 415 participants, 52% of participants were male and 82% of participants reported being "White or Caucasian". Ten percent reported being either "Black or African American", 6% reported being "Asian", 1.5% was "Hispanic or Latino", and "American Indian or Alaskan Native" and "Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander" each accounted for less than a percent. In terms of education, 69% of participants indicated that they had "some college completed", 25% indicated that they had a "high school diploma or GED", 5% reported to have a "college degree", and less than 1% percent reported having a "graduate degree". Responses were collected from approximately half of the participants' supervisors ($N = 208$). To maintain brevity in the supervisory survey, demographic information was not collected from managers.

Measures

Perceived Overqualification. The Scale of Perceived Cognitive Overqualification (PCOQ; Fine & Nevo, 2008) was used to assess levels of POQ. The measure yielded an alpha coefficient of .82. Example questions include "I feel that I could easily handle more difficult work" and "I am able to do my job without too much thinking". All items were on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7= *strongly agree*). For a complete list of included items, see Appendix B.

General Mental Ability. General Mental Ability (GMA) was assessed through self-reported SAT scores. Frey and Detterman (2004) found the correlation between general intelligence and SAT to be high (r = .86). Self-reported SAT scores are highly correlated (r = .95) with actual SAT scores (Gully, Payne, Koles, & Whiteman, 2002). Students were asked to report their highest score (see Appendix C).

Narcissism. The 40-item, dichotomous (1 = *yes* or 0 = *no*) narcissism scale was summed in order to be analyzed. The measure was developed by Raskin and Terry (1988) and has a KR-20 internal consistency coefficient of .83 in this sample (see Appendix D).

Work Dimensions. Work dimension items were developed for the purposes of this study and include addressing work repetitiveness, pay rate, clothing uniform requirements, education level standards, and employment outside of one's field of interest. These single-item measures are available in Appendix E. Repetitiveness was measured with five items resulting in an alpha of .83.

Job Satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured through a self-report scale including five items developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). Reliability of the scale in this sample

was .90. All items were on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7= *strongly agree*). Items include "most days I am enthusiastic about work" and "I find real enjoyment in my work". All items are listed in Appendix F.

Work Withdrawal. Turnover intention was measured through a single self-report item with six response options originally created and used by Spector (1985). Unofficial records of absenteeism and tardiness will be acquired both through self-report and through supervisory- ratings. These items have been developed uniquely for this study and can be found in Appendix G.

Commitment. AOC, COC, and NOC were measured through a scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), which can be found in Appendix H. In this sample, coefficient alpha for AOC was .77, for COC it was .78, and for NOC it was .74. Examples of commitment items include: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization", "it would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to", and "I think that people these days move from company to company too often".

Results

To test hypotheses regarding POQ antecedents, correlations were computed and are displayed, along with sample size and significance values, in Table 1. Correlations were also used to assess the proposed supervisory- and self-rated outcomes of POQ, the results of which are presented in Tables 2 and 3. A comparison was also made between supervisory- and self-ratings of employee outcomes (see Table 4). Additionally, a hierarchical regression was computed to assess the simultaneous contributions of all predictors and proposed

mediators on POQ. The results of the predictor side of the model will be addressed first, followed by a presentation of POQ's outcomes.

Predictors of POQ

Table 1 displays the zero-order correlation results computed between each predictor, moderator variable, and POQ. These findings indicate that, as hypothesized, POQ and narcissism were positively related. Contrary to Hypothesis 2, POQ was not correlated with GMA. Pay was negatively correlated with uniform requirements and POQ, suggesting that positions with lower compensation are more likely, in this sample, to have a uniform requirement and employees experiencing POQ. POQ was also positively related to the other two moderating variables, presence of a uniform requirement and repetitiveness. The magnitude of the correlation between repetitiveness and POQ was noteworthy ($r = .49$, $p < .01$), suggesting that repetition in tasks may be an important contributing factor of POQ.

Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5 relate to moderators of GMA and POQ. Separate regression analyses were conducted to assess the moderating effects of each work dimension (repetitiveness, pay rate, and uniform requirements) on the relationship between GMA and POQ. GMA and each work dimension were centered in order to reduce the multicollinearity among the main effects and the interaction. The results indicate that none of the proposed work dimensions had a moderating effect on the relationship between GMA and POQ. However, repetitiveness ($\beta = .49$, $p < .01$) and the presence of a uniform requirement ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) had significant main effects on POQ. Although GMA was not significantly related to POQ as a main effect, when included with repetitiveness, it resulted in a significant, but small effect ($\beta = .09$, $p < .05$). This finding suggests that GMA does affect

POQ when holding repetitiveness of the job constant. Considering the small effect size, this postulate deserves future research attention.

Hierarchical regression was conducted to assess the unique effects of all predictors simultaneously, controlling for educational credentials and relevance of one's job to his or her professional field of interest. The first step included two control variables and resulted in a significant model ($F[2,330] = 9.56$, $p < .01$) with an R^2 value of .06. Relevance to professional field of interest ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$) was a significant predictor of POQ whereas education was not.

The second step added narcissism, GMA, repetitiveness, pay, uniform requirement, and the three cross-products of the moderators. There was a significant change in R^2 ($F[8,322] = 16.09$, $p < .01$)indicating that the additional predictors accounted for significant additional variance. The resulting R^2 value was.33 ($\Delta R^2 = .28$) and there were three additional significant predictors of POQ. The significant predictors were narcissism ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$), repetitiveness ($\beta = .47$, $p < .01$), and uniform requirement ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$). Relevance to professional field of interest ($\beta = -.14$, $p < .01$) remained significant.

Outcomes of POQ

Hypotheses 6 through 10, as well as Research Questions 1 and 2, explore POQ as a predictor of work attitudes and outcomes. Zero-order correlations were computed between POQ and each outcome variable (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism, and truancy). Information regarding turnover intentions was only collected through employee self-ratings whereas the remaining four outcomes were collected from both data sources.

Self-reported outcomes. In support of Hypotheses 6 and 10, POQ was negatively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment. Additionally, normative and continuance commitment resulted in significant negative correlations with POQ, thus answering Research Questions 1 and 2. Job satisfaction and affective commitment were strongly correlated while job satisfaction was only moderately correlated with normative commitment. Job satisfaction was also negatively related to all three forms of withdrawal. The three forms of withdrawal were correlated with one another producing coefficients ranging from .11 to .31 (see Table 2). Hypothesis 9, proposing that POQ is positively related to turnover intentions, was supported. Hypotheses 7 and 8, predicting POQ is related to absenteeism and truancy, were not supported.

Supervisory-reported outcomes. Consistent with the findings of the self-reported outcomes, and contrary to the hypotheses, truancy and absenteeism were not significantly related to POQ in the supervisor sample (see Table 3). However, supervisory perceptions of truancy and absenteeism were significantly related to each other ($r = .47$, $p < .01$), as were perceived commitment and satisfaction ($r = .54$, $p < .01$). In order to compare supervisory-reported and self-reported outcomes, intercorrelations were computed (see Table 4).These results indicate positive relationships between supervisory- and self-reported withdrawal behaviors and non-significant correlations between ratings of satisfaction and commitment.

Discussion

The overarching purpose of this study was to explore potential POQ predictors and outcomes. To accomplish this purpose, I adapted the Sagie et al. (2002) model of employee withdrawal to include turnover intentions and arriving to work late. The multi-source data

collected mutually led to the conclusion that POQ has a stronger influence on work-related attitudes than actual behaviors. Major contributions of this study also include the identification of specific work dimensions and the personality trait of narcissism as significant predictors of POQ.

Predictors of POQ

As expected, narcissism was positively related to POQ. This finding implies that individuals who have an inflated sense of self-importance tend to perceive themselves as being "too good" for their jobs. Therefore, organizations should take the negative outcomes associated with high POQ (i.e., lower organizational commitment and higher turnover intentions) into consideration when hiring persons high in narcissism.

Contrary to expectations, GMA was not a significant predictor of POQ. This finding suggests that GMA does not inflate perceptions of possessing excessive knowledge, skills, and abilities to perform a job. It is also possible that respondents high in GMA may not be concerned about the usage of their abilities, or may not be aware of their potential, therefore decreasing their likelihood of experiencing POQ. This finding contradicts Fine's (2007) study of leadership trainees in Asia. Fine (2007) identified a positive correlation between GMA and POQ in a culturally collectivist setting among male trainees, whereas participants in this study included females, as well as males, in a variety of paid work positions in the United States. Fine's (2007) inventories were administered via paper-and-pencil on the job, whereas this study was administered online outside of work. Another difference between the studies was the GMA measure used. While this study used self-reported SAT scores, Fine (2007) extracted numerical and verbal reasoning questions from a test battery previously

administered to the trainees. The reliability of the measure of GMA used in this study is an issue to consider when assessing the validity of the findings. Self-reported SAT scores are not ideal, objective measures of GMA.

The proposed work dimensions, repetitiveness, pay, and uniform requirement, did not serve as moderators between GMA and POQ. However, all had significant correlations with POQ (see Table 1). Repetitiveness and the presence of a uniform requirement produced main effects based on the regression analyses. These findings highlight the importance of understanding potential contextual influences on the experience of POQ. Repetition of tasks on the job likely leads to boredom, and a desire for challenge may contribute to an individual experiencing POQ. Uniform requirements restrict employees' abilities to express themselves and may serve as signals for lower-status positions (in this study uniforms were correlated negatively with pay). The frustration that may result from such requirements could contribute to one's POQ experience.

If empowerment, as evidenced by Erdogan and Bauer (2009), can be intentionally increased by the employers, negative attitudes and outcomes may be sufficiently containable. This study offers promising options for improving the work environment and possibly decreasing employees' likelihoods of experiencing POQ through the creation of task variety and reduction of uniform apparel restrictions, in combination with the increase of empowerment. The antecedent results suggest that POQ is primarily a situational state, rather than a stable trait. While certain people may be more likely than others to experience POQ based on their personality (i.e. narcissists), POQ appears to be largely dependent on characteristics of the work environment. Further, jobs that require substantial repetition of

tasks and enforce uniform requirements are more likely to spur the experience of POQ among incumbents.

Outcomes of POQ

In this study, POQ was related to self-reported job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intentions. Conversely, POQ was not significantly related to absenteeism and truancy as rated by the participant or by the supervisor. There are several potential reasons that POQ was not related to absenteeism and truancy. Absenteeism and truancy are behaviors whereas turnover intentions, satisfaction, and commitment are job attitudes (or intentions). It is possible that POQ has a smaller effect on actual behaviors as compared to attitudes and intentions, as attitudes are more proximal outcomes than behaviors (Sagie et al., 2002).

The results suggest that POQ was negatively related to self-reported job satisfaction. Therefore, incumbents are more satisfied with positions for which they feel they are adequately qualified, rather than overqualified. This finding may be due to the desire of incumbents to seek challenge through work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In some cases, they may experience frustration, and thus lower satisfaction, from not using the knowledge, skills, and abilities they possess and have worked to acquire. This finding is in accordance with Fine and Nevo's (2008) study, which revealed a negative relationship between job satisfaction and POQ among customer service representatives. The results provide further support for this relationship in a sample of employees from diverse fields.

The findings indicate that POQ is negatively related to three self-reported types of organizational commitment. AOC was the only type of organizational commitment hypothesized to relate to POQ, and did produce a strong correlation coefficient. This result

implies that POQ may lead to negative emotional interpretations about one's work organization and thus, decreased desire to stay with the organization. POQ was also found to relate to NOC and COC. The correlation with NOC suggests that POQ may influence employee's perceptions of circumstances in which it is morally right to leave an organization. Additionally, the relationship with COC indicates that POQ is associated with situations in which the incumbent perceives the costs of leaving the organization as being high. It is important to note that the zero-order correlations computed do not provide enough information to determine cause and effect; therefore, alternate research designs are necessary to clarify this relationship.

In contrast to self-reported ratings, supervisory-ratings of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were not related to POQ. Moreover, supervisory ratings of satisfaction and commitment were uncorrelated with employee ratings of the same. This disparity between self- and supervisory-ratings suggests an inability of supervisors to interpret the psychological states of their employees. This finding also suggests that supervisors' perceptions of employee work related attitudes may not be accurate. Employees may attempt to self-monitor the expression of negative emotions in the presence of their superiors, which would limit managers' exposure to indicative signs of low satisfaction and commitment. It is also possible that employees' psychological states are simply not salient to supervisors. Supervisors may also experience cognitive dissonance in admitting a lack of satisfaction or commitment on behalf of their employees, biasing the validity of their reports.

Conversely, hetero-source ratings of withdrawal behaviors were significantly correlated. The correlation between supervisory- and self-reported ratings of absenteeism

was positive but small ($r = .17$, $p < .05$), while the hetero-source correlation for truancy was stronger ($r = .38$, $p < .01$). Although supervisors may not have accurate perceptions of their employees' work related attitudes, these results suggest they may be better able to judge employee withdrawal behaviors. Alternatively, supervisors' accounts could be more accurate than employees'. In such cases, inaccuracy of employee reports could be due to attempts to reduce cognitive dissonance resulting from the denial of poor performance.

This study provides evidence for a positive relationship between POQ and turnover intentions, implying that individuals who experience POQ may desire more challenge through positions for which they feel more adequately qualified. With turnover being a significant cost for organizations, this finding suggests that employers may benefit from avoiding hiring job candidates who are overqualified for a particular position.

Limitations and Future Research

External validity of the findings would benefit from a sample of participants employed on a full-time basis. Undergraduate students may have limited work experience not representative of the American workforce. Many are not employed full-time and have not established tenure with their organizations. Their limited qualifications also may reduce the number of opportunities they are, or have been, given. These demographic factors limit the generalizability of this study.

Also, participants elected to partake in the study knowing that their supervisors would be asked to answer a related questionnaire. Poor performers may have been less likely to volunteer so as not to draw their supervisors' attention to their low performance. This potential effect could have decreased the variance in supervisory- and self-ratings.

Additionally, halo errors may exist, in which the supervisors would not objectively and independently rate each item, causing less rating variance. Supervisors could also possess generally negative or positive views of the world, or people, in general, which would in turn influence their ratings of their employees.

Regarding the limitations of the withdrawal measures, absenteeism and truancy were assessed via single-item measures, typically possessing lower reliability than scale scores. Also, although promised confidentiality, respondents may have been hesitant to admit actual withdrawal behaviors due to social desirability or fear of entrapment. It is also possible that participants misestimate their own frequency of absenteeism and truancy. Also, actual job titles and descriptions were not collected, preventing the coding of additional work dimensions that could influence POQ.

There are many avenues for future research illuminated by this study, including the need for further investigation of other work dimensions that may be predictors of POQ. Understanding contextual predictors could be useful in mitigating potentially negative outcomes, such as turnover intentions. Despite the value of understanding individuals' intentions, expected or desired courses of action do not always translate into behavior. A useful avenue for future research would be to investigate the relationship between POQ and actual turnover, as well as POQ and job performance. In addition, replications of this study should control for pride or attitudes towards one's uniform. While uniform requirements were positively related to POQ, the effect may have been stronger when controlling for honorable uniforms (i.e., military) as opposed to undesirable uniforms (i.e., fast food chain).

Future research should also explore the potential intricacies of the relationship between relevance of one's job to his or her professional field of interest and POQ. For example, are there conditions under which individuals will tolerate professionally irrelevant jobs yet subsequently not experience POQ? Additionally, are there contexts in which employees experience POQ when working within their field of interest? Such situations may result from demotions or forced acceptances of a lower-status job and deserve further attention.

Despite the confidence that 80% of respondents indicated in stating that the SAT scores reported either "should match the University's records exactly" or "may not match exactly, but should be very close to what the University has on record for me", the scores were self-reported and therefore subject to the potential unreliability of the human memory. Future research should employ objective measures of GMA to eliminate this potential source of error in self-reporting of standardized test scores. Similarly, in the future, objective measures of withdrawal would be useful in exploring relationships with POQ.

Whereas actual GMA does not predict POQ, narcissism does, suggesting a possible link between POQ and personality. It is also possible that objective GMA may predict actual overqualification, but may not influence perceptions. As discussed previously, perceptions may influence behavior more so than reality (Maynard et al., 2006); therefore, future research should explore perceptions of GMA, rather than actual GMA, as a predictor of POQ. This relationship may also link back to narcissism. Individuals' perceptions can influence reality and some students, while intelligent with significant potential, may not experience POQ

because they perceive their work as transitory. A non-student population, working towards long-term careers, may exhibit alternative results.

Summary

This study offers novel contributions to the POQ literature. Although not the first to explore the relationship between POQ and personality, this study is the first to include narcissism as a predictor. Current theories about individual differences that influence employees' likelihoods of experiencing POQ are lacking; the positive relationship between POQ and narcissism serves as an addition to reduce the present, inadequate understanding. Only one previous study (Fine, 2007) has investigated the influence of GMA on POQ, and those published findings are contradictory to the results of this data. Therefore, this study offers reason to question Fine's (2007) original finding and continue exploring POQ's relationship to GMA in alternative settings and samples. One major contribution of this study is the evidence that POQ may primarily be a situationally specific variable. While some people may be more prone to experience POQ (i.e., narcissists) this study's findings suggest that most variance in POQ is accounted for by job characteristics, such as task repetition and uniform requirements. These are work dimensions that had been previously unexplored as antecedents of POQ. Said dimensions are situational variables, which can be used to adapt job designs in order to decrease the likelihood of employees experiencing POQ thereby offering potential mitigation for the negative results associated with it.

Additionally, this is the first study to find that POQ may be more closely related to attitudinal outcomes and intentions (i.e., satisfaction, commitment, turnover intentions) than behavioral outcomes (i.e., truancy and absenteeism), as evidenced by both the self- and

supervisory-ratings. The correlations between the two data sources also provided unique insight into the lack of congruency between employer and employee views of employee attitudes and behavior. The findings suggest that they agree, to some extent, on the amount of withdrawal behavior being exhibited, but that supervisors are not aware of the degree of job satisfaction and organizational commitment their employees are experiencing. Hence, this study provides provoking findings about the lack of cognizance supervisors have regarding their employees' attitudes, which should serve as a catalyst to future research.

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Table 1

Intercorrelations among POQ and predictors

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Narcissism	--					
2. General Mental Ability	.09	--				
3. Pay	-.03	-.07	--			
4. Uniform Requirement	.04	.06	-.13**	--		
5. Repetitiveness	.01	-.01	-.08	.14	--	
6. POQ	.20**	-.08	-.12*	.18**	.49**	--

Note. N > 342 for all variables. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 2

Intercorrelations among POQ and self-reported outcomes

	1	2	3	4	5
1. POQ	--				
2. Job Satisfaction	-.39**	--			
3. Affective Commitment	-.38**	.58**	--		
4. Continuance Commitment	-.21**	.06	.30**	--	
5. Normative Commitment	-.17**	.26**	.43**	.22**	--
6. Turnover Intentions	.28**	-.58**	-.39**	-.07	-.18*
7. Absenteeism	.05	-.17**	-.11*	.00	-.10*
8. Truancy	.07	-.19**	-.08	.10*	-.15**

Note. N > 380 for all variables. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 2

Continued

	6	7	8
1. POQ			
2. Job Satisfaction			
3. Affective Commitment			
4. Continuance Commitment			
5. Normative Commitment			
6. Turnover Intentions	--		
7. Absenteeism	.11*	--	
8. Truancy	.17*	.31**	-

Note. N > 380 for all variables. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 3

Intercorrelations among POQ and supervisory-reported outcomes

	1	2	3	4	5
1. POQ	--				
2. Absenteeism	-.05	--			
3. Truancy	-.06	.47**	--		
4. Satisfaction	.00	-.20**	.08	--	
5. Commitment	-.10	.12	.06	.54**	--

Note. N > 206 for all variables. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 4

Intercorrelations among supervisory- and self-reported outcomes

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Supervisory Absenteeism	--				
2. Supervisory Truancy	.46**	--			
3. Supervisory Satisfaction	-.20**	.08	--		
4. Supervisory Commitment	.12	.06	.54**	--	
5. Self Absenteeism	.17*	.14*	-.05	.11	--
6. Self Truancy	.14*	.38**	-.04	.03	.31**
7. Self Satisfaction	-.17*	-.20**	.06	.08	-.17**
8. Self Commitment	.01	.04	-.01	-.01	-.08

Note. N > 195 for all variables. *p < .05. **p < .01. "Self" and "Supervisory" indicate the source of the ratings.
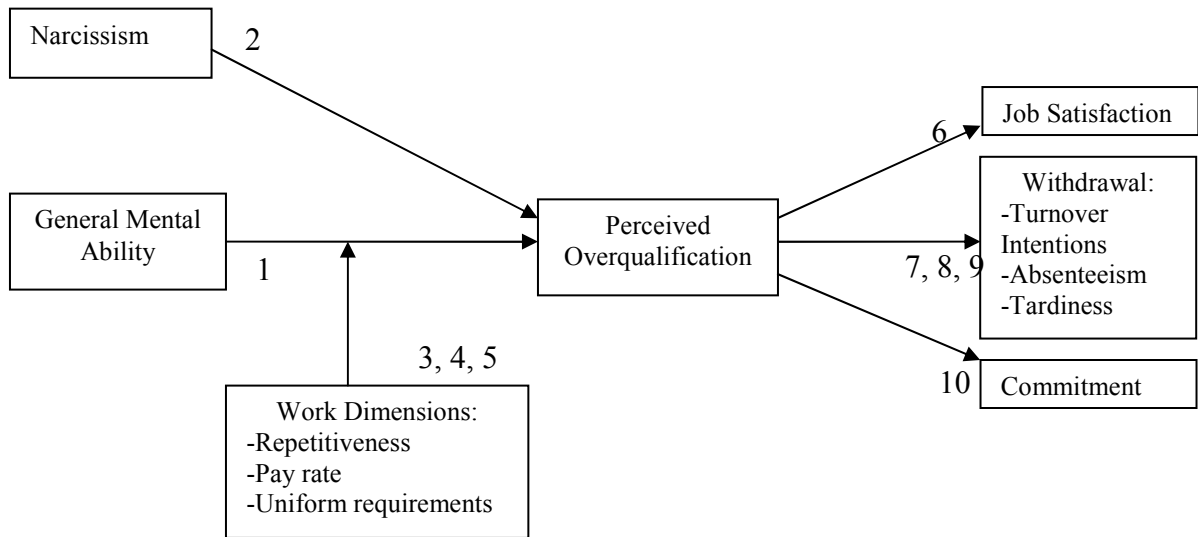
Table 4

Continued

	6	7	8
1. Supervisory Absenteeism			
2. Supervisory Truancy			
3. Supervisory Satisfaction			
4. Supervisory Commitment			
5. Self Absenteeism			
6. Self Truancy	--		
7. Self Satisfaction	-.19**	--	
8. Self Commitment	-.05	.38**	--

Note. N > 195 for all variables. *p < .05. **p < .01. "Self" and "Supervisory" indicate the source of the ratings.

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Model of Perceived Overqualification. The numbers beside each line indicate the corresponding hypotheses.

Figure 2. Progressive Model of Employee Withdrawal Behavior (Sagie et al., 2002). The POQ model focuses on the outward manifestation of employee withdrawal which includes lateness, absenteeism as well as turnover, which is measured through intention.

Figure 1. Model of Perceived Overqualification. The numbers beside each line indicate the corresponding hypotheses.
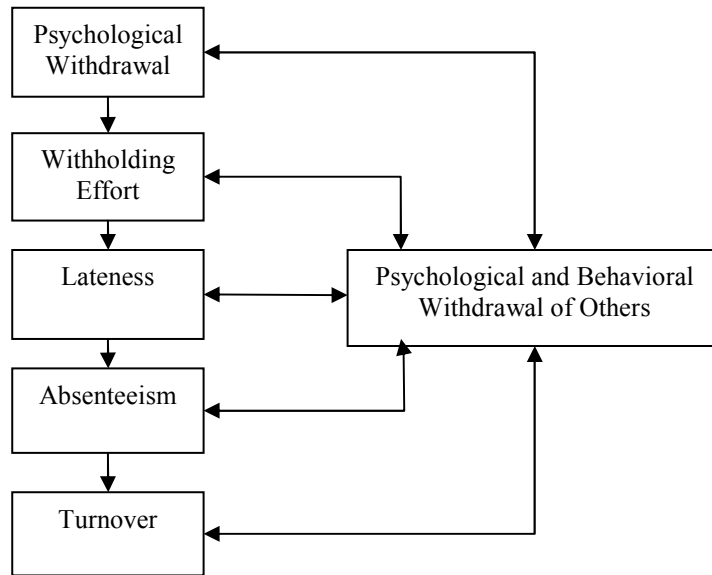
Figure 2. Progressive Model of Employee Withdrawal Behavior (Sagie et al., 2002). The POQ model focuses on the outward manifestation of employee withdrawal which includes lateness, absenteeism as well as turnover, which is measured through intention.

Appendices

APPENDIX A

Supervisor Rating Form

To be completed by the student:
Student's Name:_____ Student ID:_____
Remember to include an envelope in which your supervisor can seal this form.

Dear [fill in supervisor's name],

Thank you for agreeing to fill out this brief questionnaire about your employee, [fill in employee's name]. Your responses will remain entirely confidential. This brief, voluntary survey should take less than five minutes.

Please click on the following link to access the survey: _____

This study is being conducted by North Carolina State University and has been approved by the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research (IRB). The purpose of this study is to assess how an individual's perception of his or her job influences his or her behaviors in the workplace. Your employee has already completed another survey about themselves, and we are interested in your perspective on this employee's work attitudes and behaviors, as a manager. Supervisors' perspectives are extremely valuable and provide unique insight into the workplace. We need your ratings in order to reach this study's aim to improve employee selection. We recommend that you not share your responses with your employee. Your ratings are meant to increase knowledge in this field of research and are not intended to be a performance evaluation of the employee.

Thank you!
Eleni Lobene

Name:_____ Your Phone Number: _____
Company Name:_____ Company Address:_____

Please circle the best response to the following questions:

1. How satisfied do you believe this employee is with his or her job?
A) Very dissatisfied   B) Dissatisfied   C) Somewhat dissatisfied   D) Somewhat satisfied
   E) Satisfied   F) Very satisfied

2. How committed do you believe this employee is to his or her job?
A) Very uncommitted   B) Somewhat uncommitted   C) Uncommitted   D) Committed

E) Somewhat committed   F) Very committed

3. How much is this employee paid per hour? $_____

4. Is this employee required to wear a uniform to work?
    A) Yes   B) No

5. How often does this employee repeat the same job tasks in a typical day?
A) Never   B)Very Rarely   C) Rarely   D) Occasionally   E) Frequently   F) Very Frequently

6. How often does this employee voluntarily not show up to work?
A) More than once a week   B) Once a week   C) Once every few weeks   D) Once a month
        E) Once every few months   F) Never

7. How often does this employee arrive late to, or leave early from, the job?
A) More than once a week   B) Once a week   C) Once every few weeks   D) Once a month
        E) Once every few months   F) Never

Do you have any other comments?_____
_____
_____

    Please seal this form in an envelope provided by your employee and sign over the seal. It is your employee's responsibility to return this form to us within 10 business days.

                            Thank you!

                            Eleni Lobene
                            Doctoral Student
                            North Carolina State University

    *Questions? Please contact eavagias@ncsu.edu or call 703-336-2189.

APPENDIX B

PERCEIVED COGNITIVE OVERQUALIFICATION (Fine & Nevo, 2008)
[1=strongly disagree, 2=somewhat disagree, 3= disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree,
5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree]
1) I am smarter than most people doing my job.
2) I am more intelligent than is required to do my job.
3) My level of intelligence overqualifies me for my job.
4) Someone not as smart as me could still do my job well.
5) I need to solve difficult problems on my job. (N)
6) I feel I could easily handle more difficult work.
7) My work is not mentally challenging.
8) My work is rarely boring or routine. (N)
9) I am able to do my job without too much thinking.

APPENDIX C

GENERAL MENTAL ABILITY

1. Please indicate your highest overall score on the SAT college admission test. _____.
    a. What was your highest verbal/critical reading section score? _____
    b. What was your highest quantitative (math) section score? _____
    c. If applicable, what was your highest writing section score? _____

2. What year did you take the SAT? _____

3. How certain are you that the score you reported above matches the score the NC State admissions office has on file for you?
    a. The number above should match NC State's records exactly.
    b. The number above may not match exactly, but should be very close to what NC State has on record for me.
    c. I'm not sure I remember my score very accurately; the above number could be way off.

APPENDIX D

NARCISSISM - 40 item scale (Raskin & Terry, 1988)
[1=yes, 0=no]

1. I would prefer to be a leader.
2. I see myself as a good leader.
3. I will be a success.
4. People always seem to recognize my authority.
5. I have a natural talent for influencing people.
6. I am assertive.
7. I like to have authority over other people.
8. I am a born leader.
9. I rarely depend on anyone else to get things done.
10. I like to take responsibility for making decisions.
11. I am more capable than other people.
12. I can live my life in any way I want to.
13. I always know what I am doing.
14. I am going to be a great person.
15. I am an extraordinary person.
16. I know that I am good because everybody keeps telling me so.
17. I like to be complimented.
18. I think I am a special person.
19. I wish somebody would someday write my biography.
20. I am apt to show off if I get the chance.
21. Modesty doesn't become me.
22. I get upset when people don't notice how I look when I go out in public.
23. I like to be the center of attention.
24. I would do almost anything on a dare.
25. I really like to be the center of attention.
26. I like to start new fads and fashions.
27. I can read people like a book.
28. I can make anybody believe anything I want them to.
29. I find it easy to manipulate people.
30. I can usually talk my way out of anything.
31. Everybody likes to hear my stories.
32. I like to look at my body.
33. I like to look at myself in the mirror.
34. I like to display my body.
35. I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve.
36. I expect a great deal from other people.
37. I want to amount to something in the eyes of the world.

38. I have a strong will power.
39. I insist upon getting the respect that is due me.
40. If I ruled the world it would be a much better place.

APPENDIX E

WORK DIMENSIONS

REPETATIVENESS (developed for the purposes of this study)
[1=never, 2=almost never, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=very often, 6=extremely often]
1. I do the same tasks over and over at my current job.
2. I experience a lot of repetition at work.
3. I do not do a wide range of duties at work. (N)
4. I am always doing something different at my current job. (N)
5. I have a variety of activities that I do at work. (N)

PAY TYPE (developed for the purposes of this study)
[1=Hourly wage, 2=Salary]
1. How are you compensated for your time at work?

PAY RATE (developed for the purposes of this study)
1. Please indicate approximately how much you are paid per hour at your current job. (If you are paid salary, please estimate the equivalent in hourly wages.)

CLOTHING UNIFORM REQUIREMENT (developed for the purposes of this study)
[1=yes, 0=no]
1. Is there a clothing uniform requirement at your current job?

EDUCATION LEVEL (developed for the purposes of this study)
[1=high school diploma or GED, 2=some college completed, 3=college degree, 4=graduate degree]
1. Please indicate your highest level of education.

EMPLOYEMENT OUTSIDE ONE'S FIELD (developed for the purposes of this study)
[1=yes, 0=no]
1. Are you currently employed outside of the field in which you intend to permanently work someday?

APPENDIX F

OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION (Brayfeild & Rothe, 1951)
[1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= somewhat disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree, 5= somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree]
1) I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.
2) Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
3) Each day at work seems like it will never end.
4) I find real enjoyment in my work.
5) I consider my job to be rather unpleasant.

APPENDIX G

WITHDRAWAL BEHAVIORS

TURNOVER INTENTIONS (Spector, 1985)
[1=never, 2=almost never, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=very often, 6=extremely often]
1) How often have you seriously considered quitting your present job?

ABSENTEEISM
[1=never, 2=almost never, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=very often, 6=extremely often]
1) How often do you voluntarily not show up to your present job?

TARDINESS
[1=never, 2=almost never, 3=sometimes, 4=often, 5=very often, 6=extremely often]
1) How often do you arrive late to, or leave early from, your present job?

APPENDIX H

JOB COMMITMENT (Allen & Meyer, 1990)
[1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= somewhat disagree, 4=neither agree nor disagree,
5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree]

Affective Commitment Scale items
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one (R).
5. I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization (R).
6. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization (R).
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8. I do not feel a *strong* sense of belonging to *my* organization (R).

Continuance Commitment Scale items
1. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up (R).
2. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
3. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
4. It wouldn't be too costly for me to leave my organization now (R).
5. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
6. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
7. One of the few serious consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
8. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice — another organization may not match the overall benefits I have here.

Normative Commitment Scale items
1. I think that people these days move from company to company too often.
2. I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization (R).
3. Jumping fromi organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (R).
4. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.
5. If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would not feel it was right to leave my organization.

6. I was taught to believe in the value of remaining loyal to one organization.
7. Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.
8. I do not think that wanting to be a 'company man' or 'company woman' is sensible anymore (R).