

ENGAGED AND PRODUCTIVE MISFITS: HOW JOB CRAFTING AND LEISURE ACTIVITY MITIGATE THE NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF VALUE INCONGRUENCE

RYAN M. VOGEL
Pennsylvania State University–Erie

JESSICA B. RODELL
University of Georgia

JOHN W. LYNCH
University of Illinois at Chicago

The work life of “misfits”—employees whose important values are incongruent with the values of their organization—represents an under-researched area of the person–environment fit literature. The unfortunate reality is that these individuals are likely to be disengaged and unproductive at work. In this manuscript, we entertain the possibility that employees can protect themselves from this situation if they engage in alternative actions that supplement the fundamental needs that go unmet from value incongruence. We integrate theorizing about the motivational role of need fulfillment and work/nonwork behaviors in order to examine whether two actions in particular—job crafting and leisure activity—can potentially mitigate the negative effects of value incongruence on employee performance. The results from our field study of employees from diverse organizations and industries suggest that both job crafting and leisure activity do indeed act as a buffer, mitigating the otherwise negative effects of value incongruence on employee engagement and job performance (with regard to both task performance and citizenship behavior).

The topic of “value congruence”—the alignment of employee and company values—poses an interesting dilemma for managers in today’s workplace. In both research and practice, there has been an overwhelming focus on the importance and benefits of “fit” between an employee’s values and the company’s values (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Such alignment is believed to help strengthen organizational culture, improve efficiency, and retain employees (e.g., Edwards & Cable, 2009; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989). Despite the benefits of alignment, value *incongruence* may also serve an important function in the workplace. “Misfit”—defined here as when an employee’s important values are incongruent with the values of their organization (Kristof, 1996)—presents an opportunity for increased diversity in priorities and perspectives to emerge within an organization. Such diversity can lead to increased creativity (e.g., Hoever, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Barkema, 2012). Similarly, some level of misfit can help organizations avoid rigidity and stagnation, which detract from organizational effectiveness (Harrison, 2007; Schneider, 1987).

From the perspective of the employee, however, the experience of misfit has been associated with

uniformly negative outcomes. The misalignment of important values can leave misfits with a sense that they do not belong and of feeling unfulfilled by their work (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010). For example, an individual who strongly values personal status and being looked up to by others would see little meaning in—and feel out of place working for—an organization in which the predominant value system emphasizes teamwork and interdependence. As a result, the experience of misfit can be stressful, uncomfortable, and associated with negative work attitudes and behaviors. Indeed, misfits have greater intentions to quit, are more likely to turn over, and are likely to experience lower job satisfaction, engagement, and performance (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Rich et al., 2010; Schneider, 1987).

Moreover, the nature of today’s business environment has increased the prevalence of the misfit phenomenon (Moore, 2010; Sthapit, 2010). Recent trends in recruiting and hiring approaches—such as “selling” applicants on the job and giving short windows for applicants to decide on job offers—have

resulted in more misfits working in organizations (Sthapit, 2010). This situation is only predicted to worsen in the coming years, as the values of younger employees and companies are particularly mismatched (Moore, 2010). Because individual values are relatively stable over time (Rokeach, 1973), employees hired with initial value incongruence are likely to continue to experience it throughout their tenure with an organization. Although theorizing would predict that misfits ultimately quit their jobs (Schneider, 1987), poor labor market conditions may impede this otherwise-natural correction. Recent data indicate that a recuperating yet weak labor market has left many misfits unable to find alternative employment despite their desire to move (Harding & Mackenzie, 2014; Light, 2010; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014).

Given this state of affairs—the prevalence of misfits combined with mixed implications for companies and employees—we believe that the topic of misfit deserves more specific research attention. Specifically, we would like to consider the possibility that not all misfits are destined to suffer a disengaging and unproductive work experience. Meta-analytic evidence has shown that there is considerable variability in the effects of value congruence on performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), suggesting there may be factors that offset the negative impact of value incongruence. Uncovering these factors may not only demonstrate how employees can survive in a company as misfits, but also how companies may benefit from having different values among their employees while minimizing the performance detriments of value incongruence.

In particular, we suggest that employees may have some direct control over whether or not their experience of misfit is detrimental to their job performance. Recent trends in the management literature highlight employees' ability and desire to proactively manage their life experiences (see Grant & Ashford, 2008, for a review). These scholars are acknowledging that employees do not simply react to the world around them, but, rather, they behave in ways that contribute to shaping their environment (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Integrating this perspective with the traditional view of misfit introduces the possibility that employees may be able to proactively combat the otherwise detrimental effects of misfit. In a way, then, employees may "co-create" their environment, providing themselves with a buffer from the experience of value incongruence, and ultimately improving their situation at work.

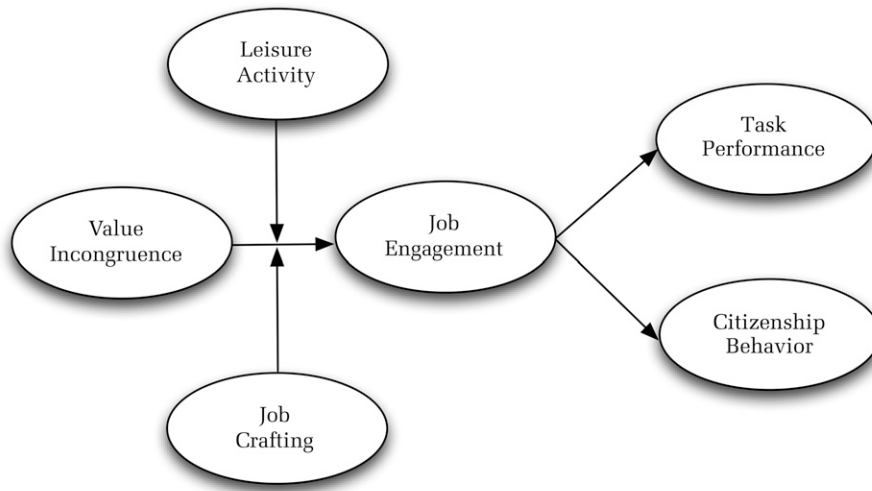
Adopting this perspective, our goal is to examine the following question: What proactive behaviors might buffer the performance detriments of value incongruence? To explore potential answers to this, we draw from the literature on work/nonwork domains (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Although the majority of research on proactive employee behavior has focused on the work domain (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al., 2010), there is increasing acknowledgment that behavior outside of the workplace can also have a significant impact on employees' attitudes and experiences at work (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Thus, we will consider the effectiveness of proactivity in both work and nonwork as a way of supplementing the core needs that might be unmet for misfits.

One of the most direct forms of proactivity at work is *job crafting*, which refers to an employee's volitional actions to shape, mold, and redefine their job in an attempt to improve their experience of work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). Proactivity in the nonwork domain can be seen in the choices that people make regarding how to use their time; to the extent that they volitionally engage in activities that can be fulfilling, they are behaving more proactively. Thus, we also examine employees' *leisure activity*—defined as the extent to which employees engage in nonwork activities, such as exercising, reading, or other hobbies (Gowen, Riordan, & Gatewood, 1999).

Thus, the purpose of this manuscript is to explore the potential of job crafting and leisure activity to act as buffers for misfits. The model, depicted in Figure 1, is grounded by coupling motivation theorizing about need fulfillment (e.g., Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Kahn, 1990, 1992) with the work/nonwork literature (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The underlying logic from this theorizing is that job crafting and leisure activity should act as resources that satisfy employee needs that would otherwise be deprived from experiencing value incongruence. Thus, job crafting and leisure activity have the potential to offset the negative motivational effects of value incongruence on employee performance (as regards both task performance and citizenship behavior).

Fit scholars tend to direct their focus toward the psychological experience of value congruence, at the expense of specific examinations of value incongruence. Indeed, "misfit is a subject that has been largely overlooked by researchers . . . we know little about how they behave or cope" (Kristof-Brown &

FIGURE 1
Theoretical Model



Guay, 2011: 38–39). By focusing on this experience of misfit, our manuscript offers theoretical contributions to the value congruence literature and, more broadly, to the person–environment (P–E) fit literature. For example, this paper refines and broadens our understanding of one of the dominant theoretical frameworks in this area: the attraction–selection–attrition (ASA) model (Schneider, 1987). ASA theory proposes that value incongruence is likely to prompt misfits to experience negative work attitudes, and, consequently, to leave their organizations. Our study extends this view by painting employees in a more proactive light, wherein misfits can combat this negative situation—essentially “co-creating” their work experience so that it is more fulfilling and engaging for them, despite value incongruence.

Our research further contributes to the value congruence and P–E fit literatures by examining both work (job crafting) and nonwork (leisure activity) behaviors as ways to compensate for value incongruence. This manuscript is the first that we know of to incorporate a cross-domain perspective by considering the buffering effects of leisure activity. Although P–E fit scholars have mainly focused on within-domain relationships (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 1999), recent research has demonstrated the value of considering how nonwork endeavors can impact work experiences (e.g., Trenberth & Dewe, 2005). Moreover, leisure activity has become more important with each generation of employees (Twenge, Campbell,

Hoffman, & Lance, 2010), pointing to a need to better understand how it might impact experiences at work.

TRADITIONAL PERSPECTIVE OF VALUE INCONGRUENCE

“Values,” defined as fundamental and stable beliefs about preferred end states or behaviors (Rokeach, 1973), describe how individuals see themselves at their core, thereby guiding their judgments and choices, influencing their attitudes, and shaping their behaviors (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). A situation of “value congruence”—in which individual values match organizational values—is generally considered ideal for employees (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). For example, an employee who highly values autonomy is more likely to thrive in an organization that prioritizes freedom than in an organization characterized by micromanagement. The underlying reasoning is that a match between an individual and his/her work environment satisfies one or more of a person’s basic psychological needs (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Heine, Proulx, & Vohs, 2006; Kahn, 1990; Ryan & Deci, 2000). These needs can range from a desire to be connected with others to having freedom over one’s own actions to longing for a sense of purpose or meaning (Baumeister & Vohs, 2005; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Williams, 1997). Such needs are so innate and essential that people are not necessarily directly aware

of the particular needs that are driving their goals or behaviors (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Regardless, fulfilling these needs can have a vast and profound impact on employee attitudes and behaviors.

Value incongruence (or “misfit”), however, is generally considered to be detrimental for employees (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; O’Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). As employee values diverge from organizational values, their core needs become deprived, which is in turn harmful to employee attitudes and behaviors (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Edwards & Shipp, 2007). It is important to note that misfit may be detrimental regardless of the direction it takes—that is, whether an employee values something more or less than their company (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Consider, for example, a situation of mismatch regarding salary. Value congruence is not an issue of whether an employee is satisfied with his/her current level of pay.¹ Rather, it captures whether the employee feels that he or she prioritizes pay issues to the same degree as the organization.

Kahn’s (1990, 1992) seminal theorizing speaks to the motivational implications of value congruence (and, thus, incongruence). Employees experiencing value congruence see their true self as being aligned with their company’s expectations of them (Chatman, 1989; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Kahn, 1990, 1992). This alignment reinforces an individual’s preferred self-image, making it more likely that they view their job as compelling and worthwhile (Kahn, 1992)—something that can fulfill a variety of psychological needs (Baumeister & Vohs, 2005; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Williams, 1997). Indeed, Greguras and Diefendorff (2009) found that perceived value congruence enabled employees to feel that they belonged, were competent, and had discretion over their actions.

Because it satisfies core needs, value congruence is considered intrinsically motivating (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In particular, it should foster *job engagement*—wherein employees invest their whole selves (cognitively, behaviorally, and emotionally) into their jobs—which has implications for their job performance (Kahn, 1990, 1992; Rich et al., 2010). Employees who fully invest themselves into their work should exhibit stronger task performance and citizenship behavior because such a holistic investment facilitates persistence to goal accomplishment, increased attention to

work tasks, and greater cooperation with others (Kahn, 1990). In support of this theorizing, Rich et al. (2010) found that perceived value congruence increased job engagement and, ultimately, task performance and citizenship behavior.

At the opposite end of this experience are employees whose values do not fit with their organization’s values. These employees perceive that they are expected to act like someone they are not (Kahn, 1990, 1992). They are likely to sense that they are lacking something important and valuable to them—that a fundamental need is not quite fulfilled (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). For example, misfits are likely to have fewer and less enjoyable interpersonal work relationships than those who fit (Edwards & Cable, 2009), leaving belongingness needs unfulfilled (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Because misfits’ time is spent pursuing goals contrary to their ideal self and core values, they are also likely to believe that their work lacks meaning (Kahn, 1990, 1992). As a result, misfits should be less willing to fully engage and invest themselves into their work, causing their job performance to suffer (Kahn, 1990, 1992).

A BUFFERING PERSPECTIVE ON VALUE INCONGRUENCE

Despite the ability of value congruence to fulfill employees’ needs, there are also other sources of potential need fulfillment in an individual’s life that could contribute to well-being, engagement, and quality performance (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Kahn, 1990, 1992; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Indeed, employees proactively engage in all sorts of actions—both within the work domain and outside of it—that present the opportunity to satisfy their basic needs. Thus, the performance implications of misfit may not be as simple and straightforward as traditionally assumed. Instead, to create a more comprehensive understanding of the implications of misfit, we should also take into account these other sources of need fulfillment. In this section, we theorize about the potential buffering role of two forms of proactive behavior—job crafting and leisure activity—that may provide this opportunity for employees.

The satisfaction of needs is subject to the principles of substitution and satiation (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Heine et al., 2006). These principles suggest that (a) if someone’s needs are *not* provided by a particular source, they may be filled by other means, and (b) if a need *is* sufficiently satisfied, other potential sources should offer diminishing returns.

¹ That issue would be captured more clearly in what is referred to as “needs–supplies fit,” which could be used as an indicator of whether the amount of money needed by the employee is actually provided by the organization.

Baumeister (2012) illustrated this process through the idea of hunger. He suggested that, although hunger could be brought on by thoughts of a hamburger, this need could just as easily be satisfied with a sandwich or plate of spaghetti and not necessarily a hamburger. In addition, this sandwich would likely be less satisfying to a person who has just consumed a large meal than to one who has not eaten in several hours.

Applied to the current context, this theorizing suggests that other sources of need satisfaction—such as job crafting (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010; Rich et al., 2010) and leisure activity (Clary et al., 1998; Gowen et al., 1999)—may serve as a substitute for the needs lacking due to value incongruence. These activities, however, should be less relevant to employees who have achieved a better fit with the values of their organizations because their needs are already fulfilled to a greater extent (i.e., satiated). In the following sections, we describe how the proactive nature of job crafting and leisure activity can fulfill employees' basic needs and, thus, may buffer the de-motivational consequences of misfit on job performance.

Job Crafting as a Buffer of Misfit

The goal of job crafting is to change the parameters of one's job to suit personal needs, preferences, and abilities (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013). Wrzesniewski and her colleagues have stressed that any employee, even those without formal discretion over their role, can craft their job in significant ways (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Wrzesniewski et al., 2013). Job crafting occurs in two general forms: changes to either (or both) the design of one's job and the social environment at work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Changes in job design include introducing new approaches to help improve one's work, adding preferred tasks or minimizing unenjoyable tasks, and changing standard procedures of the job (e.g., Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009). Such changes can satisfy employees' core needs. For example, changes to the job can enhance meaning an employee obtains from their job, allow them to feel more competent at their job, or provide them with more autonomy in their job (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Kahn, 1990, 1992).

Crafting the social environment at work includes changes to the quality or amount of interactions with others or altering the nature of relationships in ways that change one's job (Leana et al., 2009; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In particular, job crafting can offer

employees the opportunity to increase interactions with and create stronger connections to colleagues or clients whom they prefer, and minimize (or avoid) interactions that they expect to be unpleasant. Crafting the social environment in these ways can provide employees with more supportive and rewarding interactions, as well as higher-quality group dynamics—offering fulfillment for employees in terms of, for example, meaning and belonging (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Berg et al., 2010; Kahn, 1990).

By substituting for needs unsatisfied due to value incongruence in these ways, job crafting should buffer the motivational consequences of misfit on job performance. According to Kahn's (1990, 1992) theorizing, the situations that result from job crafting—where task characteristics and the social environment are tailored to the employee's own preferences—set the stage for greater job engagement. In particular, crafting one's job to better fulfill needs such as meaning, autonomy, and competence enhances employees' beliefs that they will personally benefit from investing themselves in their work—something that Kahn (1990) considered a psychological condition necessary for greater engagement. Furthermore, environments characterized with high-quality work interactions and relationships should provide employees with a sense of safety and belonging—wherein they feel that they can display their true self to others—which also fosters job engagement (Kahn, 1990). Thus, we expect that job crafting will help satisfy needs for misfits, thereby mitigating the otherwise negative impact of value incongruence on job engagement. On the other end of the spectrum—where employees experience greater value congruence—we expect that job crafting will have relatively little impact, as the needs of these employees are presumably met due to being a good fit.

Hypothesis 1. The negative effect of value incongruence on job engagement will be weaker when job crafting is high than when it is low.

Through this impact on employee engagement, job crafting should also buffer the negative implications of value incongruence for job performance, both in terms of task performance and citizenship behavior. *Task performance* refers to in-role behaviors that are directly related to a job's core tasks (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Engaged employees should exhibit stronger task performance because they work harder and for longer periods of time, pay more attention to their tasks, and emotionally connect to their role (Kahn, 1990; 1992; Rich et al., 2010). *Citizenship behavior* refers to discretionary behaviors

that, although not directly related to the core tasks of one's job, also contribute to an organization's effective functioning (Organ, 1988). In Kahn's (1990) theorizing about the role of engagement, he proposed that engaged employees would have a broader concept of their work role. In this way, engagement has been considered to be an indicator of an employee's willingness to go beyond their formal job descriptions and act in ways that help their employer (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Rich et al., 2010). In particular, we consider the impact of engagement on what Williams and Anderson (1991) termed citizenship behaviors directed at the organization, given that this focus matches the organizational target of value incongruence (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007). These behaviors include employee actions such as speaking up to improve organizational functioning and looking out for the company's best interests.

Given the proposed buffering effect of job crafting on job engagement, we argue that job crafting should ultimately influence the indirect relationship between value incongruence and job performance. By substituting for value incongruence, job crafting may buffer employees from the otherwise negative impact on employees' job performance through their engagement (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Kahn, 1990, 1992; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Despite a lack of fit for these individuals, they may be able to remain engaged and productive in their jobs because they have found alternative sources that are fulfilling and provide the necessary physiological resources to do so.

Hypothesis 2. The negative indirect effect of value incongruence on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior (via job engagement) will be weaker when job crafting is high than when it is low.

Leisure Activity as a Buffer of Misfit

An alternative option to buffer the negative consequences of misfit may lie outside of the workplace. Researchers are increasingly acknowledging that nonwork activities play a significant role in work experiences (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Latack and Havlovic (1992) speculated that leisure activity—such as personal hobbies, exercise and sports, and community involvement—could provide employees with an opportunity to deal with negative situations at work (see also Gowen et al., 1999). Because people have considerable

freedom to choose the type of leisure activities to pursue, such activities present a unique opportunity for people to fulfill their needs and desires. The inherent discretion over leisure activity can provide individuals with a sense of autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In addition, people may choose hobbies (such as playing a musical instrument in a band) so that they can master something and demonstrate their competence, as well as to socialize and satisfy belongingness needs (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). There is also evidence that community involvement provides employees with greater meaning and connections to others (Clary et al., 1998; Geroy, Wright, & Jacoby, 2000).

By offering this sense of fulfillment, leisure activity may serve as a substitute for value incongruence (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). In its most traditional sense, motivation theorizing may imply that this process would foster greater involvement in that particular leisure activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Kahn, 1990, 1992; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Incorporating ideas from the work/nonwork literature, however, presents the possibility that leisure activity may also have motivational implications for the workplace. General theorizing about nonwork activities (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), as well as more specific research on leisure activities, suggest that leisure activities can serve as a substitute for unmet needs in the workplace (e.g., Grant, 2012; Heine et al., 2006; Tinsley & Eldredge, 1995; Tinsley, Hinson, Tinsley, & Holt, 1993).

Using Kahn's (1990) terminology to describe this process, it is possible that leisure activity creates a sense of "psychological availability" for job engagement. Kahn (1990, 1992) theorized that a state of psychological availability exists when employees have the physical, emotional, and physiological resources necessary to engage in their jobs. Although Kahn (1990) admitted that life outside of work—such as leisure activity—could sometimes divert energy that could otherwise be devoted to work, he also theorized that such activity has the potential to increase energy and availability for work. Theorizing about the synchronization of work and nonwork domains echoes this suggestion—that nonwork activities can spill over to work and compensate for deficiencies that people experience at work (Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; see also Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Scholars have found that leisure activity creates positive emotional states that extend into the workplace (Hecht & Boies, 2009; Hills & Argyle, 1998). Moreover, there is evidence that various forms of leisure activity serve as a form

of recovery for employees—renewing their energy supply and enabling them to remain focused at work (Sonnetag, 2003; Sonnetag, Mojza, Demerouti, & Bakker, 2012; Trougakos, Beal, Green, & Weiss, 2008).

Ultimately, then, we expect that leisure activity may compensate for needs unsatisfied from value incongruence—acting as a buffer from the otherwise detrimental effects on job engagement and performance that befall misfits (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Kahn, 1990, 1992). Moreover, as was the case with job crafting, the principle of satiation should also be applicable to leisure activity. For employees with greater value congruence, leisure activity will be less relevant and impactful because the needs of these employees are already satisfied to a greater extent (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).

Hypothesis 3. The negative effect of value incongruence on job engagement will be weaker when leisure activity is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 4. The negative indirect effect of value incongruence on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior (via job engagement) will be weaker when leisure activity is high than when it is low.

METHOD

Participants and Procedures

Our study design included three time points and two sources. To achieve sufficient variance on both individual and organizational values, we recruited participants through online classified advertisements, similar to other studies in top management journals (e.g., Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014; Judge, Simon, Hurst, & Kelley, 2013; Rodell & Judge, 2009). To qualify for our study, participants had to be at least 18 years old, work full-time (at least 35 hours per week), and provide the name, email address, and mailing address for a supervisor who could complete one survey on their behalf. Upon responding to the advertisement, participants received their first survey (time 1), which measured value congruence, job crafting, and leisure activity, as well as general personality and demographics. Three weeks later, we emailed participants the second survey (time 2), which measured job engagement. Three weeks after the second survey, we emailed supervisors their survey (time 3), which included measures of the participants' job performance (task performance and citizenship behavior).

Several steps were taken to ensure the legitimacy of supervisors. For example, we removed potential participants who either provided their own name and/or email address instead of a supervisor's name and/or email address, or "suspicious" email addresses (i.e., it was clearly the participant's personal address). Further, we carefully checked whether participants' and supervisors' physical mailing addresses were identical; when they were, we contacted the participant directly to determine whether there was a legitimate explanation (e.g., both were the physical address of the organization). We also inspected email and physical addresses for participants attempting to complete the study more than once. For their time, participants received \$5, and both participants and supervisors were entered into a draw for \$500.

Initially, 404 participants expressed interest in the study by completing the first survey. Of these, 302 completed the second survey, and 206 supervisors responded to their survey. To bolster response rates, we sent up to four reminders to participants and/or their supervisors. After matching responses and addressing missing data and outliers, the final dataset included 193 respondents, representing a 47.8% participation rate. Of the participants, 55.0% were female, 61.5% were Caucasian, the average age was 34.96 years ($SD = 10.49$), and the average organizational tenure was 5.65 years ($SD = 4.73$). Of the supervisors, 46.1% were female, 64.1% were Caucasian, the average age was 41.85 years ($SD = 11.49$), and the average organizational tenure was 8.94 years ($SD = 6.23$). The sample represented many industries; the four most common were finance and banking, information technology, education, and health care.

Measures

Value incongruence. Value incongruence was measured using the 24 items of the Work Values Survey from Cable and Edwards (2004). The Work Values Survey is based on the circumplex model of human values developed by Schwartz (1992) and is designed to assess eight core individual and organizational work values: altruism, relationships, pay, security, authority, prestige, variety, and autonomy. Following Cable and Edwards (2004), participants in our study assessed both their personal values—by answering the question "How important is this to you?"—and their organization's values—by answering the question "How important is this to your company?"—with respect to each of the 24 items (3 items for each work value). Participants used a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Not at all important*) to

5 (*Extremely important*). Coefficient alphas for individuals' values ranged from .80 to .91; for the organizations' values, they ranged from .83 to .93.

Not all values are equally important to each employee, and employees likely do not prioritize the same values as one another (Rokeach, 1973). The extent to which a particular value is relevant to an individual's job attitudes and behaviors (such as engagement and performance) is likely dependent on the relative importance of that value to that person. Indeed, researchers have acknowledged that misfit is likely to be more detrimental when it occurs with more strongly held values (Edwards, 1992; Edwards, 1996; Locke, 1976). Thus, we could reasonably expect that the value considered most important to an individual plays the most significant role in explaining job attitudes and behaviors, and that there would be diminishing explanatory power from the values deemed less important. Because this study centers around the potential outcomes of value incongruence—and not on the differences between value congruence for the eight values—we focused our analyses on the most important value to each participant.

To determine the most important value, we asked each participant to rank order the eight core values. Participants were provided with definitions of these values that were drawn from the organizational literature (e.g., "Altruism: doing things to help others without payment or material reinforcement") and ranked the relative importance of each dimension from 1 (*Most important*) to 8 (*Least important*). Rather than simply using the highest-rated value for each participant, which could result in equal ratings for multiple values, asking participants to rank order the values allowed us to most clearly determine the one value considered most important to each individual. Indeed, in 71.5% of the cases, the rank ordering approach was necessary to determine the individual's most important value. Value incongruence was operationalized using the three items representing the rating for the individual and organization on the particular value ranked as most important to the individual.

Job crafting. Job crafting was measured with Leana et al.'s (2009) 4-item measure. On a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Almost never*) to 5 (*Very often*), participants were asked to rate how often they engaged in each of the listed behaviors. Sample items included "Introduce new approaches to improve my work" and "Change minor work procedures that I think are not productive." The coefficient α was .83.

Leisure activity. Participants were shown a list of common leisure activities (e.g., exercising, entertainment, other hobbies) and asked to rate their agreement with each of 7 items adapted from Gowen et al.'s (1999) measure of leisure involvement, using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). Sample items included "I do these activities quite frequently" and "I devote a lot of my time to these activities." The coefficient α was .93.

We conducted supplementary analyses to support the positioning of job crafting and leisure activity as proactive behaviors—initiatives that people take to influence themselves and/or their environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Following Hinkin and Tracey's (1999) recommendations for assessing content validity, we surveyed 148 individuals about the extent to which various survey items—for job crafting, leisure activity, and a direct measure of proactive behavior (Sonnetag, 2003)—reflected the definition of proactive behavior provided above (on a scale of 1 = *Extremely bad match* to 7 = *Extremely good match*). The mean ratings for job crafting and leisure activity items were on the high end of this scale (5.25 and 4.82, respectively). Indeed, the mean ratings for these behaviors were in the same general position on the response scale as the means for the direct proactive behavior items (5.54), though the difference was statistically significant. Moreover, when rated for frequency on their typical Likert scales, job crafting and leisure activity were moderately correlated with proactive behavior (.46 and .34, respectively). Combined, these results suggest that, although our measures of job crafting and leisure activity are not redundant with proactive behavior, these behaviors could be placed under a "proactivity" umbrella.

Job engagement. Participants rated their job engagement with Schaufeli and Bakker's (2003) 9-item measure, using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*Almost never*) to 5 (*Very often*). Sample items included "At work, I feel bursting with energy" and "I am immersed in my work." The coefficient α was .93.

Task performance. Supervisors rated participants' task performance on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (*Unsatisfactory*) to 5 (*Outstanding*), on the six dimensions (e.g., "Dependability," "Know-how and judgment") from Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982). The coefficient α was .92.

Citizenship behavior. Citizenship behavior was measured with 8 items from Lee and Allen (2002) that capture citizenship behavior targeted at the organization. The 5-point scale ranged from 1 (*Almost never*) to 5 (*Very often*). Example items included "Attends

functions that are not required but that help the company's image" and "Offers ideas to improve the functioning of the company." The coefficient α was .93.

Analytical Strategy

The overall hypothesized model includes the indirect effect of the incongruence of two variables (*Individual's values* and *Organization's values*) moderated by a third variable (either *Job crafting* or *Leisure activity*). Because there was not precedent for this type of analysis in the literature, we derived equations for conditional indirect effects of a congruence effect by integrating procedures for polynomial regression (Edwards & Parry, 1993) and moderated mediation (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). These equations, along with computations for evaluating the slope and curvature of the moderated direct and indirect effects, are presented in Appendix A.

Our hypotheses—that negative effects of value incongruence will be tempered by job crafting or leisure activity—suggest that the shape of the surface along the line of incongruence will be different at high versus low levels of the moderators. To provide more context for interpreting our results, we have included a figure that represents our expectations (see Figure 2). The line of incongruence (indicated by a dashed line) exists along the floor of the graph, from the point where individual values are low and organizational values are high to the point where individual values are high and organizational values are low. When the moderator is low, we expect that the slope of the surface along the line of incongruence will not be significantly different than 0 (i.e., no differences between misfits whose values are greater than those of the organization and misfits whose values are less than those of the organization) and the curvature of the surface will be significant and negative (i.e., a concave surface). In contrast, when the moderator is high, we expect that both the slope and curvature of the surface along the line of incongruence will be not significantly different than 0, indicating a flat surface.²

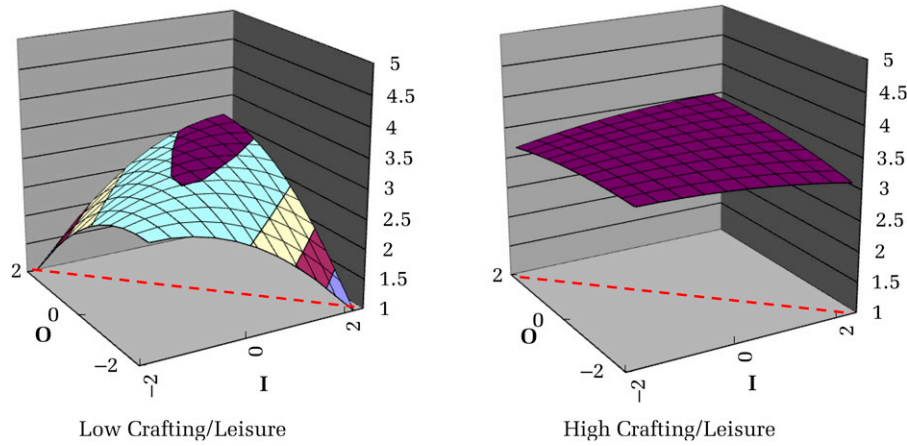
² Our hypotheses did not involve effects for employees who have low congruence (i.e., where individual and organizational values are both low) versus those who have high congruence (i.e., where individual and organizational values are both high); thus, we did not focus analyses on the shape of the surface along the line of congruence. However, an anonymous reviewer pointed out that our data and analyses contained information that would allow us to examine congruence effects; these post-hoc analyses are presented at the end of the results section.

We followed other procedures outlined by researchers who have employed either the polynomial regression or moderated mediation methodologies in a path analytic framework (e.g., Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Further, because product terms can produce Type I errors due to non-normal distributions (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), we produced bias-corrected confidence intervals from 1,000 bootstrapped estimates for all parameter estimates (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Finally, we investigated the influence of several control variables that might offer alternative explanations for the effects of our model. Our results did not significantly change while controlling for respondents' perceptions of person–job fit, respondents' proactive personality, respondents' organizational tenure, the industry in which the respondent worked, or a set of dummy-coded variables representing the specific value cited as most important by each respondent. Thus, following recent advice about the superfluous inclusion of control variables (Becker, 2005; Carlson & Wu, 2012), we did not include any of these control variables in our final model.

RESULTS

The means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations among the variables are presented in Table 1. Because of strong correlations between the moderators and between the dependent variables, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) separately on these measures. Results of the CFA on the moderators showed that the two-factor model in which job crafting and leisure activity were kept separate was a better fit to the data ($\chi^2(43) = 122.07, p < .001$; comparative fit index (CFI) = .94; root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .10; standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = .037) than the one-factor model ($\chi^2(44) = 359.34, p < .001$; CFI = .76; RMSEA = .19, SRMR = .124; $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 237.27, p < .001$). Results of the CFA for the dependent variables showed that the two-factor model in which task performance and citizenship behavior were kept separate was a better fit to the data ($\chi^2(76) = 272.26, p < .001$; CFI = .90; RMSEA = .12; SRMR = .042) than the one-factor model ($\chi^2(77) = 528.39, p < .001$; CFI = .78; RMSEA = .17, SRMR = .08; $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 256.13, p < .001$). Further probing of these results using exploratory structural equation modeling (see Marsh et al., 2009, for in-depth rationale for and explanation of this technique) indicated that model fit did not significantly improve through allowing individual items to

FIGURE 2
Hypothesized Surface Plots^a



^a *I* = Individual's Values; *O* = Organization's Values. The line of incongruence is depicted with the dotted line along the floor of the graph.

load onto multiple factors. Together, these results support the distinctiveness of our measures.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 focused on the interactive effects of value incongruence and job crafting. Table 2 shows the path analytic results for the equations including job crafting in predicting job engagement, task performance, and citizenship behavior. Hypothesis 1 predicted that job crafting would interact with value incongruence in predicting job engagement, such that the negative effects would be weaker when job crafting was high. The significant *F*-statistic ($F = 3.44$) of Step 2 of this equation indicates that job crafting significantly interacted with value incongruence in predicting job engagement.

The slope and curvature of the surface along the line of value incongruence at high and low levels of the moderator were computed by substituting values one standard deviation above and below the mean of job crafting (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) into

Equation 5 (see Appendix A). As shown in Table 3 and illustrated in Figure 3, at low job crafting, the slope of the surface along the line of value incongruence was not significantly different than 0 ($q_{\text{slope}} = .25$, 90% CI $[-.30, .74]$); this result indicates that there is not a directional effect—there is no significant difference in engagement between misfits whose personal values were greater than organizational values compared to misfits whose personal values were lesser than organizational values. The curvature of the surface along the line of value incongruence was significant and negative ($q_{\text{curvature}} = -.39$, 90% CI $[-.70, -.12]$), indicating a concave surface. The negative curvature suggests that job engagement decreased as employee values diverged from organizational values. In contrast, at high job crafting, both the slope and curvature of the surface along the line of value incongruence were not significantly different than 0 ($q_{\text{slope}} = .10$, 90% CI

TABLE 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Study Variables^a

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Individual's values	4.37	0.71	—						
2. Organization's values	3.48	1.07	.16*	—					
3. Job crafting	3.60	0.76	.22*	.34*	—				
4. Leisure activity	3.89	0.72	.23*	.26*	.40*	—			
5. Job engagement	3.50	0.78	.10	.39*	.40*	.42*	—		
6. Task performance	4.33	0.63	.32*	.09	.24*	.29*	.32*	—	
7. Citizenship behavior	4.05	0.70	.27*	.30*	.30*	.28*	.48*	.69*	—

^a $n = 193$.
* $p < .05$

TABLE 2
Path Analytic Results from the Estimated Model including Job Crafting^a

Variables	Job Engagement				Task Performance		Citizenship Behavior	
	Step 1		Step 2		b	SE	b	SE
	b	SE	b	SE				
Individual's values (<i>I</i>)	.14	.25	.22	.33	.40	.30	.14	.28
Organization's values (<i>O</i>)	.01	.13	.04	.16	-.19	.14	.01	.17
<i>I</i> ²	-.08	.11	-.11	.14	-.09	.12	.02	.12
<i>I</i> × <i>O</i>	.14*	.08	.09	.10	.05	.08	.02	.10
<i>O</i> ²	-.04	.04	-.05	.05	.11*	.03	.07*	.04
Job crafting (<i>JC</i>)	.31*	.08	.26	.20	-.02	.20	.05	.16
<i>I</i> × <i>JC</i>			-.26	.35	.09	.35	.32	.29
<i>O</i> × <i>JC</i>			-.17	.23	-.08	.21	-.30	.23
<i>I</i> ² × <i>JC</i>			.06	.17	-.03	.15	-.14	.14
<i>I</i> × <i>O</i> × <i>JC</i>			.07	.13	-.01	.11	.16	.13
<i>O</i> ² × <i>JC</i>			.19*	.07	.03	.04	-.06	.06
Job engagement					.24*	.07	.39*	.06
<i>F</i> -statistic				3.44*		14.87*		34.30*
ΔR^2				.07*		.06*		.13*
<i>R</i> ²		.25*		.31*		.25*		.32*

^a *n* = 193. Standard errors produced from 1,000 bootstrapped estimates. *F*-statistic and ΔR^2 for task performance and citizenship behavior are based on the change in variance explained compared to the model excluding job engagement.

* *p* < .05, one-tailed

[-1.06, 1.13]; $q_{\text{curvature}} = -.12$, 90% CI [-.67, .47]), indicating a flat surface. In other words, when job crafting was high, value incongruence did not significantly relate to job engagement.

Combined, this specific pattern of results supports Hypothesis 1. It suggests that misfits with lower levels of job crafting are more likely to suffer the negative effects of value incongruence on job engagement, but misfits with higher levels of job crafting were buffered against the negative effects of value incongruence on job engagement.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the indirect effects of value incongruence on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior would be moderated by job crafting, such that the negative indirect effects would be weaker when job crafting was high. To determine whether the effects of value incongruence carried through to supervisor-rated job performance, the effects of job engagement on task performance and citizenship behavior were estimated while controlling for the effects of the first stage of the model (i.e., the terms representing value incongruence, job

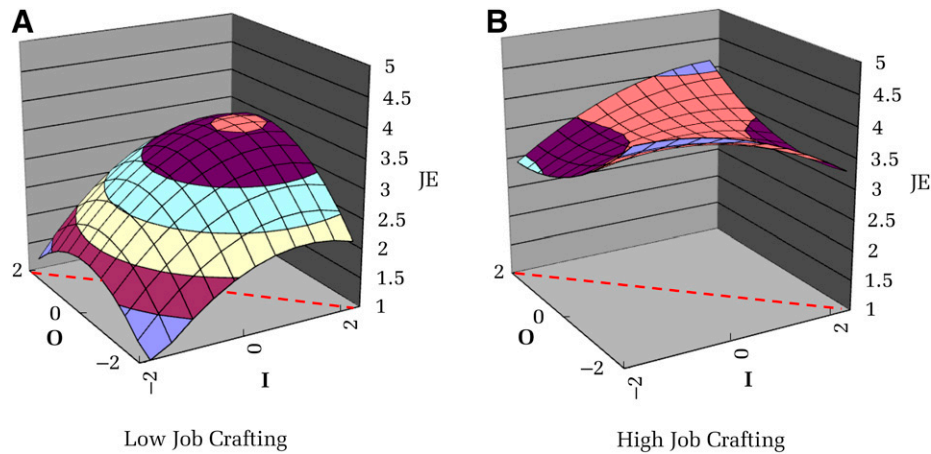
TABLE 3
Tests of Response Surfaces along Line of Incongruence at High and Low Levels of Job Crafting^a

Dependent Variable	Level of Job Crafting	Slope of Surface		Curvature of Surface	
		<i>q</i> _{slope}	90% CI	<i>q</i> _{curvature}	90% CI
Job engagement	Low	.25	[-.30, .74]	-.39*	[-.70, -.12]
	High	.10	[-1.06, 1.13]	-.12	[-.67, .47]
Task performance	Low	.06	[-.06, .20]	-.10*	[-.21, -.03]
	High	.03	[-.25, .28]	-.03	[-.18, .11]
Citizenship behavior	Low	.10	[-.11, .29]	-.15*	[-.30, -.05]
	High	.04	[-.41, .43]	-.05	[-.27, .17]

^a *n* = 193. 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals produced from 1,000 bootstrapped estimates. *q*_{slope} represents the slope of the surface along the line of incongruence (where individual values and organizational values differ); *q*_{curvature} represents the curvature of the surface along the line of incongruence. Values for task performance and citizenship behavior represent the slope and curvature of the indirect effect of value incongruence (via job engagement).

* *p* < .05, one-tailed

FIGURE 3
Relationship between Value Incongruence and Job Engagement at High and Low Levels of Job Crafting^a



^a I = Individual's Values; O = Organization's Values; JE = Job Engagement. The line of incongruence is depicted with the dotted line along the floor of the graph.

crafting, and their interaction). Referring back to Table 2, job engagement was seen to have significant positive effects on task performance ($b = .24$) and citizenship behavior ($b = .39$). Following procedures outlined above, the slope and curvature of the indirect effect of value incongruence on task performance along the line of incongruence were computed at high and low levels of job crafting. As shown in Table 3 and illustrated in Figure 4a, when job crafting was low, the surface of the indirect effect along the line of incongruence was concave, as evidenced by a non-significant slope ($q_{\text{slope}} = .06$, 90% CI $[-.06, .20]$) and a significant and negative curvature ($q_{\text{curvature}} = -.10$, 90% CI $[-.21, -.03]$). This suggests that, as individual and organizational values diverged (i.e., as value incongruence increased), task performance decreased. In contrast, when job crafting was high, the surface of the indirect effect was flat, as evidenced by a non-significant slope ($q_{\text{slope}} = .03$, 90% CI $[-.25, .28]$) and non-significant curvature ($q_{\text{curvature}} = -.03$, 90% CI $[-.18, .11]$). This suggests that value incongruence did not have indirect effects on task performance when job crafting was high.

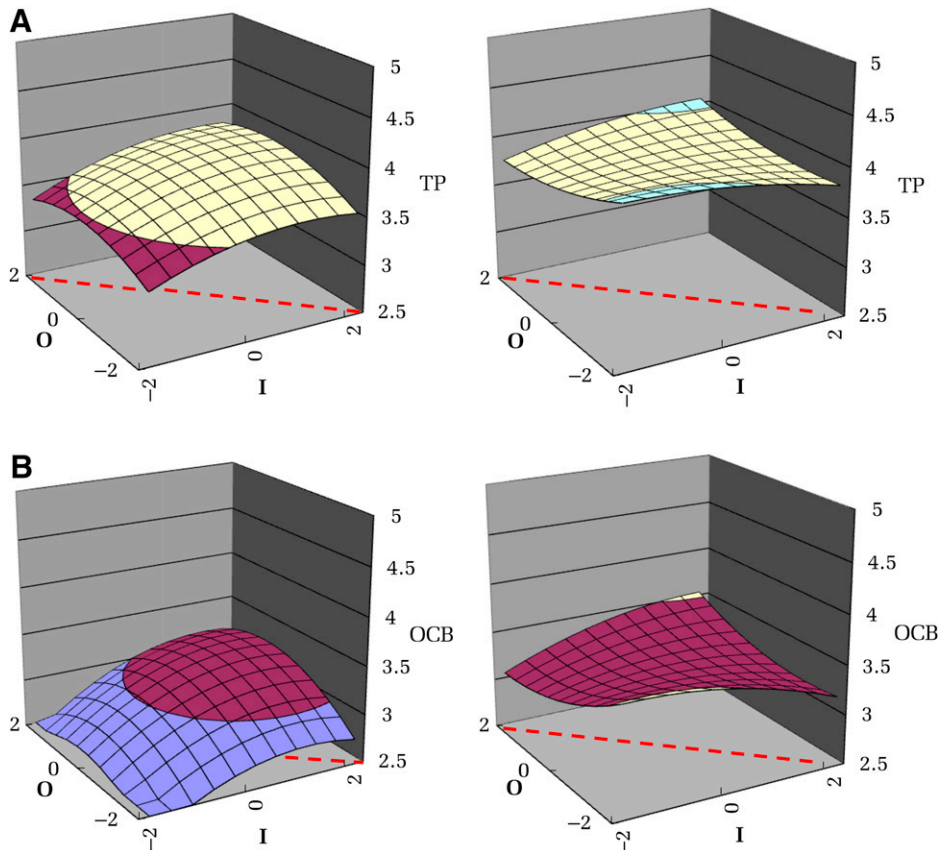
Similarly, we evaluated the slope and curvature of the indirect effect of value incongruence on citizenship behavior. Table 3 and Figure 4b show that, when job crafting was low, the indirect effect had a non-significant slope ($q_{\text{slope}} = .10$, 90% CI $[-.11, .29]$) and significant and negative curvature ($q_{\text{curvature}} = -.15$, 90% CI $[-.30, -.05]$), which suggests a concave surface along the line of incongruence. When job crafting was high, both the slope ($q_{\text{slope}} = .04$, 90% CI $[-.41, .43]$) and curvature ($q_{\text{curvature}} = -.05$, 90% CI

$[-.27, .17]$) of the indirect effect were not significant, indicating a flat surface. Together, these results provide full support for Hypotheses 2(a) and 2(b) and suggest that high job crafting buffers misfits against the negative indirect effects of value incongruence on performance (via job engagement).

Hypotheses 3 and 4 focused on the interactive effects of value incongruence and leisure activity. Table 4 shows the path analytic results for the equations including leisure activity. Hypothesis 3 predicted that leisure activity would interact with value incongruence in predicting job engagement, such that the negative effects would be weaker when leisure activity was high. The significant F -statistic ($F = 2.39$) of Step 2 of this equation indicates that leisure activity significantly interacted with value incongruence in predicting job engagement.

As shown in Table 5, when leisure activity was low, the surface along the line of value incongruence was consistent with our predictions. It had a non-significant slope ($q_{\text{slope}} = .31$, 90% CI $[-.20, .86]$), indicating there were not significant differences in engagement between misfits whose personal values were greater than organizational values and misfits whose personal values were lesser than organizational values. The surface had a significant and negative curvature ($q_{\text{curvature}} = -.32$, 90% CI $[-.62, -.07]$), indicating a concave surface. Thus, as shown in Figure 5, below, when leisure activity was low, job engagement decreased as individual values diverged from organizational values (i.e., as value incongruence increased). In contrast, when leisure activity was high, the negative effect of value incongruence was mitigated.

FIGURE 4
Indirect Effect of Value Incongruence on (a) Task Performance and (b) Citizenship Behavior (via Job Engagement) at High and Low Levels of Job Crafting^a



^a *I* = Individual's Values; *O* = Organization's Values; *TP* = Task Performance; *OCB* = Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The line of incongruence is depicted with the dotted line along the floor of the graph. Graphs for low job crafting are depicted on the left side of the figure; high job crafting is represented on the right side.

The shape of the surface along the line of incongruence showed a significant slope ($q_{\text{slope}} = -.90$, 90% CI $[-2.09, -.00]$) and non-significant curvature ($q_{\text{curvature}} = .30$, 90% CI $[-.17, .87]$). These results (shown in Figure 5) support Hypothesis 3 that misfits with lower levels of leisure activity are more likely to suffer the negative effects of value incongruence on job engagement, but misfits with higher levels of leisure activity were buffered against these negative effects. Although not hypothesized, the pattern of results further suggests that leisure activity not only mitigates the negative effect of value incongruence on job engagement, but also positively impacts job engagement for misfits whose individual values are lower than the organization's values.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the indirect effects of value incongruence on (a) task performance and (b) citizenship behavior would be moderated by leisure

activity, such that the negative indirect effect would be weaker when leisure activity was high. Referring back to Table 4, job engagement had significant positive effects on task performance ($b = .21$) and citizenship behavior ($b = .36$). As shown in Table 5 and illustrated in Figure 6a, when leisure activity was low, the surface along the line of incongruence was consistent with our predictions. The slope of the surface was not significantly different than 0 ($q_{\text{slope}} = .07$, 90% CI $[-.02, .23]$, and its curvature was significant and negative (i.e., concave; $q_{\text{curvature}} = -.07$, 90% CI $[-.16, -.01]$). When leisure activity was high, the negative effect of value incongruence was mitigated. The indirect effect along the line of incongruence was sloped negatively ($q_{\text{slope}} = -.19$, 90% CI $[-.55, -.01]$), decreasing from low individual values/high organization values to high individual values/low organizational values, and its

TABLE 4
Path Analytic Results from the Estimated Model including Leisure Activity^a

Variables	Job Engagement				Task Performance		Citizenship Behavior	
	Step 1		Step 2		b	SE	b	SE
	b	SE	b	SE				
Individual's values (<i>I</i>)	.03	.27	-.03	.30	.19	.26	-.04	.22
Organization's values (<i>O</i>)	.12	.15	.26	.16	-.10	.12	.08	.14
<i>I</i> ²	-.03	.12	-.00	.13	-.02	.11	.10	.10
<i>I</i> × <i>O</i>	.07	.08	-.03	.10	.01	.07	-.03	.09
<i>O</i> ²	-.03	.04	-.04	.05	.09*	.03	.06	.04
Leisure activity (<i>LA</i>)	.36*	.08	.48*	.17	.31	.20	.10	.18
<i>I</i> × <i>LA</i>			-.89*	.35	-.40	.32	-.26	.33
<i>O</i> × <i>LA</i>			-.05	.22	.06	.20	-.10	.25
<i>I</i> ² × <i>LA</i>			.40*	.16	.15	.14	.14	.16
<i>I</i> × <i>O</i> × <i>LA</i>			.06	.12	-.01	.11	.05	.14
<i>O</i> ² × <i>LA</i>			.09	.06	-.02	.03	-.03	.04
Job engagement					.21*	.07	.36*	.06
<i>F</i> -statistic				2.39*		11.02*		28.78*
ΔR^2				.05*		.05*		.11*
<i>R</i> ²		.27*		.31*		.27*		.31*

^a *n* = 193. Standard errors produced from 1,000 bootstrapped estimates. *F*-statistic and ΔR^2 for task performance and citizenship behavior are based on the change in variance explained compared to the model excluding job engagement.

* *p* < .05, one-tailed

curvature was not significant ($q_{\text{curvature}} = .06$, 90% CI [-.03, .22]). This suggests that high leisure activity buffered the indirect effect of value incongruence on task performance for misfits.

Similarly, we evaluated the slope and curvature of the indirect effect of value incongruence on citizenship behavior. Table 5 shows that, when leisure activity was low, the shape of the surface along the line of incongruence was consistent with our predictions: the slope of the indirect effect was not significant ($q_{\text{slope}} = .11$, 90% CI [-.06, .34]) and the

curvature was significant and negative ($q_{\text{curvature}} = -.11$, 90% CI [-.24, -.02]). Thus, as shown in Figure 6b, when leisure activity was low, citizenship behavior decreased as individual and organizational values diverged. In contrast, when leisure activity was high, the effect of value incongruence was mitigated. Similar to the effect for task performance, the slope of the indirect effect along the line of incongruence was significant and negative ($q_{\text{slope}} = -.32$, 90% CI [-.82, -.01]) and the curvature was not significant ($q_{\text{curvature}} = .11$, 90% CI [-.06, .35]).

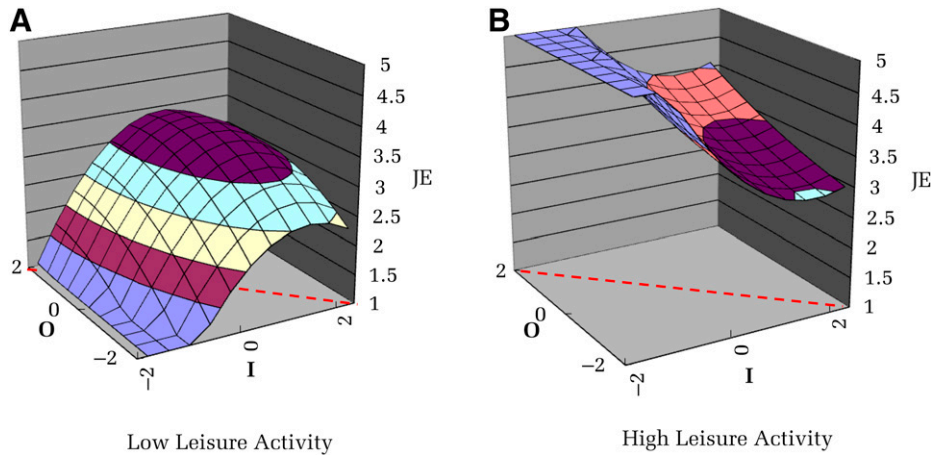
TABLE 5
Tests of Response Surfaces along Line of Incongruence at High and Low Levels of Leisure Activity^a

Dependent Variable	Level of Leisure Activity	Slope of Surface		Curvature of Surface	
		<i>q</i> _{slope}	90% CI	<i>q</i> _{curvature}	90% CI
Job engagement	Low	.31	[-.20, .86]	-.32*	[-.62, -.07]
	High	-.90*	[-2.09, -.00]	.30	[-.17, .87]
Task performance	Low	.07	[-.02, .23]	-.07*	[-.16, -.01]
	High	-.19*	[-.55, -.01]	.06	[-.03, .22]
Citizenship behavior	Low	.11	[-.06, .34]	-.11*	[-.24, -.02]
	High	-.32*	[-.82, -.01]	.11	[-.06, .35]

^a *n* = 193. 90% bias-corrected confidence intervals produced from 1,000 bootstrapped estimates. *q*_{slope} represents the slope of the surface along the line of incongruence (where individual values and organizational values differ); *q*_{curvature} represents the curvature of the surface along the line of incongruence. Values for task performance and citizenship behavior represent the slope and curvature of the indirect effect of value incongruence (via job engagement).

* *p* < .05, one-tailed

FIGURE 5
Relationship between Value Incongruence and Job Engagement at High and Low Levels of Leisure Activity^a



^a I = Individual's Values; O = Organization's Values; JE = Job Engagement. The line of incongruence is depicted with the dotted line along the floor of the graph.

Together, these results provide support for Hypotheses 4(a) and 4(b) and suggest that high leisure activity buffers misfits against the negative indirect effects of value incongruence on performance (via job engagement).

Post-Hoc Analyses and Robustness Checks

We conducted analyses to examine our assumption that incongruence on an individual's most important value is more predictive of the outcomes than is incongruence on values ranked lower. First, we ran our hypothesized model that simultaneously included terms for both the most important and second-highest ranked value. The change in explained variance was not significant when the terms for the second-highest ranked value were added. Further, the results for the most important value were significant and consistent with those reported above. This pattern of results suggests that (in) congruence on the most important value does indeed best explain variance in the outcome variables.

Next, we examined several ways of including information about the specific values (e.g., altruism, pay, prestige) in the analyses. For example, we ran analyses controlling for the specific value ranked highest by each participant (coded into seven dummy-coded variables). The pattern of results was essentially identical to the results we report above. Together, these additional results support the idea that analyzing congruence on the top-ranked value

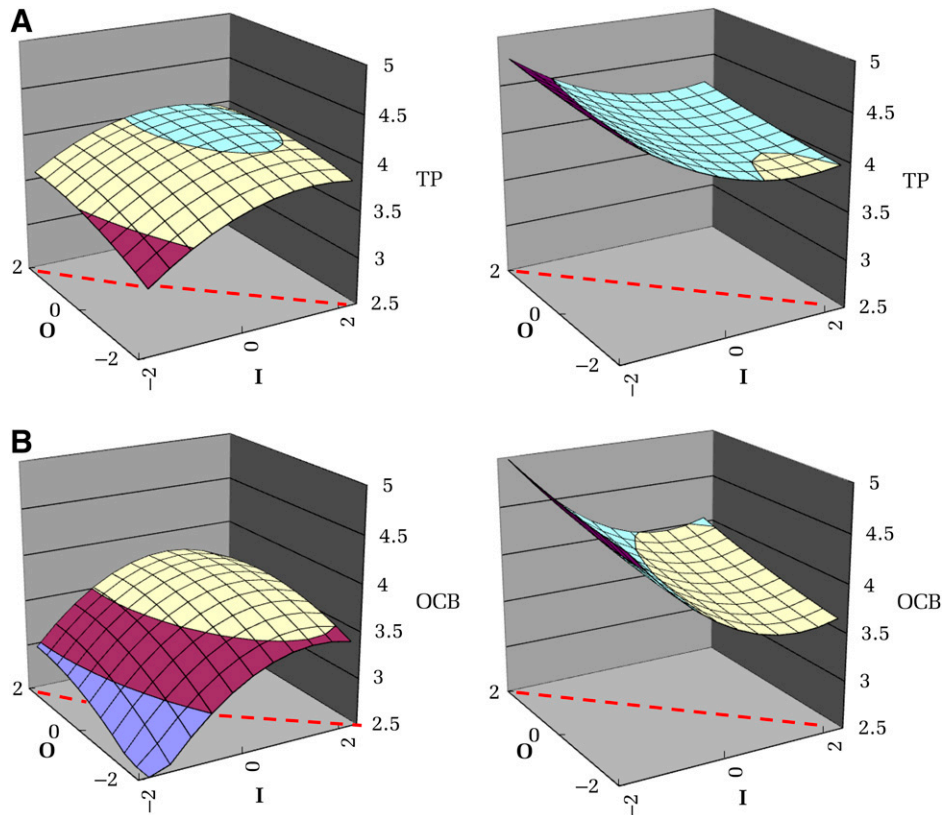
for each respondent is a reasonable and meaningful approach.

Although our research question is focused on the buffering effects of job crafting and leisure activity for misfit (along the line of incongruence), our data and analyses also allow for an investigation of the moderating effects of these variables along the line of *congruence*.³ In other words, we can examine whether these proactive behaviors might also benefit employees with low value congruence (i.e., where individual values and organizational values are both low) compared to employees with high value congruence (i.e., where individual values and organizational values are both high). The experience of low value congruence may leave core needs unsatisfied, compared to high value congruence (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Similar to the experience of misfit as we theorized above, job crafting and leisure activity may buffer the performance consequences of low value congruence by supplementing for those unsatisfied needs.

We adapted the procedures listed in Appendix A to investigate the shape of the surface along the line of congruence. The adapted equations can be obtained by contacting the first author. Referring back to Figure 3, when job crafting was low, the slope of the surface along the line of congruence was significant and positive ($q_{\text{slope}} = .59$, 90% CI [.09, 1.27]), and its curvature was significant and negative (i.e., concave; $q_{\text{curvature}} = -.32$, 90% CI [-.66, -.04]). This suggests

³ We thank an anonymous reviewer for pointing this out.

FIGURE 6
Indirect Effect of Value Incongruence on (a) Task Performance and (b) Citizenship Behavior (via Job Engagement) at High and Low Levels of Leisure Activity^a



^a *I* = Individual's Values; *O* = Organization's Values; *TP* = Task Performance; *OCB* = Organizational Citizenship Behavior. The line of incongruence is depicted with the dotted line along the floor of the graph. Graphs for low leisure activity are depicted on the left side of the figure; high leisure activity is represented on the right side.

that, when job crafting was low, job engagement increases at a decreasing rate as value congruence increases from low to high. When job crafting was high, both the slope and curvature of the shape of the surface along the line of congruence were not significant ($q_{\text{slope}} = -.06$, 90% CI $[-.61, .62]$; $q_{\text{curvature}} = .17$, 90% CI $[-.13, .44]$), indicating that the surface along the line of congruence was flat. These effects did not carry through to task performance or citizenship behavior. Thus, it can be concluded that job crafting provides a buffer on job engagement for those with low value congruence compared to those with high value congruence.

Referring back to Figure 5, when leisure activity was low, the slope of the surface along the line of congruence was significant and positive ($q_{\text{slope}} = .90$, 90% CI $[.37, 1.51]$), and its curvature was significant and negative (i.e., concave; $q_{\text{curvature}} = -.47$, 90% CI $[-.81, -.19]$). This suggests that, when leisure activity was low, job engagement increases at a decreasing

rate as value congruence increases from low to high. When leisure activity was high, the slope of the surface along the line of congruence was not significant ($q_{\text{slope}} = -.45$, 90% CI $[-.95, .36]$) and its curvature was significant and positive ($q_{\text{curvature}} = .33$, 90% CI $[.01, .57]$), indicating a convex surface. Upon examination of the surface, job engagement was greater when value congruence is low or high than when it is at the mean level. These effects did not carry through to task performance but did to citizenship behavior. Thus, it can be concluded that leisure activity provides a buffer on engagement and citizenship behavior for those with low and high value congruence compared to those with mean levels of value congruence.

DISCUSSION

The current economy has created an environment where misfits are prevalent in the workplace.

Unfortunately, a plethora of negative consequences are associated with such value incongruence for these employees, including lower satisfaction, engagement, and job performance (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Rich et al., 2010). From a company's perspective, however, there may be unique benefits to retaining employees with different values and perspectives (Harrison, 2007; Hoever et al., 2012; Schneider, 1987). In order to realize such benefits, it is critical to understand whether and how misfits might be able to mitigate these consequences so they can function more productively in a work environment that does not share their important personal values (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Adopting the view that employees can proactively manage their lives (Grant & Ashford, 2008), our research represents a step toward understanding the types of behaviors—such as job crafting and leisure activity—that may mitigate the negative consequences associated with value incongruence.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

At a global level, this study provides important insights into the work lives of misfits. The vast majority of research in the value congruence literature has focused on one end of the fit–misfit spectrum—on employees who fit well with their organizations (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Yet, the negative consequences associated with value incongruence (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) and the prevalence of misfits in organizations today make it necessary that we also understand the experiences of misfits. By integrating motivational theorizing about need satisfaction to the value congruence literature, we provide rationale for how misfits may compensate for value incongruence and answer the call for increased research attention on misfits (Judge, 2007; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011).

Going a step further, this study offers a host of specific theoretical contributions to the P–E fit and value congruence literatures. First, our results provide novel information relevant to the dominant paradigm of the value congruence literature—ASA (Schneider, 1987). A key assumption of this theory is that misfits are likely to leave their organizations in search of a work environment in which they might better fit. Yet, the reported relationship between value incongruence and turnover is not overly strong (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), suggesting this assumption may be contingent on critical boundary conditions. Indeed, our paper shows that misfits'

behaviors—specifically, their job crafting and leisure activity—can suppress the otherwise negative effects of value incongruence on their job engagement and performance. In this way, our research highlights the possibility that misfits can be proactive “co-creators” of their work environment, whereby they combat the downsides of their situation and create better work experiences for themselves. Thus, our study adds nuance to Schneider's (1987) famous proposition, suggesting that some people make their own place.

In integrating the idea of co-creation, this study emphasizes the importance of individual agency in the value congruence equation and calls for a broader perspective in this area of P–E fit research. An important goal of interactionist research is to “determine when and to what extent person and situation variables predict behavior” (Chatman, 1989: 333). With respect to individual and organizational values, our study suggests that it is also critical to ask *for whom?* Although value incongruence has strong implications for the performance of some employees, others appear to have inoculated themselves against its effects through their own initiative. Indeed, not all employees can be conceptualized as “passive agents” (Chatman, 1989: 337) who simply succumb to the work environment as it currently exists. Yet, values are stable and enduring (Rokeach, 1973) and so it is difficult for an employee to make a meaningful impact in this regard. This article offers initial guidance on the individual-level factors researchers should explore to better understand how value congruence can affect employees.

This study further contributes to the P–E fit and value congruence literatures by incorporating the role of nonwork behaviors. Traditionally, these literatures have focused narrowly on the role of work factors to explain fit and its effect on outcomes (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Rothbard, 1999; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004). By focusing on how employees' needs can be met through leisure activity, this manuscript infuses a broader perspective into the value congruence literature. Ultimately, this inclusion underscores the importance of accounting for cross-domain effects on the relationship between value (in)congruence and its outcomes.

From a practical perspective, this manuscript provides important information for managers seeking to achieve a healthy balance between strong value congruence for individual employees and sufficient diversity in workforce values. Notably, our results call into question strong recommendations

made in the popular press that hiring managers prioritize values above other factors (e.g., Margolis, 2010; Rhoades, 2011). Chatman (1989: 344) speculated that “some optimal level of person–environment fit may exist . . . in terms of the proportions of high and low ‘fitters’ within an organization.” That is, although value congruence generates important benefits for employees and organizations (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Schneider, 1987), a homogenous workforce also presents significant drawbacks, such as increased rigidity, inability to adapt to change, and stagnation (Harrison, 2007; Schneider, 1987). Greater diversity on values also yields benefits, such as increased creativity (e.g., Hoever et al., 2012). Thus, understanding potential behavioral buffers to value incongruence, such as job crafting and leisure activity, may offer managers tools for helping employees manage incongruence on important values, and ultimately finding the appropriate equilibrium in terms of high and low fitters. Moreover, an individual’s tendency to engage in these behaviors may be an alternative—or, at the very least, complementary—consideration during the selection process.

Beyond the contributions to the P–E fit literature, this study also adds to conversations about job crafting and nonwork behavior. Job crafting is a new and growing literature that demonstrates a variety of behavioral gains, such as positive emotions, satisfaction, and job engagement (see Berg et al., 2013; Wrzesniewski et al., 2013). Our manuscript provides evidence that job crafting can also help people compensate for significant pitfalls of their jobs—in other words, not only can job crafting make a good situation better, but it may also help make a bad situation tolerable. In an economy where value incongruence has become more prevalent, this use of job crafting may be particularly constructive (Wrzesniewski, Berg, & Dutton, 2010).

Although organizational research in the realm of nonwork is also growing, the vast majority of that literature remains focused on the role of the family and work–family interactions (Westring & Ryan, 2010). Not surprisingly, work and family often conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), leading to the conclusion that nonwork pursuits detract from engagement and productivity at work. Our results—that leisure activity can compensate for a negative work experience—add to the growing evidence that work and nonwork pursuits can exist in harmony (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Moreover, the specific pattern of this relationship demonstrated that leisure activity could go beyond

buffering the negative effects of misfit on performance to even improving the performance of some misfits. We expected the relationship between misfit and performance to be relatively flat when leisure was high—indicating that misfit was no longer detrimental to performance. Instead, we saw an unexpected positive effect for employees with a specific form of misfit—wherein their personal values were deemed less important than the organization’s value (see Figures 5 and 6). The fact that even their most important value is, relatively speaking, less important may indicate that work is simply less central to these individuals. That is, it is possible, instead, that the nonwork domain is more central to these individuals—thus, they are more strongly motivated by leisure activity. From a work/nonwork perspective, this finding lends credence to the idea of enhancement effects between the two life domains (e.g., Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hakanen, Peeters, & Perhoniemi, 2011).

These findings elevate the importance of understanding and incorporating leisure activity into organizational studies. Moreover, our focus on leisure pursuits also expands the nonwork discussion beyond the traditional focus on family (Westring & Ryan, 2010). As newer generations begin to join the workforce and bring with them a desire for life outside of work and purpose in their activities (Twenge et al., 2010), research on nonwork pursuits, and leisure in particular, will be increasingly useful for organizations. Future research may benefit not only from a continued focus on the role of leisure, but also from examining the role of specific forms of leisure (e.g., exercise, entertainment, community involvement).

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The nature by which we assessed fit—involving participant ratings of both individual and organizational values—introduces a potential for bias in reporting. In particular, it is not clear whether participants are the best source for rating organizational values. It is possible that this approach does not truly capture “objective fit.” However, we followed the recommended method for assessing value congruence, which is purported to be superior to the alternative method of collecting direct reports of perceived fit (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006).

Further, we tested hypotheses based on the value ranked as most important from the employee’s perspective. This is a unique approach, as prior work has examined congruence on each of eight values

separately (e.g., Cable & Edwards, 2004). We pursued this direction because our focus was on mitigating the consequences of value incongruence, regardless of the specific value at its root. Research on values suggests that people prioritize values differently and their actions are more influenced by more strongly held values (Edwards, 1992, 1996; Rokeach, 1973). An alternative route, however, would be to select the value ranked most important to the company. Future research may want to examine the experience of misfit based on that particular value. This approach may allow scholars to examine new research questions, such as whether employees are labeled by others as misfits and the potential consequences of such an experience.

An assumption inherent in our theorizing is that value congruence, job crafting, and leisure activities fulfill employee fundamental needs. Although prior theorizing and evidence suggests that these experiences are capable of providing for many basic needs, such as meaning, belonging, and competence (Berg et al., 2010; Clary et al., 1998; Geroy et al., 2000; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2009), we do not directly test the role of need satisfaction in this study. In future research, scholars may want to explore the precise needs at the heart of these relationships, particularly the possibility that different employee actions—such as job crafting and leisure activity—function by satisfying different fundamental needs.

Conclusion

Recently, a variety of forces have contributed to larger numbers of misfits existing in organizations. Thus, it is important for researchers, employees, and managers to better understand how misfits can mitigate the negative and unfortunate consequences associated with value incongruence. This study offers one of the first examinations of proactive behavior that helps provide a buffer against the motivational and performance detriments of value incongruence. The results show that both crafting one's job to improve the experience of work and involvement in leisure activity can help misfits stay engaged and productive at work. Managers may help employees remain productive in their jobs by providing opportunities for employees to craft their jobs in meaningful ways and suggesting greater involvement in fulfilling activities outside of working hours—particularly for misfits, whose needs are not fully satisfied due to incongruence with organizational values.

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Ryan M. Vogel (rvogel@psu.edu) is an assistant professor in the Department of Management at the Black School of Business at Pennsylvania State University–Erie. He received his PhD from the University of Georgia’s Terry College of Business. His research interests include employee fit/misfit, value congruence, and abusive supervision.

Jessica B. Rodell (jrodell@uga.edu) is an associate professor in the Department of Management at the University of Georgia’s Terry College of Business. She received her PhD and MBA from the University of Florida’s Warrington College of Business. Her research interests include employee volunteering, justice, and emotions.

John W. Lynch (jwlynch@uic.edu) is an assistant professor in the Department of Managerial Studies at the University of Illinois at Chicago. His research interests include employee volunteering, engagement, and identity management in the workplace.



APPENDIX A: EQUATIONS TO EVALUATE THE MODERATED-INDIRECT (MEDIATED) EFFECT OF THE (IN)CONGRUENCE OF TWO VARIABLES

This integrated approach first involves the estimation of the mediator—job engagement—on the moderated effects of value incongruence. The effects of value incongruence on job engagement are represented by the equation:

$$M = a_0 + a_1I + a_2O + a_3I^2 + a_4IO + a_5O^2 + e \quad (1)$$

where M represents job engagement, I represents individual values, and O represents organizational values. The I^2 , IO , and O^2 terms are included because estimating (in)congruence effects often requires non-linear and interactive terms (e.g., Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards & Parry, 1993).

Before evaluating the interactive effects, the direct effects of the moderator must be controlled for:

$$M = a_0 + a_1I + a_2O + a_3I^2 + a_4IO + a_5O^2 + a_6Z + e \quad (2)$$

where Z represents the moderator, job crafting or leisure involvement.

Finally, the five terms representing the interactive effects of value incongruence and the moderator are added to the equation:

$$M = a_0 + a_1I + a_2O + a_3I^2 + a_4IO + a_5O^2 + a_6Z + a_7IZ + a_8OZ + a_9I^2Z + a_{10}IOZ + a_{11}O^2Z + e \quad (3)$$

where IZ , OZ , I^2Z , IOZ , and O^2Z terms collectively represent the interactive effects of value incongruence and the moderator.

The interactive effects of the moderators are tested by examining the incremental explained variance of Equation 3 compared to Equation 2, as indicated by the F -statistic. If the incremental explained variance is significant, the coefficients may be used further for hypothesis testing (see Edwards, 1996).

Since the hypotheses involve the moderated effects of value incongruence, we are primarily concerned with the shape of the surface along the line of incongruence ($O = -I$), where important individual values diverge from organizational values. The shape of the surface can be described in terms of its slope and curvature. Following recommendations by Edwards and Parry (1993), these can be computed by substituting $-I$ for O in Equation 3:

$$M = a_0 + a_1I - a_2I + a_3I^2 - a_4I^2 + a_5I^2 + a_6Z + a_7IZ - a_8IZ + a_9I^2Z - a_{10}I^2Z + a_{11}I^2Z + e \quad (4)$$

After re-arranging and collecting like terms, the equation becomes:

$$M = a_0 + [a_1 - a_2 + (a_7 - a_8)Z]I + a_6Z + [a_3 - a_4 + a_5 + (a_9 - a_{10} + a_{11})Z]I^2 + e \quad (5)$$

The slope of the surface along the line of incongruence is represented by the quantity [$q_{\text{slope}} = a_1 - a_2 + (a_7 - a_8)Z$]. Positive values for q_{slope} indicate a slope that increases along the line of incongruence, from the point where individual values are low and organizational values are high to the point where individual values are high and organizational values are low. Negative values for q_{slope} indicate a slope that decreases along the line of incongruence. Non-significant q_{slope} values indicate a non-increasing and non-decreasing slope. The curvature of the surface is represented by the quantity [$q_{\text{curvature}} = a_3 - a_4 + a_5 + (a_9 - a_{10} + a_{11})Z$] (e.g., Edwards, 1996). Positive values for $q_{\text{curvature}}$ indicate the surface is convex (i.e., curved upward) along the line of incongruence. Negative values for $q_{\text{curvature}}$ indicate the surface is concave (i.e., curved downward) along the line of incongruence. Non-significant $q_{\text{curvature}}$ values indicate a surface that is not curved. The slope and curvature of the surface can be evaluated at high and low levels of the moderator by substituting values one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator, Z (Cohen et al., 2003). Using response surface methodology, the coefficients can be plotted to visually examine the form of the relationship (Edwards & Parry, 1993).

Evaluating the moderated indirect effect of value incongruence on the dependent variables, task performance and citizenship behavior first involves estimating the direct effect of job engagement while controlling for the moderated-indirect effect of value incongruence on the dependent variables (Y):

$$Y = b_0 + b_1I + b_2O + b_3I^2 + b_4IO + b_5O^2 + b_6Z + b_7IZ + b_8OZ + b_9I^2Z + b_{10}IOZ + b_{11}O^2Z + b_{12}M + e \quad (6)$$

By substituting Equation 3 for M in Equation 6 and then re-arranging and collecting like terms, the equation predicting the dependent variable becomes:

$$Y = b_0 + a_0b_{12} + (b_6 + a_6b_{12})Z + [(b_1 + a_1b_{12}) + (b_7 + a_7b_{12})Z]I + [b_2 + a_2b_{12}) + (b_8 + a_8b_{12})Z]O + [(b_3 + a_3b_{12}) + (b_9 + a_9b_{12})]I^2 + [(b_4 + a_4b_{12}) + (b_{10} + a_{10}b_{12})Z]IO + [(b_5 + a_5b_{12}) + (b_{11} + a_{11}b_{12})Z]O^2 + e \quad (7)$$

To examine the curvature of the surface along the line of incongruence for the indirect effect, $-I$ is substituted for O in Equation 7. After re-arranging the equation and collecting like terms, Equation 8 is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 Y = & b_0 + a_0b_{12} + (b_6 + a_6b_{12})Z + [(b_1 - b_2 \\
 & + (b_7 - b_8)Z + [(a_1 - a_2) + (a_7 - a_8)Z](b_{12})]I \\
 & + [(b_3 - b_4 + b_5) + (b_9 - b_{10} + b_{11})Z \\
 & + [(a_3 - a_4 + a_5 + (a_9 - a_{10} + a_{11})Z](b_{12})]I^2 + e
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{8}$$

The slope of the curvature of the surface along the line of incongruence includes the term representing the direct effect of value incongruence on the dependent variable ($b_1 - b_2$), the term representing the direct effect of the moderator ($b_7 - b_8$), and the product term representing the

moderated indirect effect of value incongruence $[(a_1 - a_2) + (a_7 - a_8)Z](b_{12})$. The curvature of the surface along the line of incongruence includes the term representing the direct effect of job engagement ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5$), the term representing the direct effect of the moderator $[(b_9 - b_{10} + b_{11})Z]$, and the product term representing the moderated indirect effect of value incongruence $[a_3 - a_4 + a_5 + (a_9 - a_{10} + a_{11})Z](b_{12})$. By substituting values one standard deviation above and below the mean of the moderator, Z , into the product term, the indirect effect of value incongruence can be computed, tested for significance, and plotted using response surface methodology.