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THREE ESSAYS ON PERCEIVED OVERQUALIFICATION

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
MICHAEL F. PRICE COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

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ABSTRACT

Perceived overqualification (POQ), which refers to a situation wherein individuals possess more qualifications than those required by the job, has been commonplace in the world. Previous research on the effects of POQ on job performance (e.g., task performance and organizational citizenship behavior [OCB]) has been mixed and suggests the presence of moderators. However, little research has examined the possible moderators. Furthermore, research on the mechanisms linking POQ and outcomes is also scarce, limiting our understanding of how these differential effects occur.

In order to address these issues, I conducted a three-essay dissertation. In the first essay, I provide a comprehensive review of the POQ literature, including the definitions of POQ, theories in POQ research, and antecedents and outcomes of POQ. In addition, I review the methodological choices in POQ research. Finally, I propose several potential avenues for future POQ research.

In the second essay, I propose a theoretical model regarding the relationship between POQ and task performance drawing on transactional theory of stress, the challenge/hindrance stressor framework and social information processing theory. Specifically, I propose that POQ will influence task performance in two contrasting pathways. On the one hand, POQ will induce hindrance appraisal, which will lead to feelings of psychological entitlement, and thus decrease task performance. On the other hand, POQ will engender challenge appraisal, which will lead to elevated job self-efficacy, and thus increase task performance. I also expect supervisor justice rule adherence to moderate the hindrance pathway and leader humility to moderate the challenge pathway. To test these hypotheses, I collected multi-wave (3 time points) and multi-source (employees and supervisors) data from a sample of 291 employees with their 51 supervisors of a Chinese manufacturing company. I discuss the findings, strength and limitations and future directions of this study.

In the third essay, I propose a model to examine the relationship between POQ and OCB. Specifically, I propose that POQ will be positively related to OCB via job satisfaction for employees who have higher needs-supplies fit and who voluntarily took the job for which they are overqualified. The hypotheses are tested using the same sample as in Essay 2. I also discuss the theoretical contributions, limitations and future research directions, and practical implications.

ESSAY 1: PERCEIVED OVERQUALIFICATION: A REVIEW AND FUTURE RESEARCH AGENDA

Due to the global economic downtrend and competitive job markets, an increasing number of employees possess qualifications (e.g., knowledge, skill, abilities, experience, education) that exceed the requirements of their job (Erdogan et al., 2011a; Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Maynard, et al., 2006). This subjective perception, namely, perceived overqualification (POQ), has become commonplace in the world. For example, a recent estimate shows that about 48% of bachelor-degree holders are overqualified for their jobs (Rose, 2017); another report suggests that in the UK, 58% of college graduates take positions that do not require college degrees (Holmes & Mayhew, 2015). Likewise, due to the over-supply of highly educated people, the number of overqualified Chinese university graduates has been increasing (Shen & Kuhn, 2013).

Research generally shows that POQ has negative effects on employees and organizations (Harari et al., 2017). POQ has been associated with diminished psychological well-being (e.g., Bolino & Feldman, 2000; Erdogan et al., 2018), lower affective commitment (e.g., Feldman & Turnley, 1995; Maynard et al., 2006), reduced job satisfaction (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Feldman et al., 2002; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013), increased counterproductive work behaviors (e.g., Liu et al., 2015; Luksyte et al., 2011), and higher turnover intentions (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Kraimer et al., 2009).

However, recent studies have started to reveal the positive implications of POQ. For example, POQ has been found to enhance task performance (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009), creativity (Luksyte & Spitzmueller, 2016) and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (Hu et al., 2015) under certain conditions. Since the last comprehensive review of POQ (Liu & Wang, 2012), many studies challenging the traditional negative implications of POQ have emerged. In addition, although researchers have quantitatively reviewed extant empirical

studies on POQ (i.e., Harari et al., 2017), our understanding of the antecedents, outcomes, mediators and moderators of POQ remains disjointed and deficient in terms of an overarching framework. Furthermore, the meta-analytic approach is limited in that only variables that have been investigated in multiple samples will be considered. In the meta-analysis by Harari et al. (2017), no mediators and few moderators (power distance and performance rating source) were examined, resulting in a narrow focus on the antecedents and outcomes of POQ research. With a comprehensive qualitative literature review, I will provide a more balanced view of POQ and its implications to shed light on what we currently know about POQ and where we need to go in this field.

The purpose of this review is fourfold: First, I present the definition of POQ and its relationship with other relevant constructs. Second, I provide an overview of various theoretical perspectives in the POQ literature along with the antecedents, outcomes, mechanisms and boundary conditions of POQ. Third, I discuss the methodological choices in POQ research. Finally, I offer several research directions for both theoretical and methodological issues for future POQ research.

ARTICLE SELECTION

To maximize the number of articles to be included in the review, I searched for articles from peer-review journals using databases such as PsychInfo, Web of Science, ABI-INFORM and Google Scholar using the key words of "perceived overqualification", "subjective overqualification", "perceived underemployment" and "subjective underemployment". In selecting the articles, I focused on those that tap into the holistic subjective evaluation of overqualification, and excluded those that examined other dimensions of overqualification, such as overeducation. In total, this search yielded 70 relevant articles. The journals where POQ research is published are listed in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1 Journals Where POQ Research is Published

	Frequency	%
Industrial and Organizational Psychology (IOP)	10	14%
Journal of Management (JOM)	5	7%
Journal of Organizational Behavior (JOB)	5	7%
Journal of Vocational Behavior (JVB)	5	7%
Personnel Review (PR)	4	6%
Journal of Business and Psychology (JBP)	3	4%
Journal of Psychology (JP)	3	4%
Human Resource Management (HRM)	2	3%
International Journal of Human Resource Management (IJHRM)	2	3%
Journal of Applied Psychology (JAP)	2	3%
Journal of Career Development (JCD)	2	3%
Journal of Social Psychology (JSP)	2	3%
Journal of World Business (JWB)	2	3%
Academy of Management Journal (AMJ)	1	1%
Human Resource Management Journal (HRMJ)	1	1%
Human Resource Management Review (HRMR)	1	1%
Journal of Business Ethics (JBE)	1	1%
Journal of Business Research (JBR)	1	1%
Journal of Occupational Health Psychology (JOHP)	1	1%
Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology (JOOP)	1	1%
Personnel Psychology (PPsy)	1	1%
Others	15	21%

WHERE WE HAVE BEEN: AN OVERVIEW OF POQ RESEARCH

Distinguishing POQ from Other Relevant Constructs

Perceived overqualification refers to the extent to which employees subjectively perceive that they have more education, experience, knowledge or skills than those required by the job (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Maynard et al., 2006). POQ relies on the subjective evaluations of overqualification and focuses on individuals' own experience of underemployment. Therefore, unlike more objective overqualification types that focus on one specific dimension of qualification (e.g., educations, pay, hours, hierarchical level), POQ employs a holistic approach by integrating several employment factors simultaneously. Because individuals' attitudes and behaviors are more likely to be guided by their own

subjective perceptions, POQ, which captures the overall complex overqualification situation, is superior to more objective conceptualizations of overqualification. I delineate the differences between POQ and other relevant constructs below.

POQ and underemployment. Underemployment refers to "an inferior, lesser, or lower quality type of employment" (Feldman, 1996, p. 387). Feldman (1996) proposed that there are five dimensions of underemployment, which include overeducation, job field underemployment, skill underutilization, hours underemployment and pay/hierarchical underemployment, with overeducation being the most objective form of underemployment and pay/hierarchical underemployment being the most subjective. First, overeducation refers to a situation that a person possesses more formal education that the job requires. Second, job field underemployment is defined as a situation that an individual takes a job in a field that is outside of his or her formal education area. Third, skill underutilization is a situation where the individual possesses higher skills and more extensive work experience that the job requires. Fourth, hours underemployment refers to part-time or temporary employment in lieu of full-time work. Lastly, pay/hierarchical underemployment means that an individual is underpaid or at a lower hierarchical status than their former status or similarly qualified employees.

McKee-Ryan and Harvey (2011) extended Feldman's (1996) theoretical framework of underemployment's dimensionality by adding three dimensions: work-status congruence, POQ, and relative deprivation. First, work-status congruence is a mismatch between employee's preferences for and actual full-time or part-time status, shift and schedule (Holtom et al., 2002). McKee-Ryan and Harvey (2011) suggested that work-status congruence is on the more objective end of different underemployment types (i.e., third most objective underemployment). POQ is the second most subjective form of underemployment. Finally, relative deprivation refers to an interpretation that an individual generates a

perception that his or her job is lacking in some way and should be better. Relative deprivation is identified as the most subjective interpretation of their underemployed situation. In summary, in McKee-Ryan and Harvey's (2011) theoretical framework of underemployment, POQ is suggested to be one dimension of underemployment that captures a more subjective interpretation of an employee's overall overqualified situation.

POQ and objective overqualification. Overqualification can be objective (i.e., objective overqualification) or subjective (perceived overqualification), and these are related yet distinct constructs (Maltarich et al., 2011). Objective overqualification refers to the objective gap between individuals' qualifications and their formal job requirements (e.g., education, experience, cognitive ability) and is a better predictor of future mobility than POQ (Maltarich et al., 2011); in contrast, POQ captures the extent to which employees subjectively feel that they have more qualifications than their job requires. Relative to objective overqualification, POQ is a better predictor of current job-related perceptions and behaviors (Harari et al., 2017; Liu & Wang, 2012). Given the interest in understanding how overqualification influences individuals' current experiences at work, I follow the recommendations of other scholars (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2011b) and focus on POQ as the focal construct of my research.

Given the focus of the review is on variables that typically appear in organizational behavior research (e.g., job attitudes and behaviors), I included studies that investigate the subjective assessment of overqualification situations, namely, POQ. It is worth noting that some scholars used the terms "subjective underemployment", "subjective overqualification" or "perceived underemployment", and I included these studies as well as these terms to capture similar subjective assessments that POQ intends to capture.

Theories in POQ research

Given the nature of discrepancy between employees' actual qualifications and job

requirements in the conceptualization of POQ, several relevant theories that address the effects of such discrepancy have been adopted in POQ research. Among all the theories in POQ research, relative deprivation theory (13 studies) has been used most frequently, followed by person-job fit theory (12 studies), equity theory (3 studies) and human capital theory (2 studies).

Relative deprivation theory. Many studies have drawn on relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1976, 1984) to examine POQ and its correlates (e.g., Alfes et al., 2016; Erdogan et al., 2018; Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Hu et al., 2015; McKee-Ryan et al., 2009; Ren et al., 2013; Simon et al., 2019). Individuals have certain expectations about their job, and these expectations are based on their qualifications (e.g., education, skills, age, job experiences). For example, people with better qualifications usually expect better treatment (e.g., better compensation or other rewards) by the organization. When their job fails to meet their expectations, they are more likely to feel relatively deprived. Relative deprivation theory also suggests that employees compare their situations to certain standards, but such standards are determined by the focal employee and could be both internal and external. The comparison targets could be their previous, present or future situations (i.e. internal standards) or their peers' situations (i.e., external standards). After comparisons, if they feel relatively deprived, they might be dissatisfied with their job and more likely to leave the company. Relative deprivation theory is also useful in explaining why POQ might exert positive effects. Hu et al. (2015) used relative deprivation theory to argue that when overqualified employees are surrounded by overqualified peers, they are less likely to feel relatively deprived. Rather, they might feel that their overqualification is legitimate instead of exceptional; working with employees who are also overqualified might make them think they are part of an elite cohort.

Person-job fit theory. The basic premise of person-job fit theory (Edwards, 1991) is that when employees' abilities, knowledge and skills match the job demands, positive

outcomes will occur (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). In the situation of POQ, there is a perceived discrepancy between employees' KSAs and job requirements, and this discrepancy would induce employees' negative attitudes and behaviors. Many POQ studies have drawn on person-job fit theory. For example, Luksyte et al. (2011) used person job fit theory to find that POQ is positively related to counterproductive work behaviors. Liu et al. (2015) also drew on person-job fit theory and revealed that POQ could lead to counterproductive work behaviors towards supervisors via both anger and organization-based self-esteem.

Equity theory. Equity theory (Adams, 1963) suggests that individuals tend to compare their own ratio of outcomes to inputs to the ratio of others, frequently their peers. If they find their own ratio is smaller than their coworkers, they are likely to perceive inequity. For instance, according to equity theory, employees who feel overqualified may believe they bring more inputs to the work situation, and yet, they may be paid the same as those who are less qualified, which will lead to feelings of underpayment inequity. As a result, overqualified employees may be motivated to take actions to restore equity balance. Such actions might include lowering the inputs (e.g., intentionally perform below one's capacity, i.e., low job performance) or increasing the outcomes (e.g., conduct counterproductive work behaviors). Several studies used equity theory to investigate the relationships between POQ and outcomes. For example, drawing on equity theory, Lobene et al. (2015) found that POQ led to lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and higher turnover intention. Cheng et al. (2018) used equity theory to link POQ and cyberloafing behaviors at work.

Human capital theory. Human capital theory (Becker, 1975, 1993) delineates that employees make decisions regarding investments in their own human capital (e.g., KSAs). Individuals invest time, energy and efforts to accumulate education, training and experience to develop their human capital. In addition, organizations make decisions on resource allocation such as promotions, salary increases or international assignment opportunities.

Therefore, individuals' human capital investments are expected to be matched with their organizational rewards. In summary, human capital theory provides a perspective in understanding the outcomes of employees, reflected by the match between human capital investments and job requirements. Kraimer et al. (2009) utilized this theory to explore the relationship between career advancement and POQ. Peiró et al. (2012) integrated human capital theory with person-job fit theory to explain the effects of POQ on job insecurity, work involvement and career-enhancing strategies.

Antecedents of POQ

Relatively little empirical effort has been devoted to identifying the antecedents of POQ. A variety of predictors that would theoretically seem to be antecedents to POQ have not been actually proposed and operationalized as such in empirical POQ studies. I discuss the arguments and findings for the link between these plausible antecedents and POQ, and organize the antecedents into four categories: demographics, traits, job-related factors and career-related factors (See Table 1.2).

Table 1.2 Summary of Antecedents of POQ

Antecedents	+	-	Non-significant
Demographics			
Gender	Male>Female	Female>Male	
	Erdogan & Bauer (2009)	Debus et al. (2019)	Cheng et al. (2018)
	Liu et al. (2015)	Wu et al. (2017), Study 2	Erdogan et al. (2020)
	Maynard & Parfyonova (2013)		Johnson & Johnson (2000)
	Triana et al. (2011)		Kraimer et al. (2009)
			Lin et al. (2017)
			Luksyte et al. (2011)
			Luksyte & Spitzmueller (2016)
			Maynard et al. (2006)
			Ren et al. (2015)
			Triana et al. (2017)
			Wassermann et al. (2017)
			Wu et al. (2015)
			Wu et al. (2017), Study 1
			Yatribi & Balhadj (2016)
			Ye et al. (2017)
			Zhang et al. (2016)
Age			
	Erdogan & Bauer (2009)	Alfes (2007)	Cheng et al. (2018)
	Guerrero & Hatala (2015)	Alfes (2016)	Debus et al. (2019)
	Kawai & Mohr (2020)	Maynard et al. (2006), Study 2	Johnson & Johnson (2000)
	Lee (2005)	Maynard et al. (2015)	Kraimer et al. (2009)
	Lin et al. (2017)	Maynard & Parfyonova (2013)	Liu et al. (2015)
	Zhang et al. (2016), Study 1	Triana et al. (2017)	Luksyte & Spitzmueller (2016)

Antecedents	+	-	Non-significant
		Yatribi & Balhadj (2016)	Ren et al. (2015) Triana et al. (2017) Wassermann et al. (2017) Wu et al. (2015) Wu et al. (2017) Ye et al. (2017) Zhang et al. (2016), Study 2
Education			
	Deng et al. (2018), Study 1 Erdogan & Bauer (2009) Erdogan et al. (2020) Lee (2005) Wu et al. (2015) Ye et al. (2017) Zhang et al. (2016), Study 1&2		Cheng et al. (2018) Debus et al. (2019) Deng et al. (2018), Study 2 Guerrero & Hatala (2015) Johnson & Johnson (2000) Kawai & Mohr (2020) Lin et al. (2017) Liu et al. (2015) Luksyte et al. (2011) Luksyte & Spitzmueller (2016) Wu et al. (2017), Study 1&2
Race			
	Caucasian>minority Triana et al. (2017)	Caucasian<minority	Luksyte et al. (2011)
Tenure			
	Johnson & Johnson (2000) Wu et al. (2017), Study 2	Erdogan et al. (2020)	Cheng et al. (2018) Deng et al. (2018), Study 1&2 Johnson & Johnson (1999) Luksyte et al. (2011)

Antecedents	+	-	Non-significant
			Wu et al. (2015)
			Wu et al. (2017), Study 1
Job tenure			
		Liu et al. (2015)	
		Maynard et al. (2015)	
Organizational tenure			
	Zhang et al. (2016), Study 1		Erdogan & Bauer (2009)
			Kraimer et al. (2009)
			Lin et al. (2017)
			Ren et al. (2015)
			Yang et al. (2015)
			Zhang et al. (2016), Study 2
Assignment tenure			
		Bolino & Feldman (2000)	
Marital status			
			Lee (2005)
			Ye et al. (2017)
Working hours			
			Erdogan & Bauer (2009)
			Johnson & Johnson (1999)
			Johnson & Johnson (2000)
Traits			
General mental ability			
	Fine (2007)		Lobene et al. (2015)
Personality			
conscientiousness	Fine (2007)		

Antecedents	+	-	Non-significant
extraversion	Fine (2007)		
openness to experience	Fine (2007)		Guerrero & Hatala (2015)
agreeableness	Fine (2007)		
emotional stability	Fine (2007)	Liu et al. (2015)	
narcissism	Lobene et al. (2015) Maynard et al. (2015)		
boredom proneness	Watt & Hargis (2010)		
Cultural values			
collectivism	Wu et al. (2015)	Hu et al. (2015)	
Job-related predictors			
Objective overqualification	Cheng et al. (2018) Fine & Edward (2017) Fine & Nevo (2008) Lin et al. (2017) Maynard et al. (2006) Maynard & Parfyonova (2013) McKee-Ryan et al. (2009) Peiró et al. (2012)		
Political skill	Deng et al. (2018), study 2		Deng et al. (2018), study 1 Erdogan & Bauer (2009)
Career-relevant predictors			
Salary	Johnson & Johnson (1999)	Johnson & Johnson (2000) Lobene et al. (2015)	Yatribi & Balhadj (2016)
Career adaptability	Yang et al. (2015)		

Antecedents	+	-	Non-significant
Career anchor in challenge		Yang et al. (2015)	
Career advancement		Kraimer et al. (2009)	
Job search attitudes		Guerrero & Hatala (2015)	
Job search subjective norms			Guerrero & Hatala (2015)
Job search self-efficacy			Guerrero & Hatala (2015)
Job search outcome expectations			Guerrero & Hatala (2015)
Job search intentions			Guerrero & Hatala (2015)
Job search intensity			Guerrero & Hatala (2015)

Demographics

Gender. Women are expected to experience more POQ because they are more likely to encounter career barriers and gender-based stereotypes, resulting in fewer opportunities to advance their career (Harari et al., 2017; Liu & Wang, 2012). Moreover, females tend to have more family responsibilities than men, thus they might be under some pressure to take positions for which they are overqualified in order to reduce potential work-family conflict. Indeed, some studies found that females tend to experience higher levels of POQ than men (e.g., Debus et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2017). However, in contrast, some other studies found that higher POQ existed among men than women (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). More studies, however, showed non-significant correlations between gender and POQ (e.g., Cheng et al., 2018; Erdogan et al., 2020; Kraimer et al., 2009) and the magnitudes of these correlations are mixed. Therefore, there is no clear pattern of relationships between gender and POQ (e.g., Liu & Wang, 2012).

Age. Younger workers (e.g., university graduates) are likely to look for a job in a market with over-supplied talents; older workers are likely to be discriminated in hiring decisions or be perceived as less competent compared to younger workers. Thus, both younger and older employees might have higher levels of POQ, demonstrating a U-shaped pattern between age and POQ. The findings with regard to the relationship between age and POQ are also mixed, as research demonstrated positive (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Kawai & Mohr, 2020; Lee, 2005; Lin et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2016), negative (e.g., Alfes, 2013; Alfes et al., 2016; Maynard et al., 2006; Maynard et al., 2015; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013; Triana et al., 2017; Yatribi & Balhadj, 2016), and non-significant (e.g., Cheng et al., 2018; Debus et al., 2019; Johnson & Johnson, 2000) findings.

Education. Education is expected to have a positive relationship with POQ. Although the number of highly educated people is increasing, the number of jobs that can fully utilize

people's education level might not grow at a proportionate rate. Therefore, it is possible that people might be overeducated compared to the degree requirements for their job, leading to higher levels of POQ. Consistent with this contention, some studies found that education is positively related to POQ (e.g., Deng et al., 2018; Erdogan et al., 2020; Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). However, many studies have revealed that there is no relationship between education and POQ (e.g., Cheng et al., 2018; Debus et al., 2019; Deng et al., 2018; Johnson & Johnson, 2000; Luksyte et al., 2011; Luksyte & Spitzmueller, 2016; Wu et al., 2017).

Race. Feldman (1996) suggested that racial minorities are more likely to be discriminated against in the hiring process. Hence, racial minority employees might experience higher levels of POQ. For example, Triana et al. (2017) found that Caucasians experienced lower levels of POQ than did minorities. However, a null correlation has been also indicated in other studies (Luksyte et al., 2011). Compared to other demographical variables, race has only been included in limited research. Therefore, more studies are needed in order to draw a conclusion on the relationships between race and POQ.

Tenure. Several types of tenure have been investigated in POQ research, including tenure, job tenure, organizational tenure and expatriate assignment tenure. As tenure increases, it is expected that workers will have more promotion opportunities, and thus they are less likely to feel overqualified. However, the findings regarding tenure are mixed. For tenure, some studies found that tenure is positively correlated with POQ (Johnson & Johnson, 2000); while negative (Erdogan et al., 2020) or non-significant relationships (Cheng et al., 2018; Deng et al., 2018) were also reported by scholars. The relationship between organizational tenure and POQ is also mixed, demonstrating either positive (e.g., Zhang et al., 2016) or insignificant (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Kraimer et al., 2009; Lin et al., 2017; Ren et al., 2013) correlations. The relationship between job tenure and POQ is negative across two different studies (Liu et al., 2015; Maynard et al., 2015). In an expatriate sample, assignment

tenure is also negatively correlated with POQ (Bolino & Feldman, 2000).

Marital status. As married people have more family commitments to keep, they are more likely to settle for an overqualified job compared to unmarried people. However, it is also possible that married employees experience lower levels of POQ because they should have other family members to share these responsibilities, therefore, they are less likely to compromise on their job conditions. In this sense, being married should actually reduce the levels of POQ. In two POQ studies where marital status was included, Lee (2005) and Ye et al. (2017) both found non-significant correlations between marital status and POQ.

Working hours. When the amount of working hours is less than the amount of a full-time job, it is likely that employees may feel overqualified due to their inadequate working hours (McKee-Ryan & Harvey, 2011), thus it should be negatively related to POQ. However, research generally showed that there is no relationship between working hours and POQ. Indeed, no significant correlations were revealed in studies by Erdogan and Bauer (2009) and Johnson and Johnson (1999; 2000).

Traits

General mental ability. General mental ability is an effective predictor of individuals' job-related KSAs. As overqualified employees tend to have high levels of qualifications for the job, it is possible that general mental ability is positively related to POQ. Fine (2007) found that general mental ability is positively related to POQ while Lobene et al. (2015) did not find any significant relationships between general mental ability and POQ. Hence, further studies are needed to draw a conclusion about this relationship.

Personality. A limited set of personality traits have been examined in POQ research. In Fine's (2007) study, all five dimensions of the big-five personality (e.g., conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and emotional stability) were positively correlated with POQ. However, in another study with emotional stability included (i.e., Liu et

al., 2015), no significant relationship was found. Boredom proneness, which is defined as "a tendency to experience tedium and lack of personal involvement and enthusiasm, to have a general or frequent lack of sufficient interest in one's life and surrounding and culture" (Sundberg et al., 1991, p. 210), was also positively related to POQ (Watt & Hargis, 2010). Watt and Hargis (2010) explained that workers who feel bored at work believe that their KSAs are not sufficiently utilized or their jobs lack variety and meaning. Narcissism is another personality trait that has been linked to POQ. Narcissistic people are more likely to feel entitled, thus they might experience higher levels of POQ. Both Lobene et al. (2015) and Maynard et al. (2015) delineated that narcissism is positively related to POQ.

Cultural values. Collectivism/individualism has been explored very little; among the two studies, results were in opposite directions. While Hu et al. (2015) showed that collectivism is negatively related to POQ, Wu and his colleagues (2015) found that collectivism is positively related to POQ.

Job-related Factors

Objective overqualification. As I mentioned above, objective overqualification and POQ are overlapping, yet distinct constructs. Objective overqualification is expected to be a predictor of POQ because POQ is supposed to reflect the actual reality of their qualification status. Studies have consistently supported this contention (e.g., Cheng et al., 2018; Fine & Edward, 2017; Lin et al., 2017; Maynard et al., 2006; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013; McKee-Ryan et al., 2009).

Political skill. People who tend to have levels of political skills are expected to be better in negotiating offers with their employer. With this logic, politically skilled employees are less likely to experience POQ. However, the findings are inconclusive. Deng et al. (2018) investigated interpersonal influence, which refers to the ability of appropriately adjusting individuals' behaviors to evoke desired responses from others (Ferris et al., 2005). Across 2

samples of Chinese employees, Deng et al. (2018) found the associations between interpersonal influence and POQ are significant in one sample but not significant in another sample. Erdogan et al. (2020) did not find a relationship between political skill and POQ as well.

Career-related Factors

Salary is an indicator of objective career success. POQ studies generally have not shown clear patterns of findings regarding the associations between salary and POQ. Positive (Johnson & Johnson, 1999), negative (Lobene et al., 2015; Yatribi & Balhadj, 2016) and near-zero (Johnson & Johnson, 2000) correlations have been found between salary and POQ. In a repatriate sample, Kraimer et al. (2009) found that perceived advancement upon repatriation is negatively related to POQ. Yang et al. (2015) found that career adaptability is positively related to POQ and a challenge career anchor is negatively related to POQ.

Outcomes of POQ

As I have noted above, the main surge of POQ research has been focusing on the outcomes of POQ. The key findings of studies examining the outcomes of POQ have been summarized in Table 1.3. I classify them into the following categories: job attitudes, turnover, job-related behaviors and career-related outcomes (Table 1.3)

Table 1.3 Summary of Outcomes of POQ

Outcomes	+	-	Non-significant
Job attitudes			
Job satisfaction			
General satisfaction		Alfes (2016) Allan et al. (2017) Bolino & Feldman (2000) Erdogan & Bauer (2009) Fine & Nevo (2008) Johnson & Johnson (2000) Lobene & Meade (2013) Lobene et al. (2015) Maynard & Parfyonova (2009) Maynard et al. (2015) McKee-Ryan et al. (2009) Wassermann et al. (2017)	Lee (2005)
Benefits satisfaction		Maynard et al. (2006)	
Communication satisfaction		Maynard et al. (2006)	
Coworker satisfaction		Allan et al. (2017) Khan & Morrow (1991) Maynard et al. (2006)	
Supervisor satisfaction		Allan et al. (2017) Khan & Morrow (1991)	Johnson & Johnson (2000)
Pay satisfaction		Allan et al. (2017) Johnson & Johnson (2000) Khan & Morrow (1991) Maynard et al. (2006)	

Outcomes	+	-	Non-significant
Promotion satisfaction		Allan et al. (2017) Johnson & Johnson (2000) Khan & Morrow (1991) Maynard et al. (2006)	
Rewards satisfaction		Maynard et al. (2006)	
Satisfaction with work itself		Allan et al. (2017) Khan & Morrow (1991) Maynard et al. (2006)	
Organizational commitment			
Affective commitment		Bolino & Feldman (2000) Lobene & Meade (2013) Lobene et al. (2015) Maynard et al. (2006) Maynard & Parfyonova (2013) McKee-Ryan et al. (2009)	
Continuance commitment		Lobene et al. (2015)	Lobene & Meade (2013)
Normative commitment		Lobene et al. (2015)	
Work involvement		Peiró et al. (2012)	
Turnover			
Turnover intention	Kraimer et al. (2009) Kawai & Mohr (2020) Lobene & Meade (2013) Lobene et al. (2015) Maynard et al. (2006) McKee-Ryan et al. (2009)		Debus et al. (2019)

Outcomes	+	-	Non-significant
	Simon et al. (2019)		
	Ye et al. (2017)		
Actual voluntary turnover			Erdogan & Bauer (2009)
			Maynard & Parfyonova (2013)
Withdrawal	Allan et al. (2017)		Debus et al. (2019)
	Triana et al. (2017)		
Well-being			
Anxiety	Bolino & Feldman (2000)		
Cynicism	Luksyte et al. (2011)		
Depression	Allan et al. (2020)		
Emotional exhaustion			Luksyte et al. (2011)
Inefficacy			Luksyte et al. (2011)
Life satisfaction		Allan et al. (2020)	
		Erdogan et al. (2018)	
Mental health			Bolino & Feldman (2000)
Negative affect	Allan et al. (2020)		Debus et al. (2019)
			Erdogan et al. (2018)
Positive affect		Allan et al. (2020)	
		Simon et al. (2019)	
		Erdogan et al. (2018)	
Somatic symptoms	Triana et al. (2017)		
Stress	Allan et al. (2020)		
	Johnson & Johnson (1999)		
	Maynard et al. (2015)		
Subjective well-being		Wu et al. (2015)	
Job-related behaviors			

Outcomes	+	-	Non-significant
Task performance	Fine (2007) Fine & Nevo (2008)	Bolino & Feldman (2000)	Alfes (2007) Allan et al. (2017) Deng et al. (2018) Erdogan & Bauer (2009) Hu et al. (2015) Kawai & Mohr (2020) Lobene & Meade (2013) Watt & Hargis (2010)
OCB			
OCB		Kawai & Mohr (2020)	Hu et al. (2015)
OCBI		Erdogan et al. (2020)	
OCBO			Lin et al. (2017)
Interpersonal altruism			Deng et al. (2018)
Voice	Zhang et al. (2016)		Erdogan et al. (2020)
Creativity			Lin et al. (2017) Luksyte & Spitzmueller (2016)
Proactivity			
Proactive behavior	Zhang et al. (2016)		
Pro-other proactive behavior		Zhang et al. (2016)	
Pro-organization proactive behavior			Zhang et al. (2016)
Task crafting	Lin et al. (2017), Study 1		Lin et al. (2017), Study 2
Team member proactivity			Deng et al. (2018)
Counterproductive work behavior	Fine & Edward (2017) Liu et al. (2015)		

Outcomes	+	-	Non-significant
	Luksyte et al. (2011)		
Other behaviors			
Adaptive behavior		Wu et al. (2017)	
Cyberloafing behavior	Cheng et al. (2018)		
Career-related outcomes			
Career satisfaction		Erdogan et al. (2018)	Lee (2005)
		Ren et al. (2015)	
		Wassermann et al. (2017)	
Career commitment		Allan et al. (2017)	
Careerism	Bolino & Feldman (2000)		
Career-enhancing strategies		Peiró et al. (2012)	
Job search behavior	Maynard & Parfyonova (2013)		
Other outcomes			
Advice network centrality			Erdogan et al. (2020)
Work meaningfulness		Allan et al. (2020)	
		Kim & Allan (2020)	

Job Attitudes

Job satisfaction. Among the job attitudes, job satisfaction is the most studied. Overall, the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction tends to be negative in different populations (e.g., Alfes et al., 2016; Bolino & Feldman, 2000; Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013). This pattern of negative relationship has also been found between POQ and different facets of job satisfaction, including benefits satisfaction, communication satisfaction, coworker satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, pay satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, rewards satisfaction, and satisfaction with work itself (e.g., Maynard et al., 2006). In addition, there are also moderators between POQ and job satisfaction. For example, Erdogan and Bauer (2009) found that empowerment can mitigate the negative relationship between POQ and job satisfaction such that POQ is not related to job satisfaction when empowerment is high. Alfes (2016) found that both leader-member exchange (LMX) and team cohesiveness buffers the negative effects of POQ on job satisfaction. In a sample of Italian and Spanish immigrants in Germany, Wassermann et al. (2017) found that host national identity reduces the negative impact of expatriates' POQ on job satisfaction.

Affective commitment. Overall, studies suggest a negative relationship between POQ and affective commitment (Bolino & Feldman, 2000; Feldman & Turnley, 1995; Feldman et al., 2002; Lobene & Meade, 2013; Lobene et al., 2015; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013; Maynard et al., 2006). Maynard and Parfyonova (2013) further explored moderators between POQ and affective commitment and their findings showed that work values of competence and growth moderate the relationship between POQ and affective commitment, such that the relationship between POQ and affective commitment is stronger if employees prefer their job to utilize their talents.

Continuance commitment. Only two studies have examined the relationship between POQ and continuance commitment, and they were both conducted by Lobene and colleagues

(2013, 2015). The relationship was negatively significant in one study and was non-significant in the other. In the study by Lobene et al. (2015), the relationship between POQ and continuance commitment was negative. In the other study by Lobene and Meade (2013), the relationship was non-significant.

Normative commitment. Only one study has examined the relationship between POQ and normative commitment. The finding was that the relationship between POQ and normative commitment was significantly negative (Lobene et al., 2015).

Work involvement. Peiró et al. (2012) investigated the relationship between POQ and job involvement and revealed a negative relationship between POQ and work involvement. In addition, job insecurity mediated this relationship.

Turnover

Turnover intention. Studies have consistently shown that POQ is positively related to turnover intention (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Kraimer et al., 2009; Lobene & Meade, 2013; Lobene et al., 2015; Simon et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2017). Mechanisms and boundary conditions have also been tested between POQ and turnover intentions. Ye et al. (2017) found that perceived organizational support can both mediate and moderate the relationships between POQ and turnover intentions. Kawai and Mohr (2020) found that the effect is through organizational maladjustment, and it is moderated by organizational identification. Simon et al. (2019) found that the indirect effect of POQ on turnover intentions is transmitted via initial levels of perceived job autonomy and linear change of positive affect, and this indirect effect is weaker when proactive personality is higher.

Actual voluntary turnover. The relationship between POQ and turnover is actually inconclusive. Two studies found the relationship is positive. Specifically, Maynard and Parfyonova (2013) found that the relationship is positive between POQ and voluntary turnover. However, there are converse findings as well. For example, Erdogan and Bauer

(2009) found no relationship between POQ and voluntary turnover. They also found that psychological empowerment moderates the relationship between POQ and voluntary turnover, such that the relationship is positive when psychological empowerment is high; but it is non-significant when psychological empowerment is lower.

Withdrawal. Triana et al. (2017) found that there is a positive correlation between POQ and withdrawal. In a sample of Swiss employees, Debus et al. (2019) found that POQ is positively related to job withdrawal when autonomy or job crafting is high; but this relationship is positive when autonomy or job crafting is low.

Well-being

Various indicators of well-being have been included in POQ research, such as anxiety, stress, negative affect, depression, emotional exhaustion, mental health and somatic symptoms. Overall, most of the studies showed that POQ is detrimental to individuals' well-being. In terms of physiological problems, for example, Triana et al. (2017) suggested that POQ is related to both self-reported and other-reported somatic symptoms. For psychological symptoms, POQ could lead to depression (Allan et al., 2020), lower mental health (Bolino & Feldman, 2000), and anxiety (Bolino & Feldman, 2000). Both Allan et al. (2020) and Johnson and Johnson (1999) suggested that POQ is positively related to stress. Maynard et al. (2015) found that POQ is positively associated with career-related stress. The relationships between POQ and emotions are mixed. In Erdogan et al. (2018), POQ is not related to negative affect; while in Allan et al. (2020), POQ is positively related to negative affect. Luksyte et al. (2011) examined POQ's effects on the three specific dimensions of burnout (i.e., cynicism, emotional exhaustion and inefficacy) and found that only cynicism is correlated with POQ. Similar patterns of findings exhibited in individuals' overall assessment of their well-being (e.g., subjective well-being, life satisfaction). Both Allan et al. (2020) and Erdogan et al. (2018) showed that POQ reduces life satisfaction, while Wu, Luksyte and

Parker (2015) also found POQ is detrimental to employees' subjective well-being. Moderatos have also been explored between POQ and well-being. Findings of Allan et al.'s (2020) study showed that meaningful work buffers the negative effect of POQ when predicting positive affect. Erdogan et al. (2018) found that career centrality strengthens the indirect effect of POQ and positive affect and negative affect.

Job-related Behaviors

Task performance. Job performance is influenced by both KSAs (knowledge, skills, abilities) (Borman et al., 2014) and job attitudes (Riketta, 2008). On the one hand, because overqualified employees possess high levels of abilities and experiences, they may out-perform their peers on similar assignments; on the other hand, because overqualified employees are dissatisfied with their job, they might reduce their efforts to perform at a lower level (Feldman, 1996). Consistent with these notions, the relationship between POQ and task performance is mixed, indicating diverse (i.e., positive, negative and null) relationships among different studies. Most studies (including the meta-analysis by Harari et al., 2017), report a non-significant general correlation between POQ and performance. For example, in Chinese samples, Deng et al. (2018) and Hu et al. (2015) found that POQ is not correlated with supervisor-rated in-role performance. Alfes (2013) found that the relationship is non-significant as well. Kawai and Mohr (2020) and Lobene and Meade (2013) also suggested similar null-relationship correlations. Some studies revealed a positive relationship between POQ and performance. For instance, in a leadership training setting, Fine (2007) found that POQ is positively related to leadership performance. Fine and Nevo (2008) found that POQ can actually positively lead to greater self-rated performance. Erdogan and Bauer (2009) found that regardless of the levels of psychological empowerment, POQ is positively related to objective performance. A negative association also appeared in studies; for example, Bolino and Feldman (2000) found in an expatriate sample that POQ is negatively related to

self-reported performance.

The mixed findings with regard to the relationship between POQ and performance have propelled researchers to examine possible moderators and mediators. Deng et al. (2018) investigated the moderating role of interpersonal influence, and found that the indirect effect of POQ on in-role performance via social acceptance was positive when interpersonal influence was higher; but it was non-significant when interpersonal influence was lower. Hu et al. (2015) found that regardless of the level of peer overqualification, POQ is positively related to in-role performance. But when peer overqualification is higher, the relationship between POQ and in-role performance is stronger. Kawai and Mohr (2020) showed that the influence of POQ on task performance is via work maladjustment and moderated by organization identification. In a sample of salespersons, Erdogan and Bauer (2009) found that POQ is consistently and positively related to objective sales performance, at both high and low levels of empowerment. Lobene and Meade (2013) found that calling moderates the relationship between POQ and performance, such that POQ is negatively related to performance when calling is high; but positively related when calling is low.

OCBs. The relationship between POQ and different forms of OCBs are also mixed in that positive, negative and null relationships have been found. POQ is not correlated with interpersonal altruism (Deng et al., 2018), voice (Erdogan et al, 2020), OCB (Hu et al., 2015), and OCB towards organization (OCBO; Lin et al., 2017). POQ is also found to be negatively associated with OCB towards individuals (OCBI; Erdogan et al., 2020) and general OCB (Kawai & Mohr, 2020). Lastly, Zhang et al. (2016) indicated a positive association between POQ and voice.

Studies on the POQ-OCB link have also been advancing with the exploration of mediators and moderators using different theoretical perspectives. With regards to the findings, Deng et al. (2018) used a relative deprivation perspective and found that POQ is

positively and indirectly related to interpersonal altruism via social acceptance when interpersonal influence is high. But when interpersonal influence is low, the indirect relationship becomes non-significant. Drawing on person-environment fit theory (Edwards et al., 1998), Erdogan et al. (2020) found that person-organization fit moderates the relationship between POQ and OCBI and voice. POQ is negatively related to voice when person-organization fit is low but non-significant when person-organization fit is high. Using relative deprivation theory, Hu et al. (2015) found that peer overqualification moderates the indirect effect of POQ on OCB via person-group fit, such that the indirect effect is more positive when peer overqualification is higher, but less positive (but still significant) when it is lower. Utilizing a job crafting perspective, Lin et al. (2017) found that the indirect effect of POQ on OCBO via task crafting is an inverted-U shape. This curvilinear relationship is strengthened by organizational identification. Kawai and Mohr (2020) found that the relationship between POQ and OCB is exerted through work maladjustment and moderated by organizational identification, such that the indirect effect of POQ on OCB in weaker when organizational identification was higher.

Creativity. Similar to task performance and OCBs, the associations between POQ and creativity seem to be complicated as well. In two studies (Lin et al., 2017; Luksyte & Spitzmueller, 2016), POQ is non-correlated with creativity, implying there might be contingencies between POQ and creativity. Indeed, several moderators have been reported between POQ and creativity. Some studies suggest POQ might have positive implications in terms of creativity as well. Luksyte and Spitzmueller (2016) found that when POS is high, or people have more opportunities to mentor others, or developmental i-deals are high, POQ will positively lead to creativity. Lin et al. (2017) also found a curvilinear relationship between POQ and creativity; in other words, when POQ levels move from low to moderate, POQ is positively related to creativity.

Proactive behaviors. According to Parker and Collins (2010), there are various types of proactive behaviors, such as proactive work behavior (e.g., taking charge, voice, individual innovation, problem prevention), proactive strategic behavior (e.g., issue selling), and proactive person-environment fit (e.g., feedback monitoring, feedback inquiry, job change negotiation, career initiative). Based on this framework, several behaviors that can be viewed as proactive behaviors have been linked with POQ, including voice and creativity discussed above. In general, the associations between POQ and proactive behaviors are inconclusive. For example, Zhang et al. (2016) found POQ is not correlated with proactive behavior in their study 1; however, in their study 2, the results showed that POQ is negatively related to pro-other proactive behavior but non-related to pro-organization proactive behavior. Such mixed findings are also reflected in the two studies in Lin et al. (2017), in which POQ is suggested to be positively related to task crafting in study 1 but non-significant in study 2. Deng et al. (2018) studied team member proactivity in the Chinese context. Across two samples, they found interpersonal influence moderates the indirect relationship between POQ and team member proactivity, such that the relationship is negative when interpersonal influence is low but non-significant when interpersonal influence is high. Lin et al. (2017) found an inverted-U relationship between POQ and task crafting, and organizational identification moderates this relationship such that the curvilinear relationship is more pronounced when organizational identification is higher. Zhang et al. (2016) studied how and when POQ could lead to proactive behavior. Based on social cognitive theory of self-regulation, they found that POQ can have positive implications for employees' proactive behaviors. Specifically, POQ is positively and indirectly related to proactive behavior via role breadth self-efficacy in their study 1. In study 2, they further differentiated proactive behavior into two forms: pro-other proactive behavior and pro-organization proactive behaviors. Results showed that both performance goal orientation and learning goal orientation

moderate the indirect effect of POQ on proactive behaviors. Across two studies, they found that POQ is positively related to role breadth self-efficacy when performance goal orientation is high or learning goal orientation is low, but not significant when performance goal orientation is low or learning goal orientation is high. Similar patterns occur for the relationship between role breadth self-efficacy and pro-other/pro-organization proactive behavior and also for the indirect effects of POQ on pro-other/pro-organization proactive behavior.

Counterproductive work behavior. Three studies have been conducted to examine the relationship between POQ and counterproductive work behavior, and the results are pretty consistent: POQ positively predicts levels of counterproductive work behaviors (Fine & Edward, 2017; Liu et al., 2015; Luksyte et al., 2011). However, the mechanisms of how POQ leads to increased counterproductive work behaviors seem to be different. For instance, Luksyte et al. (2011) suggested that cynicism mediates the POQ-counterproductive work behaviors link while Liu et al. (2015) found a dual-path link including diminished organization-based self-esteem and increased anger toward the situation. Liu et al. (2015) also found that justice sensitivity moderates the indirect effect of POQ on counterproductive work behaviors via organization-based self-esteem and anger toward the situation.

Other behaviors. POQ researchers have attempted to expand the behavioral criteria by considering other behaviors. Wu et al.'s (2017) findings suggested that employees who experience higher levels of POQ demonstrate less adaptive behaviors, but autonomy could mitigate this negative influence of POQ. In addition, in a sample of Chinese employees, Cheng et al. (2018) found that overqualified employees are more likely to engage in cyberloafing behavior. This indirect relationship is mediated by harmonious passion, and moderated by need for achievement.

Career-related Outcomes

Similar to its harmful effects on job satisfaction and life satisfaction, POQ tends to diminish career satisfaction (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2018; Ren et al., 2013; Wassermann et al., 2017). Erdogan et al. (2018) also found that career centrality strengthens the negative indirect effect of POQ and career satisfaction. Moreover, based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees might react negatively to the unpleasant overqualification experience in return, such as engaging in more careerism (Bolino & Feldman, 2000) and job search behaviors (Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013), but less career-enhancing strategies (Peiró et al., 2012).

Other Outcomes

Erdogan et al. (2020) took an exploratory step by adding social network perspective to POQ research. They found that POQ is negatively related to advice network centrality via reduced organizational citizenship behaviors towards individuals and voice when their level of person-organization fit is low. Work meaningfulness has also been linked to POQ. In both studies, Allan et al. (2017) and Kim and Allan (2020) found that POQ is negatively correlated with work meaningfulness. Kim and Allan (2020) further demonstrated that employees' perceived autonomy, competence and relatedness mediate this relationship.

Mediators Linking POQ and Outcomes

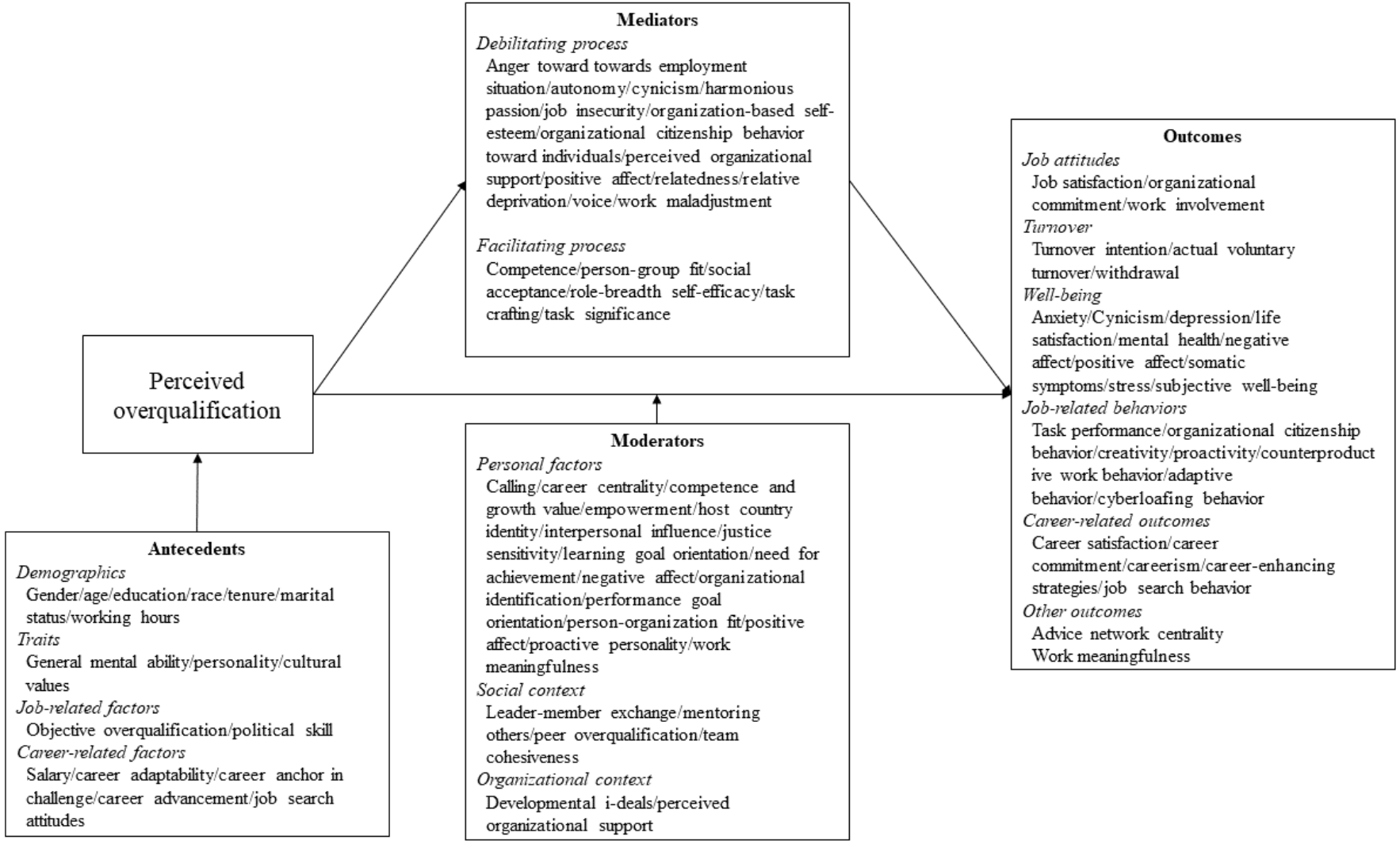
Existing research has provided evidence that POQ could influence its outcomes in various pathways. I discuss these mechanisms and categorize them into debilitating process (which in turn leads to negative outcomes) and facilitating process (which in turn leads to positive outcomes). The mediators that have been examined empirically in previous POQ research are shown in Figure 1. As I have discussed these mediators in reviewing the outcomes of POQ, I will not repeatedly explain each process in detail. Consistent with the larger number of studies which found POQ is detrimental, more debilitating processes have been empirically supported. For example, Liu et al.'s (2015) findings in a sample of Chinese

employees suggested POQ leads to more counterproductive work behavior through both cognitive (i.e., organization-based self-esteem) and affective (i.e., anger towards the employment situation) processes. In addition, Luksyte et al. (2011) found that cynicism is also a mediator between POQ and counterproductive work behavior. As for facilitating processes, POQ has been found to lead to positive self-evaluations, such as competence (Kim & Allan, 2020) and role-breadth self-efficacy (Zhang et al., 2016), which elevates work meaningfulness and proactive behaviors, respectively. Under certain conditions, POQ may lead to person-group fit (Hu et al., 2015), social acceptance (Deng et al., 2018) and task significance (Hu et al., 2015), which in turn improves in-role performance.

Moderators on the Effects of POQ

Most research pertaining to the boundary conditions on the effects of POQ has focused on personal factors, such as empowerment (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009), justice sensitivity (Liu et al., 2015), performance and learning goal orientations (Zhang et al., 2016), and person-organization fit (Erdogan et al., 2020). Again, as I have illustrated these moderators in detail in each outcome section, I will just briefly summarize these moderators. Beyond personal factors, social context such as leader-member exchange (Alfes, 2016), whether overqualified employees mentor others (Luksyte et al., 2016), peer overqualification (Hu et al., 2015) and team cohesiveness (Alfes, 2016) are also contingencies between POQ and its outcomes. Finally, organizational context, such as whether the organization has provided idiosyncratic-deals (Luksyte et al., 2016) and the level of perceived organizational support (Ye et al., 2017), could also alter the relationship between POQ and its outcomes. The overall framework is presented in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 An Integrative Model of Perceived Overqualification



Methodological Choices in POQ research

I examined each article and coded them in terms of several methodological characteristics. Following the suggestion by Bainbridge et al. (2017), I coded several methodological factors that concern internal, external, construct and statistical conclusion validity, in order to provide a picture of the prevalence and trends of methodological choices in POQ research (See Table 1.4).

Table 1.4 Summary of Methodological Choices in POQ Research

	Frequency	%
Study type	74	
Empirical	58	74%
Qualitative	1	1%
Meta-analysis	1	1%
Other (includes theoretical, review and commentary articles)	18	23%
Data structure		
Cross-sectional	38	66%
Longitudinal	20	34%
Number of data waves		
1	38	66%
2	10	17%
3	9	16%
10	1	2%
Form of research relationship		
Direct effect	22	38%
Moderation	14	24%
Mediation	6	10%
Moderated mediation	15	26%
Mediated moderation	1	2%
Rating source of POQ		
Self	57	98%
Supervisor	1	2%
Number of sources of data		
1	41	71%
2	13	22%

	Frequency	%
3	4	7%
Sources of data		
Self	41	71%
Self+Supervisor	10	17%
Self+Objective	2	3%
Self+Peers	1	2%
Self+Supervisor+Peers	3	5%
Self+Supervisor+Objective	1	2%
Measures of POQ		
Maynard et al. (2006)	21	36%
Johnson & Johnson (1996)	19	33%
Bolino & Feldman (2000)	5	9%
Fine & Nevo (2008)	5	9%
Khan & Morrow (1991)	3	5%
Allan et al. (2017)	1	2%
Other self-developed scales	4	7%
Average Alpha	0.84	
Sample location		
U.S.	29	50%
China	12	21%
Canada	1	2%
Germany	1	2%
Morocco	1	2%
Netherlands	1	2%
Singapore	1	2%
Spain	2	3%
Switzerland	1	2%

	Frequency	%
Turkey	2	3%
UK	2	3%
Others (no specific countries reported)	5	9%
Industry		
Single	27	47%
Multiple	23	40%
Students	1	2%
Not specified	7	12%
Average Sample Size	448	
Primary statistical techniques		
AN(C)OVA/MAN(C)OVA	2	3%
Correlation	7	12%
Regression	28	48%
Multilevel analysis	11	19%
SEM and path analysis	9	16%
Other	1	2%
Procedural remedies for common method variance		
Used	33	57%
Not used	25	43%
Statistical remedies used for common method variance		
Used	9	16%
Not used	49	84%

Study Type

In the 70 articles I identified, there are 78 studies in total (due to the multi-study design in some articles). Among these 78 studies, 58 (74%) were empirical studies.

Data Structure

Among the empirical studies, 66% utilized a cross-sectional design, while 34% used a longitudinal approach (i.e., at least two waves of data were collected). The highest proportion of studies employed single wave data collection (66%); 17% collected two waves of data; 16% collected three waves of data, and one study utilized a ten-wave survey to test their model. Of the longitudinal designs, the time lag utilized by the researchers also varies, ranging from one week to one year.

Form of Research Relationships

The most prevalent type for examining models involving POQ was a direct effect model (38%) percent. This was followed by moderated mediation (26%), moderation (24%), and mediation (10%) models.

Data Sources of POQ

Because POQ represents a subjective perception of an individual's overqualified situation, the most appropriate way to measure it is through employee self-report. All but one study (i.e., Debus et al., 2019) consistently used self-reported scores to measure POQ. Debus et al. (2019) used supervisors' observations of employees' POQ and had them provide responses on a modified POQ scale by changing the referent to their subordinates.

Many studies used a single source of data (71%), in which all variables were assessed via employee self-report. Such practices might indicate that the findings could be negatively influenced by common method bias. Some studies tried to obtain multiple sources of data from both employees and supervisors (17%). Other studies also attempted to reduce the common method bias, such as using employee along with objective (3%) or peer-rated (2%)

data. Moreover, five percent of studies were able to get three different sources of data.

Measurement of POQ

Two most frequently used scales to measure POQ are the 9-item scale by Maynard et al. (2006) and the 4-item scale developed by Johnson and Johnson (1996), as they appeared in 36% and 33% of the empirical studies, respectively. They are followed by other multi-item scales, including Bolino and Feldman (2000), Fine and Nevo (2008), Khan and Morrow (1991) and Allan et al. (2017). Four studies (7%) used their self-developed scales to measure POQ. The mean value of the Cronbach's alpha was .84.

Sample Characteristics

A bulk of studies were conducted in the U.S. (50%). Twelve studies were undertaken in China (21%). However, other countries represented less than 4%. This over-reliance on data from a small number of countries is a threat to the external validity of POQ research. In terms of industrial categories, 47% of the studies drew samples from a single industry, slightly more than the studies with samples from multiple industries (40%).

Primary Statistical Analysis

The most prevalent statistical approach is regression (48%). Notably, multilevel analysis (e.g., multilevel structural equation modeling and multilevel path analysis) has been used more frequently recently. This is consistent with the emerging use of multi-source data (e.g., data collected from both employees and supervisors while employees are nested in supervisors) which might need multilevel methods to account for the nested nature of the data.

Common Method Variance Remedies

Procedural remedies (57 %) were more likely to be used than statistical remedies (16%) for common method variance in POQ studies.

WHERE WE GO FROM HERE: FUTURE AVENUES FOR POQ RESEARCH

This review suggests that POQ generally has negative implications for employees, as it can diminish employees' job attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment), deteriorate their well-being (e.g., life satisfaction, subjective well-being), hinder their career advancement (i.e., career satisfaction) and provoke negative job behaviors (e.g., counterproductive work behaviors). However, there are more mixed findings with regard to POQ's relations with some job behaviors, including task performance, OCBs, proactive behaviors and creativity. In this section, I focus on several future research avenues, including expanding the bright side of POQ, exploring the relational outcomes of POQ, clarifying the boundary conditions between POQ and outcomes, new theoretical perspectives for POQ research, and methodological issues in POQ research.

Expanding the Bright Side of POQ

Among all the 50 empirical studies, only 10 of them found that POQ can lead to certain positive outcomes, and such relations usually exist under certain restricted boundaries. For example, Deng et al. (2018) indicated that POQ can lead to higher in-role performance, interpersonal member proactivity via social acceptance by their peers when interpersonal influence is high. Erdogan and Bauer (2009) suggested that POQ can enhance job performance. Zhang et al. (2016) found that POQ can elicit more proactive behaviors via role-breadth self-efficacy. Earlier studies showed that the link between POQ and these behaviors might be negative due to the adverse job attitudes that employees hold, as these behaviors depend partially on job attitudes; however, the positive self-perceptions generated after individuals assess their abilities against job demands might facilitate engaging in more such positive job behaviors. In addition, as Erdogan et al. (2011) pointed out, there might be additional benefits of POQ. For example, individuals might choose to take a job they are overqualified for in order to devote more time to fulfill their family responsibilities. As a result, they are less likely to experience negative spillover effects when spanning the

work-family boundary, and enjoy better work-family balance. This benefit might be particularly true for people who have high family centrality or orientation. Moreover, given that high POQ workers possess underutilized skills and abilities, they might also benefit their peers at work if they are motivated to use their underutilized knowledge to facilitate the work group (Erdogan et al., 2020). For example, overqualified employees with high collectivism are probably more willing to help their peers, in order to boost team performance. In sum, I encourage future research to examine more possible "bright side" outcomes of POQ and provide a more balanced view about the impact of POQ at work.

Exploring the Relational Outcomes of POQ

Because POQ represents a stressful, unpleasant and maybe frustrating situation, employees who experience high levels of POQ may react negatively to POQ by exhibiting noxious behaviors such as counterproductive work behaviors towards supervisors (Liu et al., 2015). Such negative behaviors may elicit harmful or retaliatory behavioral responses from their peers, such as social undermining or incivility. However, little is known about how people around these overqualified employees will react to them. Given that overqualified employees may outperform or underperform, and the notion that when the performance of employees deviates from the unstated performance standards of the group, they can be penalized by their peers (e.g., Campbell et al., 2017; LePine & Van Dyne, 2001), POQ may invite some unwanted social consequences that worsen the overall situation of overqualified employees. Future research may be conducted to examine how peers will react to overqualified employees.

Moderators and Mediators Linking POQ and Outcomes

Given the previous inconclusive findings on the POQ-outcome link as well as the aforementioned contentions about other possible benign impacts of POQ, I also encourage future researchers to explore the moderators and mediators that may shed light on when and

how POQ could make positive things happen. First, as previously suggested, the relationship between POQ and task performance is inconclusive. This is perhaps because overqualified employees are in a position where they possess superior KSAs as well as negative attitudes. As job performance is determined by both abilities and attitudes, it is more meaningful to examine the theoretically relevant mediators and moderators that link POQ and job performance. Whether these employees can perform at an optimal level might depend on the degree to which their job can provide other features that they desire, so their negative attitudes can be mitigated or even overturned by being compensated with the job characteristics they value (e.g., flexible work schedule, or less time demands at work). Performance level might also depend on whether their performance is linked to something they value, such as rewards or promotion opportunities that are not readily available immediately but accessible in the long-term. Second, employees might seek meaning in their work in different ways. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), employees who experience high levels of POQ may perceive their employers unfairly treat them, so they do not exhibit any prosocial behaviors in return. However, the research on this POQ-prosocial behavior link does not offer a clear conclusion. Recent advancements in job design research (e.g., relational job design theory, Grant, 2007) may provide a novel perspective. Specifically, prosocial design theory proposes that jobs designed to allow employees to make a prosocial impact will be more likely to motivate employees to exhibit prosocial behaviors. For people who have a high prosocial motivation and who seek more meaning from making a prosocial influence than possessing a higher position or more pay, they might choose to still engage in prosocial behaviors. I thereby call for more fruitful research to investigate theoretically derived moderators and mediators between POQ and outcomes.

New Theoretical Perspectives for POQ Research

In this review of the POQ literature, I affirm that the major theories that have been

used in this line of research are equity theory, relative deprivation theory, person-job fit theory and human capital theory. The commonality shared among these theories is that POQ is framed as an unpleasant and somewhat stressful situation, which will incur subsequent adverse outcomes. This prevalence is legitimate and consistent with the large portions of studies that found POQ tends to have negative implications for employees and organizations. Relatively recent research brings in more theoretical perspectives that have not been integrated into POQ literature previously to explain the implications relevant to POQ. For example, based on social cognitive theory of self-regulation, Zhang et al. (2016) theorized that people with high levels of POQ tend to have elevated self-efficacy after they evaluated task requirements, resources and constraints, and made attributions about their mastery of tasks. Lin et al. (2017) drew on job crafting theory to support a curvilinear relationship between POQ and job crafting. Deng et al. (2018) utilized a relational perspective to examine the social implications of POQ and found that overqualified employees who have better political skills tend to be more socially accepted by their coworkers. These novel perspectives enrich the POQ research and contribute by bringing more theories into this conversation.

Related to the possible additional outcomes of POQ noted above (e.g., work-family balance, prosocial behaviors), future research would benefit from using other plausible theories. For example, as contended above that overqualified employees might engage in more prosocial behaviors if they have high collectivism and prosocial motivation, social dilemma perspective would be a suitable theory. Social dilemma is defined as a situation where short-term personal interests are not aligned with long-term collective interests (Dawes & Messick, 2000; Messick & Brewer, 1983). When facing the decision of whether to engage in prosocial behaviors at work, POQ might be such a social dilemma situation. Balliet and Ferris (2013) argued that prosocial behaviors can be viewed as a social dilemma in that exhibiting prosocial behavior poses short-term costs to the individual as well as long-term

benefits to the organization (Joireman et al., 2006). In this sense, it is possible that collectivism could moderate the relationship between POQ and prosocial behaviors, such that the relationship could be positive if collectivism is high. This is because if they are more collectivistic, they will be more focused on the collective benefits. In addition, given the findings of the extant research that POQ might lead to both debilitating and facilitating processes, it is possible that POQ could be appraised as both a challenge (e.g., stressor that facilitates personal accomplishment) and a hindrance stressor (e.g., stressor that hinders personal accomplishment) simultaneously. Hence, transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and challenge-hindrance stressor framework (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) may be helpful in explaining the co-existing conflicting effects of POQ on employees' outcomes. Transactional theory of stress suggests that individuals' primary appraisal differentiates challenge and hindrance stressors, and primary appraisal influences the type of outcomes an individual will experience, such as strain, motivation and performance (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Based on these notions, future research might examine how POQ leads to employees' job performance via two contrasting pathways given the fact it could induce both challenge and hindrance appraisals.

Methodological Choices in POQ Research

In this review of the methodological choices in POQ research, it is noted that the lack of rigorous study design may pose a threat to the findings of previous studies. In this section, I recommend that researchers should focus on using multi-source longitudinal data from across different cultures.

First, most POQ studies are cross-sectional in nature (66%) and collect data from employee self-reported responses (71%). These studies might be negatively influenced by common method variance, which might make the findings spurious (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Unfortunately, only a small portion of studies (16%) have used

statistical procedures for post-hoc common method variance remedies. Encouragingly, recent studies have started to collect multi-wave or/and multi-source data to reduce the impact of common method variance (e.g., Deng et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2017). I encourage future POQ studies to continue considering adopting longitudinal designs with multiple sources of data to improve the robustness of findings.

Second, in this review of the POQ studies, I found that except Debus et al. (2019), which used supervisor-rated employee POQ to predict employees' job withdrawal and turnover intentions, all other studies measured POQ based on employees' self-reported scores on a POQ scale. It is natural given that self-report is suggested to be the most appropriate way to measure POQ given that self-perception has a superior ability of predicting job attitudes and behaviors (Maltarich et al., 2011). Liu and Wang (2012) suggested that using other-rated POQ may be more effective when individuals' career outcomes are the constructs of interest as supervisors' perceptions of employees' overqualification level might be a determinant of supervisors' treatment of employees in terms of how supervisors allocate resources and rewards. Hu et al. (2015) found that focal employees' perceived peer overqualification is positively and significantly related ($r = 34$, $p < .05$) to the overqualification scores calculated by peers' self-reported POQ (the average of each team members' POQ scores, excluding the focal employee's score). Erdogan et al. (2011a) delineated that in the job interview setting, the visibility of one's overqualification level might be critical as recruiters' might not decide to extend an offer to overqualified employees when they interpret the candidates' overqualification level is too high. Using other-rated POQ will offer a supplementary perspective in examining the effects of POQ on outcomes that are determined by others.

Third, I suggest that future POQ studies should collect data from more representative samples. In this review of POQ research, I found that half of the studies were conducted in the U.S. and 21% were in China. Samples from these two countries took up 71% of all

samples. As a result, the findings about POQ and its correlates might be undermined by the research settings. In addition, single-industry samples are more common compared to multi-industry samples. I encourage future researchers to collect data in other countries and across multiple industries in order to warrant the generalizability of the findings.

Fourth, I recommend future POQ studies examine more complex models under the guide of applicable theories. In this review of POQ literature, I found that most of the studies examined a direct effect model (38%). Recent studies have attempted to move this research forward by investigating more complex models (e.g., moderated mediation). Such research efforts would be helpful in clarifying the mechanisms through which and the boundary conditions where specific POQ effects occur.

CONCLUSION

In recent years, POQ has become a pivotal topic given its prevalence in the world. Consistent with its practical importance, many studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between POQ and its antecedents and outcomes. This review indicates that POQ generally has detrimental effects on employees' job attitudes, well-being and careers, while its impact on job behaviors and associations with its antecedents have been mixed. In addition, I offer an overview of the methodological choices in POQ research. I also propose several broadscale research avenues in this critical area, including considering integrating more new theoretical perspectives, exploring additional beneficial effects and relational outcomes of POQ, and examining theory-driven moderators between POQ and outcomes. Lastly, I provide specific recommendations of how to improve the methodological rigor by adopting multi-source multi-wave study design, using other ratings to measure employees' overqualification and testing more complex models in more representative samples. I hope this review serves as an impetus for future POQ research.

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ESSAY 2: LINKING PERCEIVED OVERQUALIFICATION AND TASK PERFORMANCE: A DUAL-PATHWAY FRAMEWORK AND THE ROLE OF LEADER BEHAVIORS

How will overqualified employees perform? Previous research suggests conflicting findings. On the one hand, because overqualified employees possess high levels of job-related abilities and experiences, they may perform at a higher level; indeed, researchers have found that POQ positively contributes to higher performance (Deng et al., 2018; Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Fine, 2007; Fine & Nevo, 2008; Hu et al., 2015). On the other hand, some studies have also found that overqualified employees may underperform (e.g., Bolino & Feldman, 2000; Feldman, 1996). For example, because overqualified employees perceive inequity between their personal inputs and outcomes, they might reduce their efforts and perform at a lower level (Feldman, 1996). A large number of studies generally show no statistically significant correlation between POQ and task performance (e.g., Alfes, 2013; Allan et al., 2017; Kawai & Mohr, 2020; Lobene & Meade, 2013; Watt & Hargis, 2010).

One possible explanation for these conflicting findings is that researchers may overlook how individuals appraise their overqualification. In this essay, I draw on transactional theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and the challenge-hindrance stressor framework (Cavanaugh et al., 2000) to develop a dual-pathway model that depicts how people evaluate their POQ and how these two pathways lead to differences in task performance. I propose that POQ can be appraised as both a hindrance and a challenge stressor, and such appraisals will lead to subsequent feelings of psychological entitlement (when POQ is appraised as a hindrance stressor) or sense of job self-efficacy (when POQ is appraised as a challenge stressor). I further propose that while the feeling of psychological entitlement will diminish task performance, an elevated sense of job self-efficacy could enhance task performance. In summary, I propose a dual pathway model in which POQ can

reduce task performance through a hindrance pathway (i.e., via hindrance appraisal and psychological entitlement) and a challenge pathway (i.e., via challenge appraisal and job self-efficacy).

A consideration of boundary conditions further elucidates the differential effects of POQ on task performance. Among various boundary conditions, social context emerges as a particularly important one as how overqualified employees may react to their situation depends on others surrounding them (Hu et al., 2015). This is consistent with Erdogan et al.'s (2011a) call for more research on the social context of POQ. Indeed, some studies have revealed that coworkers do influence employees' responses to their POQ (e.g., Deng et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2015). For instance, Hu et al. (2015) found that low levels of peer overqualification can enhance overqualified employees' feelings of person-group fit and task significance, thus leading to better performance. Unfortunately, another important social contextual factor, leadership, has been generally neglected in POQ research. This is surprising given that leader behaviors, including transformational, ethical, authentic and servant leadership behaviors, have been suggested to enhance employees' positive job attitudes, work motivations and job behaviors (e.g., Avolio, 2007; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Lee et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2011). However, we know little about whether leaders' behaviors can help overqualified employees to avoid negative outcomes (e.g., lower negative perceptions) and produce positive outcomes (e.g., better job performance) for both organizations and employees.

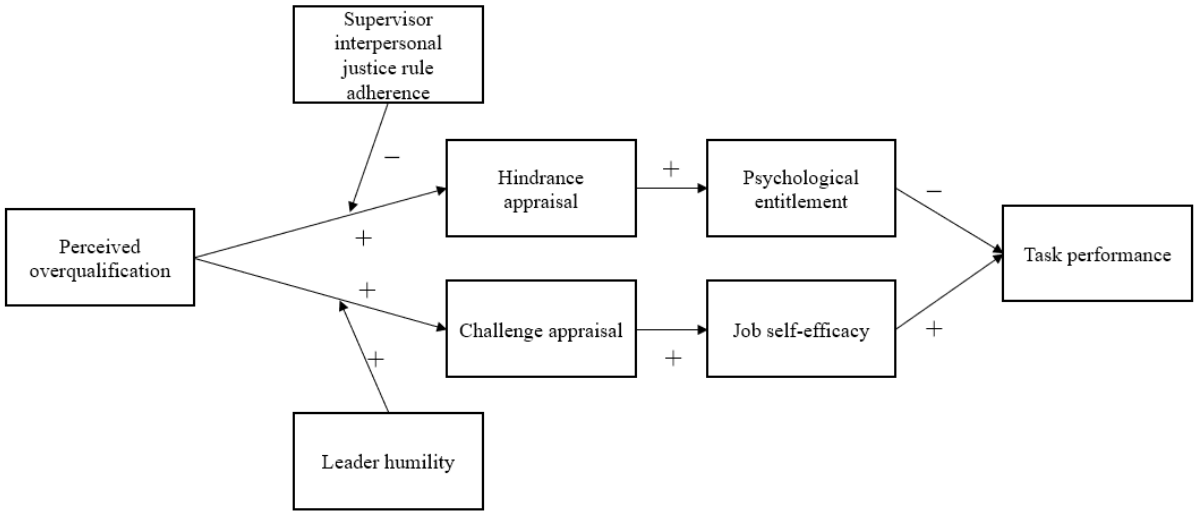
I propose two specific leader behaviors that are particularly relevant and hold the potential of transforming overqualified employees into higher job performance. First, because overqualified employees may feel they are unfairly treated by their employer (Erdogan et al., 2011a), supervisors' justice-related behaviors such as showing respect and sincerity when interacting with them (i.e., interpersonal justice rule adherence), may be particularly relevant

as it may restore employees' overall perceptions of fairness. Second, because overqualified employees possess their underutilized KSAs but may not be motivated to apply them in their daily job, supervisors' openness to subordinates' ideas, and spotlighting their strengths and abilities (e.g., leader humility) should be especially needed and appreciated by overqualified employees. I draw on social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) to offer additional theoretical foundations for the moderating roles of leader behaviors in the dual pathway processes. Social information processing theory suggests that social information exerts indirect influences on individual behaviors through shaping their attitudes, needs and motivations. Social information processing theory has been useful in explicating leaders' behaviors on the attitudes, motivations and behaviors of subordinates (Hall & Lord, 1995; Piccolo et al., 2010).

In this study, I consider two types of leader behaviors. The first is supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence, which refers to supervisors' adherence to rules of treating employees with respect when interacting with them (Scott et al., 2007; Scott et al., 2009). I propose that supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence could compensate for their negative fairness perceptions, thereby reducing the level of hindrance appraisals of POQ, and improving their task performance. Another type of leader behavior is leader humility. Given that individuals who have high levels of POQ might possess underutilized skills that might potentially make contributions to the organizations by providing their unique insights, ideas and suggestions, but are possibly not motivated to do so due to negative job attitudes, high levels of leader humility might actually help to induce higher levels of challenge appraisals of POQ by highlighting the potential growth and development opportunities embedded in their overqualification situation, and thus improve their task performance. In summary, I draw on transactional theory of stress and the challenge-hindrance stressor framework and social informational processing theory to propose a moderated multi-stage

mediation model. Figure 2.1 presents the theoretical framework.

Figure 2.1 Theoretical Model in Essay 2



THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Transactional Theory of Stress and Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Framework

Transactional theory of stress suggests that individuals' evaluation of the situation, or *primary appraisal*, determines the formation process of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Primary appraisal differentiates challenge and hindrance stressors. Challenge stressors are the "good" stressors that are appraised as potentially promoting personal growth and achievement, while hindrance stressors are the "bad" stressors that constrain personal development and work-related accomplishment (Cavanaugh et al., 2000; LePine et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2007). Situations evaluated as beneficial for mastery, rewards, and growth are regarded as challenge appraisals, whereas those that are assessed to thwart the attainment of goals are often viewed as hindrance appraisals (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Skinner & Brewer, 2002). Transactional theory of stress further denotes that a certain stressor is not necessarily exclusively appraised as either a challenge or hindrance stressor, but could be both simultaneously (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Webster et al., 2011). Primary appraisal is an essential way by which an individual assesses the meaning and the significance of the

situation and the major psychological process that connects stressors to outcomes. In addition to the degree to which people would evaluate their situation as a challenge and/or hindrance stressor, transactional theory of stress also contends that primary appraisal influences the type of outcomes an individual will experience, such as strain, motivation and performance (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; LePine et al., 2005).

The Dual Pathways Linking POQ and Task Performance

POQ could be appraised as both a challenge and a hindrance stressor. First, I propose that POQ will lead to hindrance appraisal. Previous studies have suggested that overqualification is frequently perceived as an unfair treatment the individual gets from the organization, as there is a perceived discrepancy between employees' KSAs and job requirements (e.g., Feldman, 1996; Liu & Wang, 2012). Given this, employees might find their mismatched employment situation where their KSAs are not fully utilized is rather stressful. In addition, individuals have certain expectations about their job, and these expectations are based on their qualifications (e.g., education, skills, age, job experiences). People with better qualifications usually expect better treatment (e.g., a better compensation or other rewards) by the organization. When the job that they hold fails to meet their expectations, they are more likely to feel unfairly treated. With such negative feelings, POQ is likely to be appraised as an undesirable circumstance that constrains individuals' personal development and their motivation to pursue their work-related accomplishments. On the other hand, POQ might be appraised as a challenge stressor by individuals as well. Having more KSAs than their job requires, employees may feel that they have the opportunity to improve the quality or perfect their work. To these employees, being overqualified represents a challenging situation that can be conducive to their achievement accomplishment and personal development. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 1a: POQ is positively related to hindrance appraisal.

Hypothesis 1b: POQ is positively related to challenge appraisal.

Further, I propose that hindrance appraisal of POQ will lead to psychological entitlement. Several POQ scholars drawing on relative deprivation theory have noted that overqualified employees often generate a sense of entitlement (e.g., Hu et al., 2015; Maynard et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2013). However, none of them examined the actual role of entitlement in explaining employees' reactions to overqualification. Psychological entitlement refers to "the compensation expected as a result of an individual participating in an employment relationship" (Naumann et al., 2002: 150). Naumann et al. (2002) contended that psychological entitlement stems from participation in a social contract and is based on an unbalanced reciprocity. In other words, individuals expect more organizational benefits and returns, without necessarily earning them through adequate performance. Furthermore, Snow et al. (2001) demonstrated that psychologically entitled employees often feel they deserve unique treatment in a social setting (e.g., more rewards compared to their coworkers). Rose and Anastasio (2014) argued that psychological entitlement is based on the comparisons between self and others, and psychologically entitled employees particularly like to think about others around them. Exline et al.'s (2004) studies provided further support that psychologically entitled employees feel they are more deserving than their peers.

Although psychological entitlement was proposed as a trait of individuals (Campbell et al., 2004), scholars have theoretically extended and empirically validated that psychological entitlement can exist as a state as well (Harvey & Dasborough, 2015). Harvey and Dasborough (2015) labelled such state entitlement as "job-induced entitlement" and argued that such state entitlement could be shaped by other contextual factors. Zitek et al. (2010) also suggested that individuals will become psychologically entitled when they feel they have been treated unfairly. Indeed, in a pair of empirical studies across Chinese and American samples, Yam et al. (2017) found that employees who engage in OCBs but do not

want to, are more prone to have higher levels of state psychological entitlement. Transactional theory of stress denotes that when individuals appraise a certain stressor as a hindrance stressor, which impedes their personal accomplishment, they will likely react negatively (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; LePine et al., 2005). Evaluating overqualification as something that constrains personal development, overqualified employees who possess more qualifications than their job requires will expect more preferential rewards and treatment than what they have now (Harvey & Martinko, 2009). As such, their psychological entitlement is likely to be higher.

I also expect that challenge appraisal of POQ could lead to higher job self-efficacy. Job self-efficacy represents individuals' self-evaluations about their abilities and value on the job and is defined as a self-belief of how well one can perform one's job (Chen et al., 2004). Gist and Mitchell (1992) suggested that self-efficacy stems from three types of assessments: the analysis of task requirements against job skills; the attributional analysis of successful job experience; and the assessment of personal along with situational resources/constraints. According to the transactional theory of stress, when individuals appraise a stressor as a challenge stressor, which facilitates their personal accomplishment, they will likely react more positively (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; LePine et al., 2005). Job self-efficacy is likely one of such positive outcomes for the following reasons. First, if the perception of overqualification reflects the objective reality that overqualified employees possess superior KSAs, employees with high levels of POQ should find their tasks rather simple and the job requirements easy to fulfill given their excessive abilities (Zhang et al., 2016). This analysis provides an initial foundation to form overqualified employees' job self-efficacy. Second, when making attributions to their positive experiences, overqualified employees who are likely to perform above job requirements often attribute such positive experiences to their abilities and competence (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Zhang et al., 2016). Such favorable

attributions would further foster the evaluation of job self-efficacy. Finally, when evaluating the resources and constraints they are faced with, overqualified employees could perceive that they have more resources (e.g., job-related abilities) than constraints (e.g., job demands) for completing tasks to perform well. This strengthens employees' assessment of their job self-efficacy. Taken together, employees would feel confident that they are experts of their job and generate a sense of job self-efficacy. To sum up, I propose:

Hypothesis 2a: POQ is indirectly and positively related to psychological entitlement via hindrance appraisal of POQ.

Hypothesis 2b: POQ is indirectly and positively related to job self-efficacy via challenge appraisal of POQ.

The Challenge-Hindrance Stressor Framework suggests that a certain stressor can be appraised as both a hindrance and challenge stressor simultaneously; a hindrance appraisal will lead the individual to react negatively whereas a challenge appraisal will lead him/her to react positively. Based on the theorizing for Hypotheses 2a and 2b above, POQ is likely to be such a stressor. On one hand, employees who perceive themselves to be overqualified for their jobs are likely to view POQ as something that hinders their personal development and growth, because POQ might be considered as an unfair treatment by the organization: whereas they bring more qualification to the organization, they are not getting what they expected in return. Such hindrance appraisal leads employees who think they are overqualified to react negatively in terms of feeling psychologically entitled to more return from the organization. Psychological entitlement represents a negative feeling that employees feel they should deserve more than what they have invested in their work (i.e., they believe they have more rewards and compensation due from the organization). As such, based on social exchange theory, they will not be motivated to contribute to their organization, thereby demonstrating low task performance.

On the other hand, employees who feel overqualified for their jobs may view POQ as something that can promote their advancement, rewards and promotion, because having more knowledge, skills and abilities than the job requirements provides them with potential to improve the performance of their tasks. Driven by such a challenge appraisal of POQ, their analyses of job skills versus task requirement, personal resources versus constraints and attributions will solidify their belief that they can complete their work tasks well. The elevated positive self-belief about how well they can do their job propels them to perform at a high level (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Taken together, I predict:

Hypothesis 3a: POQ is indirectly and negatively related to task performance via hindrance appraisal of POQ and psychological entitlement.

Hypothesis 3b: POQ is indirectly and positively related to task performance via challenge appraisal of POQ and job self-efficacy.

Leader Behaviors as Boundary Conditions

I further expect that leader behaviors will play an important role in altering the effects of POQ, and I draw upon social information processing theory to theorize the boundary conditions of the model (i.e., leader justice rule adherence and leader humility). Social information processing theory suggests that social information exerts indirect influences on individuals' behaviors through shaping their attitudes, needs and motivations. According to social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), an important context in which social information stems from is the workplace. Social information provides clues for individuals to construct and interpret events and understand what attitudes and behaviors are expected. According to this theory, employees tend to form perceptions based on informational clues in the workplace, and change their subsequent behaviors accordingly (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Social information processing theory has been proposed to be an important lens for explaining the perceptions about leaders on the attitudes, motivations and

behaviors of subordinates (e.g., Boekhorst, 2015; Hall & Lord, 1995; Piccolo et al., 2010). For example, Boekhorst (2015) suggested that employees view leaders as a significant source of information, and actively search for clues from them. Based on social information processing theory, leaders' emotions, cognitions, attitudes and behaviors are important information in the workplace, and will elicit employees' interpretations and responses. Only when subordinates process the information conveyed by the leaders at work can leaders have an influence on their subordinates and the relevant teams (Piccolo et al., 2010).

The Moderating Role of Supervisor Interpersonal Justice Rule Adherence

I propose that supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence could reduce the negative impact of POQ on hindrance appraisal. Justice rule adherence reflects managers' behaviors or actions pertaining to a justice rule (e.g., "did the manager provide an opportunity to voice concerns?"). Scott et al. (2009) suggested that the four general justice rules that supervisors adhere to are distributive justice (concerning decision-making outcomes, assessed based on whether the allocation of outcomes aligns with employees' inputs, Adams, 1963), procedural justice (concerning decision-making processes, evaluated by whether the procedures are accurate, unbiased, consistent, correct, ethical and representative, Leventhal, 1980), informational justice (concerning explanations for the decision-making events, judged by whether details are adequately provided by the decision-maker; Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993), and interpersonal justice (concerning the interpersonal communication involved in the decision-making processes; treating employees with dignity and respect; Bies, 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993). These four justice dimensions differentially predict employee attitudes and behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013).

I expect that the proposed moderation effect will be limited to interpersonal justice rule adherence. Although four dimensions of justice adherence behaviors are frequently

examined together (e.g., Huang et al., 2017), compared to the other three types of justice, supervisors have most control over interpersonal justice (Scott et al., 2009). While available cues regarding distributive, procedural, and informational justice rules mostly come from ambiguous or indirect sources, interpersonal justice involves direct treatment received from a supervisor, such as respect, dignity and sincerity (Zapata et al., 2016). Indeed, interpersonal justice is identified as the rule that is least constrained by formalized policies and practices within the organization, and therefore most dependent on supervisor discretions (Scott et al., 2009). For example, because some rules are enacted by the organization, a supervisor sometimes may not have the discretion to override it and thus have to either provide or withhold certain information from his or her subordinates (Gilliland & Schepers, 2003). Therefore, employees are more likely to particularly relate perceived interpersonal justice adherence to supervisor behaviors than other forms of justice. In addition, interactions related to interpersonal justice rules can occur on a daily basis, making them particularly salient and strong (Bies, 2005). Therefore, I focus on adherence to interpersonal justice rule in deriving the model.

Drawing on social information processing theory, I expect supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence to moderate the effects of POQ on hindrance appraisal. When one's supervisor does not adhere to the justice rules, overqualified employees could interpret informational cues conveyed from supervisors' violation of justice rules as another unfair treatment in addition to their already unjust overqualification situation that could be regarded as an indicator of distributive justice (Harari et al., 2017). Therefore, they may be prone to notice and be bothered by their overqualification situation (i.e., job demands are not aligned with employees' skills). Subsequently, they are more likely to feel that the overqualification situation is a stressor that will hinder their personal well-being, self-development and accomplishment. This is consistent with the empirical findings that different justice types

could interact, and when both justice types are low, outcomes could be worse off (e.g., lower organizational commitment, McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; more workplace retaliation behaviors, Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). In contrast, overqualified employees who have supervisors adhering to interpersonal justice rules might be less likely to feel concerned about their situation. Supervisors' acts of communicating honestly and respectfully and other similar behaviors signal to the employees they are valued by the supervisor (Zapata et al., 2013). Such informational cues enable overqualified employees to interpret their overqualification situation as less stressful and more tolerable. Perceiving that their supervisors are adhering to interpersonal justice rules, they believe that they will have opportunities to earn what they deserve eventually, thus they will be less likely to perceive overqualification as something that thwarts the attainment of goals and development.

Hypothesis 4a: Supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence moderates the positive relationship between POQ and hindrance appraisal such that the relationship is weaker when supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence is higher.

Social information theory suggests that leader behaviors can provide clues for individuals to form perceptions and alter their subsequent behaviors accordingly (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). The theorizing behind Hypothesis 4a suggests that when supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence is high, overqualified employees will process such contextual information as a source of support for justice that could reduce the overall level of perceived unfairness they have encountered in the organization. As a result, POQ might not necessarily induce hindrance appraisal. According to the arguments linking hindrance appraisal and task performance via psychological entitlement, a reduced level of hindrance appraisal will not lead to subsequent lower psychological entitlement and ultimately, higher task performance under the condition of high (compared to lower) supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence. To sum, I propose that:

Hypothesis 5a: Supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence moderates the positive indirect effect of POQ on psychological entitlement via hindrance appraisal of POQ such that the indirect effect is weaker when supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence is higher.

Hypothesis 6a: Supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence moderates the negative indirect effect of POQ on task performance via hindrance appraisal of POQ and psychological entitlement such that the indirect effect is weaker when supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence is higher.

The Moderating Role of Leader Humility

Another relevant leadership behavior that could serve as a pivotal moderator between POQ and outcomes is leader humility. Humility represents a foundation of virtues and self-transcendence (Dennett, 1995; Morris et al., 2005; Owens & Hekman, 2013, 2016). Through qualitative analyses, Owens and Hekman (2012) suggest that leader humility connotes admitting mistakes and limits, spotlighting followers' strengths and contributions, and modeling teachability (e.g., being open to feedback, advice, and new ideas). In the organizational context, scholars have focused on the relational impact of leader humility and have found that it could foster the effectiveness and growth of both employees and teams (Ou et al., 2018; Owens & Hekman, 2012, 2016; Owens et al., 2013).

I also draw on social information processing theory to argue the role of leader humility in the relationship between POQ and its outcomes. Social information processing theory has been the most frequently used theory in leader humility literature (e.g., Ou et al., 2014; Rego et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018). The informational cues from humble leaders could help to cultivate a social environment that might increase employees' job self-efficacy. First, humble leaders appreciate and acknowledge subordinates' strengths and contributions. Owens et al. (2013) denoted that leaders who demonstrated humility tend to be more readily

able to identify and value the abilities, knowledge and strengths of their followers. Humble leaders are also more attentive to the desirable qualities of others (Owens et al., 2011), which enables them to form a holistic and complex view of employees with superior qualifications. Thus, information sent through appreciation and spotlighting of abilities and knowledge would make overqualified employees feel encouraged and motivated to utilize their surplus KSAs. Second, leaders who demonstrate humility tend to model teachability by being open to learning, seeking feedback and considering alternative views. Humble leaders who are teachable show stronger desire and willingness to learn new knowledge, obtain up-to-date skills and acquire job-related information from others, including followers (Owens & Hekman, 2012). Such behaviors signal to overqualified employees that their knowledge and skills beyond the job demands may be are respected by a humble leader. Finally, because humble leaders admit their limitations and gaps in their own KSAs (Owens et al., 2013), the motivation of overqualified employees to make contributions to the organizations with their unutilized skill will be further reinforced. As a result, overqualified employees' surplus abilities and skills are more likely to be activated. In summary, overqualified employees with a more humble leader will likely evaluate the overqualification situation as having more potential for recognition and praise, mastery and competence. Hence, I propose that:

Hypothesis 4b: Leader humility moderates the positive relationship between POQ and challenge appraisal such that the relationship is stronger when supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence is higher.

Through behaviors such as admitting mistakes and limits, spotlighting followers' strengths and contributions, and modeling teachability (e.g., being open to feedback, advice, and new ideas), humble leaders provide a source of information to overqualified employees that with their leaders, they could have opportunities to utilize their surplus knowledge, skills, and abilities to make a contribution to the organization. For this group of overqualified

employees, they are more likely to perceive POQ as a challenge stressor that can motivate them to attain their goals, and fullfill their potential for mastery, competence and achievement. That is, with a high level of leader humility, POQ might lead to higher levels of challenge appraisal. Because the challenge appraisal of POQ enables employees to finish their tasks outstandingly through improving their belief of job self-efficacy (i.e., the arguments for the Hypothesis 3b), taken together, I propose that:

Hypothesis 5b: Leader humility moderates the positive indirect effect of POQ on job self-efficacy via challenge appraisal of POQ such that the indirect effect is stronger when leader humility is higher.

Hypothesis 6b: Leader humility moderates the positive indirect effect of POQ on task performance via challenge appraisal of POQ and job self-efficacy such that the indirect effect is stronger when leader humility is higher.

METHOD

Sample and Procedures

I collected data from a sample of full-time employees and supervisors from a Chinese stated-owned company in the manufacturing industry. The data were collected at three different time points. At Time 1, I sent invitations to all the employees (N=461) in the company; a total of 374 employees agreed to participate in the study (agreement rate=81.12%). The surveys were administered during a management consulting visit to the company. All the employee paper surveys were distributed in a special meeting session arranged by the HR department. Each employee was randomly assigned a participant ID so they would be able to receive the second-wave survey. In this survey, participants responded to questions about POQ, supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence, leader humility and control variables (i.e., sex, job tenure, working hours, and objective overqualification). At Time 2 (one month after Time 1), hindrance and challenge appraisals of POQ, psychological

entitlement and job self-efficacy were measured through employees' self-reported responses. At Time 3 (one month after Time 2), supervisors were asked to rate employees' task performance. The one-month lag in time is chosen as it is comparable to the practice in previous POQ research (Deng et al., 2018; Erdogan et al., 2018). After matching the employee responses at multiple waves as well as with supervisor responses, the final sample size was 291 employees (out of 374, response rate=78%) with their 51 supervisors (out of 70, response rate=73%). Among the employee participants, 66% are males; the average age was 40.3 years old; most of the employees hold a bachelor's degree (55.7%). The average job tenure was 13.6 years; the average working hours was 41.9 hours/week; the average tenure with the supervisor was 5.7 years.

Measures

Most measures have been used in the Chinese context, where it has not, cross-cultural validation procedures, including back-translation (Brislin et al. , 1973) and semantic equivalence (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000) were implemented. Specifically, measures of POQ, psychological entitlement, leader humility and task performance have been validated in the Chinese context. For measures of challenge and hindrance appraisals, job self-efficacy and supervisor interpersonal justice role adherence, I first translated the English items into Chinese. Then, I asked a management professor at a Chinese university who is a Chinese-English bilingual to translate the Chinese items into English. I then discussed with him back and forth, until we reached agreement on the translation. Finally, I asked a PhD student who majors in English Literature to compare the Chinese translation with the original English items to ensure the semantic equivalence between the English items and Chinese translations. We discussed the items, revised, went back to discuss the items and so forth until we agreed that there were no semantic differences. Unless otherwise noted, all the scales were rated on a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree).

POQ (employee self-rated). POQ was measured with the 9-item scale developed by Maynard, Joseph and Maynard (2006). Sample items include "my job requires less education than I have," and "the work experience that I have is not necessary to be successful on this job". This scale has been used in the Chinese context (e.g. Deng et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2016). The Cronbach's alpha is .84.

Challenge and hindrance appraisals (employee self-rated). Challenge and hindrance appraisals were assessed using the modified version of three-item scales developed by LePine et al. (2016). The items for challenge appraisal are "Being overqualified for my job helps to improve my personal growth and well-being", "I feel being overqualified for my job challenges me to achieve personal goals and accomplishment," and "In general, I feel that being overqualified for my job promotes my personal accomplishment". Hindrance appraisal was assessed using the following 3 items: "Being overqualified for my job thwarts my personal growth and well-being," "I feel being overqualified for my job constrains my achievement of personal goals and development," and "In general, I feel that being overqualified for my job hinders my personal accomplishment". The Cronbach's alphas for challenge and hindrance appraisals are .89 and .92, respectively.

Psychological entitlement (employee self-rated). Psychological entitlement was measured by the 4-item scale developed by Yam et al. (2017). This scale was modified from the original 9-item scale developed by Campbell et al. (2004). In their modification, Yam et al. (2017) removed 5 items to form the 4-item scale to fit the Chinese context because these items are not applicable to a non-U.S. cultural context (e.g., "If I were on the Titanic, I would deserve to be on the first lifeboat"). The Cronbach's alpha is .89.

Job self-efficacy (employee self-rated). Job self-efficacy was measured with the 8-item scale developed by Chen et al. (2004). Sample items include "I can effectively handle difficult tasks at work" and "I have no problem meeting the expectations that my employer

has for me". The Cronbach's alpha is .91.

Supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence (employee rated). Employees were asked to rate their supervisors' interpersonal justice rule adherence behavior using the 4-item scale used by Zapata et al. (2013). Sample items include: "My supervisor treats me in a polite manner" and "My supervisor treats me with respect". The responses were recorded on a seven-point likert scale: 1= to a very small extent to 7= to a very large extent. The Cronbach's alpha is .89.

Leader humility (employee rated). Leader humility was measured using the 9-item scale developed by Owens et al. (2013). Sample items include "My supervisor acknowledges when others have more knowledge and skills than him- or herself," and "My supervisor shows a willingness to learn from others". The Cronbach's alpha is .94.

Task performance (supervisor rated). Supervisors rated employees' task performance using the 7-item scale by Williams and Anderson (1991). Sample items include "This employee adequately completes assigned duties", and "this employee fulfills responsibilities specified in the job description". The Cronbach's alpha is .87.

Control variables. Following recent recommendations (Becker et al., 2016; Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016) on the selection of control variables, I included employee demographics (e.g., sex, job tenure, working hours). I also controlled objective overqualification using two indicators employed by previous scholars: pay difference and difference in hierarchical level of the job (Feldman et al., 2002; McKee-Ryan et al., 2009). Pay difference was measured with "What is the pay difference between your current job and last job?" on a 9-point scale (1=current job pays 40 percent or more than last job to 9=current job entails a pay cut of more than 40 per cent than last job). Difference in hierarchical level of the job was measured by "how does the hierarchical level of your current job compare with that of the last job?" Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1= much higher to 5= much lower.

Data Analytical Strategy

Given the nested structure of the data (i.e., supervisor may rate multiple employees' task performance), I used multi-level path analysis in Mplus 7 (Muthén, & Muthén, 2012) along with bootstrapping (N=20,000) in R to account for the non-interdependence of the data (Bliese, 2000, 2002). This approach has been used recently in organizational behavior research (e.g., Barclay & Kiefer, 2017; De Cremer et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2015).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities and correlations are presented in Table 2.1. Notably, POQ is not correlated with hindrance appraisal (r = -.11, *n.s.*) or challenge appraisal (r = -.05, *n.s.*); in addition, POQ is not correlated with task performance (r =.00, *n.s.*). Challenge appraisal is positively correlated with job self-efficacy (r =.59, $p < .01$), but unexpectedly, hindrance appraisal is negatively correlated with psychological entitlement (r = -.35, $p < .01$). Finally, both psychological entitlement (r = .13, $p < .05$) and job self-efficacy (r = .26, $p < .01$) are positively correlated with task performance.

Table 2.1 Means, SDs, Reliabilities and Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Task performance (T3)	5.87	.92	(.87)												
2. POQ (T1)	4.07	1.07	.00	(.84)											
3. Supervisor IJRA (T1)	5.41	1.21	-.02	-.19**	(.89)										
4. Leader humility (T1)	5.10	1.13	.02	-.22**	.76**	(.94)									
5. Hindrance appraisal (T2)	3.42	1.34	-.06	-.11	.01	-.08	(.92)								
6. Challenge appraisal (T2)	5.76	1.10	.24**	-.05	.09	.09	-.32**	(.89)							
7. PE (T2)	4.74	1.26	.13*	.04	-.03	.01	-.35**	.47**	(.89)						
8. Job self-efficacy (T2)	5.85	.93	.26**	-.03	.10	.11	-.18**	.59**	.33**	(.91)					
9. Sex	.34	.47	-.04	-.09	.07	.01	-.06	.12*	-.04	.11	(-)				
10. Job tenure	13.63	10.77	.02	.00	-.07	-.13*	.12*	-.10	-.02	.04	-.04	(-)			
11. Working hours	41.93	5.85	.05	.18**	.01	.08	-.07	.04	.11	.00	-.29**	-.13*	(-)		
12. Objective OQ-job level	3.07	.90	.02	-.08	.16**	.10	.03	.09	.09	.01	-.00	-.01	-.09	(-)	
13. Objective OQ-pay	4.94	1.78	-.01	.02	.07	.02	.04	-.07	-.00	-.08	.10	.19**	-.11	.24**	(-)

Note: *p <.05, **p < .01

POQ=perceived overqualification. PE= psychological entitlement. Supervisor IJRA= super visor interpersonal justice rule adherence. Objective OQ= objective overqualification.

T1=Time 1, T2= Time 2, one month after Time 1. T3=Time 3, one month after Time 2.

SD =standard deviation. Reliabilities are shown in parentheses on the diagonal.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) using Mplus 7 (Muthén, & Muthén, 2012) to examine the discriminant validity of the constructs: POQ, supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence, leader humility, hindrance appraisal, challenge appraisal, psychological entitlement, job self-efficacy, and task performance. Because the ratio of sample size to parameters in this study was below the recommended value of 5 (Bentler & Chou, 1987), I created parcels for leader humility based on its three dimensions. First, I tested an eight-factor model in which the items measuring each variable loaded on their respective constructs. The results showed that the eight-factor model yielded good fit to the data: $\chi^2[637] = 1337.10$, CFI= .90, TLI = .89, RMSEA= .06, SRMR = .06. Next, I tested this eight-factor model against several alternative models. I tested a seven-factor model where supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence and leader humility were merged into one factor. The model showed a worse fit to the eight-factor model: $\chi^2[644] = 1532.52$, CFI= .87, TLI = .86, RMSEA= .07, SRMR = .06, $\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df = 3$] = 195.42, $p < .01$. In addition, I tested another seven-factor model where hindrance and challenge appraisals were merged into a single factor. This seven-factor model did not have a good fit ($\chi^2[644] = 1935.30$, CFI= .81, TLI = .80, RMSEA= .08, SRMR = .07), and fitted worse than the eight-factor model ($\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df = 3$] = 598.20, $p < .01$). Because the variables in this study were measured at three separate time points, and common method bias is more likely to occur among measures at the same time (Podsakoff et al., 2003), I also examined a three-factor model where variables measured at the same time point were merged into their own factors. Yet, this three-factor model provided poor fit for the data ($\chi^2[662] = 3673.55$, CFI= .56, TLI = .53, RMSEA= .13, SRMR = .12), and was poorer than the eight-factor model($\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df = 25$] = 2336.45, $p < .01$). Finally, to examine the potential common method bias caused by the source of rating, I tested a two-factor model, in which the variables reported by the employee loaded on one factor

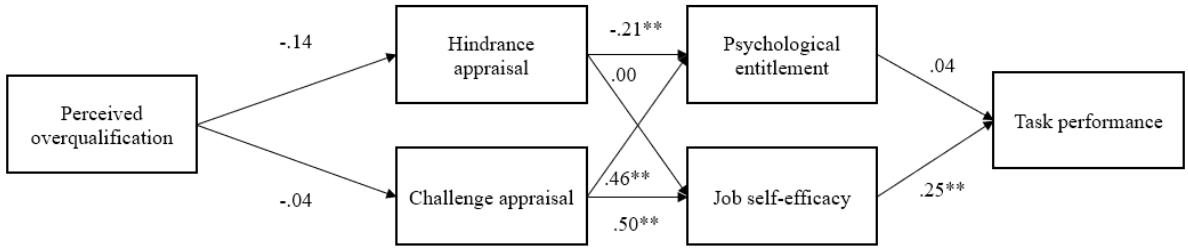
while the variables reported by the supervisor loaded on another factor. This model also yielded a bad fit (χ^2[664] = 5397.43, CFI= .31, TLI = .27, RMSEA= .16, SRMR = .20), and was significantly worse than the eight-factor model ($\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df$ = 27] = 4060.33, p < .01). In summary, the results of these analyses provided support for the discriminant validity of the constructs included in this research.

Hypothesis Testing

Before I tested the hypotheses, I examined supervisors' ratings' lack of independence and biases, as they rated multiple employees. I calculated the inter-class correlation coefficients (ICC) and found that the ICC for task performance was 0.14, justifying the use of multi-level analyses.

Figure 2.2 presents the estimates for the path coefficients for the mediation model. The results showed that POQ was not related to hindrance appraisal (γ = -.14, *n.s.*) or challenge appraisal (γ = -.04, *n.s.*), not supporting Hypothesis 1a or Hypothesis 1b.

Figure 2.2 Results of Mediation Model in Essay 2

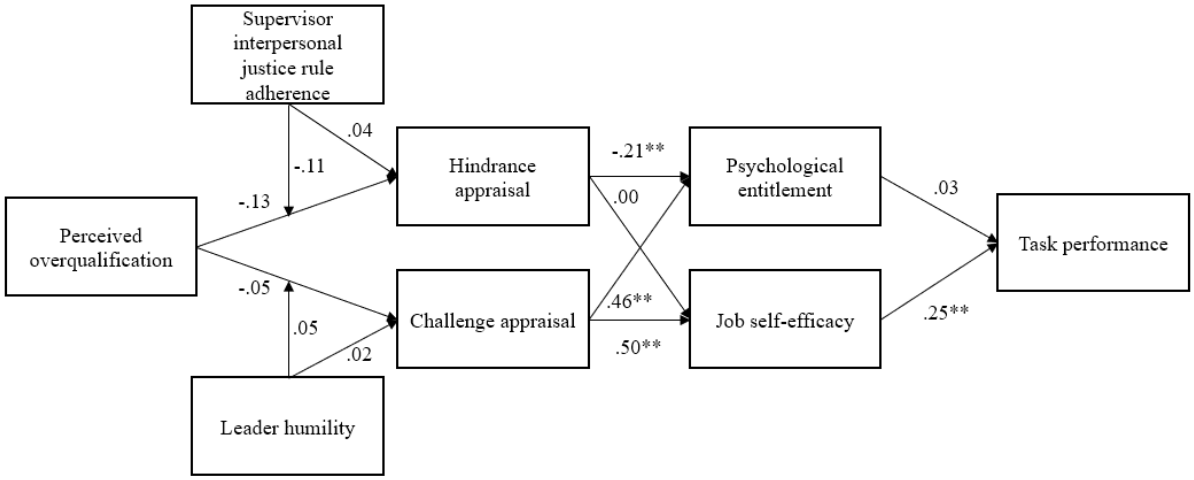


I followed the recommended procedures by Preacher and Hayes (2008) to test the mediation hypotheses. Preacher and Hayes (2008) suggested three steps for testing the mediation effect: 1) the independent variable should be significantly related to the mediator; 2) the mediator should be significantly related to the dependent variable; and 3) the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable should be significant when the mediator is present. Because of the insignificant paths linking POQ and hindrance appraisal and challenge appraisal, failing to satisfy step 1 above, I found no support for the indirect

effects. Hence, the hypotheses for mediations (Hypothesis 2a and Hypothesis 2b) as well the sequential mediations (Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3b) were not supported.

To test the hypotheses for the moderation effects as well as the moderated mediation effects, I tested a moderated mediation model. The path coefficients were presented in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 Results of Moderated Mediation Model in Essay 2



The results showed that the model fits adequately to the data (CFI= .96, TLI = .88, RMSEA= .04, SRMR = .02). Hypothesis 4a predicted that supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence would moderate the relationship between POQ and hindrance appraisal. As shown in Figure 2.3, supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence did not moderate the relationship between POQ and hindrance appraisal (γ = -.11, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was not supported, and because of this, the moderated mediation hypothesis (i.e., Hypothesis 5a and Hypothesis 6a) was not supported as well. Further, the interaction of POQ and leader humility was not significantly related to challenge appraisal (γ = .05, *n.s.*), lending no support for Hypothesis 4b. Due to this, Hypothesis 5b and Hypothesis 6b, which suggested that leader humility would moderate the indirect effect of POQ on job self-efficacy through challenge appraisal, or on task performance through challenge appraisal and job self-efficacy were not

supported.

In summary, the main mechanisms linking POQ and task performance (i.e., the two sequential mediating pathways) as well as the moderating roles of leader behaviors were not supported.

DISCUSSION

Previous research has found that there is an inconclusive relationship between POQ and task performance, and it is probably because different employees may appraise it in their own ways. However, little has been done to examine this possibility. In addition, while leaders spend considerable time with their subordinates, there is a lack of understanding of how leaders' behaviors can actually lead their overqualified subordinates to perform well. Drawing on the transactional theory of stress, challenge/hindrance stressor framework and social information processing theory, I proposed that POQ would affect task performance through two different pathways: negatively through hindrance appraisal, and positively through challenge appraisal. I also predicted that supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence would moderate the relationship between POQ and hindrance appraisal as well as the indirect effect of POQ on task performance via hindrance appraisal and psychological entitlement while leader humility would moderate the relationship between POQ and challenge appraisal as well as the indirect effect of POQ on task performance via challenge appraisal and job self-efficacy. I tested the hypotheses using multi-wave multi-source data collected from a sample of 291 employees and their 51 supervisors in a Chinese state-owned manufacturing company. However, although some path coefficients in the model were significant as expected, the results generally provided no support for the mediation or the moderated mediation relationships. In the discussion, I will first overview the main findings, and then discuss the strengths, limitations and implications for future research directions.

Summary of Findings

As suggested in the results section above, the hypotheses, which I derived drawing on transactional theory of stress, challenge-hindrance stressor framework and social information processing theory, were not supported. The primary reason for these unsupported hypotheses may be that POQ does not induce challenge appraisal nor hindrance appraisal. These insignificant findings may have occurred for several theoretical and empirical reasons. In terms of the theoretical reasons, studies that examine the cognitive appraisal processes predominantly assess how individuals evaluate external job-related "stressors" that are traditionally viewed as job demands and that can lead to strains. In this study, however, I study POQ, which is not a typical "job demand", but a situation that might induce individual strains (Allan et al., 2020; Maynard et al., 2015). It is possible that because being overqualified for a job is a status resulting from not only the external job-related element (i.e., the job), but also the internal element (i.e., the person). As a result, employees might attribute being in such a situation partially to their own discretional decisions; hence, they may accept POQ as it is sort of expected, and do not perceive POQ per se as neither a challenge nor a hindrance stressor. Particularly, the participants in this study were employees from a Chinese state-owned company, where the non-compensational benefits (e.g., high pension, free childcare, guaranteed city citizenship) are often great and serve as "pull factors" that attract employees. Hence, employees might not mind being overqualified for such as a job in which they have underutilized KSAs, and thus would not consider it as a stressor that could lead to their challenge or hindrance appraisals. Besides the null findings regarding the mediations, I also did not find the moderating effects of leader behaviors, though the directions of the moderation were consistent with my earlier predictions. Like I mentioned above, these employees are likely to stay in their jobs due to extrinsic motivators; therefore, their expectations for leaders to engage in justice-relevant behaviors or to be humble in their leader-subordinate interactions might be low. As a result, what leaders do may not be enough

to alter the relationships between POQ and the appraisals.

Besides the theoretical reasons, there are some possible empirical reasons for the null findings. For example, following the recommendations of best practices in choosing control variables (Becker et al., 2016; Bernerth & Aguinis, 2016), although I selected and included several control variables based on theory and prior literature, there might be other relevant variables that may suppress or confound the relationships tested in the model. In addition, I measured the challenge/hindrance appraisals of POQ one month after POQ was measured. Although there is no conclusive practice in terms of what the appropriate time lag is between the time point of measuring stressors and the time point of measuring the appraisals, it is possible that the appraisal of a stressor occurred more shortly than a one-month time lag; therefore, their appraisals might have declined over time.

Strengths, Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study has some areas of strengths. First, I draw on transactional theory of stress and challenge-hindrance stressor framework to investigate two contrasting pathways between POQ and task performance. This theoretical approach contributes not only by using new theoretical perspectives, but also by, to the best of my knowledge, serving as the first study to examine both facilitating and debilitating pathways simultaneously. Second, this study focuses on the role of leadership. Previous research has generally overlooked the impact of leader behaviors on employees' POQ. This study addresses this theoretical gap by considering two types of leadership behaviors, namely, supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence and leader humility. This also responds to a recent call for more attention on the social context of POQ (Erdogan et al., 2011b). Finally, another strength with of this study is the design. In this study, I adopted a multi-source multi-wave design to capture employees' reactions to their POQ. In doing so, I was able to minimize the negative influences by the common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In addition, the hypotheses were tested in a

sample of employees from a state-owned company in China. Jobs in state-owned companies in China are frequently considered as “iron rice bowl” (lifetime employment), which is desired in the Chinese management philosophy (Huang et al., 2012), as such a job often comes with great non-monetary benefits. Therefore, the study context, which makes overqualified employees readily available, is another strength of this research.

Despite the strengths, this study is not without its limitations. First, although the mediators and moderators examined are theoretically derived, there might be other mediators and moderators that explain the effect of POQ on task performance. Future research could be conducted to explore other plausible underpinning mechanisms (e.g., relative time spent on work tasks) and contingent boundary conditions (e.g., ethical leadership, prosocial motivation) that draw on different theoretical perspectives. Second, the data is collected in China, which has a collectivistic culture. In collectivistic cultures, which are generally elicited by the interdependent view of the self, individuals see the leader’s interests as representative of the collective interest (Chen & Miller, 2011). Therefore, the effects of leader behaviors might not be as effective as those found in individualistic cultures. Hence, future research should further investigate the generalizability of the findings by replicating this model in multiple cultural contexts. Third, I collected data from multiple sources to mitigate the influence of common method bias, but I was not able to draw a conclusion with regards to a causal relationship in this model due to the field design. Future studies are needed in order to use more sophisticated and rigorous design to further explore any causal relationship.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study suggest that the perception of being overqualified may not lead to challenge or hindrance appraisals, and the relationship between POQ and task performance do not follow the “challenge/hindrance” pathways. In addition, leader’s interpersonal justice rule adherence and humility do not change the relationship between

POQ and its appraisals. This study provides evidence as an attempt to unpack the complex association between POQ and task performance, and explore the moderating roles of the leader behaviors. Hopefully, it provides a first step to bring in novel perspectives into the perceived overqualification literature, and lays the groundwork for more research to understand how leader can help overqualified employees to react more positively to their overqualification situation.

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Appendix A. Items for Essay 2 Variables

Perceived overqualification

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

1. My job requires less education than I have

2. The work experience that I have is not necessary to be successful on this job

3. I have job skills that are not required for this job

4. Someone with less education than myself could perform well on my job

5. My previous training is not being fully utilized on this job

6. I have a lot of knowledge that I do not need in order to do my job

7. My education level is above the education level required by my job

8. Someone with less work experience than myself could do my job just as well

9. I have more abilities than I need in order to do my job

Challenge and hindrance appraisals

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

Challenge appraisal

1. Being overqualified for my job helps to improve my personal growth and well-being

2. I feel being overqualified for my job challenges me to achieve personal goals and accomplishment

3. In general, I feel that being overqualified for my job promotes my personal accomplishment

Hindrance appraisal

1. Being overqualified for my job thwarts my personal growth and well-being

2. I feel being overqualified for my job constrains my achievement of personal goals and development

3. In general, I feel that being overqualified for my job hinders my personal accomplishment

Supervisor interpersonal justice rule adherence

Response scale: 1= to a very small extent to 7= to a very large extent

Items:

1. My supervisor treats me in a polite manner

2. My supervisor treats me with dignity

3. My supervisor treats me with respect

4. My supervisor has refrained from improper remarks or comments toward me

Leader humility

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

1. My supervisor actively seeks feedback even if it is critical

2. My supervisor admits it when they don't know how to do something

3. My supervisor acknowledges when others have more knowledge and skills than him- or herself

4. My supervisor takes notice of others' strengths

5. My supervisor often compliments others on their strengths

6. My supervisor shows appreciation for the unique contributions of others

7. My supervisor is willing to learn from others

8. My supervisor is open to the ideas of others

9. My supervisor is open to the advice of others

Psychological entitlement

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

1. I honestly feel I'm just more deserving than others

2. Great things should come to me

3. I demand the best because I'm worth it

4. I deserve more things in my life

Job self-efficacy

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

1. I can successfully overcome obstacles at work

2. I can effectively handle difficult tasks at work

3. I have no problem meeting the expectations that my employer has for me

4. I can successfully organize and prioritize my duties at work

5. When at work, I am able to give full attention to my assignments

6. I am confident in my ability to meet most deadlines on my job

7. I am able to solve most work problems in a timely fashion

8. I am more capable at doing my job than most other employees

Task performance

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

This employee:

1. Adequately completes assigned duties

2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description

3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her

4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job

Objective overqualification

Response scale: 1=current job pays 40 percent or more than last job to 9=current job entails a pay cut of more than 40 per cent than last job

Item:

What is the pay difference between your current job and last job?"

Response scale: 1= much higher than my last job to 5= much lower than my last job

Item:

How does the hierarchical level of your current job compare with that of your last job?

ESSAY 3: LINKING PERCEIVED OVERQUALIFICATION TO ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS: THE ROLES OF JOB SATISFACTION, NEEDS-SUPPLIES FIT AND VOLUNTARINESS OF TAKING THE JOB

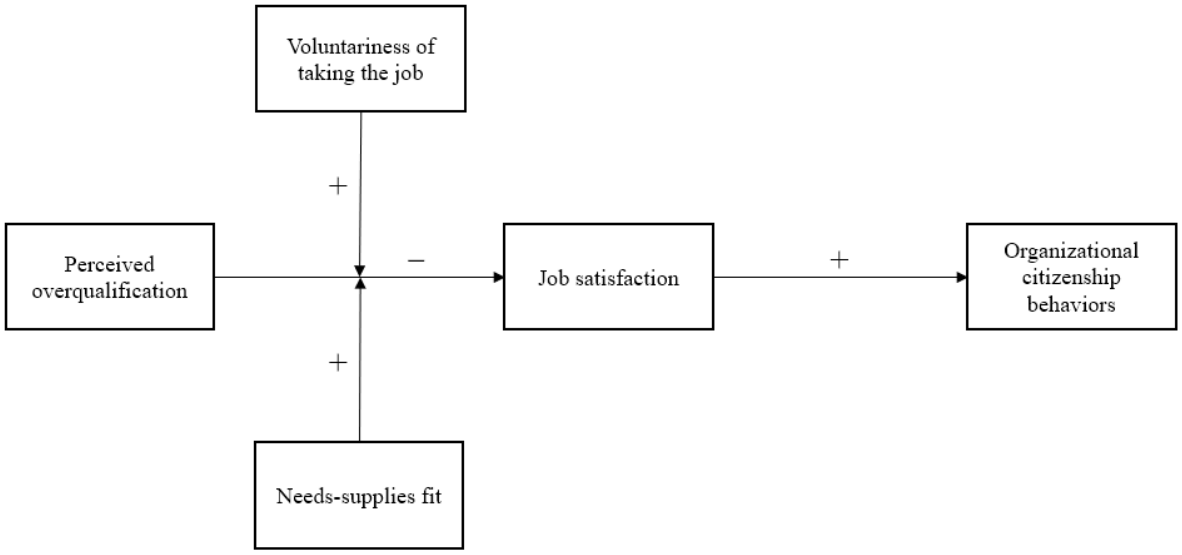
Do overqualified employees engage in more or less organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs)? Because job attitudes are strong predictors of OCBs (Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Ryan, 1995) and perceived overqualification (POQ) generally leads to negative job attitudes, it is legitimate and natural to expect that overqualified employees will be less likely to exhibit OCBs. Further, overqualification might be perceived by employees as an unfair treatment by the employer, thus from the perspectives of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), individuals should be less likely to reciprocate by exhibiting OCBs. Indeed, Erdogan et al. (2020) and Kawai and Mohr (2020) found that POQ reduced the likelihood of exhibiting OCBs. However, more recent research suggests a different relationship between POQ and OCBs. For example, Hu et al. (2015) found that POQ was positively related to OCBs via task significance and person-group fit if their peers also feel overqualified, because being surrounded by colleagues who are also overqualified may make them feel that they are part of an elite group. Lin et al. (2017) adopted a job crafting perspective while Deng et al. (2018) used a relational perspective to indicate that POQ could enhance OCBs under certain conditions. Hence, this line of research suggests that POQ could result in high and low levels of OCBs, and the relationship is likely to depend on other contingent factors. In management research, a meta-analysis of 61 studies delineated a negative (ρ=-.06) but non-significant correlation between POQ and OCBs (Harari et al., 2017). The findings pertaining to the relationship between POQ and OCBs are generally inconclusive, and thus suggests a necessity of looking at potential moderators that elicit differential effects (Johns, 2006).

In Essay 1, I suggested that POQ generally has a negative effect on job attitudes such

as job satisfaction and affective commitment. This is consistent with previous theory on POQ (Feldman, 1996), which denotes that being overqualified for a position is stressful and undesirable, thereby taking a job for which one is overqualified for is usually an involuntary decision (i.e., a decision without alternative options). A recent article (Erdogan et al., 2011b) suggests that the intentionality behind such a decision will determine the desirability of the outcomes, as individuals who intentionally take a job for which they are overqualified may have more favorable outcomes, such as lower work-family conflict and higher overall life satisfaction. Yet, this possibility has not been empirically tested and Erdogan et al. (2011, p. 265) called on researchers to "consider choice as a contingency and pay specific attention to the characteristics of the job overqualified employees hold."

To address this limitation and answer the previous calls, in the current essay, I draw on person-job fit theory (Edwards, 1991), which suggests that positive outcomes (e.g., attitudes and behaviors) occur when there is a fit between a) the job's demands and the person's abilities (i.e., demands-abilities fit), and b) the job's supplies and the person's needs (i.e., needs-supplies fit), to propose the theoretical model. Specifically, I propose that the voluntariness of taking a job one is overqualified for could mitigate the negative effect of POQ on job satisfaction and negative indirect effect on OCBs. Further, I also argue that whether POQ---an instance of low demands-abilities fit---would increase or reduce OCBs depends on the level of their needs-supplies fit. I propose that POQ is more likely to elicit job satisfaction and subsequent OCBs for high needs-supplies fit employees. The proposed theoretical model is presented in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Theoretical Model in Essay 3



THEORY AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Person-Job Fit Theory

The conceptualization of person-job fit stems from the term of person-environment fit. Person-environment fit is defined as the compatibility between the characteristics of the person and those of the work environment (Caplan, 1987; Edwards, 2008; Edwards, Caplan, & Van Harrison, 1998). Accordingly, person-job fit refers to the match between the characteristics of person and those of the job (Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996). Person-job fit has two different types, which are demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit (Edwards, 1991). Demands-abilities s fit is manifested in the alignment between the job requirements and the knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) of the person. Needs-supplies fit is conceptualized as the fit between the individual's needs, desires or preference and what the job supplies. These two types are both complementary fit as employees' characteristics fill a gap that is pre-existent in the environment (Edwards, 2008). Overqualification represents a directional misfit where individuals' abilities exceed job demands; thus, it represents a specific form of demands-abilities misfit (Liu et al., 2015; Liu & Wang, 2012; Maynard et al., 2006; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013). It is also worth noting that POQ represents perceived

fit (vs. objective fit), as employees make a direct evaluation of the compatibility between the person and the job (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Person-job fit theory suggests that negative outcomes (e.g., undesirable job attitudes, impaired job performance and higher intentions to quit) occur when the characteristics of the person do not match those of the job (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Person-job fit theory has been useful in explaining the effects of POQ (e.g., Debus et al., 2019; Erdogan et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2015; Luksyte et al., 2011; Maynard et al., 2006). For example, across different samples in the United States, Maynard et al. (2006) found that employees who have higher feelings of overqualification experienced more negative job attitudes (i.e., diminished job satisfaction and lower affective organizational commitment). Moreover, in a sample of Chinese R&D workers, Liu and colleagues (2015) suggested that overqualified employees are more likely to engage in counterproductive work behaviors because of their diminished organization-based self-esteem and anger towards the overqualification situations. Maynard and Parfyonova (2013) also indicated that the pursuit of an improved fit propels overqualified employees to search for a new job.

POQ, Job Satisfaction and OCBs

Person-job fit theory suggests that greater fit between demands and abilities or between needs and supplies will result in more beneficial outcomes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), such as job satisfaction. Given that POQ represents a poor demands-abilities fit, it is expected that more overqualified employees tend to be less satisfied with their job. Indeed, research has consistently shown that POQ leads to lower job satisfaction (Alfes et al., 2016; Bolino & Feldman, 2000; Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Fine & Nevo, 2008; McKee-Ryan et al., 2009). I focus on job satisfaction as the focal mediating mechanism because job satisfaction should be most strongly associated with person-job fit given the common domain of fit (i.e., job domain; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), due to their job dissatisfaction, overqualified employees may abstain from OCBs because of the perceived lack of fairness in social exchanges with their organizations (Agut et al., 2009). As various organizational research suggests that job satisfaction is among the strongest and most consistent attitudinal predictors of OCBs (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Hoffman, et al., 2017; Organ & Ryan, 1995), in line with previous theorizing (Feldman, 1996), I argue that employees who perceive high levels of overqualification will generally engage in less OCBs via reduced job satisfaction. Aligned with this notion, previous organizational studies have revealed overqualified employees tend to withhold their acts of OCBs (e.g., Feldman & Turnley, 2004).

Boundary Conditions of POQ-OCBs Relationship

Although I propose that the relationship between POQ and OCBs is generally negative, other studies show that, under some conditions, POQ exerts positive influences on employees' OCBs. For instance, Hu et al. (2015) identified a positive indirect effect of POQ on OCBs via task significance and person-group fit, and this relationship is stronger when the employee's peers are also overqualified because this would make the focal worker feel like working in an elite group. Zhang et al. (2015) reported that POQ could elicit higher pro-other and pro-organization behaviors when employees' performance orientation is high. Lin et al. (2017) denoted that moderate to high levels of POQ could increase OCBs towards individuals through crafting their tasks. In summary, the existing research suggests that POQ could induce both high and low levels of OCBs, depending on the presence of moderators.

The Moderating Role of Voluntariness of Taking the Job

I propose that voluntariness of taking a job one is overqualified for before they took it could reduce the negative outcomes of POQ. The prior POQ research using person-job fit theory has suggested that individuals' adaptability to fit can alter the outcomes of POQ. For example, Lin et al. (2017) found that overqualified employees might use job crafting

strategies to achieve person-job fit, for the goal of contributing to their organization by engaging in creativity and OCBs. Job candidates choose their job based on their perceived fit between the job and organization with themselves (Judge & Cable, 1997). The fit is assessed based on the information obtained through ways in the pre-entry process, such as realistic job previews (Wanous, 1977, 1980, 1992). Research on realistic job previews has suggested that realistic job information enables job applicants to evaluate the match between the characteristics of the job and those of themselves (Breaugh & Starke, 2000; Wanous, 1977). A positive evaluation of fit would increase the possibility of taking a job offer. Using a sample of Australian communications company job applicants, Carless (2005) found that greater person-job fit increases job candidates' intentions to accept a job offer.

Erdogan et al. (2011b) denoted that whether employees choose to be overqualified could determine the desirability of the outcomes. Whether individuals choose jobs they are overqualified for will depend on whether what a job supplies could accommodate employees' more desired and preferred needs. Maltarich et al. (2011) speculated that some overqualified employees may choose a less complex job in order to satisfy their broader set of needs. They further suggested that the job might not meet their needs regarding the mismatched work aspects of the job, but other characteristics of the job might offer them opportunities to meet their other objectives, such as to fulfill family responsibilities, purse hobbies, and build a social network. As such, employees may voluntarily take a job to pursue these needs-satisfying benefits. Thompson et al. (2013) worked with an outplacement company and found that the clients might voluntarily choose to take a job they are overqualified for, so that they can balance both their professional and personal lives. In their interview with the clients of the company, they found that the employees who had demanding high-stress careers and were financially comfortable, welcomed the opportunities to seek positions that allow them to maintain work-family balance. Therefore, employees might voluntarily choose a job that has

relatively low demands, so that they can accommodate idiosyncratic considerations, which will result in a net gain in terms of needs being satisfied.

In summary, job seekers might actually take the position they are overqualified for voluntarily in order to pursue opportunities to satisfy their needs of non-work aspects. If these non-work needs could be satisfied, being overqualified may be less bothering and more tolerable for these overqualified employees, and they are more likely to be satisfied with their job, and thus engage in more OCBs. In other words, voluntariness of being overqualified holds the potential of overturning the negative effect of POQ on job satisfaction as well as OCBs. On the other hand, overqualified employees who originally took the job more involuntarily will be in an unpleasant position, in which overqualified employees might be in a lose-lose situation where both demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit are both low. The frustration may double up, and their overall job satisfaction will consequently decline. As a result, they are less likely to perform OCBs. In summary, I predict that voluntariness of being overqualified will reduce the negative relationship between POQ and job satisfaction, and ultimately OCBs.

Hypothesis 1: Voluntariness of taking the job moderates the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction, such that the relationship is less negative when voluntariness of taking the job is high.

Hypothesis 2: Voluntariness of taking the job moderates the indirect relationship between POQ and OCBs, such that the indirect relationship is less negative when voluntariness of taking the job is high.

The Moderating Role of Needs-Supplies Fit

Based on the previous arguments that voluntariness of taking the job can buffer the negative effect of POQ on job satisfaction and OCBs, I further propose that the degree to which workers who have perceptions of overqualification to invest or withhold their efforts to

perform OCBs depends on their level of needs-supplies fit. Locke (1969) contended that job satisfaction is determined by the individual's assessment of what the job offers to one's values, and the values are what the individual prefers and desires. Likewise, Locke (1976) denoted that, "it is the degree to which the job fulfills or allows the fulfillment of the individual's needs that determines his degree of job satisfaction" (p. 1303). Consistently, Cable and DeRue (2002) found that employees' needs-supplies fit positively predicts job satisfaction after controlling demands-abilities fit and person-organization fit. Furthermore, Edwards and Shipp (2007) noted that needs-supplies fit is a closer and more direct predictor of job satisfaction than demands-abilities fit. The meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) also showed that needs-supplies fit (ρ= .61) is a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than demands-abilities fit (ρ= .41) in terms of effect sizes. It is worth noting that although individuals' demands-abilities fit might also influence their needs-supplies fit (Edwards & S Shipp, 2007) as individuals might have needs to utilize their KSAs, needs-supplies fit is largely impacted by a wide range of non-demands-abilities related factors.

As I mentioned above, POQ represents a low demands-abilities fit. Kristof-Brown, Jansen and Colbert (2002) reported that different types of fit can interact in a way that low fit in one domain could be compensated by high fit in another domain to improve job satisfaction. Based on this, I propose that needs-supplies fit might also interact with demands-abilities fit (i.e., POQ). Previous research findings have implied that needs-supplies fit may buffer the negative effects of POQ. In a sample of working college students, Luksyte et al. (2011) found that after needs-supplies fit was added into the regression equation, the effect of POQ on undesirable outcomes (i.e., counterproductive work behaviors) turned from negative into non-significant. This implies that the beneficial effects of needs-supplies fit holds the potential of offsetting or even overturning the negative effect of POQ on job satisfaction.

When employees have feelings of high overqualification, whether their other needs could be met by their job to balance the demands-abilities fit becomes salient. These needs may be satisfied in different ways. For instance, young employees might be satisfied with a job they are overqualified for, if such a job provides them with opportunities to build industry-specific expertise, position-relevant working experience, and social connections (Feldman & Maynard, 2011). Young workers who have kids or female employees who need to take more family responsibility may not be bothered by (or even be satisfied with) their overqualification situation, as their low-demanding job allows them to balance their work and nonwork lives (Erdogan et al., 2011a). In addition, older works are more likely to have stronger needs for flexibility and autonomy than for career advancements (Shultz, Olson, & Wang, 2011). In a sample of 517 downsized managers, Feldman and Leana (2000) reported that less stressful tasks, more stability and better working environments could accommodate their needs in place of pay, thus enhancing their job satisfaction. If the overqualified employees' jobs can offer opportunities to accommodate their needs and given that needs-supplies fit is more influential than demands-abilities fit on job satisfaction, it is likely that overqualified employees may experience a positive net job satisfaction due to higher needs-supplies fit compared to those who are not provided with accommodation of their other needs. Driven by the elevated job satisfaction, overqualified employees who have high needs-supplies fit will be more likely to engage in OCBs. Thompson et al. (2013) reasoned that organizations should recognize and acknowledge employees' strength, knowledge, and abilities to motivate them to make performance contributions to the organization, by satisfying the needs of the employees. Management practices such as providing job enrichment opportunities, friendly environments, flexible work schedule and fewer working hours (Thompson et al., 2013). In contrast, overqualified employees whose needs are not satisfied by the job supplies will be worse off, leading to a lower level of job satisfaction and

subsequent OCBs. In summary, I propose:

Hypothesis 3: Needs-supplies fit moderates the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction, such that the relationship is less negative when needs-supplies fit is high.

Hypothesis 4: Needs-supplies fit moderates the indirect relationship between POQ and OCBs, such that the indirect relationship is less negative when needs-supplies fit is high.

METHOD

Sample and Procedures

The sample and the survey distribution procedure are the same as in Essay 2.

At Time 1, employee participants answered questions measuring POQ and control variables: sex, job tenure, working hours, objective overqualification, conscientiousness, and perceived organizational support (POS). At Time 2 (one month after Time 1), employees provided responses on voluntariness of taking the job, needs-supplies fit, and job satisfaction. At Time 3 (one month after Time 2), supervisors provided ratings on employees' OCBs.

Measures

Similar to the study in Essay 2, I used pre-existing measures that have been developed and validated. Most measures have been used in the Chinese context, where it has not, cross-cultural validation procedures, including back-translation (Brislin et al., 1973) and semantic equivalence (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000) were implemented. Specifically, the measure of OCBs was developed in the Chinese context; the measures of POQ, job satisfaction, and needs-supplies fit have been validated in the Chinese context. For the measure of voluntariness of taking the job, I used a similar approach in Study 2 to ensure the suitability to use it in the Chinese context.

POQ (employee self-rated). POQ was assessed with the same measure (i.e., Maynard et al., 2006) in Essay 2. The Cronbach's alpha is .84.

Job satisfaction (employee rated). Job satisfaction was measured using Cammann et

al.'s (1979) three-item scale. A sample item is "All in all, I am satisfied with my job". This measure has been validated in the Chinese context (e.g., Huang et al., 2015). The Cronbach's alpha is .94.

Voluntariness of taking the job (employee rated). Voluntariness of taking the job was measured using 4 items from the volitions sub-scale of the work volition scale developed by Duffy et al. (2012). The items were modified to ask employees' control and alternative options when choosing the current job. The items are "when I decided to take my current job, I was able to choose the jobs I wanted," "when I decided to take my current job, I considered that I could do the kind of work I want, despite external barriers," "when I decided to take my current job, I felt total control over my job choices". The Cronbach's alpha is .86.

Needs-supplies fit (employee rated). Needs-supplies fit was measured using the 3-item scale by Cable and DeRue (2002). The items are "There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job," "The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job," and "The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job." This measure has been validated in the Chinese context (e.g., Lu et al., 2014). The Cronbach's alpha is .93.

OCBs (supervisor rated). OCBs were measured using the 20-item scale developed by Farh et al. (1997). It has five dimensions, including identification with the company, altruism toward colleagues, conscientiousness, interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources. I followed the previous recommendations of Li et al. (2010) to use it as an overall construct. Sample items include "(This employee) makes constructive suggestions" and "(This employee) helps colleagues in work-related matters". The Cronbach's alpha is .93.

Control variables. The same demographic variables (e.g., sex, job tenure and working hours) included in Essay 2 and theoretical variables including objective

overqualification (pay difference, difference in hierarchical level of the job), conscientiousness and POS. Objective overqualification were measured with the same questions used in essay 2. Conscientiousness was measured with six items by Shafer (1999). The responses were recorded on a 7-point scale: 1= does not apply to me at all to 7 = applies to me perfectly. The Cronbach's alpha is .91. POS was measured with a 9-item scale by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The Cronbach's alpha is .96. All these measures have been validated in the Chinese context (e.g., Chen et al., 2002; Farh et al., 2007; Lu & Guy, 2018).

Data Analytical Strategy

Given that data structure was the same as in essay 2, I used similar analytical strategies (e.g., multilevel path analysis) in Mplus 7.0 to analyze the data in this essay.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

The means, standard deviations, reliabilities are presented in Table 3.1. As seen in the table, POQ is negatively correlated with job satisfaction (r = -.18, p < .01); in addition, POQ is not correlated with OCBs (r = -.02, *n.s.*). With regards to the control variables, both conscientiousness (r = .13, p < .05) and POS (r = .12, p < .05) are correlated with OCBs.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Again, I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) in Mplus 7 to examine the discriminant validity of the constructs (including the latent control variables): POQ, voluntariness of taking the job, needs-supplies fit, job satisfaction, OCBs, conscientiousness, and POS. Due to that the ratio of sample size to parameters in this study was below the recommended value of 5 (Bentler & Chou, 1987), I created parcels for OCBs based on its five dimensions. First, I tested a seven-factor model in which the items loaded on their own constructs. The results indicated that the seven-factor model yielded good fit to the data: χ^2[681] = 1328.06, CFI= .92, TLI = .91, RMSEA= .06, SRMR = .06. Second, I tested this

seven-factor model against several alternative models. I tested a six-factor model where items for voluntariness of taking and job and needs-supplies fit were loaded into one factor. The model showed a poorer fit than the eight-factor model: $\chi^2[687] = 2105.53$, CFI= .83, TLI = .81, RMSEA= .08, SRMR = .09, $\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df = 6$] = 777.47, $p < .01$. Because the variables in this study were measured at three separate time points, I tested a three-factor model where variables measured at the same time point were merged into one factor. This three-factor model provided poor fit for the data ($\chi^2[699] = 4196.18$, CFI= .58, TLI = .55, RMSEA= .13, SRMR = .13), and was poorer than the eight-factor model($\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df = 18$] = 2868.12, $p < .01$). Lastly, to examine the potential common method bias caused by the source of rating, I tested a two-factor model, in which the variables reported by the employee loaded on one factor while the variables reported by the supervisor loaded on another factor. This model also yielded a poor fit ($\chi^2[701] = 4871.20$, CFI= .49, TLI = .46, RMSEA= .14, SRMR = .15), and was significantly worse than the eight-factor model ($\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df = 20$] = 3543.14, $p < .01$). In summary, the results of these analyses provided support for the discriminant validity of the constructs in this study.

Table 3.1 Means, SDs, Reliabilities and Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. OCBs (T3)	5.81	.80	(.93)											
2. POQ (T1)	4.07	1.07	-.02	(.84)										
3. Job satisfaction (T2)	5.54	1.25	.26**	-.18**	(.94)									
4. Voluntariness (T2)	4.53	1.40	.16**	-.06	.33**	(.86)								
5. N-S fit (T2)	4.82	1.27	.10	-.01	.46**	.21**	(.93)							
6. Sex	.34	.47	-.00	-.09	.08	-.01	-.05	(-)						
7. Job tenure	13.63	10.77	-.04	.00	.08	-.04	-.02	-.04	(-)					
8. Working hours	41.93	5.85	.02	.18**	.01	-.03	.14*	-.29**	-.13*	(-)				
9. Objective OQ-Job level	3.07	.90	-.03	-.08	.04	.09	.08	-.00	-.01	-.09	(-)			
10. Objective OQ-pay	4.94	1.78	.02	.03	-.08	.03	-.08	.10	.19**	-.11	.24**	(-)		
11. Conscientiousness	5.89	.98	.13*	.00	.20**	.12*	.03	.16*	.21**	-.01	.00	.05	(.91)	
12. POS	4.40	1.31	.12*	-.07	.50**	.40**	.48**	-.05	-.17**	.10	.12*	-.04	.04	(.96)

Note: *p <.05, **p < .01

OCBs=organizational citizenship behaviors. POQ=perceived overqualification. N-S fit= needs-supplies fit. Objective OQ= objective overqualification. POS=perceived organizational support.

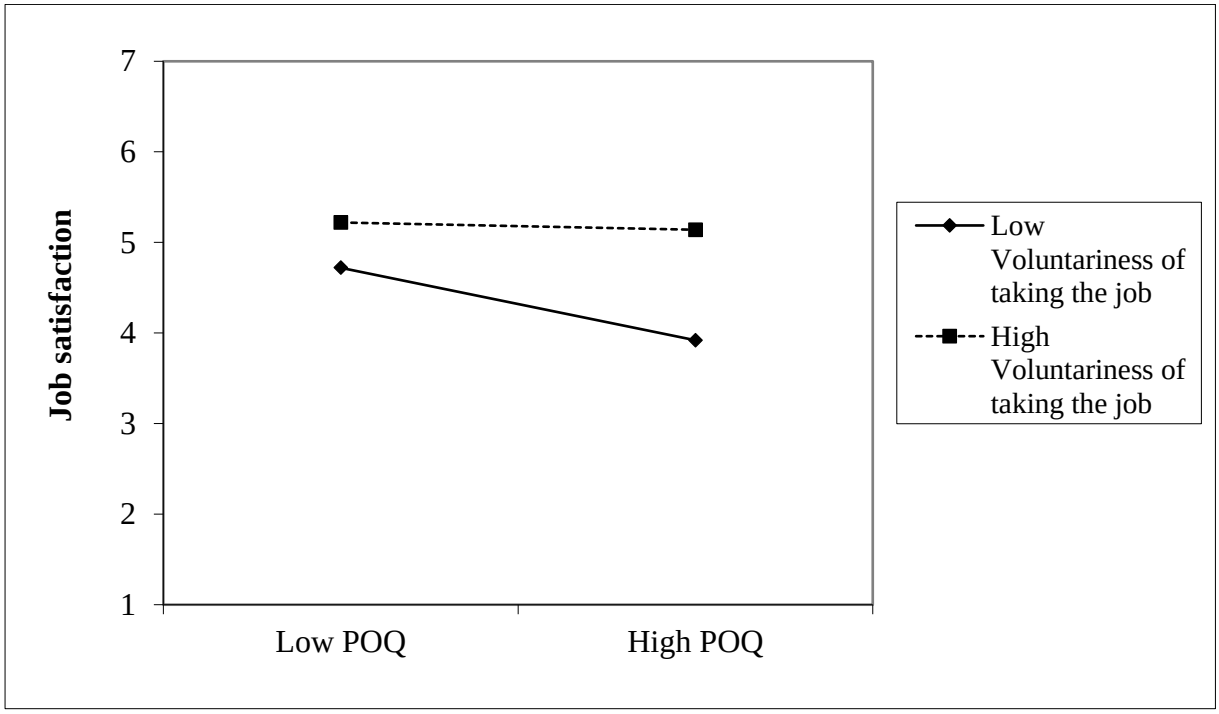
T1=Time 1, T2= Time 2, one month after Time 1. T3=Time 3, one month after Time 2.

SD =standard deviation. Reliabilities are shown in parentheses on the diagonal.

Hypothesis Testing

As mentioned earlier, because supervisors rated multiple employees' OCBs, the responses may lack independence. The intra-class correlation coefficients for OCBs was .25, justifying the use of multi-level analysis to account for the nested nature of the data. Hypothesis 1 predicted that voluntariness of taking the job would moderate the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction. As shown in Model 2 of Table 3.2, the interaction of POQ and voluntariness of taking the job was positively related to job satisfaction (γ =.18, p <.05). We further plotted the figure (i.e., Figure 3.2) to demonstrate the interaction effect, and it showed that the effect of POQ on job satisfaction was significant and negative when voluntariness of taking the job was low (γ = -.39, p <.01) but it was insignificant when voluntariness of taking the job was high (γ = -.04, *n.s.*). In summary, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Figure 3.2 Interactive Effect of POQ and Voluntariness of Taking the Job on Job Satisfaction



Note: POQ=perceived overqualification.

Table 3.2 Results of Multilevel Path Analyses

	Job satisfaction (T2)								OCBs (T3)	
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	γ	*s.e.*	*γ*	*s.e.*	*γ*	*s.e.*	*γ*	*s.e.*	*γ*	*s.e.*
Intercept	4.67**	.58	4.75**	.55	5.36**	.53	5.57**	.47	4.61**	.43
Control variables										
Sex	.30	.17	.30	.17	.28*	.14	.26	.14	-.10	.10
Job tenure	.02**	.01	.02**	.01	.01*	.01	.01**	.01	-.01**	.01
Working hours	.02	.01	.02	.01	.00	.01	-.10	.00	-.00	.01
Objective OQ-Job level	.05	.09	.01	.09	.02	.09	.01	.08	-.05	.05
Objective OQ-pay	-.08*	.04	-.09*	.04	-.06	.04	-.07	.04	.03	.03
Conscientiousness									.08	.06
POS									-.02	.04
Independent variables										
POQ (T1)	-.21*	.08	-.22**	.08	-.21*	.09	-.22**	.07	.01	.05
Voluntariness (T2)	.41**	.09	.43**	.08						
Needs-supply fit (T2)					.58**	.11	.60**	.08		
Interaction term										
POQ × Voluntariness			.18*	.08						
POQ × Needs-supply fit							.22**	.08		
Mediator										
Job Satisfaction									.17**	.06
R^2	.17**		.19**		.27**		.30**		.09*	
ΔR^2	.17**		.02*		.27**		.03**		.09*	

Note: *p <.05, **p < .01

OCBs=organizational citizenship behavior. POQ=perceived overqualification. Objective OQ= objective overqualification. POS=perceived organizational support. T1=Time 1, T2= Time 2, one month after Time 1. T3=Time 3, one month after Time 2.

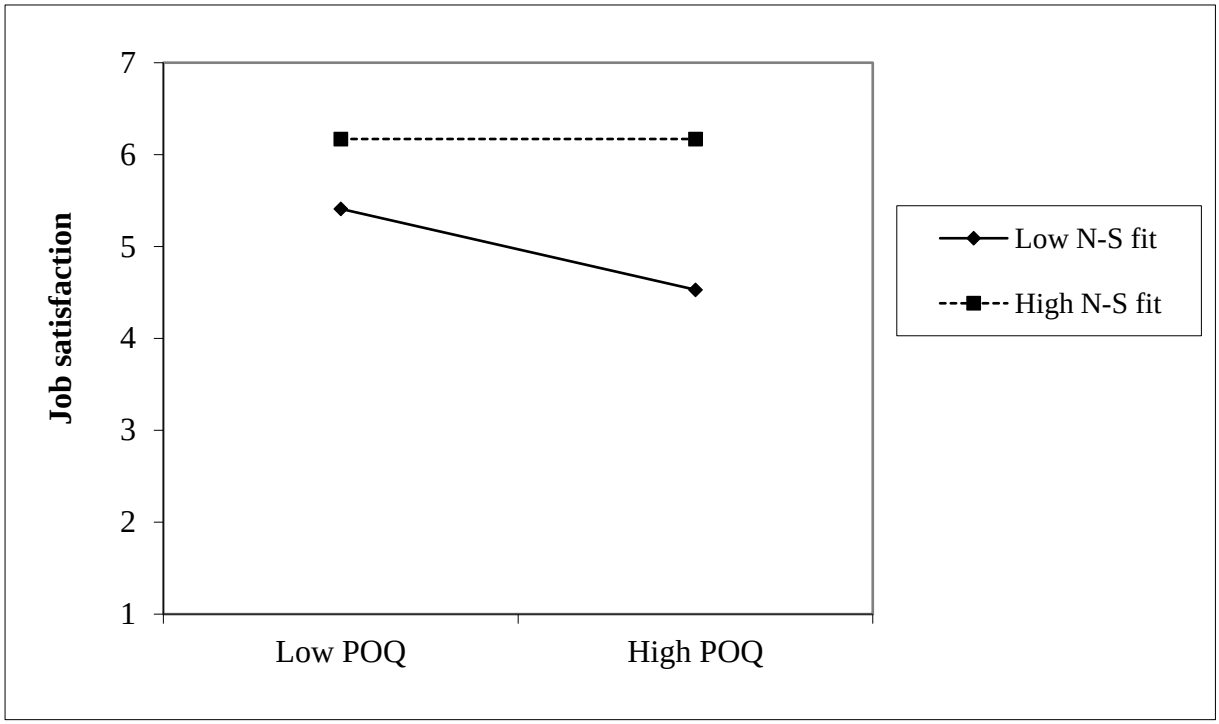
To test Hypothesis 2, which is the moderated mediation effect of POQ on OCBs, I used method recommended by Preacher et al. (2007). The conditional indirect effects require calculations of compound coefficients, which were not normally distributed. I handled this by applying the bootstrapping-based approach in R program with 20,000 iterations to calculate bias-corrected confidence intervals (CI) to estimate the conditional indirect effects (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Hu & Liden, 2015; Preacher & Selig, 2012). As shown in Model 5 of Table 3.2, job satisfaction positively and significantly predicted OCBs beyond all controlling variables and POQ (γ =.17, p <.01). Further, the results of conditional indirect effects showed that the indirect effect of POQ on OCBs via job satisfaction was negative and significant when voluntariness of taking the job was low (-1 SD, γ = -.07, 95% CI [-.14, -.01]), but was insignificant when voluntariness of taking the job was high, the indirect effect of POQ on OCBs was insignificant (+1 SD; γ = -.01, 95% CI [-.03, .02]). The difference of the indirect effects was significant ($\triangle\gamma$ = .06, 95% CI = [.004, .15]). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that needs-supplies fit would moderate the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction. As seen in Model 4 of Table 3.2, the interaction of POQ and needs-supplies fit was positively related to job satisfaction (γ =.22, p <.01). The figure (i.e., Figure 3.3) for the interaction effect showed that the effect of POQ on job satisfaction was significant and negative when need-supplies fit was low (γ = -.44, p <.01) but it was insignificant when voluntariness of taking the job was low (γ = -.01, *n.s.*). In summary, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Further, the results of conditional indirect effects revealed that when needs-supplies was low, the indirect effect of POQ on OCBs via job satisfaction was negative and significant (-1 SD, γ = -.08, 95% CI [-.17,-.02]); when needs-supplies fit was high, the indirect effect of POQ on OCBs was insignificant (+1 SD; γ = -.001, 95% CI [-.02, .02]). The difference of the

indirect effects was significant ($\triangle\gamma$ = .08, 95% CI = [.01, .17]). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported.

Figure 3.3 Interactive Effect of POQ and Needs-Supplies Fit on Job Satisfaction



Note: POQ=perceived overqualification. N-S fit= needs-supplies fit.

In summary, all the proposed hypotheses were supported.

Post-Hoc Analyses

The Mediated Moderation Effect

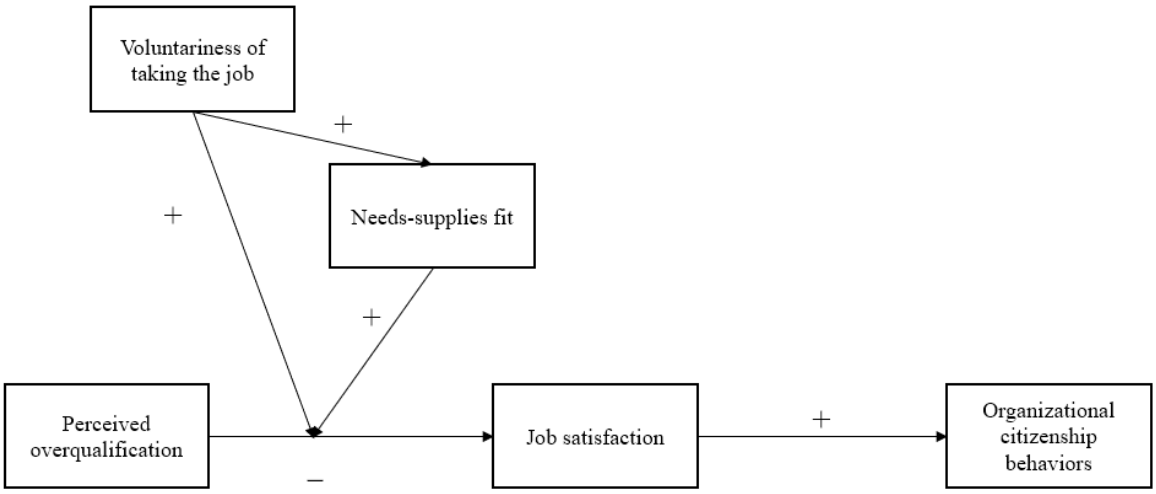
As I mentioned earlier, previous studies show that whether a job candidate chose to take a job may depend on his or her assessment of the person-job fit. Based on this, I argue that overqualified employees, with already a low demands-abilities fit, would voluntarily chose to take such a job relying on their evaluation of needs-supplies fit---only when need-supplies fit is high will they choose to take a job for which they are overqualified. Therefore, after they are on the job for a while, they should experience satisfied needs-supplies fit that resulted from their voluntariness before they took the job. To test this possibility, I examined whether needs-supplies fit mediated the moderating effect of

voluntariness of initially taking the job on the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction as well as the indirect relationship between POQ and OCBs (Figure 3.4).

The results showed that the indirect effect of the interaction of POQ and voluntariness of taking the job via needs-supplies fit was positive and significant (γ = .04, 95% CI [.002, .08]); however, the sequential indirect effect of the interaction of POQ and voluntariness of taking the job on OCBs via needs-supplies fit and job satisfaction was not significant (γ = .006, 95% CI [-.002, .01]).

To sum, needs-supplies fit assessed on the job mediated the moderating effect of voluntariness of taking the job before taking the job on the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction, but did not mediate the moderating effect of voluntariness of taking the job on the indirect effect of POQ on OCBs via job satisfaction.

Figure 3.4 The Mediated Moderation Model

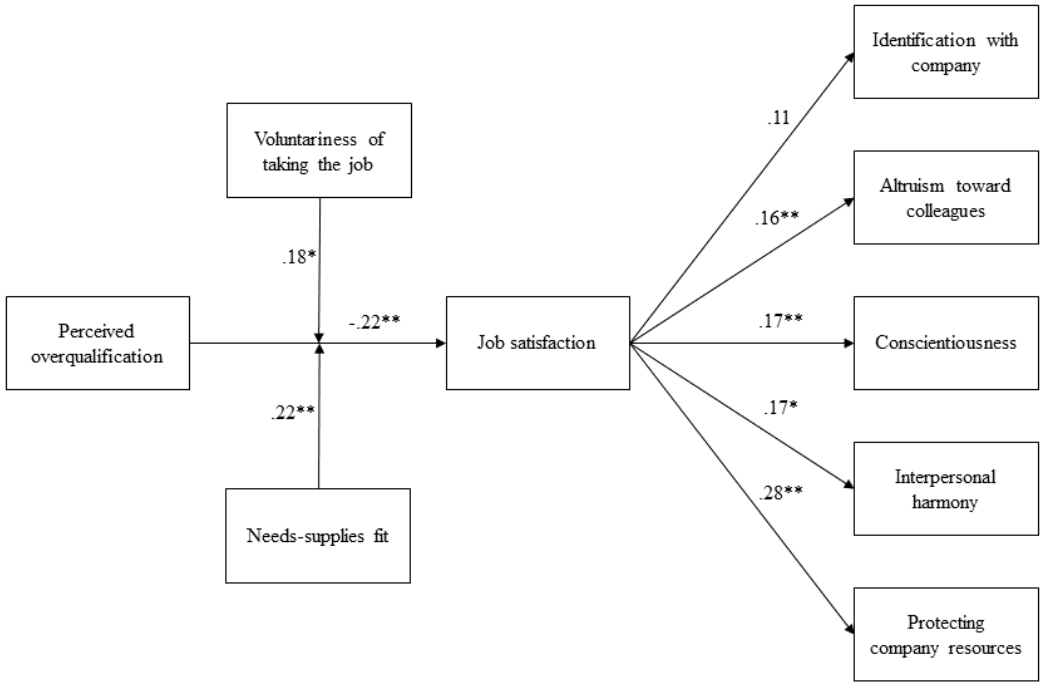


Further Analyses on OCBs

Because the OCBs in this study include five different types of OCBs: identification with company, altruism toward colleagues, conscientiousness, interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources, I tested the moderated mediation effects on these five different types of OCBs. The Cronbach's alphas for the five types of OCBs are .78, .82, .79, .77, and .79, respectively. The results of multilevel path analyses are shown in Figure 3.5 and

Table 3.3.

Figure 3.5 Further Analyses on Specific Types of OCBs



As displayed in Figure 3.5, job satisfaction is significantly related to four of the five OCBs, with being only not associated with identification with company. In order to test the conditional indirect effects, I obtained the confidence intervals using 20,000 bootstrapping samples in R. The results of conditional indirect effects shown in Table 3.3 also supported that the indirect effects of POQ on the four types of OCBs are only negative and significant when voluntariness of taking the job or needs-supplies fit is low. These results are generally in line with previous results when OCB was considered as an overall construct.

Table 3.3 Results of the Post-Hoc Analyses for Specific Types of OCBs

	Indirect effect	
	Estimate	95% CI
1. Moderator: voluntariness of taking the job		
POQ→Job satisfaction→Identification with company		
High voluntariness of taking the job (+1SD)	-.01	[-.02, .01]
Low voluntariness of taking the job (-1SD)	-.04	[-.10, .01]
Difference between low and high voluntariness	.04	[-.01, .10]
POQ→Job satisfaction→Altruism toward colleagues		
High voluntariness of taking the job (+1SD)	-.01	[-.03, .02]
Low voluntariness of taking the job (-1SD)	**-.06**	**[-.13, -.01]**
Difference between low and high voluntariness	**.06**	**[.005, .12]**
POQ→Job satisfaction→Conscientiousness		
High voluntariness of taking the job (+1SD)	-.01	[-.04, .01]
Low voluntariness of taking the job (-1SD)	**-.07**	**[-.15, -.01]**
Difference between low and high voluntariness	**.06**	**[.004, .15]**
POQ→Job satisfaction→Interpersonal harmony		
High voluntariness of taking the job (+1SD)	-.01	[-.04, .01]
Low voluntariness of taking the job (-1SD)	**-.07**	**[-.15, -.01]**
Difference between low and high voluntariness	**.06**	**[.003, .14]**
POQ→Job satisfaction→Protecting company resources		
High voluntariness of taking the job (+1SD)	-.01	[-.06, .02]
Low voluntariness of taking the job (-1SD)	**-.11**	**[-.22, -.03]**
Difference between low and high voluntariness	**.10**	**[.01, .21]**
2. Moderator: needs-supplies fit		
POQ→Job satisfaction→Identification with company		
High needs-supplies fit (+1SD)	-.00	[-.02, .01]
Low needs-supplies fit (-1SD)	-.05	[-.11, .01]
Difference between low and high needs-supplies fit	.05	[-.01, .11]
POQ→Job satisfaction→Altruism toward colleagues		
High needs-supplies fit (+1SD)	-.00	[-.03, .02]
Low needs-supplies fit (-1SD)	**-.07**	**[-.13, -.02]**
Difference between low and high needs-supplies fit	**.07**	**[.01, .14]**
POQ→Job satisfaction→Conscientiousness		
High needs-supplies fit (+1SD)	-.00	[-.03, .02]
Low needs-supplies fit (-1SD)	**-.08**	**[-.16, -.02]**
Difference between low and high needs-supplies fit	**.08**	**[.01, .16]**
POQ→Job satisfaction→Interpersonal harmony		
High needs-supplies fit (+1SD)	-.00	[-.03, .01]
Low needs-supplies fit (-1SD)	**-.08**	**[-.16, -.01]**
Difference between low and high needs-supplies fit	**.07**	**[.01, .015]**
POQ→Job satisfaction→Protecting company resources		
High needs-supplies fit (+1SD)	-.00	[-.04, .03]
Low needs-supplies fit (-1SD)	**-.12**	**[-.25, -.03]**
Difference between low and high needs-supplies fit	**.12**	**[.02, .26]**

Note. CI= confidence interval; Bootstrap samples =20,000; The numbers in bold indicate significant estimates. POQ = perceived overqualification. OCBs=organizational citizenship behaviors. SD=standard deviation.

Further, according to Farh et al. (1997), the five dimensions of OCBs can be further categorized into etic (culture general) and emic (culture specific) OCBs: etic OCBs include identification with company, altruism toward colleagues and conscientiousness; emic OCBs include interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources. Therefore, following previous studies (e.g., Chen et al., 2014) to combine the items into the etic and emic OCBs, I examined the moderated mediation effects using these two OCB components. The Cronbach's alphas for these two OCBs are .91 and .86.

The results of multilevel path analyses are shown in Figure 3.6 and Table 3.4.

Figure 3.6 Further Analyses on Etic and Emic OCBs

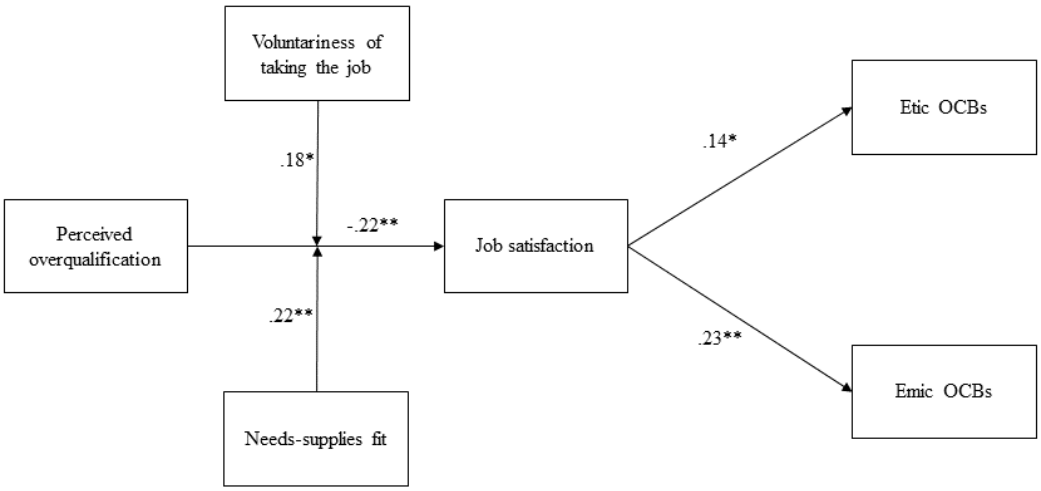


Table 3.4 Results of the Post-Hoc Analyses for Etic and Emic OCBs

	Indirect effect	
	Estimate	95% CI
1. Moderator: voluntariness of taking the job		
POQ→Job satisfaction→Etic OCBs		
High voluntariness of taking the job (+1SD)	-.01	[-.02, .02]
Low voluntariness of taking the job (-1SD)	**-.05**	**[-.06, -.01]**
Difference between low and high voluntariness	.05	[-.0005, .08]
POQ→Job satisfaction→Emic OCBs		
High voluntariness of taking the job (+1SD)	-.01	[-.04, .02]
Low voluntariness of taking the job (-1SD)	**-.09**	**[-.18, -.02]**
Difference between low and high voluntariness	**.08**	**[.01, .19]**
2. Moderator: needs-supplies fit		
POQ→Job satisfaction→Etic OCBs		
High needs-supplies fit (+1SD)	-.00	[-.02, .02]
Low needs-supplies fit (-1SD)	**-.06**	**[-.07, -.01]**
Difference between low and high needs-supplies fit	**.06**	**[.01, .09]**
POQ→Job satisfaction→Emic OCBs		
High needs-supplies fit (+1SD)	-.00	[-.03, .03]
Low needs-supplies fit (-1SD)	**-.10**	**[-.20, -.03]**
Difference between low and high needs-supplies fit	**.10**	**[.02, .20]**

Note. CI= confidence interval; Bootstrap samples =20,000; The numbers in bold indicate significant estimates. POQ = perceived overqualification. OCBs=organizational citizenship behaviors. SD=standard deviation.

As shown in Table 3.4, the results consistently showed that the indirect effects of POQ on emic OCBs and emic OCBs are only negative and significant when needs-supplies fit is low. However, voluntariness of taking the job only moderates the indirect effect of POQ on Emic OCBs, but not Etic OCBs. Theses results generally echo the earlier findings where OCBs were treated as an overall latent construct.

In summary, the further analyses with specific types or dimensions of OCBs as outcomes suggest highly consistent results with previous findings when overall OCBs were treated as the sole outcome. It is also worth noting that the CFA results showed that the data fit the five-dimension OCB model better than the two-dimension OCB model ($\triangle\chi^2$ [$\triangle df = 9$] = 166.21, $p < .01$).

DISCUSSION

Most of the POQ research has assumed that taking a job for which one is overqualified for is an involuntary decision because being overqualified is a stressful situation and will lead to low job satisfaction, which might further lead to low OCBs. However, some other studies indicated that POQ may not necessarily be associated with low OCBs; in addition, the predominant "being overqualified for the job is involuntary" assumption has been theoretically challenged and in need of empirical tests. Drawing primarily on person-job fit theory, I proposed that voluntariness of taking the job would buffer the negative effect of POQ on job satisfaction as well as the negative indirect effect of POQ on OCBs. In a sample of 291 employees and their 51 supervisors in a Chinese state-owned manufacturing company, I tested the hypotheses using multi-source multi-wave data. The results fully supported the hypotheses. In the discussion section, I will first delineate the theoretical contributions of the findings. Then, I will discuss the limitations and future research directions, as well as the practical implications.

Theoretical Contributions

This research contributes to the literature in several ways. First, this research extends POQ research by adding that the role of voluntariness of taking a job for which one is overqualified can mitigate the negative effect of POQ on job satisfaction. Although Erdogan et al. (2011b) asserted that the voluntariness behind an individual's decision to take a job he or she is overqualified for should matter for the degree of negativity in the outcomes, little empirical research has been undertaken to examine this possibility. The findings of this study address this limitation by showing that for overqualified employees who are more voluntary when taking their job, POQ does not have a negative impact on their overall level of satisfaction with the job; in contrast, overqualified employees who are more involuntary to take their job are bothered more by their POQ: POQ has a significant impact on their job satisfaction. Previous meta analysis (Harari et al., 2017) generally showed that POQ is

negatively correlated with job satisfaction ($\rho = -.41$). In my findings, the main effect of POQ on job satisfaction is also negative, but this effect is absent when high voluntariness is also present. Therefore, the findings highlight the importance of taking an interactionist perspective to understand the effect of POQ on job satisfaction and other job attitudinal outcomes. This finding though, is not completely consistent with Erdogan et al. (2011b), who predicted that overqualification would be beneficial for employees under certain conditions. Future research might be conducted to explore other theoretically relevant moderators (e.g., desirable job characteristics) to better understand the relationship between POQ and job attitudes.

Second, in addition to voluntariness of taking the job, I also found that needs-supplies fit could also alter the relationship between POQ and job satisfaction. Person-job fit theory suggests that there are two types of person-job fit: demands-abilities fit and needs-supplies fit. As a mismatch between individuals' qualifications and job requirements, POQ represents a type of directional demands-abilities fit. To the best of my knowledge, no POQ research drawing on person-job fit theory (e.g., Debus et al., 2019; Erdogan et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2015; Luksyte et al., 2011; Maynard et al., 2006) has considered the role of needs-supplies fit and how it could impact the effects of POQ. It is an unfortunate omission, as needs-supplies fit is a stronger predictor of job attitudes than demands-abilities fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2015), and thus should warrant more attention when investigating the outcomes of POQ. My consideration of need-supplies fit addresses this void by suggesting that POQ does not impose a negative effect on job satisfaction when needs-supplied fit is high, but POQ does have a negative association with job satisfaction when needs-supplies fit is low, which resonates with the conclusion of Luksyte et al. (2011) that needs-supplies fit would eliminate the effects of POQ on counterproductive work behaviors after being included into the predictor group. The findings also pave the way for more fruitful research on POQ using

person-job fit theory in understanding when POQ would have negative, positive or null effects on the outcomes.

Finally, this research contributes to the literature by providing evidence to resolve the conflicting findings between POQ and OCBs. The results suggest that POQ is not detrimental for OCBs when it is accompanied by high levels of voluntariness of taking the job or high levels of needs-supplies fit. However, with the absence of voluntariness of taking the job or needs-supplies fit, POQ reduces employees' OCBs via their lowered job satisfaction. The findings highlight voluntariness of taking the job and needs-supplies fit as important boundary conditions for the downside of POQ, advancing our incomplete understanding about when POQ is more likely to induce negative impact of positive discretional behaviors for employees. In doing so, the findings extend the theory of person-job fit theory. While needs-supplies fit has been widely found to associated with various favorable work outcomes, the findings of this study suggest that overqualified employees can be immune from overqualification when their needs-supplies fit is high.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study is not without limitations. First, while the moderators were proposed based on person-job fit theory, there might be other possible moderators that may alter the relationship between POQ and OCBs. For example, overqualified employees who are able to finish their work faster than their less overqualified employees, providing that they have high levels of prosocial motivation, might be more likely to utilize their time after completing job tasks to engage in OCBs. Future studies could examine such possible boundary conditions between POQ and OCBs. Second, I only investigated job satisfaction as one aspect of individual well-being in the work domain, although this choice is guided by person-job fit theory. It is also possible that POQ might be more beneficial to overqualified employees' life satisfaction, as their family needs may be better satisfied. I encourage future researchers to

expand my findings by including other well-being related outcomes into the POQ research. Finally, the employees included in this study were employees in a state-owned company in China. Chinese state-owned companies tend to provide good benefits other than money, such as decent pension, favorable admission opportunities for their children and guaranteed city citizenship. Hence, employees pursuing employment in these companies might value certain things other than their person-job match: this might highlight why their voluntariness/needs-supplies fit matter. However, it would be more implicative if future research could examine findings in other types of companies to provide evidence of the replicability of the findings in other contexts.

Practical Implications

The findings of this research also provide several practical implications. First, given that employees who are more voluntarily overqualified could lead to less negative outcomes compared to less voluntarily overqualified employees, it is suggested that managers should not assume overqualification is a decision without choice which may elicit negative effects; instead, they should be aware of the intentionality behind employees' decision to take a job for which they are overqualified. Second. given needs-supplies fit would offset the negative effect of POQ on job satisfaction and ultimately OCBs, it is recommended that managers should get to know and provide idiosyncratic resources for overqualified employees, such as flexible schedules and a supportive environment in order to satisfy their needs.

CONCLUSION

Drawing on person-job fit theory, this study found that POQ decreased employees' OCBs through job satisfaction only when voluntariness of taking the job or needs-supplies fit is low. The findings advance our understanding of the link between POQ and OCBs by uncovering the boundary conditions. Hopefully, this research could serve as an impetus for more research to enhance our understanding of differentiated implications of POQ.

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Appendix B. Items for Essay 3 Variables

Perceived overqualification

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

1. My job requires less education than I have
2. The work experience that I have is not necessary to be successful on this job
3. I have job skills that are not required for this job
4. Someone with less education than myself could perform well on my job
5. My previous training is not being fully utilized on this job
6. I have a lot of knowledge that I do not need in order to do my job
7. My education level is above the education level required by my job
8. Someone with less work experience than myself could do my job just as well
9. I have more abilities than I need in order to do my job

Voluntariness of taking the job

Response scale: *1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree*

Items:

1. When I decided to take my current job, I was able to choose the jobs I wanted
2. When I decided to take my current job, I considered that I could do the kind of work I wanted, despite external barriers
3. When I decided to take my current job, I felt total control over my job choices
4. When I decided to take my current job, I felt able to choose a different job if I wanted

Needs-supplies fit

Response scale: *1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree*

Items:

1. There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job

2. The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job

3. The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job

Job satisfaction

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job

2. In general, I like my job

3. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do

Organizational citizenship behaviors

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

This employee:

1. Willing to stand up to protect the reputation of the company.
2. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the company and clarify their misunderstandings
3. Makes constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the company.
4. Actively attends company meetings
5. Willing to assist new colleagues to adjust to the work environment
6. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems
7. Willing to cover work assignments for colleagues when needed
8. Willing to coordinate and communicate with colleagues
9. Complies with company rules and procedures even when nobody watches and no

evidence can be traced

10. Takes one's job seriously and rarely makes mistakes
11. Does not mind taking on new or challenging assignments
12. Tries hard to self-study to increase the quality of work outputs
13. Often arrives early and starts to work immediately
14. Uses illicit tactics to seek personal influence and gain with harmful effect on interpersonal harmony in the organization (R)
15. Uses position power to pursue selfish personal gain (R)
16. Takes credits, avoids blames, and fights fiercely for personal gain (R)
17. Often speaks ill of the supervisor or colleagues behind their backs (R)
18. Conducts personal business on company time (e.g., trading stocks, shopping, going to barber shops) (R)
19. Uses company resources to do personal business (e.g., company phones, copy machines, computers, and cars) (R)
20. Views sick leave as benefit and makes excuse for taking sick leave (R)

Objective overqualification

Response scale: 1=current job pays 40 percent or more than last job to 9=current job entails a pay cut of more than 40 per cent than last job

Item:

What is the pay difference between your current job and last job?"

Response scale: 1= much higher than my last job to 5= much lower than my last job

Item:

How does the hierarchical level of your current job compare with that of your last job?

Conscientiousness

Response scale: 1= does not apply to me at all to 7 = applies to me perfectly

Items:

I see myself as someone who is:

1. Self-disciplined
2. Hardworking
3. Thorough
4. Responsible
5. Persevering
6. Orderly

Perceived organizational support

Response scale: 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree

Items:

1. The organization values my contribution to its well-being
2. The organization strongly considers my goals and values
3. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem
4. The organization really cares about my well-being
5. The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work
7. The organization cares about my opinions
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work
9. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible