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PERSON–ORGANIZATION AND PERSON–JOB FIT PERCEPTIONS OF NEW IT EMPLOYEES: WORK OUTCOMES AND GENDER DIFFERENCES[1]

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Drawing from a total rewards perspective, we introduce three work outcomes (namely, extrinsic, social, and intrinsic) as determinants of person–organization (PO) and person–job (PJ) fit perceptions of new IT employees. Gender is proposed as a moderator of the relationships between valuations of different work outcomes and fit perceptions. We found support for our model in three separate studies. In each of the studies, we gathered data about the work outcomes and fit perceptions of IT workers. The studies were designed to complement each other in terms of cross-temporal validity (studies were conducted at difference points in time over 10 years, in periods of differing economic stability), and in terms of prior work experience (entry-level workers in studies 1 and 2, and those with prior work experience starting new jobs in study 3). All three studies also included data both pre- and post-organizational entry in order to further validate the robustness of the model. The studies largely supported our hypotheses that (1) the effect of extrinsic outcomes on PO fit was moderated by gender, such that it was more important to men in determining their PO fit perceptions; (2) the effects of social outcomes on both PO fit and PJ fit was moderated by gender, such that it was more important to women in determining their fit perceptions; and (3) intrinsic outcomes influenced perceptions of PJ fit for both men and women. We discuss implications for research and practice.

Keywords: Work outcomes, gender differences, cross-temporal validity, person–organization, person–job fit

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Introduction

Given the dynamic nature of the global marketplace and the pace at which it changes, the attraction, motivation, and retention of workers is critical for the continued success of organizations (see Dineen et al. 2002). In times of economic downturn, business units may not have the budget to replace workers lost to voluntary turnover; replacement costs can be high (Timpany 2013). Attracting, motivating, and retaining workers hinges on fulfilling their needs at work (Prasad et al. 2007). Understanding the work outcomes that are important to individuals across various phases of the professional pipeline is important for several reasons. Entry-level workers possess the advantage of recent formal training and skills in cutting-edge techniques and approaches. For example, changes in the information technology (IT) industry have always been rapid, prompting the attractiveness of entry-level workers who are trained in the latest concepts, techniques, and tools. Likewise, experienced workers have value for organizations seeking employees with diverse experiences, developed leadership skills, and knowledge from competitors. An investigation of work outcome valuation is necessary in light of the changes in work environments after recent economic challenges and in light of efforts to fuel innovation in critical sectors related to technology, healthcare, and security (Anderson 2009; Gates 2013).

Moreover, the study of the work values of *entry-level IT workers* is particularly important. In the United States, President Obama's recent "Educate to Innovate" initiative has launched an effort to improve the training of the next generation of IT workers, underscoring the need for a continuous supply of high-quality professionals (White House 2013). Attracting, motivating, and retaining IT workers have been formidable challenges for more than a decade. Attracting and retaining high-quality IT talent is vital (Ferratt et al. 2005; Moore 2000) and the issue can be expected to regain prominence as the market for IT workers is expected to accelerate again (e.g., Bureau of Labor Statistics 2016). Despite recent attention given to the need to recruit and retain IT workers (e.g., Ferratt et al. 2012), IS research has primarily focused on *existing* employees, with little research focused on new employees (Jiang and Klein 1999; Jiang et al. 2001). In order to maintain a continuous supply of IT professionals, it is important to understand their work outcome valuation across various phases of the professional pipeline.

An additional focal point of interest to organizations is to create and maintain a workplace that is equitable to both women and men. There is a long-standing view that what women and men want from a workplace is often different (Brief and Aldag 1975; Chow and Ngo 2011; Kilmartin 2000). Recent IS research indicates that work-related values and preferences are not always homogenous across gender (Trauth et al. 2009). In a review paper, Smith (2002) argued that various exclusionary and inclusionary policies at the micro, macro, and meso levels have tended to make workplaces less sensitive to the needs and preferences of women. In fact, in a number of professions, and in IT in particular, women have tended to be underrepresented in the workplace (e.g., Ahuja 2002; Baroudi and Igbaria 1995; Igbaria and Chidambaram 1997; Klawe et al. 2009). Although women today earn more undergraduate degrees than men do (e.g., Justis 2008), the proportion of women earning undergraduate degrees in technology-related fields has been shrinking, from 37% in 1985, to less than 20% in 2014 (NCWIT 2015). As a result, many organizations are pursuing active strategies to create a workplace that is more encouraging of women's participation and retention; an example is Intel's diversity initiative aimed at supporting women.[2] Thus, investigating gender differences in work outcome valuation is essential to creating an equitable workplace.

Although there are many frameworks available to examine issues related to employee attraction, motivation, and retention, one that has been recently related to several important outcomes is that of employee fit perceptions. Fit perceptions are broadly defined as an individual's perceptions of the congruence between him (or her) and his (or her) job and/or organization (Edwards 1991; Kristof 1996; Kristof-Brown 2000). Fit perceptions are critical in increasing applicant attraction to an organization (e.g., Judge and Cable 1997) and job satisfaction (e.g., Verquer et al. 2003), as well as increasing organizational commitment and reducing turnover intentions (e.g., van Vianen 2000; Verquer et al. 2003). The use of fit perceptions to study attraction, motivation, and retention of employees complements other prevalent approaches to studying these issues. However, recent research, including a meta-analysis of fit perceptions, indicated that although the consequences of fit have been well researched, exploring the mechanisms that stimulate fit are long overdue (Barrick et al., 2013; Colbert et al. 2008; Kristof-Brown et al. 2005).

The contemporary view of motivation, compensation, and incentives of employees emphasizes a *total rewards* perspective (e.g., Jiang et al. 2009). We employ this perspective in considering not only tangible outcomes, such as compensation and benefits, but also intangible outcomes, such as facilitating work–life balance, offering development opportunities (Lawler and Finegold 2000), and intrinsic benefits (Hackman and Oldham 1980). For example, there has been recent interest in providing IT workers with skill development opportunities through participation in open source projects (Mehra and Mookerjee 2012). The current work employs a

[2]"Diversity at Intel," http://www.intel.com/jobs/diversity/women.htm.

set of work outcomes, grounded in prior theory and reflective of contemporary thought, as determinants of new IT workers' fit perceptions. Specifically, we examine three types of work outcomes: extrinsic (e.g., pay, promotion), social (e.g., friendly coworkers, work–life balance), and intrinsic (e.g., creative work, skill development). We theorize that expectations prior to organizational entry and experiences after organizational entry about the extent to which various work outcomes will be present in the new job and organization will be moderated by gender to determine fit perceptions.

We are also interested in the generalizability of our model. Lee and Baskerville (2003, 2012) highlighted four types of generalizability that involve generalizing from and to theory as well as from and to empirical statement. They note that TE generalizability (from *theory* to *empirical* statements; i.e., cross-population and contextual generalization) (Tsang and Williams 2012) is "arguably the most important form of generalizability in business-school research" (Lee and Baskerville 2003, p. 237).

Against this backdrop, our objectives are

(1) to develop a model of person–organization and person–job fit that accounts for gender differences;
(2) to validate the model through empirical studies among entry-level IT workers; and
(3) to examine the generalizability of our model by studying different contexts, including entry-level to experienced workers and from IT to other professional domains.

This work is expected to contribute to the literature in three important ways. First, by studying this model in the context of entry-level IT workers, this work contributes to the IT personnel literature. An understanding of the unique characteristics and needs of IT workers in today's business environment is somewhat limited (see Joseph et al. 2007). Although some prior research has found no differences between IT and non-IT workers (e.g., Ferratt and Short 1986, 1988), other research has indicated some differences between IT workers and those in other domains (Bartol and Martin 1982; Loh et al. 1995). In exploring work outcome values and fit perceptions among entry-level workers, we add to the IT personnel literature that seeks a deeper understanding of the factors that are important to IT workers. Second, we establish the generalizability of the model by examining it in the context of new and experienced IT workers, and contribute to the broader vocational and organizational behavior (OB) literature by examining its applicability across different professional domains with data collected at different points in time over 10 years (see Lee and Baskerville 2003, 2012). Tsang and Williams (2012, p. 14) note that

> social scientists have to investigate whether their research findings collected in one space-time setting are generalizable to other significantly different space–time settings; in other words, whether these findings are contextually and temporally generalizable.

Third, we contribute to the broader research on human resources. In examining differences in work outcomes, we shed light on the interplay between work outcomes, gender, and fit perceptions to provide a deeper understanding of gender differences in the workplace. Further, this exploration provides practitioners with actionable guidance for how they can enhance the attraction, motivation, and retention of qualified workers. By expanding the nomological network related to fit perceptions, we extend prior work related to employee fit (Kristof 1996; Kristof-Brown 2000).

Theory

In this section, we first review the literature related to our dependent variables, namely PO fit and PJ fit. We then provide the background for our independent variables, namely extrinsic, social, and intrinsic work outcomes. Following this, we provide the justification for our hypotheses related to the direct effects of work outcomes on PO fit and PJ fit as well as moderation of these relationships by gender.

Dependent Variables: Person–Organization Fit and Person–Job Fit

There has been great interest in the various types of fit between individuals and their workplaces (Kristof-Brown et al. 2005; Kristof-Brown et al. 2002; Kristof-Brown and Guay 2011; Yang and Yu 2014). The concept of fit has its roots in interactional psychology (see Kristof 1996; Kristof-Brown 2000; Kristof-Brown and Billsberry 2013), and focuses on the congruence in person–situation interaction (Edwards 1991). Fit perceptions in general are defined as the *congruence* between an *individual's interests* and what is offered by the *job* and the *organization* (for reviews, see Edwards 1991; Kristof 1996; Kristof-Brown 2000; Kristof-Brown and Billsberry 2013; van Vianen 2000), thus resulting in two fit constructs: *person–organization (PO) fit* and *person–job (PJ) fit*. PO fit focuses on the congruence between an individual and the broad organizational environment, and PJ fit focuses on the congruence between an individual and the specific job environment (Kristof-Brown 2000; Kristof-Brown and Guay 2011).

PJ fit relates to vocational interests, that is, job interests, and PO fit relates to an individual's general needs and interests. PO fit is the answer to the question "Do I fit in this *organization*?" PO fit is defined as the congruence between the value system of the individual and the culture and value system of the organization (Bretz et al. 1989). PO fit occurs when an individual and an organization share similar values (Cable and Judge 1996; Kristof 1996; Kristof-Brown and Billsberry 2013), can supply what each other needs (Kristof-Brown and Billsberry 2013), and when there is congruence between the outcomes of importance to the individual and the characteristics of the organization (Cable and Judge 1997). PJ fit focuses on the extent to which there is congruence between what the individual brings to the table, what the job needs are, and what the job provides the individual (see Edwards 1991; Kristof 1996; Kristof-Brown 2000; Kristof-Brown and Guay 2011). Although related, PO fit and PJ fit are conceptually and empirically distinct (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al. 2005; Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001).

Understanding both types of fit is underscored by their key roles in the nomological network of job-related constructs. PO fit predicts job choice intentions, work attitudes (Cable and Judge 1996), job satisfaction, intention to quit (Saks and Ashforth 1997), and organizational attraction (Yang 2014). Similarly, PJ fit influences a variety of outcomes including coping, job satisfaction, intention to quit, turnover, commitment (Edwards 1991; Kristof-Brown et al. 2005), organizational identification (Saks and Ashforth 1997) and psychological well-being (Park et al. 2011). Although the two fit perceptions have effects on similar constructs, they have independent effects on the various outcomes (see Kristof-Brown et al. 2002; Kristof-Brown et al. 2005; Saks and Ashforth 1997). Overall, these two fit perceptions play a role in all stages of attraction, motivation, and retention of employees, thus tying into employee fit in broad research frameworks, such as the attraction–selection–attrition framework (see Schneider 1987).

Broadly speaking, much prior research on fit in general, and both PO fit and PJ fit in particular, has focused on employer and organizational actions, such as selection, recruitment, socialization tactics, and what an individual can bring to an organization/job (Kristof-Brown and Guay 2011; Kristof-Brown et al. 2002). Although such an employer view is important, given the two-way nature (i.e., employee ←→ employer) of all decisions related to employment, a focus on employees' expectations and experiences is also critical. It has been noted that research on the determinants of fit from an employee perspective is lacking (Colbert et al. 2008; Kristof-Brown et al. 2005).

Work Outcomes

Over the past three decades, IS, OB, and vocational behavior researchers have suggested a variety of work outcomes (Crepeau et al. 1992; Ferratt and Short 1986, 1988; Guimaraes and Igbaria 1992; Holtom et al. 2006; Igbaria and Baroudi 1995; Lawler and Finegold 2000; Munyon et al. 2015). We identify a specific set of work outcomes based on the *total rewards perspective* (Lawler 2011; Parus 1999). This approach involves going beyond the traditional compensation practices rooted in pay and promotion opportunities. The total rewards perspective considers all benefits afforded by employment in an organization, including opportunities for learning, personal and professional development, quality of life, and work environment, thus representing the firm's entire value proposition for prospective and current employees (Parus 1999). The total rewards perspective allows organizations to emphasize appealing aspects of the work environment and organization that are not just tied to financial compensation, making it particularly well-suited for leaner economic periods, which has been of global significance in the past two decades. It also allows organizations to customize their rewards packages for particular jobs and roles, providing greater flexibility when recruiting new workers. Leading organizations, such as Microsoft, Johnson & Johnson, IBM, and AstraZeneca, are among those using this approach to help attract, motivate, and retain employees (Rumpel and Medcof 2006).

Grounded in the total rewards perspective, we define work outcomes as being related to *material*, *social*, and *psychological states* (see Super 1980) that are a heuristic set of guiding principles important to individuals to evaluate work and/or job environments (see Ros et al. 1999). Early research on work outcomes, such as the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (MIQ; Gay et al. 1971), the Work Aspect Preference Scale (Pryor 1983), and the Work Values Inventory (Super 1980), has emphasized the importance of various extrinsic and intrinsic outcomes in the workplace. Extrinsic or instrumental outcomes are defined as the results of work activity provided by another source other than the employee on the job (Schuler 1975). These outcomes typically focus on direct, concrete external consequences, such as pay, promotion, prestige, and job security. The importance of extrinsic outcomes, such as pay, to employees is both intuitive and well-documented. As our understanding of work outcomes has progressed, more recent thought has been dominated by a variety of social outcomes that are important to employees (Cable and Parsons 2001). Social outcomes are defined as the result of work activities that are affected by interpersonal relationships and include both work and nonwork ties, such as work–life balance, friendliness of coworkers, and family proximity. Finally, the role of intrinsic outcomes has been studied via

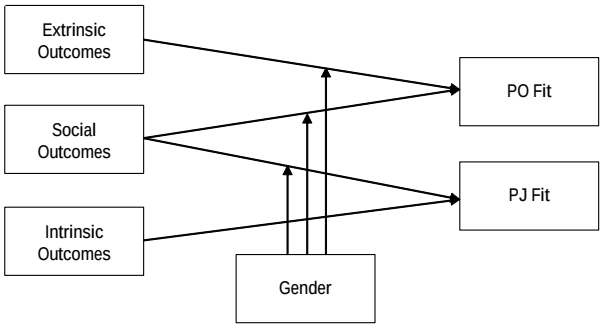

Figure 1. Research Model

theoretical perspectives, such as the job characteristics model (JCM; Hackman and Oldham 1980), with an emphasis on intrinsically interesting work (Brief et al. 1988). Intrinsic outcomes are defined as the results of work activity that arise from the relationship between the employee and his or her task activity (Schuler 1975). These outcomes typically focus on intangible, internal benefits (i.e., feelings or cognitions), such as task variety, creativity, and skill development. We specifically focus on the extent to which individuals *perceive* each of these three types of outcomes to be present in their work. We present hypotheses related to each type of outcome, followed by those related to moderation by gender. Building on prior research that has related various outcomes to fit perceptions, we present the model shown in Figure 1.

Although prior research has not typically used theory-driven categories to describe specific work outcomes, researchers have identified a few constructs that fall within each of the three general work outcomes shown in Figure 1. Within the content domain of each of the three constructs, we identify examples of these work outcomes in order to develop our hypotheses. The specific work outcomes we discuss throughout are not meant to represent all possible dimensions within each construct (work outcome domain); rather, they are expected to serve as key examples of motivational forces and are expected to be important in evaluating a job and a workplace (Gay et al. 1971; Pryor 1983; Super 1980).

Hypotheses Development

Extrinsic Outcomes

Traditional perspectives have demonstrated that extrinsic work outcomes are critical for employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and, consequently, reducing turnover (Lawler and Finegold 2000). Of the extrinsic factors examined in past research, pay (i.e., monetary compensation) is a factor that is intuitively appealing. A related extrinsic factor is promotion. In addition to typically being a driver of pay, promotion is appealing given that it is typically a reflection of performance and an indicator of employee advancement within the organization. Prestige, or the extent to which a position elicits respect from others, is related to an individual's financial earnings (Judge et al. 1995). In addition, job security creates the potential for a stable source of income and provides an affective gain in knowing that one's job is stable. Each of these extrinsic work outcomes predicts key job outcomes, such as job satisfaction and turnover (e.g., Bartol and Durham 2000; Bartol and Locke 2000).

Extant research supports the notion that PO fit is driven by valuations of extrinsic outcomes, given that these outcomes are controlled by organizational-level factors, such as culture, organizational reputation, HR practices, and firm policies. PO fit is tied to extra-role behaviors (Lauver and Kristof-Brown 2001), thus suggesting that aspects beyond the specific job play a role in determining PO fit. Pay has been tied to PO fit (Cable and Judge 1994) rather than PJ fit. This stands to reason because individuals, especially in the job search process, often see organizations as the "pay masters" and identify specific organizations or types of organizations (e.g., consulting firms) as paying higher or lower salaries in general. Although pay may vary based on the specific job, the internal pay structure (pay hierarchy) is often fixed within an organization (see Cable and Judge 1994; McLean et al. 1996). This argument also applies to promotion. Prestige is largely based on the organization's name and fame. For example, being a software engineer at Google carries more prestige than being a software engineer at a smaller, lesser known firm. Organizations often acquire a reputation regarding job security. For example, until the 1990s, IBM was well-known for having a "no layoff" policy, whereas other organizations

have been quick to lay off employees, particularly during difficult economic times. Given that pay, promotion, prestige, and job security are tied to the organization, an individual's perceptions of these factors determine PO fit. Thus, we hypothesize

H1: Expectations about extrinsic outcomes will positively influence PO fit perceptions.

Social Outcomes

There are two key social considerations that are integral to one's work life. One relates to social support provided by the organization and the other relates to respect for employees' social needs outside work. These have been captured in the prior literature by a variety of factors, such as proximity to family, friendly coworkers, and work–life balance. Proximity to family captures the extent to which a workplace or job allows for interactions with family. The construct of friendly coworkers captures the extent to which social and work-related support will be provided in the workplace; this is shown to be valued for socio-emotional purposes (Minton and Schneider 1980; Windeler et al. 2017) and for information from others about work-related questions and problems (Goldstein and Rockart 1984). Work–life balance reflects the extent to which a work situation supports employee efforts to manage the interface between their paid work and other important life activities, such as family (Lazarova et al. 2010). Work–life balance has received much attention in recent years and has been viewed as a critical factor in retention (Ahuja et al. 2007; Lazarova et al. 2010).

The role of social outcomes is two-fold. The first role of social outcomes is tied to satisfying relational needs. The second role is more work-oriented in that employees often rely on coworkers for advice, problem solving (Sykes 2015; Sykes et al. 2009; Sykes et al. 2014), and other types of support (e.g., flexible work hours to accommodate personal situations) necessary to perform one's job duties. The former role ties valuation of social outcomes to PO fit because the organization and organizational culture are seen as the entities that create and maintain the overall work environment. The latter role is related to PJ fit because it is one's immediate job environment that provides various types of work-related support. For example, in terms of social outcomes, we suggest that family proximity and work–life balance relate to PO fit. Family proximity is largely determined by an organization's location. Expectations about how proximal an organization is to family will tie to how well an individual's relational needs will be met and this will determine PO fit. Work–life balance is driven to some extent by policies and practices in place at an organization. Therefore, the balance that an individual expects to receive from working in a particular organization will drive his or her perceptions of PO fit.

Following a detailed review and analysis of the various conceptualizations of PJ fit, Kristof (1996) noted that PJ fit incorporates the congruence between the individual and specific job requirements and what the specific job environment, rather than the broader work environment, has to offer. From an employee's perspective, PJ fit ties to specific aspects related to the job (see Kristof-Brown 2000). Beyond organizational policies, work–life balance is afforded by a particular job. For example, some jobs may require significant overtime and/or weekend work. Still other jobs may require frequent travel away from the office location where one works. For example, such additional hours and travel are typical of consultant jobs in the IT industry. Friendly coworkers are an integral part of the immediate job environment and determine the extent of support available to the employee for social interactions within the workplace and support with work-related questions (Sykes 2015; Sykes et al. 2009; Sykes et al. 2014). Together, this suggests that valuations of social outcomes can be tied to the demands of a particular job and thus drive perceptions of PJ fit.

The importance of the role of social outcomes in driving PO fit is evident in the context of IT workers. For example, many organizations have adopted agile software development methodologies that advocate 40-hour work weeks as an important practice (Lee and Xia 2010). Such organizations will create perceptions about achieving greater work–life balance among workers. In contrast, enterprise-wide dependency on real-time information means that many organizations will require IT workers to be available 24/7 for support services to clients (Guzman and Stanton 2009). Service level agreements guaranteeing 99.99% availability of IT resources (Greiner and Paul 2009) mean IT workers may have to be on-call around the clock, eroding work–life balance.

The importance of social outcomes in driving PJ fit is underscored by the nature of IT jobs. Entry-level IT workers typically perform programming/coding tasks (McMurtrey et al. 2008) that often call for the assistance of coworkers due to the complex problems faced in the substantive area of the work and the possible need for solutions from others (Cheng et al. 2004). Likewise, experienced IT workers, who have more complex responsibilities, such as software design or project leadership, are likely to call upon their coworkers for advice and rely on them for input into "big picture" solutions. IT workers in general share solutions through personal interactions and bulletin boards. In fact, they represent one of the most active online professional communities (Assima-

kopoulos and Yan 2009). Given this professional culture and socialization in the IT profession, the need for social support along these lines is expected to be important in determining perceptions of fit. Thus, we hypothesize

H2: Expectations about social outcomes will positively influence PO fit perceptions.

H3: Expectations about social outcomes will positively influence PJ fit perceptions.

Intrinsic Outcomes

Several theories with roots in psychology and OB, such as JCM, have emphasized the importance of intrinsic work outcomes (Hackman and Oldham 1980). IS researchers have also drawn on these theories and studied them in the context of IT workers (e.g., Ferratt and Short 1986, 1988; Igbaria et al. 1994) and IT implementations (Morris and Venkatesh 2010; Venkatesh et al. 2010). For instance, one of the predictors from JCM (i.e., variety) has been employed across multiple studies in IS (Crepeau et al. 1992; Ferratt and Short 1988; Jiang and Klein 1999). In addition, creativity is an important motivator for IT workers (Sumner et al. 2005). Research has also identified skill development as an intrinsic growth factor as it underscores employees' desire for learning and staying at the cutting-edge of their profession (Kraimer et al. 2011). JCM suggests that core job characteristics influence employee motivation and job satisfaction. Given that the predictors in the JCM (i.e., autonomy, feedback, identity, significance, and variety) focus on intrinsic outcomes, it further stands to reason that PJ fit is determined by an individual's valuations about how well a job provides intrinsic outcomes, such as task variety, creativity, and skill development.

An example of the importance of intrinsic outcomes can be seen in the context of IT workers. The IT industry constantly changes and individuals socialized in the IT profession will feel a better fit with jobs that will provide them the ongoing opportunity to learn and perform a variety of tasks, thus helping them to be skilled and at the cutting-edge (see Morris and Venkatesh 2010). Continuing opportunities for learning are particularly critical in today's volatile IT job environments as they will allow IT workers to perceive a promising career path (Turmel 2011). Further, technology workers are often innovators (see Rogers 1995) and like to "play" with the latest tools, languages, etc., which is likely driven by their need for variety, drive to indulge in creative activities related to their profession, and need to learn continuously (Agarwal et al. 2007). These are the very habits and behaviors that have led to the formation of the stereotype of a "techie" or "geek." Thus, we hypothesize

H4: Expectations about intrinsic outcomes will positively influence PJ fit perceptions.

Moderation by Gender

Building on prior research that has related various outcomes to fit perceptions, we present a moderated model, shown earlier in Figure 1. New employees form fit perceptions in reaction to salient attributes of their work environment. For decades now, it is accepted that a basic motivation for people to enter the labor market is to gain access to valued outcomes (Simon 1951). It is likely that the various types of outcomes available in the work environment will thus play an important role in shaping individuals' fit perceptions (Westerman and Cyr 2004). However, interactional psychology suggests that employees' PO fit or PJ fit perceptions may not be determined solely by the attributes of the work environment. Instead, fit perceptions are theorized to be a function of both individual and work environment characteristics (Schneider 1987). Thus, from an interactionist perspective, a more complete understanding of how PO fit and PJ fit perceptions are formed requires the consideration of information about relevant work outcomes and employees' preferences (Bretz et al. 1989).

The effect of outcomes on fit perceptions is influenced by how much value an employee places on particular outcomes. Valuations of work outcomes shape fit perceptions because work outcomes represent the personal standards used by employees when evaluating their work environment (e.g., Latham and Pinder 2005). An employee is unlikely to perceive high fit with an environment that provides work outcomes they do not value. Conversely, if an employee perceives that his or her work setting offers a high amount of a desirable outcome, he or she is likely to perceive high levels of fit. Thus, we expect employees will perceive the highest levels of PO fit or PJ fit when they have access to outcomes they view as important.

We argue that a key mechanism shaping the importance placed by individuals on different work outcomes is *socialization.* Socialization is the process through which an individual develops a set of values and beliefs that guide his or her decision-making and behaviors (Cable and Parsons 2001). We argue that developmental socialization underlies why women (versus men) value different work outcomes that in turn will cause them to form different fit perceptions.

Developmental socialization begins in an individual's formative years and is tied to the interactions an individual has with

friends, family, and society. These interactions teach an individual roles, norms, and acceptable behaviors. Over time, developmental socialization is a core driver of an individual's value and belief system. Given that entry-level job applicants are often young (typically in their early 20s) and have little work experience, developmental socialization can be expected to play a significant role in determining what an individual wants from a workplace and/or job. Gender stereotypes (i.e., generalizations about the characteristics of individuals based on biological sex; Bem 1993), drive developmental socialization that in turn is the basis for understanding gender differences in work outcomes and their effects on fit perceptions. Gender stereotypes take the form of norms that are prescriptive (what one should do) and proscriptive (what one should not do) in the developmental stages (early years) of women and men (Kilmartin 2000). According to socialization theories, these norms and behaviors are encouraged from the very formative years and influence individuals' perceptions of their later social roles (Antill 1987). These norms influence orientations that women (girls) and men (boys) develop and influence the games, chores, and other activities in which they are involved (see Kilmartin 2000).

Empirical evidence, based on large data sets, suggests the possibility of some similarities between women and men. Rowe and Snizek (1995) did not find consistent support for gender differences in work attributes based on analyses of data for full-time employed workers in 12 national samples from the General Social Survey (NORC 1985) collected between 1973 and 1990. Rather, the findings suggested that the relationship between gender and the importance of work attributes is affected by age, education, and occupational prestige, with the latter two strongly favoring the potential role of occupational differences in the importance of various work attributes, namely income, job security, working hours, chances for advancement, and work that gives a feeling of accomplishment. Based on British Household Panel Survey Data, Fagan (2001) suggested that women's priorities change with age, thus indicating that entry-level women job applicants may be somewhat similar to their male counterparts in their thinking. After controlling for other variables (e.g., rank) no gender differences were found, thus suggesting that sometimes women identify more with their work, rather than gender role.

We expect developmental socialization to underlie how and why gender will moderate the relationships between valuation of work outcomes and fit perceptions. Given that PO fit is an assessment of the congruence between an individual's needs and what the workplace provides, developmental socialization is expected to be the primary mechanism that underlies the assessment of PO fit. Specifically, based on developmental socialization, we expect gender to moderate the effect of the valuation of extrinsic outcomes on PO fit, such that they will be more influential in men's (compared to women's) assessment of PO fit. A wealth of research on gender differences provides the basis for the relative importance of extrinsic outcomes. Gender predicts valences, instrumentalities, and expectations that drive job choice (Sumner and Neiderman 2003). Gender ideology, defined as socially constructed scripts that prescribe different characteristics, values, attitudes, behaviors, and activities for women and men (e.g., Konrad, Ritchie, et al. 2000), influences the importance of instrumentality and interpersonal relations to women and men. Social identity theory suggests that membership in social groups affects the development of self-concepts (e.g., Konrad, Corrigall, et al. 2000). Because women (girls) and men (boys) socialize primarily within gender in their early years, the importance of instrumentality to men is further reinforced. Such stereotypes, formed through developmental socialization, play a key role in the formation of PO fit perceptions (Cleveland 1991).

Cross and Madson (1997), based on a review, concluded that men create and maintain *independent* self-construal. Such independence in self-construal is expected to cause men to place greater emphasis on extrinsic outcomes, particularly in the workplace, as men seek ways to demonstrate their uniqueness and separateness from others in concrete ways. Women, in contrast, create and maintain interdependent or relational self-construal, leading women to seek more interconnectedness with others, thus seeking and providing more social support (see Cross and Madson 1997).

There is evidence to suggest that extrinsic outcomes, such as financial security and prestige, are very important to men (O'Neil 1981). Men's self-image is strongly tied to instrumental and tangible accomplishments (e.g., Cross and Madson 1997). Men tend to place greater emphasis on their work role (Barnett and Marshall 1991) and career objectives (Bartol and Manhardt 1979), thus likely resulting in the greater importance of tangible goal attainment, such as promotion (Gati et al. 1995). Men, compared to women, are also more likely to seek promotions (see Savery 1990) and place greater importance on status and prestige (Arenofsky 1998). The instrumental focus and the emphasis on the work role for men (Barnett and Marshall 1991; O'Neil 1982) is also expected to make other extrinsic outcomes, such as job security, important to men (Gati et al. 1995) because men have much of their self-worth tied to their work and accomplishments. Thus, we hypothesize

H5: The effect of extrinsic outcomes on PO fit perceptions will be moderated by gender such that it will be more important to men.

Much of the earlier discussion about schemas, stereotypes, ideologies, and practices related to gender differences is at the heart of why social outcomes, such as family proximity and work–life balance, will be more influential in women's assessments of PO fit and PJ fit than social outcomes would be in the case of men. Work–life balance and family proximity will help fill lifestyle and interpersonal needs that are important to women. Although, in the case of entry-level positions, job applicants are typically younger and have fewer familial responsibilities, women tend to be closer to their families (Markham and Pleck 1986) and, therefore, will consider family proximity to be a more important criterion than will men. For experienced workers who are older, especially in the case of women, the family role becomes particularly important (Tilly and Scott 1989). Women, more than men, may also consider social aspects of their jobs to be more important (see Brief and Aldag 1975). A variety of contemporary arguments support the greater importance of work–life balance to women in their formation of PO fit and PJ fit perceptions. Compared to the valuations of men, women tend to value affiliation and friendships more (Gati et al. 1995), value and use social support more (Savery 1990), are more perceptive of interpersonal problems (Gwartney-Gibbs and Lach 1994), and place more emphasis on community (Estes 1992). Drawing on these justifications, we theorize that the effect of social outcomes on PO fit will be strongest among women.

Social outcomes are also thought to influence PJ fit perceptions due to the social atmosphere created by one's coworkers. The relationship between social outcomes and PJ fit perceptions will be moderated by gender such that it will be important to women. The rationale for importance to women is consistent with our justification for H5. Developmental socialization results in women valuing social support more than men do (e.g., Brief and Aldag 1975; Estes 1992; Gwartney-Gibbs and Lach 1994; Savery 1990). Research indicates that the underrepresentation of women in IT is due in part to social and network barriers related to a male-centric occupational culture as well as a lack of role models and mentors for women in organizations (Ahuja 2002). In conjunction with developmental socialization, such characteristics should lead women in IT to place a high value on the social support they receive from coworkers. Drawing on these justifications, we theorize that the effect of social outcomes on PJ fit will be strongest among women. Thus, we hypothesize

H6: The effect of social outcomes on PO fit perceptions will be moderated by gender, such that it will be more important to women.

H7: The effect of social outcomes on PJ fit perceptions will be moderated by gender, such that it will be more important to women.

Although research has investigated gender differences in the importance of intrinsic motivations, the evidence has been mixed, with some finding it to be more important to men and others finding it to be more important to women (for a review, see Kilmartin 2000). For example, Herzberg et al. (1993) found that men, compared to women, place more importance on intrinsic outcomes, such as overall enjoyment of their work. In contrast, Brenner et al. (1988) found that women, compared to men, placed more importance on intrinsic outcomes. They acknowledged the mixed results regarding gender differences and work values, and suggest that other factors, such as race, may interact with gender to explain these mixed results. Still other research found that, after controlling for demographics, such as age, marital status, education, experience, organizational position, and culture, men and women do not differ in the extent to which they value intrinsic outcomes at work (Akhtar 2000; Kaufman and Fetters 1980). Given these mixed results, we do not theorize moderation of the effect of intrinsic outcomes on fit perceptions, but rather suggest that intrinsic outcomes will directly impact PJ fit.

Method

We conducted three studies, each with two waves of data collection, to test our model. The first study was conducted among graduating college seniors who had accepted jobs and was conducted in 2000–2001, after the dotcom bubble burst and, thus, represents a time of significant economic recession. The second study was also conducted among graduating seniors but took place about six years after the first study when the economic conditions in the United States were significantly better. The third study was conducted over two years, overlapping with the start of the second study and continuing for a year after, among employees who had three or more years of work experience and were beginning a new job. In all three studies, data were collected prior to organizational entry and six months after organizational entry, which allowed us to validate the model based on expectations and experiences, thus strengthening the applicability and scope of the models. By collecting multiple waves of data, we establish cross-temporal validity.

We first present an overview of the three studies conducted, followed by a description of the measurement instrument and scale development to ensure the appropriateness of the instrument. The results are then presented in three parts: (1) model tests; (2) tests for the generalizability and boundary conditions of the model; and (3) tests for robustness of the model. Each part of the analysis employed each of the three studies outlined. We begin by presenting the results of the model tests. Using data from each of the three studies, we tested the model for those in the IT field, prior to their organizational entry.

Table 1. Method Summary

Analysis and Purpose	Samples and Data Collection Period	Domain Examined in Analysis	Job Status
1. Test the model	Study 1: 2000–2001; graduating seniors Study 2: 2007–2008; graduating seniors Study 3: 2007–2009; workers with 3+ years of experience	IT	Pre-organizational entry
2. Test generalizability and boundary conditions of model	Study 1: 2000–2001; graduating seniors Study 2: 2007–2008; graduating seniors Study 3: 2007–2009; workers with 3+ years of experience	All business domains	Pre-organizational entry
3. Test robustness of model using experiences rather than expectations	Study 1: 2000–2001; graduating seniors Study 2: 2007–2008; graduating seniors Study 3: 2007–2009; workers with 3+ years of experience	All business domains	Post-organizational entry

Following this, we tested the generalizability and boundary conditions of the model by comparing the results for IT workers to those in other business domains, prior to their organizational entry. Finally, we examined the robustness of model by examining the results across all business domains, *after* the participants have entered the organization. This allowed us to determine whether the model is robust to changes between expectations prior to organizational entry and actual experiences after organizational entry. Table 1 summarizes the methodology, including the purpose of each analysis performed, a synopsis of the samples, and the time periods in which they were collected.

In order to fully examine the model's generalizability, boundary conditions, and robustness, while at the same time maintaining parsimony in our model, we grouped the business domains into three categories: quantitative domains, people-oriented domains, and IT. Quantitative domains are accounting, economics and finance, and people-oriented domains are management and marketing. IT is viewed as distinct from these groups. Grouping professional domains in this way is grounded in the prior literature on education and vocational behavior. Several prior studies have grouped accounting, economics, and finance together, and management and marketing together (e.g., Kidwell and Kidwell 2008; Lawrence et al. 2000; Pritchard et al. 2004; Schlee 2005; Worthington and Higgs 2003), based upon the primary foci of these fields of study. This is not to say that people-oriented domains do not work with numbers and that quantitative domains do not focus on qualitative issues. This also does not suggest that, as these fields evolve, they have not embraced more balanced perspectives. Rather, quantitative domains are predominantly concerned with measurable, quantifiable issues, whereas people-oriented domains are predominantly concerned with human factors (Kidwell and Kidwell 2008). IT has been grouped with qualitative domains (Lawrence et al. 2000), and with people-oriented domains (Kidwell and Kidwell 2008), as well as not grouped with any other domain and instead been considered a "technical" field (Pritchard et al. 2004; Schlee 2005). This suggests some element of divergence compared to the consistent grouping of other business domains. Extant research in the IT personnel literature supports the assertion that IT workers do represent a unique and distinct occupational subculture (e.g., Guzman et al. 2008; Joseph et al. 2007; Wynekoop and Walz 1998). Based on prior research and our interest in drawing contextual implications for IT recruitment and retention challenges, IT is kept separate from the other business domains.

Study 1

The population was graduating business school seniors who had accepted jobs. The sampling frame was the list of graduating seniors in a business school at a large university in the eastern United States. Participants were solicited from a capstone course and other senior-level electives at the school. Each class section typically comprised between 35 and 45 students. Data were collected in two waves: before organizational entry with a focus on expectations and after organizational entry with a focus on experiences. In the first wave of the data collection, which was conducted during the last month of the semester, one of the authors or a research assistant visited each class and followed a script that described the objective of the survey to be one that was aimed at gathering information about students' feelings about jobs and their job search. Participation was voluntary. The instructor of the class was not present during any part of the data collection. The second wave of the data collection was conducted by contacting the same participants, who were now holding jobs,

via e-mail about six months after they had started their jobs (based on the start date they provided in the initial survey). The follow-up survey asked the same questions but about their experiences, not expectations, and about their fit perceptions. Questions measuring various constructs were intermixed. Also, other filler questions, not discussed here, were included in the survey to minimize the threat of demand characteristics.

A total of 656 graduating seniors participated in the pre-organizational entry survey (wave 1), with 592 providing usable responses (90.2%). The different professional domains (majors) that were studied and the number of participants in each domain was 124 in accounting, 119 in finance, 173 in IT, 107 in management, and 69 in marketing, resulting in a breakdown of 173 (29.2%) in IT, 243 (41.1%) in quantitative domains, and 176 (29.7%) in people-oriented domains. The sample comprised 224 women (37.8%). The further breakdown was as follows: women in IT—74 (out of 173), women in quantitative domains[3]—44 (out of 243), and women in people-oriented domains—106 (out of 176). The average age was 22.34, with a standard deviation of 2.61. Of the 592 respondents in the pre-organizational entry survey, 391 participated in the post-organizational survey (wave 2) for a response rate of approximately 66% relative to the wave 1 survey. The demographic profile of respondents in both waves was highly similar; the profile in wave 2 was 126 (51 women) in IT, 151 (30 women) in quantitative domains, and 114 (70 women) in people-oriented domains.

Study 2

Study 2 was conducted following the same design as study 1. The only difference, as noted earlier, was when the data were collected. Given that the economic climate often tends to vary, theory developed and data collected at a particular point in time, based on prevailing wisdom, may not generalize to new settings, especially if the underlying circumstances and assumptions of the theory and data have changed. However, demonstrating invariance over time, (i.e., cross-temporal validity) is important to establish generalizability and is considered to be a form of external validity (see Cook and Campbell 1979). In keeping with this idea, study 2 was conducted approximately six years after study 1.

A total of 770 graduating seniors participated in the pre-organizational entry survey (wave 1), with 752 providing usable responses (97.7%). The different professional domains (majors) that were studied and the number of participants in each domain was 197 in accounting, 260 in finance, 89 in IT, 114 in management, and 92 in marketing, resulting in a breakdown of 89 (11.8%) in IT, 457 (60.8%) in quantitative domains, and 206 (27.4%) in people-oriented domains. The sample comprised 310 women (41.2%). The further breakdown was as follows: women in IT—35 (out of 89), women in quantitative domains—135 (out of 457), and women in people-oriented domains—140 (out of 206). The average age was 23.40, with a standard deviation of 2.98. Of the 752 respondents in the pre-organizational entry survey, 526 participated in the post-organizational survey (wave 2) for a response rate of approximately 70% relative to the wave 1 survey. The demographic profile of respondents in both waves was highly similar—the profile in wave 2 was 76 (30 women) in IT, 310 (89 women) in quantitative domains, and 140 (95 women) in people-oriented domains.

Study 3

The design of study 3 was similar to both studies 1 and 2. It began at the same time as study 2, and continued for a year after the conclusion of study 2. One of the scoping conditions of studies 1 and 2 was that the sample comprised graduating college seniors. To expand the scope for study 3, we collected data from those who were starting new jobs in three different organizations and already had three or more years of work experience. This allowed us to examine the generalizability of our model to those who were older, had more work experience, and were, consequently, starting at least their second job.

A total of 1,320 out of 2,401 new employees entering each of the three organizations over a two-year period provided responses to our pre-organizational entry survey (55%). The different professional domains of the jobs that the employees were starting and their majors (undergraduate and/or graduate) were collected. Given the scope and focus of our work, we only included those in the sample that had stayed in the same domain as the major of their most recent degree. In our sample, this comprised 770 new employees. Although the remaining employees are an interesting group (i.e., those who have made career changes), because our focus was not on such individuals, we excluded them from our sample. Further, it is likely that the model explaining such individuals' choices will have to consider other, different factors and this was beyond the scope of this work. The number of participants in each domain was 202 in accounting, 237 in finance, 123 in IT, 120 in management, and 88 in marketing, resulting in a breakdown of 123 (16%) in IT, 439 (57%) in quantitative domains, and 208 (27%) in people-oriented domains. The sample comprised 311 women (40.4%). The further break-

[3]Although economics is a quantitative domain, our study settings (study 1 and 2) did not include any economics majors.

down was as follows: women in IT—41 (out of 123), women in quantitative domains—129 (out of 439), and women in people-oriented domains—141 (out of 208). The average age was 31.33, with a standard deviation of 6.45. Of the 770 respondents in the pre-organizational entry survey, 502 participated in the post-organizational entry survey (wave 2) for a response rate of approximately 65% relative to the wave 1 survey. The demographics of respondents in both waves were highly similar; the profile in wave 2 was 82 (28 women) in IT, 281 (80 women) in quantitative domains, and 139 (91 women) in people-oriented domains.

Measurement

Independent Variables: Scale Development

The items used to measure the importance of various extrinsic, intrinsic, and social outcomes were developed through a rigorous process that was in keeping with instrument development guidelines (see DeVellis 2011). This process consisted of three stages: item creation, scale development, and instrument testing (DeVellis 2011).[4] The item creation stage involved creating pools of items for each of the work outcomes that map to their corresponding conceptual definitions. We examined existing scales and, where necessary, created additional items to ensure content validity. Items were drawn primarily from the *Minnesota Importance Questionnaire* (MIQ; Gay et al. 1971), the *Work Aspect Preference Scale* (Pryor 1983), and the *Work Values Inventory* (Super 1980). Extrinsic outcomes were measured using items assessing the importance of pay, promotion, prestige, and job security. Social outcomes were measured using items assessing the importance of family proximity, work–life balance, and friendly coworkers. Intrinsic outcomes were measured using items assessing the importance of variety, creativity, and skill development. Due to the number of work outcome dimensions and the desire to keep the final survey a manageable length for participants, we aimed to retain three items per dimension for a total of 30 items measuring the importance of the 10 different dimensions of work outcomes. DeVellis (2011) recommends generating three to four times the number of items to be included in the final scale. Thus, we identified a pool of 10 items for each dimension, for a total initial pool of 100 items. The importance of each type of outcome was measured on a seven-point Likert-type agreement scale. The items are listed in Appendix A.

The second stage in the instrument development process is development of the scales (DeVellis 2011). The goal of this stage is to conduct an initial assessment of construct validity and to weed out ambiguous or poorly worded items. To this end, we conducted a card-sorting procedure in which participants (two sections of an undergraduate business capstone course and two sections of a second-year MBA elective, with approximately 200 students total) were asked to sort the various items into construct categories. Different samples were used to evaluate items pertaining to the three constructs (i.e., 30 items); this was done to minimize participant fatigue. Each participant was given a stack of randomly ordered cards corresponding to items and asked to group cards together into categories. The number of categories participants could create was not restricted. Participants were then asked to label each category with a word or phrase that reflected the category. Construct validity is assessed by examining the convergence and divergence of items within the categories and across participants (DeVellis 2011). Items that are consistently placed in the same category evince convergent validity with that construct and discriminant validity with other constructs. Moreover, the degree of overlap across participants in number of categories, category labels, and items grouped together is an indicator of convergent and discriminant validity. Item paring was conducted on the basis of inter-rater agreement, using Cohen's Kappa (Cohen 1960). Items with values lower than the accepted threshold of .65 (DeVellis 2011) were dropped such that five items were retained for each work outcome (three items to retain, plus two possible items for the instrument testing stage). These items are shown in italics in Appendix A.

The scales were combined for the final stage: instrument testing. We conducted this stage in two steps. The first step involved administering the questionnaire to a small sample to obtain a preliminary indication of reliability and make any necessary adjustments. For this purpose, we used one section of an undergraduate business capstone course and one section of a second-year MBA elective for a total of approximately 80 students. We asked participants to complete the questionnaire and to provide comments on its length, wording, or instructions. Cronbach's alpha values were in the .75 to .85 range, indicating a high degree of reliability. In general, participant feedback revolved around the length of the questionnaire, which we sought to reduce for the next step of instrument testing, while still retaining a high degree of reliability. Thus, we reduced the length of each scale from five items to three items by eliminating items with the lowest loadings. At the same time, we ensured that domain coverage was not affected by deleting a particular item. Cronbach's alpha for reduced scales were all above .70, indicating that they were reliable. The final items related to expectations (used in studies 1 and 2) are shown in Table 2; the wording for the experiences survey (study 3) was suitably adapted. Finally, we administered the questionnaire to a larger sample that was somewhat more representative of the population (two sections of the

[4]Our instrument development predated the more recently described ten-step procedure (for an example, see Hoehle and Venkatesh 2015).

undergraduate capstone business course, one section of a full-time MBA elective, and one section of a part-time MBA elective for a total sample of approximately 200). We again examined scale reliabilities and performed a factor analysis using an oblimin rotation that resulted in a ten-factor solution. All reliabilities were above .70. All cross-loadings were below .42, as shown in Table 3.[5] Thus, we conclude that the scales demonstrate reliability and validity.

Dependent Variables

There have been varying operationalizations of fit in different streams of research, both in IS and OB. For instance, IS researchers have measured task–technology fit by measuring both components—task and technology—and determining fit (Goodhue and Thompson 1995). Alternatively, job fit has been measured directly by using items about fit (Thompson et al. 1991). Specifically, in the context of the types of fit studied here, there have been different measurement approaches in the OB literature.

Rather than measure fit directly, some researchers have measured fit using a profile comparison process via a Q-sort technique; for an example of an application of this technique to the measurement of PJ fit, see Caldwell and O'Reilly (1990). There have also been direct measures of PO fit and PJ fit (e.g., Cable and Judge 1996, 1997; Cable and Parsons 2001; Dineen et al. 2002; Judge and Cable 1997; Kristof-Brown 2000; Saks and Ashforth 1997). These direct measures are not without detractors (see Edwards 1991). However, direct measures of fit are beneficial when attempting to capture respondents' *perceived* fit (Kristof 1996). Given that the participants' perceptions are the focus of this work, we used direct measures of PO fit and PJ fit by adapting measures from Cable and Judge (1997).

Control Variables

In study 3, we controlled for age and the number of jobs held prior to one's current job. These variables were not included as controls in studies 1 and 2 because there was little variance among the samples in those studies (i.e., graduating students). In study 3, we also included two categorical dummy variables to distinguish across organizations but they had no direct or moderating effect in any of the model tests and were thus dropped from the analysis.

[5]Note that in the case of exploratory factor analysis, such as what is conducted here, only the independent variables are included. In later testing using PLS, both independent and dependent variables are included.

Pilot Study

Prior to conducting study 1, we conducted a pilot study to examine differences in the importance of work outcomes across gender. The purpose of the pilot study was to examine the suitability of our procedure and to determine whether the pattern of gender differences in the importance of work outcomes followed our hypotheses. The population of the pilot study was graduating seniors (i.e., applicants for entry-level jobs) pursuing degrees in IT and other functional areas in business. The sampling frame and data collection procedure were similar to studies 1 and 2. We did not measure fit perceptions in the pilot study because not all students had jobs. A total of 1,637 students participated in the pilot study, with 1,513 providing usable responses (92.4%). The results of the pilot study provided general support for our ideas based on the mean differences: gender differences were in the directions predicted. Prior to conducting study 3, we conducted another pilot study among approximately 100 graduating full-time MBA students; a sample that we deemed appropriate because of their work experience and the fact that they would be looking for jobs soon. Feedback from the pilot study participants indicated no problems with the question wording or procedure. Given the small sample size and the nonavailability of dependent variables, we only assessed reliability and validity of the scales, which were found to be satisfactory, and did not test the full model.

Results

The data were analyzed using partial least squares (PLS) (SmartPLS 2.0), a components-based structural equation modeling (SEM) technique. PLS has the advantage of maximizing the explained variance of endogenous variables, making it particularly well-suited when research objectives are prediction-oriented (see Chin 1998), as is the case in our work. Moreover, PLS is flexible to the inclusion of both reflective and formative measures (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001), as is the case with our model, and does not produce problems with model identification that can occur with covariance-based SEM approaches (Chin 1998). PO and PJ fit were modeled with first-order reflective indicators. The first-order constructs of pay, promotion, prestige, job security (extrinsic outcomes), family proximity, work–life balance, friendly coworkers (social outcomes), variety, creativity, and skill development (intrinsic outcomes) were modeled as reflective. The second-order constructs of extrinsic, social, and intrinsic outcomes were modeled as formative. We applied the guidelines suggested by Petter et al. (2007) for determining that our second-order constructs were formative: (1) the direction of causality is from the items to the construct; (2) the items for the construct are not interchangeable (e.g., as

Table 2. Survey Items Retained (Expectations)

WORK OUTCOMES (Scale: 1 = Not at All to 7 = A Great Deal) We would like you to tell us how much of each characteristic you expect to see present in your job. For example, there is a characteristic "Friendly coworkers." You will rate on a seven-point scale how much the job will provide the opportunity for you to have "friendly coworkers."	
Pay	Salary level
	The opportunity to become financially wealthy
	The amount of pay
Promotion	Opportunities for advancement
	Promotion opportunities
	Chances for advancement
Prestige	Having others consider my work important
	Obtaining status in the eyes of others
	Being looked up to by others
Job Security	Being certain of keeping my job
	Being sure I will always have a job
	Being certain my job will last
Family Proximity	Being in the same geographic location as my immediate family (i.e., parents, brother, sister)
	Living in the same area as my immediate family
	Being in very close geographical proximity of my immediate family
Friendly Coworkers	Friendly coworkers
	Collegial coworkers
	Coworkers who are supportive
Work–Life Balance	Being able to balance my family and work life
	Having time for my personal life
	A work environment that supports work/family balance
Variety	Doing a variety of things
	Doing something different every day
	Doing many different things on the job
Creativity	Trying out new ideas and suggestions
	Creating something new
	Contributing new ideas
Skill Development	Opportunities to develop new skills
	Developing new knowledge through training
	Acquiring new career-relevant skills
FIT PERCEPTIONS (Scale: 7-point Likert agreement scale)	
PO Fit	The organization will be a total fit for me
	Taking everything into account, the organization will be a complete fit for me
	I would fit right into the organization
PJ Fit	I would fit right in to the job
	Taking everything into account, the job is a complete fit for me
	The job provides a total fit for me.

Note: For the post-organizational entry items, the present tense is used throughout. For instance, the instructions were modified to: We would like you to tell us how much of each characteristic you experience in your job. For example, there is a characteristic "Friendly coworkers." You will rate on a seven-point scale how much the job provides the opportunity for you to have "friendly coworkers." Likewise, in the post-organizational entry survey, "will be" in the first two PO fit items is replaced with "is." Also, "would" is dropped in the third PO fit item and first PJ fit item.

Table 3. Factor Analysis with Oblimin Rotation

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Pay1	**.77**	.03	.38	.06	.03	.08	.10	.12	.08	.23
	Pay2	**.75**	.21	.40	.09	.24	.16	.08	.12	.11	.29
	Pay3	**.73**	.17	.15	.38	.28	.11	.19	.28	.18	.22
2	Promotion1	.28	**.77**	.14	.02	.12	.06	.05	.20	.03	.06
	Promotion2	.23	**.80**	.38	.20	.20	.25	.07	.25	.24	.26
	Promotion3	.24	**.82**	.17	.16	.23	.19	.11	.15	.02	.15
3	Prestige1	.37	.18	**.78**	.28	.30	.20	.07	.05	.19	.20
	Prestige2	.38	.37	**.75**	.17	.13	.11	.08	.17	.13	.14
	Prestige3	.30	.38	**.73**	.22	.28	.21	.07	.14	.16	.15
4	Security1	.28	.01	.12	**.84**	.25	.10	.23	.02	.17	.25
	Security2	.25	.02	.01	**.83**	.08	.13	.09	.08	.14	.16
	Security3	.30	.15	.26	**.80**	.01	.03	.20	.21	.15	.09
5	Work–life balance1	.18	.01	.18	.06	**.73**	.12	.26	.14	.06	.23
	Work–life balance2	.14	.23	.01	.18	**.79**	.37	.22	.23	.28	.17
	Work–life balance3	.10	.27	.21	.02	**.74**	.17	.12	.10	.03	.06
6	Friendly coworkers1	.07	.28	.11	.04	.38	**.77**	.03	.19	.04	.13
	Friendly coworkers2	.04	.05	.13	.22	.39	**.73**	.28	.30	.16	.28
	Friendly coworkers3	.08	.16	.15	.01	.06	**.78**	.22	.06	.11	.11
7	Family proximity1	.01	.16	.22	.07	.10	.12	**.80**	.13	.28	.03
	Family proximity2	.06	.25	.26	.06	.10	.08	**.84**	.26	.12	.29
	Family proximity3	.05	.18	.07	.09	.08	.04	**.78**	.28	.02	.03
8	Variety1	.04	.07	.25	.04	.11	.22	.19	**.73**	.35	.18
	Variety2	.08	.05	.27	.11	.03	.27	.20	**.75**	.38	.30
	Variety3	.01	.30	.05	.12	.20	.17	.18	**.76**	.21	.02
9	Creativity1	.37	.11	.09	.04	.23	.17	.03	.39	**.70**	.16
	Creativity2	.35	.20	.13	.27	.05	.15	.10	.41	**.76**	.16
	Creativity3	.23	.13	.23	.18	.10	.24	.13	.40	**.75**	.26
10	Skill development1	.21	.25	.23	.06	.14	.29	.04	.04	.06	**.82**
	Skill development2	.05	.17	.24	.11	.08	.25	.09	.13	.16	**.73**
	Skill development3	.08	.25	.30	.23	.03	.04	.14	.09	.29	**.71**

in the case of items for family proximity and those for work–life balance); (3) the covariance between measures is not necessary; and (4) formative measures need not share common antecedents and consequences.

We assessed the measurement model for each of the three samples of IT workers to examine the psychometric properties of the data. The details of this analysis are provided in Appendix B, which reports the results of our measurement invariance analysis, and Appendix C, which reports our measurement model results. Support was found for measurement invariance, as well as reliability and validity of our measurement models, allowing us to proceed with examination of the structural models.[6]

Tables 4, 5, and 6 present the descriptive statistics and correlations (as they relate to the structural model variables)

[6]To provide further confidence in the validity of our results, we assessed the potential for common method variance. This analysis is reported in Appendix D and demonstrates that common method variance is unlikely to have affected our results.

Table 4. Study 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Pre-organizational Entry IT Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Extrinsic outcomes	4.72	1.18	–	**.87**					
2	Social outcomes	4.98	1.38	–	.29***	**.86**				
3	Intrinsic outcomes	5.08	1.21	–	.25***	.23***	**.89**			
4	PO fit	4.84	1.06	.75	.16**	.31***	.13*	**.91**		
5	PJ fit	4.91	1.11	.77	.12*	.30***	.33***	.55***	**.92**	
6	Gender	–	–	–	.28***	-.21***	.04	.24***	.30***	**–**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; fiagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE); hender was dummy-coded as 0 for women and 1 for men.

Table 5. Study 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Pre-organizational Entry IT Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Extrinsic outcomes	4.66	1.38	–	**.86**					
2	Social outcomes	4.60	1.29	–	.23***	**.84**				
3	Intrinsic outcomes	5.01	1.07	–	.25***	.21***	**.87**			
4	PO fit	4.69	1.06	.76	.20**	.32***	.15*	**.89**		
5	PJ fit	5.00	1.21	.78	.16**	.33***	.31***	.56***	**.91**	
6	Gender	–	–	–	.31***	-.22***	.06	.29***	.24***	**–**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE); gender was dummy-coded as 0 for women and 1 for men.

Table 6. Study 3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Pre-organizational Entry IT Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Extrinsic outcomes	4.71	1.37	–	**.91**					
2	Social outcomes	4.71	1.33	–	.22***	**.93**				
3	Intrinsic outcomes	4.36	1.21	–	.29***	.28***	**.91**			
4	PO fit	4.51	1.07	.80	.20**	.34***	.14*	**.87**		
5	PJ fit	4.56	1.23	.79	.08	.30***	.30***	.53***	**.94**	
6	Gender	–	–	–	.29***	-.19**	.08	.25***	.23***	**–**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE); gender was dummy-coded as 0 for women and 1 for men.

for the pre-organizational entry samples of IT workers. Means for extrinsic, social, and intrinsic outcomes in each of the three studies were between 4.36 and 5.08, with standard deviations between 1.07 and 1.38. For PO fit and PJ fit, means were between 4.51 and 5.00, with standard deviations between 1.06 and 1.23. The three outcomes were significantly correlated with both PO fit and PJ fit perceptions in all three studies, with one exception being that in study 3 extrinsic outcomes were not correlated with PJ fit perceptions. These correlations are in the direction of our hypotheses H1 through H4.

We next examined the results of the structural model tests. Table 7 shows the results of the model tests for pre-organizational IT workers in each of the three studies. The general pattern of results across the three studies was similar. The variance explained in fit perceptions across the groups ranged from approximately 9% to 23%. We examined support for the direct effect hypotheses predicting PO fit and PJ fit. In all three studies, H1 through H4 were supported (i.e., extrinsic and social outcomes positively influenced PO fit perceptions, and social and intrinsic outcomes positively influenced PJ fit perceptions). Next, we examined support for

Table 7. Structural Model Results for Pre-organizational Entry IT Workers

	Study 1: n= 173		Study 2: n = 89		Study 3: n = 123	
DV: PO fit	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 1**	**Model 2**	**Model 1**	**Model 2**
R^2	.09	.23	.11	.21	.11	.23
Age	–	–	–	–	.08	.08
Previous job count	–	–	–	–	-.05	-.07
Extrinsic outcomes (H1)	.13*	.11*	.16**	.08	.16**	.13*
Social outcomes (H2)	.23***	.12*	.26***	.14*	.24***	.10
Gender	–	.03	–	.06	–	.03
Extrinsic*Gender (H5)	–	.24***	–	.23***	–	.22***
Social*Gender (H6)	–	-.28***	–	-.25***	–	-.25***
DV: PJ fit						
R^2	.13	.19	.12	.19	.18	.22
Age	–	–	–	–	.01	.05
Previous job count	–	–	–	–	-.01	.06
Social outcomes (H3)	.21***	.14*	.21***	.15*	.27***	.24***
Intrinsic outcomes (H4)	.26***	.28***	.25***	.28***	.27***	.26***
Gender	–	.05	–	.01	–	.06
Social*Gender (H7)	–	-.25***	–	-.24***	–	-.12*

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; gender was dummy-coded as 0 for women and 1 for men.

the moderation hypotheses predicting PO fit and PJ fit. H5 predicted that extrinsic outcomes would have a stronger effect on PO fit for men. This was supported. Support was also found for H6 that predicted social outcomes would have a stronger effect on PO fit for women. In examining the results related to predictions of PJ fit, the results supported H7 that predicted that social outcomes would have a stronger effect on PJ fit for women.

Generalizability and Boundary Conditions

To assess the generalizability of the model and determine its boundary conditions, we next examined support for our model across professional domains for pre-organizational entry workers. As noted earlier, this type of generalizability is related to empirical testing or deductive prediction (Lee and Baskerville 2003, 2012; Tsang and Williams 2012) and represents the only way a researcher can generalize across contexts.

Assessment of the reliability and validity of the measurement model is shown in Appendix C. The pattern of results was highly similar to the primary analysis reported above, with the measurement models demonstrating reliability and validity. Tables 8, 9, and 10 provide the descriptive statistics and correlations, which are also highly similar to earlier results (see Tables 4, 5, and 6). Structural model results across gender and professional domain for all business domains prior to organizational entry are shown in Tables 11, 12, and 13. To examine gender and professional domain differences, we analyzed each subsample separately, as recommended when examining moderation by categorical variables in PLS (Carte and Russell 2003). The general pattern of results across the three studies was again fairly similar. The variance explained in fit perceptions in various groups ranged from approximately 5% to 21%. However, we observed some interesting differences across professional domains, when compared to the results for IT workers. To assess whether one effect was statistically stronger than another, we performed a series of Chow's tests (Chow 1960). The significance of these differences, based on the Chow's tests, are reported in Table 14. In terms of differences between professional domains, extrinsic outcomes were observed to have a stronger effect on PO fit for those in quantitative domains, compared to people-oriented domains and IT. Social outcomes had a stronger effect on both PO fit and PJ fit for those in people-oriented domains and IT, compared to those in quantitative domains. The results also showed that, in two of the three studies, perceptions of intrinsic outcomes had a stronger impact on PJ fit for those in IT, compared to those in quantitative domains and people-oriented domains. We speculate about possible reasons for these differences in the discussion section.

Table 8. Study 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Pre-organizational Entry Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Extrinsic outcomes	5.00	1.22	–	**.85**								
2	Social outcomes	4.83	1.40	–	.18**	**.84**							
3	Intrinsic outcomes	4.61	1.23	–	.25***	.19**	**.87**						
4	PO fit	5.03	1.11	.73	.23***	.35***	.20**	**.91**					
5	PJ fit	5.21	1.11	.84	.07	.29***	.13*	.57***	**.92**				
6	Gender	–	–	–	.33***	-.29***	.25***	.30***	.29***	–			
7	Domain: Quantitative	–	–	–	.20**	-.18**	.07	.07	.16*	.25***	–		
8	Domain: People-oriented	–	–	–	-.13*	.17**	.14*	.19**	.03	-.07	.15*	–	
9	Domain: IT	–	–	–	.13*	.14*	.18**	.15*	.15*	.03	.07	.07	–

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE); gender was dummy-coded as 0 for women and 1 for men.

Table 9. Study 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Pre-organizational Entry Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Extrinsic outcomes	5.10	1.25	–	**.84**								
2	Social outcomes	4.87	1.38	–	.21***	**.86**							
3	Intrinsic outcomes	4.68	1.28	–	.26***	.22**	**.88**						
4	PO fit	5.12	1.09	.78	.26***	.38***	.22***	**.91**					
5	PJ fit	5.25	1.06	.73	.05	.31***	.14*	.55***	**.92**				
6	Gender	–	–	–	.35***	-.30***	.28***	.30***	.24***	–			
7	Domain: Quantitative	–	–	–	.21***	-.22***	.07	.04	.16**	.26***	–		
8	Domain: People-oriented	–	–	–	-.17**	.17**	.15*	.19**	.04	-.07	.17**	–	
9	Domain: IT	–	–	–	.13*	.13*	.20**	.17**	.14*	.10	.04	.08	–

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE); gender was dummy-coded as 0 for women and 1 for men.

Table 10. Study 3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Pre-organizational Entry Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Extrinsic outcomes	4.87	1.41	–	**.91**								
2	Social outcomes	4.75	1.39	–	.20***	**.92**							
3	Intrinsic outcomes	4.46	1.24	–	.26***	.26***	**.89**						
4	PO fit	4.60	1.12	.74	.28***	.35***	.22***	**.88**					
5	PJ fit	4.63	1.13	.79	.17**	.30***	.14*	.50***	**.93**				
6	Gender	–	–	–	.33***	-.31***	.28***	.26***	.29***	–			
7	Domain: Quantitative	–	–	–	.27***	-.22***	.07	.07	.17**	.25***	–		
8	Domain: People-oriented	–	–	–	-.24***	.22***	.16**	.21***	.15*	-.08	.17**	–	
9	Domain: IT	–	–	–	.15*	.19**	.20**	.17**	.19**	.10	.01	.03	–

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE); gender was dummy-coded as 0 for women and 1 for men.

Table 11. Study 1: Structural Model Results for Pre-organizational Entry Workers

	Overall	Gender		Professional Domain			Gender and Professional Domain					
DV: PO fit	**n = 592**	**Men n = 368**	**Women n = 224**	**IT n = 173**	**People n = 176**	**Quant n = 243**	**IT men n = 99**	**IT women n = 74**	**People men n = 70**	**People women n = 106**	**Quant men n = 199**	**Quant women n = 44**
R^2	.07	.07	.07	.09	.09	.11	.09	.10	.08	.14	.14	.10
Extrinsic outcomes (H1)	.10	.23***	.08	.13*	.05	.30***	.20**	.03	.14*	.08	.35***	.23**
Social outcomes (H2)	.22***	.05	.23***	.23***	.26***	.07	.20**	.30***	.17**	.35***	.08	.20**
DV: PJ fit												
R^2	.13	.07	.15	.13	.10	.07	.13	.18	.06	.15	.08	.10
Social outcomes (H3)	.23***	.14*	.31***	.21***	.26***	.06	.19**	.30***	.20**	.31***	.08	.19**
Intrinsic outcomes (H4)	.19**	.16**	.17**	.26***	.08	.20**	.28***	.26***	.05	.16**	.25***	.21***

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; Quant = Quantitative domains, People = People-oriented domains.

Table 12. Study 2: Structural Model Results for Pre-organizational Entry Workers

	Overall	Gender		Professional Domain			Gender and Professional Domain					
DV: PO Fit	**n = 752**	**Men n = 442**	**Women n = 310**	**IT n = 89**	**People n = 206**	**Quant n = 457**	**IT men n = 54**	**IT women n = 35**	**People men n = 66**	**People women n = 140**	**Quant men n = 322**	**Quant women n = 135**
R^2	.10	.07	.08	.11	.10	.11	.11	.10	.10	.16	.13	.11
Extrinsic outcomes (H1)	.08	.24***	.07	.16**	.05	.30***	.22***	.05	.18**	.02	.35***	.22***
Social outcomes (H2)	.28***	.04	.25***	.26***	.30***	.09	.22***	.31***	.20**	.40***	.02	.22***
DV: PJ Fit												
R^2	.11	.06	.13	.12	.07	.05	.11	.17	.05	.13	.07	.09
Social outcomes (H3)	.24***	.14*	.31***	.21***	.26***	.07	.19**	.29***	.22***	.33***	.04	.19**
Intrinsic outcomes (H4)	.21***	.16*	.15*	.25***	.07	.20**	.26***	.29***	.07	.15*	.26***	.21***

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; Quant = Quantitative domains, People = People-oriented domains.

Table 13. Study 3: Structural Model Results for Pre-organizational Entry Workers

	Overall	Gender		Professional Domain			Gender and Professional Domain					
DV: PO Fit	**n = 770**	**Men n = 459**	**Women n = 311**	**IT n = 123**	**People n = 208**	**Quant n = 439**	**IT men n = 82**	**IT women n = 41**	**People men n = 67**	**People women n = 141**	**Quant men n = 310**	**Quant women n = 129**
R^2	.06	.17	.09	.11	.10	.19	.11	.14	.10	.19	.21	.14
Age	.12*	.02	.08	.08	.10	.13*	.05	.10	.03	.05	.16**	.12*
Previous job count	-.03	-.04	.08	-.05	.07	.06	-.08	-.05	.05	.03	.08	.06
Extrinsic outcomes (H1)	.12*	.29***	.01	.16**	.10	.37***	.22***	.07	.16**	.03	.41***	.22***
Social outcomes (H2)	.10**	.13*	.26***	.24***	.25***	.06	.21***	.33***	.16**	.40***	.04	.22***
DV: PJ Fit												
R^2	.16	.10	.20	.18	.11	.10	.15	.19	.13	.21	.12	.13
Age	.12*	.02	.02	.01	.02	.15*	.07	.08	.04	.04	.17**	.11*
Previous job count	-.03	-.04	.04	-.01	.01	.05	-.07	-.05	.03	.03	.07	.03
Social outcomes (H3)	.30***	.14*	.38***	.27***	.33***	.08	.24***	.31***	.28***	.39***	.05	.17**
Intrinsic outcomes (H4)	.20**	.23***	.18**	.27***	.05	.25***	.26***	.25***	.05	.18**	.26***	.23***

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; Quant = Quantitative domains, People = People-oriented domains.

Table 14. Chow's Test for Statistical Differences

Coefficients Compared	Study 1	Signif. of differences	Study 2	Signif. of differences	Study 3	Signif. of differences
Extrinsic Outcomes → PO Fit (H1)						
Quant vs. People	.30*** vs. .05	***	.30*** vs. .05	***	.37*** vs. .10	***
Quant vs. IT	.30*** vs. .13*	***	.30*** vs. .16**	**	.30*** vs. .13*	**
Social Outcomes → PO Fit (H2)						
People vs. Quant	.26*** vs. .07	***	.30*** vs. .09	***	.25*** vs. .06	***
IT vs. Quant	.23*** vs. .07	***	.26*** vs. .09	***	.24*** vs. .06	***
Social Outcomes → PJ Fit (H3)						
People vs. Quant	.26*** vs. .06	***	.26*** vs. .07	***	.33*** vs. .08	***
IT vs. Quant	.21*** vs. .06	***	.21*** vs. .07	***	.27*** vs. .08	***
Intrinsic Outcomes → PJ Fit (H4)						
IT vs. People	.26*** vs. .08	***	.25*** vs. .07	***	.27*** vs. .05	***
IT vs. Quant	.26*** vs. .20**	*	.25*** vs. .20***	*	.27*** vs. .25***	ns

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; Quant = Quantitative domains, People = People-oriented domains.

Robustness Checks

We assessed the robustness of the model between expectations and experiences by examining the model using data collected from respondents after organizational entry. Tables 15, 16, and 17 provide the descriptive statistics and correlations, which are also highly similar to our primary model tests. Structural model results across gender and professional domain for all business domains after organizational entry are shown in Tables 18, 19, and 20. The general pattern of results across the three studies is similar to those for the pre-organizational entry data.

Table 15. Study 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Post-organizational Entry Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Extrinsic outcomes	4.71	1.21	–	**.83**								
2	Social outcomes	4.75	1.39	–	.19**	**.82**							
3	Intrinsic outcomes	3.90	1.21	–	.25***	.22***	**.86**						
4	PO fit	4.67	1.07	.74	.24***	.37***	.21***	**.89**					
5	PJ fit	4.85	1.04	.79	.13*	.30***	.17**	.56***	**.90**				
6	Gender	–	–	–	.35***	-.30***	.26***	.30***	.28***	**–**			
7	Domain: Quantitative	–	–	–	.19**	-.20***	.12*	.04	.17**	.31***	**–**		
8	Domain: People-oriented	–	–	–	.17**	.17**	.13*	.20**	.08	-.10	-.19**	**–**	
9	Domain: IT	–	–	–	.15*	.16**	.19**	.14*	.16**	.08	.06	.05	**–**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE).

Table 16. Study 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Post-organizational Entry Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Extrinsic outcomes	4.73	1.18	–	**.82**								
2	Social outcomes	4.76	1.35	–	.22***	**.85**							
3	Intrinsic outcomes	3.99	1.23	–	.24***	.22***	**.87**						
4	PO fit	4.65	1.04	.73	.25***	.37***	.21**	**.86**					
5	PJ fit	4.77	1.05	.78	.08	.32***	.16**	.53***	**.91**				
6	Gender	–	–	–	.33***	-.31***	.25***	.32***	.29***	**–**			
7	Domain: Quantitative	–	–	–	.22***	-.21***	.13*	.08	.21***	.30***	**–**		
8	Domain: People-oriented	–	–	–	-.14*	.20**	.14*	.21***	.03	-.10	-.20**	–	
9	Domain: IT	–	–	–	.13*	.15*	.18**	.14*	.16**	.03	.02	.03	**–**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE).

Table 17. Study 3: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Post-organizational Entry Workers

		M	SD	ICR	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Extrinsic outcomes	4.54	1.38	–	**.90**								
2	Social outcomes	4.71	1.41	–	.23***	**.89**							
3	Intrinsic outcomes	4.01	1.22	–	.28***	.24***	**.89**						
4	PO fit	4.31	1.07	.73	.23***	.32***	.24***	**.87**					
5	PJ fit	4.25	1.08	.75	.14*	.31***	.20**	.46***	**.92**				
6	Gender	–	–	–	.35***	-.31***	.28***	.31***	.29***	**–**			
7	Domain: Quantitative	–	–	–	.25***	-.24***	.14*	.03	.19**	.31***	**–**		
8	Domain: People-oriented	–	–	–	-.15*	.20**	.14*	.18*	.13*	-.10	-.17**	**–**	
9	Domain: IT	–	–	–	.16*	.14*	.18**	.18**	.14*	.05	.07	.06	**–**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; ICR = Internal consistency reliability; diagonal elements represent the average variance extracted (AVE).

Table 18. Study 1: Structural Model Results for Post-organizational Entry Workers

	Overall	Gender		Professional Domain			Gender and Professional Domain					
DV: PO fit	**n = 391**	**Men n = 240**	**Women n = 151**	**IT n = 126**	**People n = 114**	**Quant n = 151**	**IT men n = 75**	**IT women n = 51**	**People men n = 44**	**People women n = 70**	**Quant men n = 121**	**Quant women n = 30**
R^2	.08	.08	.08	.11	.08	.11	.10	.10	.08	.12	.12	.13
Extrinsic outcomes (H1)	.08	.24***	.05	.15*	.06	.31***	.21***	.05	.15*	.05	.31***	.21***
Social outcomes (H2)	.24***	.08	.25***	.23***	.23***	.08	.22***	.31***	.20**	.34***	.04	.21***
DV: PJ fit												
R^2	.10	.06	.15	.12	.07	.06	.12	.13	.05	.14	.08	.08
Social outcomes (H3)	.24***	.13*	.31***	.22***	.25***	.08	.19**	.25***	.21***	.31***	.08	.19**
Intrinsic outcomes (H4)	.17**	.17**	.18**	.24***	.04	.21***	.26***	.25***	.09	.16**	.24***	.19**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; Quant = Quantitative domains, People = People-oriented domains.

Table 19. Study 2: Structural Model Results for Post-organizational Entry Workers

	Overall	Gender		Professional Domain			Gender and Professional Domain					
DV: PO fit	**n = 526**	**Men n = 312**	**Women n = 214**	**IT n = 76**	**People n = 140**	**Quant n = 310**	**IT men n = 46**	**IT women n = 30**	**People men n = 45**	**People women n = 95**	**Quant men n = 221**	**Quant women n = 89**
R^2	.08	.07	.10	.10	.08	.11	.09	.10	.07	.14	.12	.10
Extrinsic outcomes (H1)	.10	.26***	.04	.15*	.08	.30***	.20**	.05	.16**	.04	.34***	.22***
Social outcomes (H2)	.23***	.02	.29***	.23***	.25***	.08	.21***	.31***	.19**	.37***	.01	.21***
DV: PJ fit												
R^2	.11	.06	.13	.12	.07	.06	.13	.17	.05	.13	.07	.09
Social outcomes (H3)	.25***	.16**	.31***	.21***	.26***	.05	.21***	.28***	.22***	.30***	.02	.20**
Intrinsic outcomes (H4)	.16**	.16**	.14*	.27***	.03	.22***	.29***	.28***	.04	.18**	.24***	.19**

Note: * p<.05; ** p<.01; *** p<.001; Quant = Quantitative domains, People = People-oriented domains.

Table 20. Study 3: Structural Model Results for Post-organizational Entry Workers

	Overall	Gender		Professional Domain			Gender and Professional Domain					
DV: PO fit	**n = 502**	**Men n = 303**	**Women n = 199**	**IT n = 82**	**People n = 139**	**Quant n = 281**	**IT men n = 54**	**IT women n = 28**	**People men n = 48**	**People women n = 91**	**Quant men n = 201**	**Quant women n = 80**
R^2	.10	.12	.08	.11	.09	.17	.15	.12	.10	.17	.20	.12
Age	.12*	.03	.14*	.03	.08	.16**	.04	.04	.03	.07	.17**	.13*
Previous job count	-.04	-.05	.03	-.03	.03	.05	-.06	-.03	.03	.04	.07	.07
Extrinsic outcomes (H1)	.13*	.31***	.04	.13*	.08	.37***	.22***	.08	.16**	.02	.43***	.24***
Social outcomes (H2)	.20**	.13*	.25***	.23***	.25***	.05	.22***	.31***	.16**	.40***	.03	.21***
DV: PJ Fit												
R^2	.15	.11	.20	.19	.15	.08	.15	.17	.08	.19	.10	.10
Age	.14*	.03	.17**	.08	.08	.15*	.03	.06	.03	.03	.14*	.14*
Previous job count	-.05	-.04	.09	-.07	.06	.08	-.04	-.01	.06	.03	.05	.08
Social outcomes (H3)	.30***	.17**	.40***	.29***	.33***	.08	.25***	.30***	.24***	.38***	.07	.21***
Intrinsic outcomes (H4)	.19**	.21***	.18**	.25***	.08	.22***	.24***	.23***	.05	.15*	.25***	.21***

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; Quant = Quantitative domains, People = People-oriented domains.

Table 21 shows a comparison of the results across the three studies with both pre- and post-organizational entry data for all business domains. This table pulls together results from Tables 11, 12, 13, 18, 19, and 20. The results show some interesting effects in terms of the impact of valuations of outcomes on PO fit and PJ fit perceptions for all people and all professional domains. In the first two studies, which included entry-level workers, social outcomes predicted PO fit perceptions, whereas extrinsic outcomes were not significant in predicting PO fit. Both social and intrinsic outcomes predicted PJ fit perceptions. In study 3, which included experienced workers, the effect of social outcomes in predicting PO fit was significantly stronger post-organizational entry, compared to pre-organizational entry. For PJ fit perceptions, social and intrinsic outcomes were significant predictors, but the effect of social outcomes was stronger in study 3 compared to what it was in studies 1 and 2. The significance of these differences, based on the Chow's tests, are reported in Table 22.

These results highlight the important role played by valuations regarding intrinsic and social outcomes, in particular, in predicting fit perceptions. Additionally, in examining the results from each of the two waves of measurement in each of the three studies, it is interesting to note that the pattern of results remains virtually unchanged between pre- and post-organizational entry, suggesting considerable stability in the factors influencing fit perceptions.

Discussion

Drawing from prior research in IS, OB, and vocational behavior, we hypothesized three work outcomes (namely, extrinsic, social, and intrinsic) as predictors of PO fit and PJ fit perceptions of new employees. Building on prior research that the valuations of these outcomes are important in assessing PO fit and PJ fit perceptions, using developmental socialization as the underlying mechanism, we hypothesized that the relationship between the valuations of these work outcomes and fit perceptions would be moderated by gender. We tested the model in three studies among IT workers, with data collected pre-organizational entry, across periods of differing levels of economic stability. The theorized direct and gender moderation effects were empirically supported. Extrinsic and social outcomes directly affect PO fit, whereas social and intrinsic outcomes directly affect PJ fit for IT workers. Gender moderated the effect of extrinsic outcomes on PO fit such that these relationships were stronger for men in IT, compared to women. The effects of social outcomes on PO fit and PJ fit were moderated by gender such that this rela-

Table 21. Comparison of Results Across Pre- and Post-organizational

	Pre-organizational Entry		Post-organizational Entry	
	Entry-Level Workers: Study 1/2	Experienced Workers: Study 3	Entry-Level Workers: Study 1/2	Experienced Workers: Study 3
Extrinsic outcomes → PO fit	.10 / .08	.12*	.08 / .10	.13*
Social outcomes → PO fit	.22*** / .28***	.10**	.24*** / .23***	.20**
Social outcomes → PJ fit	.23*** / .24***	.30***	.24*** / .25***	.30***
Intrinsic outcomes → PJ fit	.19* / .21***	.20**	.17* / .16*	.19**

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Table 22. Chow's Test for Statistical Differences

Coefficients Compared		Signif. of Differences
Social Outcomes → PO Fit		
Pre-org vs. Post-org entry: Study 3	.10** vs. .20**	*
Social Outcomes → PJ Fit		
Pre-org entry: Study 3 vs. Study 1	.30*** vs. .23***	*
Pre-org entry: Study 3 vs. Study 2	.30*** vs. .24***	*
Post-org entry: Study 3 vs. Study 1	.30*** vs. .24***	*
Post-org entry: Study 3 vs. Study 2	.30*** vs. .25***	*

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001; Pre-org = Pre-organizational entry; Post-org = Post-organizational entry.

tionship was stronger for women in IT. Additionally, we examined the generalizability and boundary conditions of the model by testing it among those in other business domains. We found that extrinsic outcomes had a stronger effect on PO fit perceptions for those in quantitative domains and social outcomes had a stronger effect on PO fit and PJ fit for those in people-oriented domains and IT. Also, intrinsic outcomes had a stronger effect on PJ fit perceptions for those in IT. Finally, we tested the robustness of the findings by comparing pre- and post-organizational entry data. We found that the results were highly similar across pre- and post-organizational entry data. Thus, we conclude that the model is robust within the range of the comparisons conducted. We offer contributions and implications, further discussion of professional domain differences, future research ideas, and practical implications.

Contributions and Implications

The current work makes several contributions. By studying our model in the context of IT workers, we contribute to a deeper understanding of the attraction, retention, and motivation of IT workers. Ferratt and Short (1986, 1988) concluded that there was no evidence to merit managing IT workers and non-IT workers differently. However, based on data collected in different studies over a decade after their studies, our findings provide evidence to the contrary. It appears that the work outcomes driving fit perceptions of IT workers are different from what is important to those in quantitative and people-oriented domains. It certainly appears that the total rewards view of compensation is particularly appealing to IT workers, given that their perceptions of PO and PJ fit are driven by social and intrinsic outcomes. With recent interest in using skill development opportunities, such as participation in open source projects, as a means to keep direct wage payments in check (Mehra and Mookerjee 2012), we provide insight into how such initiatives can be successful through enhancing the intrinsic appeal of a job. Our findings provoke a few interrelated and important issues/questions about IT workers that merit further study; for example: (1) Does such a pattern of results also hold in the case of IT workers with a lengthy history working in the field? (2) How elastic is the IT workers' focus on intrinsic outcomes? (3) How can other measurement approaches, such as the constant sum method (e.g., Agarwal and Venkatesh 2002) or social network analysis (see Sykes 2015; Sykes et al. 2009; Sykes et al. 2014) shed light on the unique aspects of IT workers' value systems? Such studies may shed light on the unique aspects of IT workers' value systems and will serve as a way of further validating our findings. Even as it stands, our work provides useful information to counsel students, particularly

in their job search (see Saks and Ashforth 1997). Similarly, our findings can help improve the communication between career centers and organizations.

Our paper also highlights differences between men and women in IT in terms of how their valuations of work outcomes influence fit perceptions. We observed professional domain differences as well. The pattern of interactions suggests that understanding differences based on gender and professional domain are important to effectively manage a workforce. Our model contributes to the literature on employee fit perceptions by identifying specific outcomes that impact perceptions. Such an exploration of the drivers of fit are long overdue (Barrick et al. 2013; Colbert et al. 2008; Kristof-Brown et al. 2005). In terms of future research, there is an important stream of work on met expectations and various alternative models—for example, assimilation model, contrast model, generalized negativity model, assimilation contrast (see Brown et al. 2012, 2014)—of how individuals react when expectations are met, not met, or exceeded. Longitudinal research will help understand which of the models of met expectations are at play in the case of new employees. As we have noted, there are other competing models/perspectives, mostly from an employer's viewpoint, that should be compared to our model. Beyond a comparison, an integration of employer- and employee-centric views could provide a holistic view of fit perceptions. Specifically, future work might integrate employees' valuations of work outcomes used in the current study with employer's selection or socialization tactics to determine which combination of tactics produce optimal fit.

Our work also has implications for the human resource management literature that examines social inclusion and gender issues in the workplace, especially because the gender imbalance in the IT industry has long been a concern (Trauth 2011). We add to the growing body of work that aims to identify ways in which the IT industry can be made more attractive to women by emphasizing those aspects that are more appealing to them. The wage differential between women and men has been studied extensively and is often a topic of discussion in the trade press. There have been a few explanations offered for this phenomenon, including the glass ceiling. Some of the other explanations include attributing the wage differential to the selection of lower-paying professions by women (e.g., Gupta 1993). Although additional research is necessary to validate our position, we offer an employee–supervisor interactive explanation. In particular, if women place less emphasis on extrinsic outcomes than men do, it is possible that supervisors take that into account, be it consciously or unconsciously (see Bartol and Martin 1988). Igbaria and Baroudi (1995) found that, despite similar job performance ratings, women were perceived to be less likely to be promoted than men. In addition, as women are less likely than their male counterparts to perceive lowered fit in such a situation. Given the weaker extrinsic outcomes–PO fit relationship among women, organizations may not suffer negative consequences by perpetrating unfair practices of wage differentials and less advancement for women.

We have endeavored to extend the work of Kristof-Brown and her colleagues (1996, 2000, 2005) by expanding the nomological network of fit perceptions. Future research should expand on the nomological network presented here to include other types of fit, such as person–group fit, person–supervisor fit, and person–job cognitive style fit, as there is evidence these other fit perceptions also relate to employee well-being (Chilton et al. 2005), organizational commitment, and turnover intention (e.g., van Vianen 2000). Another fit perception pertinent to this research area is person–group fit (Guzzo and Salas 1995) given the extensive use of teams in today's workplaces, especially in the IT industry. Recent research in IS has examined how IT might be leveraged to help determine team composition based on person–group fit (Malinowski et al. 2008). Such research would benefit from a deeper understanding of the drivers of fit perceptions and may help to further the study of virtual teams and specific IT workgroups, such as face-to-face and geographically dispersed IS development teams. Other important job outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) could also be examined using the work outcomes identified here. An important next step relates to understanding the elasticity of the importance of different work outcomes. Although different groups of individuals reported different work outcomes as being important, it is possible that when faced with continuing difficulty in finding a job, the importance placed on some work outcomes may be more elastic. Longitudinal research will help shed light on this issue as it will help us to understand how the importance of work outcomes changes over time and how the importance changes in the face of adversity or when faced with an actual situation of weighing specific job choices.

Professional Domain Differences

By examining our model across 10 years of historical and economic change, across both new and experienced workers, and across multiple professional domains, we found that it was both temporally and contextually generalizable. Our model did broadly generalize to other business domains, subject to some boundary conditions. This is consistent with accumulated wisdom, for decades now, that there are differences in employees' reactions and beliefs across professions (Centers and Bugental 1966; Gruenberg 1980; Williams 1972). In fact, some prior work found differences in em-

ployee reactions based on occupation rather than gender (Almquist 1974). England and Stein (1961) found major differences across occupations and called for special scales for different occupations. More recent research has also supported such occupational differences. For example, Dierdorff and Moregeson (2007) found that consensus about work roles and requirements differs across 98 different occupations including management, computer and math, legal, social service, art, health care, construction, production, and transportation.

A theoretical basis to expect professional domain differences is professional socialization or professional commitment, both of which have received significant attention in OB (e.g., McGowen and Hart 1990; Schaubroeck et al. 2012). Professional socialization is the process by which individuals are introduced to and familiarized with the objective and subjective aspects of a professional domain. The objective element of professional socialization is learning relevant knowledge and skills to be successful in the profession, including learning the common language for communication with others in the profession (McGowen and Hart 1990). The subjective element of professional socialization includes becoming familiar with expectations, understanding norms, and acquiring values that are prevalent in the profession (McGowen and Hart 1990). For entry-level workers, the relevant knowledge and influence will originate from people and work in their professional domain: professors, peers, friends, and short-term work (e.g., internships). For experienced workers, this relevant knowledge and influence will be fostered through sustained contact, working with others in the industry, such as coworkers and professional societies. Professional domains tend to have specific value systems (see Barley 1996), thus resulting in different predictors of key outcomes across different professions (see Lee et al. 2000). In contrast to research on developmental socialization that has spanned several decades, in-depth psychological studies of professional socialization that go beyond vocational interests are far more recent (e.g., Schaubroeck et al. 2012).

The subjective element of professional socialization can certainly be expected to play a key role here as students get socialized to the value system of their profession and as experienced professionals are socialized to the value system of their field through their work experience. Past research suggests that professional commitment also develops to a great extent through educational processes that occur prior to individuals entering the job market and that this phenomenon is especially relevant in the IT field (Vandenberg and Scarpello 1994). Such commitment only continues to grow as one gets entrenched in one's profession. Further, as noted by Bennett and Whittaker (1994), individuals already in a particular profession are socialized to a set of norms and acquire distinct sets of skills and language causing people in a particular professional domain to be more similar than different. Also, women's focus on their profession, workplace, and career has increased greatly in recent years (e.g., Capell 2004), potentially creating greater levels of identification with their professional domain. With the increasing emphasis placed on STEM education and jobs, future research will be essential to examine the cross-temporal patterns in our findings.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

We note five limitations. First, we conducted a cross-sectional survey, thus common method bias is a potential concern. Although there were several filler questions from the perspective of this paper, the cross-sectional analysis in this study poses a limitation. However, this was alleviated to some extent here because the moderator variable—gender—is not a perceptual construct. Further, we conducted statistical analyses that minimize concerns related to common method bias (Harman 1976; Lindell and Whitney 2001; Malhotra et al. 2006) and found that it was not a concern. Still, additional research employing other data collection and methodological approaches is necessary to rule out this bias. Another limitation due to the cross-sectional design was that causality among the variables cannot be established and reverse causality cannot be eliminated as a possibility. Moreover, the ability to assess change over time and to rule out alternative hypotheses were limited by the cross-sectional design. Longitudinal data collection is needed to rule out these possibilities.

Second, although we sought ways to establish the generalizability of our results (i.e., across domains), generalizability was limited to some extent by our sample. Data in studies 1 and 2 were collected from only one U.S. university, which could limit the results to the culture of the university or the geographical region. Data were collected from only one college—a business college—which could have implications for the results based on the types of jobs that were sought, the types of students who decide to pursue a business education, or the training that business students receive. To rule out limitations due to the sample, a larger-scale study is needed.

Third, another potential concern was social desirability bias in the participants' responses. Social outcomes, in particular, may be generally seen as things one *should* value, and there was likely normative pressure to report a good fit with the current employer and job. Thus, the reported valuation of outcomes and perceptions of fit may be inflated to some degree. However, the variability in responses provides some evidence that social desirability was less of a concern in our data.

Fourth, as our study was one of the first to examine PO and PJ fit predictors, it was not surprising that the variance explained is modest. However, we feel this work represents an important starting point for future research and opportunities to explore additional sources of variation. Although we are not aware of any other studies that have examined the antecedents to PO and PJ fit, we found that other highly cited studies with similar constructs report similar R^2 values. For example, the work of Colbert et al. (2008) on organizational goal congruence (similar to the concept of fit) report R^2 values ranging from 2% to 11%. Other studies examining similar constructs, such as organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behaviors, report similar R^2 values (e.g., Becker et al. 1996; Jaramillo et al. 2005; Li et al. 2010; Schappe 1998).

Finally, we studied only two moderators. Gender was considered a binary variable (men and women) while professional domains were grouped into three variables (IT, people-oriented, and quantitatively-oriented domains). This approach limits our ability to account for those whose gender identities fall outside this binary treatment and other business and non-business disciplines. Future research is needed to explore these areas, particularly in light of the diverse individual and professional differences that abound in the workplace.

In addition to expanding the range of these two moderators, it may be fruitful to explore other moderators, such as age, culture, and personality. Differences in the importance of work outcomes with age have been documented (e.g., increasing emphasis on family and desire for a stable income source) but their interaction with gender and professional domain merits investigation. Parkes et al. (2001) found professional domain differences tied to differences in individualism–collectivism, which is an important dimension of culture (e.g., collectivists were more committed). Research on cultural differences has established that people from some eastern cultures are more collectivist in their thinking relative to western cultures (Oyserman et al. 2002). This examination of culture as a moderator is of further significance in today's environment of extensive offshoring of IT work and business process activities to China and India (e.g., Rai et al. 2009; Venkatesh et al. 2010). Such an expansion of the potential list of moderators may also necessitate revisiting the work outcomes identified here to see if research conducted in other cultures helps unearth work outcomes that had not been previously considered in North American settings. Further research that incorporates culture-related variables is important, particularly in light of research showing that ethnicity influences the work outcomes that people value (Windeler and Riemenschneider 2016). Such research moves us closer to the ultimate goal of a diverse and inclusive workplace. Future work should focus on personality variables to examine whether it is demographic variables or certain personality attributes, such as the popular Big Five, that are sources of the moderation. There is evidence that personality influences an employee's preferred managerial style (Stevens and Ash 2001). Taken together, gender and professional domain could be pitted against personality variables to examine the relative importance of the two classes of variables as moderators of the various relationships.

Practical Implications

The fit of an individual to a job can be accomplished through the selection process. Similarly, a job can be fit to an individual through work redesign (see Furnham 2001) and socialization (Cable and Parsons 2001). Our results have implications for organizational socialization tactics (Cable and Parsons 2001). As organizations have an opportunity to influence employees' expectations regarding various work outcomes, knowing which outcomes are critical to whom is important. Our results not only supported that men and women (and, to some extent, people in different professional domains) were driven by different work outcomes, but also allowed us to identify specific elements that can be used to motivate and manage specific constituencies. Pratt (1998) reviewed research on organizational identification that served as an important ingredient in managing employees' assimilation into organizations. Armed with the relative importance of the work outcomes detailed here, a richer management process to facilitate smooth organizational entry for new employees, particularly for women (who place more value on social outcomes) and IT workers (who place more value on intrinsic outcomes), can be created. For example, we encourage practitioners interested in attracting and retaining women in their workforce to offer programs and policies focused around social outcomes. Flex-time, telework, and childcare resources are examples of interventions that could help women address concerns about work–life balance and proximity to family. Mentoring programs, collaborative work, and social outings or activities may be useful interventions in supporting the cultivation of friendly relationships among coworkers. The results also have implications for managing the needs of both men and women after organizational entry by designing interventions to enhance employees' fit perceptions. By knowing that social outcomes, for example, tend to become more important in determining PJ fit as workers gain experience, organizations can implement the above interventions that aim to provide greater social support from the organization and more opportunities for social interaction among coworkers.

By studying entry-level IT workers, our research has practical implications for organizations that will hire the next generation of IT workers. Recent research has shown that the IT job

market continues to change. As programming and user support roles are offshored (Panko 2008) and lower-paying secondary IT labor markets emerge (Joseph et al. 2012), the profile of the "typical" IT worker is bound to change and perhaps change continuously. Entry-level IT workers will need to look at acquiring different skills sets and pursuing different opportunities align with their work values (Heinze and Hu 2009; Joshi et al. 2010; Mourmant et al. 2009). Effective training and career and educational counseling requires an understanding of what these IT workers value, and how various IT jobs may be able to fulfill those needs. In response to an understanding that IT workers place more value on social outcomes, organizations may want to place more emphasis on professional socializaion for incoming IT workers. For example, recent evidence suggests that "Gen Y" IT workers are highly attuned to socialization via Web 2.0 tools, such as social media (Leidner et al. 2010) and organizations may want to take advantage of this as both an assimilation mechanism and a means to boost morale by facilitating interpersonal interactions between coworkers.

Our findings can help managers optimize the hiring, selection, retention, and management processes by emphasizing a total rewards perspective that goes beyond financial compensation. As we noted at the outset, such an approach is particularly important in leaner economic times when it is more important to keep employee motivation and morale up, as failing to do so can negatively impact productivity (Gadd 2008). At the same time, when budgets are tight, it may be more feasible for an organization to provide nonfinancial incentives, such as consideration for work–life balance through flex-time or telecommuting (Levere 2011). Thus, focusing on social and intrinsic outcomes, particularly for women and those in marketing, management, and IT, can serve as a way to both motivate employees and keep costs low. In turn, organizations may be able to reduce turnover intentions, increase productivity, and reduce the risk that they may be unable to replace a lost worker.

Conclusions

We presented three work outcomes (i.e., extrinsic, social, and intrinsic) that play a role in determining perceptions of PO fit and PJ fit. Based on three empirical studies of over 1,300 entry-level workers and 700 experienced workers, we found significant gender and professional domain differences in the effects of these outcomes on PO fit and PJ fit perceptions at the time of organizational entry and post-organizational entry, thus supporting a total rewards and employee-centric view of the formation of these fit perceptions. Our findings have implications for future research on potential interventions, socialization tactics, and expanding the nomological network to other job outcomes. The findings also have practical implications for organizations that seek to effectively manage the attraction, motivation, and retention of new workers in general and IT workers in particular.

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