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Examining the Relationship between Ideological Misfit and Employee Attitudes and Behaviors

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EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDEOLOGICAL MISFIT AND EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

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by

Danilo R. Le Sante

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To: Dean Michael R. Heithaus
College of Arts, Sciences and Education

This dissertation, written by Danilo R. Le Sante, and entitled Examining the Relationship between Ideological Misfit and Employee Attitudes and Behaviors, having been approved in respect to style and intellectual content, is referred to you for judgment.

We have read this dissertation and recommend that it be approved.

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Valentina Bruk-Lee

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Dionne Stephens

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Asia A. Eaton, Major Professor

Date of Defense: October 29, 2021

The dissertation of Danilo R. Le Sante is approved.

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Dean Michael R. Heithaus
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Vice President for Research and Economic Development
and Dean of the University Graduate School

Florida International University, 2021

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents and siblings for their constant support, humor, and understanding. I also dedicate this to my mentors who have inspired me more than they could ever know. Lastly, I dedicate this to my dogs for their extraordinary company and grace.

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Before I began this journey, I heavily contemplated pursuing a doctoral degree. I wondered if it was the right path for me, and I doubted my ability. These notions were

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDEOLOGICAL MISFIT AND EMPLOYEE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIORS

by

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Research in Organizational Psychology has just begun to unravel how political ideology manifests in the workplace (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Gupta & Wowak, 2017; Johnson & Roberto, 2018). Thanks to these recent contributions, new questions have emerged regarding the consequences associated with organizations taking polarizing political stances. For example, how do employees experience and express political ideology at work? Do employees attribute a political ideology to their industry and/or organization? What are the consequences of person-organization or person-industry ideological misfit? What can be done from an organization's perspective to mitigate the negative outcomes associated with ideological misfit?

Using a mixed methods approach, this collected papers dissertation sought to (1) examine the subjective beliefs of employees regarding the experience and expression of political ideology at work, (2) analyze the relationship between person-industry ideological misfit and job attitudes, and (3) determine whether political ideological incongruence between an employee and an organization is related to counterproductive work behaviors, and if organizational factors such as perceived organizational support

(POS) buffer this relationship. Moreover, this research builds theory by expanding current conceptualizations of P-E fit to include ideological misfit and contributes to practice by examining how employee and organization political ideology influence workplace outcomes and interact with other organizational factors.

The study found that ideological misfits may endure a wide range of negative experiences at work that clash with their self-concept and threaten their core values. Specifically, ideological misfits perceive incongruence through various elements in their workplace, including cultural norms and practices. Furthermore, we contribute to the broader Person-Environment fit literature by addressing the personal and environmental factors that influence employee fit perceptions, which can subsequently impact job satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors.

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I. COLLECTED PAPERS INTRODUCTION

To date, the hyperpolarization across today's spectrum of socio-political issues has garnered sparse empirical attention in the field of I-O Psychology. This collected papers dissertation will contribute to the emerging literature on political ideology at work by examining the nature and consequences of political ideology incongruence between employees and their organizations and industries, including consequences such as Person-Environment Fit, Job Satisfaction, and Counterproductive Work Behaviors. The background to the problem, problem statement, review of the literature, purpose of the collected papers, overview of the proposed research, and implications of this collected papers dissertation is discussed.

Background to the Problem

Consider the following scenario: reading the local news, you find that the CEO of your company recently hosted a major fundraising event for a political candidate running for public office. This particular candidate holds strong, polarizing views on issues that run counter to your own values and beliefs. You soon begin to realize the possibility that all your hard work and effort on behalf of the organization is being leveraged to support an individual who promotes values that contradict your own. In another scenario, you receive a memo from the executive leadership at your organization regarding the company's recent stance on a controversial issue. Perhaps this is a position you strongly support, or one that you completely reject, or maybe you have no opinion on the matter at all. Despite your attitudes, the organization's stance is bound to disrupt the workplace

environment and elicit reactions from employees on all sides of the issue, especially individuals disaffected by it.

It is no secret that corporations invest a great deal of financial resources in the American political system (through PACs, lobbying, fundraising, etc.) to sway legislative outcomes and protect business interests (Cho, Martens, Kim, & Rodrigue, 2011; Humphries, 1991; Hillman & Hitt, 1999; Suarez, 1998; Smith, 2000). In the U.S., this has been especially true since 2010, when the *Citizens United* case determined that unions and corporations were permitted to promote and advertise support (or opposition) toward candidates running for public office without any limitations on spending (*Citizens United v. Federal Election Comm'n*, 2010). A growing number of organizations have since taken full advantage of this ruling by taking firm (and in some cases polarizing) stances on a variety of socio-political issues.

For instance, some recent examples of organizations aligning with liberal ideals include Amazon's $10 billion investment aimed at addressing climate change (Kearney, 2020), Dick's Sporting Goods and Walmart banning the sale of semi-automatic rifles and ammunition in response to mass shootings (Meyersohn, 2019), and Netflix and Disney boycotting film production in states that ban abortion (Denning, 2019). On the conservative side, examples include Hobby Lobby's staunch opposition to birth control provisions outlined in the Affordable Care Act (Beck, 2014), Wayfair's contractual agreements to furnish migrant detention centers located alongside the U.S.-Mexico border (Kelly & Ruckstuhl, 2019), and Chik-fil-A's outspokenness and recurring contribution to anti-LGBT causes (Del Valle, 2019). In terms of consequences, Dick's Sporting Goods' CEO, Ed Stack, reported that approximately sixty-five employees quit

immediately following the new company policy banning semi-automatic rifles, which continued for weeks across all levels of the organization (Stack, 2019). In the case of Wayfair, hundreds of employees staged a walkout in protest of the company's business dealings with the U.S. government, which were viewed as condoning anti-immigration policies.

It is evident that entire organizations, and even industries, can have prevailing political ideologies, which may negatively affect employees with dissimilar views (Inbar & Lammers, 2012; Johnson & Roberto, 2018; Roth, Goldberg, & Thatcher, 2017). With this recent shift in corporate political action, workplace environments now stimulate employees to (re)assess the alignment between their social values and their employing organization's political stances. However, as researchers, we currently do not know much about the ensuing consequences resulting from these political differences.

Some empirical work suggests that ideological differences between employees and their employing organizations can lead to turnover, though this may depend on the focal employee's political ideology (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Johnson & Roberto, 2018). Specifically, Bermiss and McDonald (2018) found that politically conservative employees were more likely than their liberal counterparts to quit their firm over ideological differences. Moreover, departing conservative misfits were more likely to join new organizations that were closer to their own ideology. Additionally, Chopik and Motyl (2016) examined ideological fit between people and their communities (i.e., based on U.S. region according to zip code), and found that living in politically dissimilar environments was associated with difficulty relying on others and taking the perspective of others. This notion is complemented by 2018 survey results from Ipsos, which found

that 44% of people believed differences in political views were the most substantial cause of tension between individuals (BBC Global Survey, 2018).

Given that affective polarization in the U.S. has expanded substantially (Dias & Lelkes, 2021; Kalmoe & Mason, 2019; Pew Research Center, 2019[a]; Swigart et al., 2020), and considering that U.S. organizations are granted the same rights as individuals in terms of political involvement (see *Citizens United v. Federal Election Comm'n*, 2010), it is likely that tensions caused by differences in political views have permeated U.S. workplaces. Despite this, the research surrounding ideological misfit in the workplace is scant and has yet to address issues related to the impact of employee-organization and employee-industry political misfit on job performance and interpersonal relationships. Furthermore, existing literature on this topic is confined to studying employees within specific work contexts (e.g., private-equity, academia), limiting the generalizability of these results.

The Problem Statement

Researchers have called for studies examining new operationalizations of Person-Environment fit (P-E fit) and how different aspects of fit influence job attitudes and performance outcomes (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Harold, Oh, Holtz, Han, & Giacalone, 2016; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). The present research endeavors to answer this call through a series of studies on work-related political ideology misfit. The initial study explored the employees' perceptions of ideological misfit at work using one-on-one interviews and thematic analysis. This was followed by a second study, which relied on data from the General Social Survey (GSS) and Center for Responsive Politics (CRP) to examine how ideological misfit related to job attitudes (i.e.,

job satisfaction), cross-sectionally and longitudinally. The third study investigated the association between ideological misfit and counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) at different levels of perceived organizational support. Study 2 and study 3 leveraged polynomial regression and response surface analysis techniques to examine the hypothesized relationships.

Given the current milieu of American political discourse and the need for more research assessing P-E fit and employee and workplace outcomes in politically dissimilar environments, this research provides a valuable contribution to the field of I-O Psychology and its various subfields. Specifically, the current set of studies will address the following research questions:

1. What are employees' subjective beliefs and experiences with ideological misfit at work?
2. To what extent is ideological misfit related to job attitudes?
    a. How is ideological misfit related to change in job satisfaction over time?
3. Is ideological misfit related to counterproductive work behaviors?
    a. Are there differential effects between CWBs that target the organization and those that target other individuals?
    b. Does perceived organizational support buffer the effects of ideological misfit on counterproductive work behaviors?

Person-Environment Fit at Work

Employees strive to fit in with their workplaces, including fitting in with jobs, coworkers, supervisors, and their organizations (Cable & Judge, 1996). In organizational research, this has come to be known as Person-Environment fit (P-E fit). P-E fit is

defined as the congruence between the characteristics, personality, and values of an employee and her/his organization (Kristof, 1996). In this context, values are defined as the "abstract beliefs about desirable, trans-situational goals that serve as guiding principles in people's lives" (Vecchione, Schwartz, Alessandri, Doring, Castellani, & Caprara, 2016, p.111).

From an applicant's perspective, a major goal in searching for a job is to find a place of work that is well-suited to their values, needs, and abilities (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Similarly, organizations invest significant resources in recruiting and selecting employees that align with the company's mission and values. Strong alignment between individuals and their employing organizations can yield substantial benefits, such as retention, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005; van Vianen, 2018). However, more often than not there are also substantial discrepancies between employee and employer values (i.e., "misfits") that can lead to negative consequences like job dissatisfaction, intention to quit, and counterproductive work behaviors (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Harold, Oh, Holtz, Han, & Giacalone, 2016).

In a recent annual review of P-E fit, van Vianen (2018) highlighted three key assumptions of fit research. First, fit is a stronger predictor of individual outcomes than either of its components measured separately (i.e., person and environment) (e.g., Schneider, 1987). Second, the positive outcomes associated with fit are strongest when personal characteristics and organizational characteristics are of the same magnitude (i.e., fit effects for employees and organizations are similar at low, medium, or high levels of

attributes). For example, employees who have a high need for autonomy will have higher levels of satisfaction in jobs that allow substantial autonomy, whereas employees who have a moderate or low need for autonomy will be most satisfied in jobs with moderate or low levels of autonomy, respectively. Third, misfit will be negatively related to positive outcomes regardless of the direction of the differences. For instance, employees who have a high need for developing interpersonal relationships, but work in an environment that does not promote this value will experience negative consequences at the highest level (e.g., job dissatisfaction). Similarly, individuals who desire low levels of interpersonal relations, but work in environments that emphasize relationship-building will also experience strong, negative effects. These last examples refer to misfit, or discrepancy between person and environment attributes.

Organizational "misfits" are employees who perceive their values to be notably dissimilar from those of their employing organization (Kristof, 1996). For example, a person who values collaboration may not feel like they belong in an organization that induces a highly competitive environment that prioritizes rewarding individual employees. While organizations try to minimize hiring individuals who do not match company culture or values, there are a number of reasons why P-E misfit continues to be prevalent in the workplace. Factors such as suboptimal economic conditions, lack of alternative employment options, HR selection practices that prioritize competency over fit, and motivated job applicants who disregard the importance of fit can increase the pervasiveness of misfits throughout an organization (Sthapit, 2010, Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016). Despite the negative connotations often attributed to misfits, these situations can positively influence organizational effectiveness through increased

diversity and creativity (Hoever, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Barkema, 2012). Nonetheless, over time, misfits inevitably feel a lack of belonging within their organization and become disengaged with their work (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016).

Types of Fit

Methodologically, fit and misfit are often conceptualized in two distinct ways: complementary (i.e., an employee's abilities are complemented by organizational characteristics) and supplementary (i.e., an employee shares similar attributes with their organization) (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). An example of complementary fit would be an employee who works alongside team members with similar skills, competencies, and domain knowledge. On the other hand, supplementary fit represents the alignment of values between an employee and their organization, such as innovation, diversity, or transparency. Depending on the conceptualization used, different facets of fit are considered within the workplace setting. Specifically, these facets include person-vocation fit (P-V fit) and person-job fit (P-J fit), which are complementary, and person-organization fit (P-O fit), person-team fit (P-T fit), and person-supervisor fit (P-S fit), which are considered supplementary (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; van Vianen, 2018).

Complementary Fit

Research on complementary fit has focused primarily on two distinct facets: P-V and P-J fit. P-V fit refers to the similarity between an employee's vocational interests and occupational characteristics (van Vianen, 2018). Since this facet of fit pertains to an individual's work interests and abilities in a workplace context, it is classified as a type of complementary fit. This is based on Holland's theory of vocational personality types,

which is centered around the notion that individuals seek work environments that match their interests (Holland, 1985). Throughout the literature, findings on P-V fit are inconsistent regarding its association with job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intentions to quit) (Tranberg, Slane, & Ekeberg, 1993; Tsabari, Tziner, & Meir, 2005; Wille, Tracey, Feys, & De Fruyt, 2014). However, P-V fit does seem to have some modest effect on various facets of job performance (i.e., task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and counterproductive work behaviors) (Nye, Su, Round, & Drasgow, 2017; Van Iddekinge, Putka, & Campbell, 2011).

The other complementary fit concept of interest is P-J fit, which describes the congruence between an individual's needs and abilities and the supplies and demands of the job (van Vianen, 2018). Within P-J fit, there are two key conceptualizations to consider: (1) needs-supplies fit (N-S fit) and (2) demands-abilities fit (D-A fit) (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). D-A fit is the extent that an individual's knowledge, skills, and abilities match with her/his job demands. N-S fit is the degree to which an individual's needs, preferences, or desires are attained through her/his job. Much of the P-J fit research has focused on workplace outcomes such as stress and strain (e.g., French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982), job attitudes (e.g., Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and job performance (e.g., Cable & DeRue, 2002). While research on P-J fit has supported these relationships (i.e., negatively related to stress and strain, positively related to job attitudes and performance), differential effects are evident depending on the conceptualization used for P-J fit. For instance, D-S fit has a greater impact on performance (Cable &

DeRue, 2002), whereas N-S fit shows a stronger relationship with job attitudes (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

Supplementary Fit

One of the most prevalent conceptualizations of fit theory in the workplace setting is P-O fit. P-O fit is "the compatibility between employees and organizations that occurs when at least (1) one entity provides what the other needs, (2) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (3) both" (Kristof, 1996, p.4-5). P-O fit stems from the Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) framework introduced by Schneider (1987). Essentially, this theory posits that the values and attributes of an organization are shaped by the members in them, which has a notable influence on organizational design, practices, and culture. Thus, P-O fit is based on the degree of similarity between an individual's values and those of the organization (van Vianen, 2018).

Research has linked P-O fit with a number of workplace outcomes, including job satisfaction (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer, & Sablynski, 2007), organizational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), job performance (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001), and perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Moreover, Vogel and colleagues (2016) found that extreme levels of P-O misfit had the strongest negative effect on outcomes, although this lessened as congruence increased between the individual and the organization. There is also evidence suggesting that deficient-misfit and excessive-misfit have differential effects on outcomes (Cha, Chang, & Kim, 2014; Finegan, 2000). For instance, at high levels of P-O misfit, an organization that is deficient in a particular attribute compared to an employee (e.g., prosocial values), will lead to

harsher consequences than if an organization was providing an excessive amount of the attribute. To be sure, there are exceptions to this conclusion as outcomes can depend on whether personal or environmental values are weighed highly for either component.

P-T fit, or person-group fit (P-G fit), describes the similarities and contrasts between employees and their immediate coworkers across a variety of factors (i.e., demographics, goals, skills, values, and personality) (van Vianen, 2018). Earlier research on P-T fit has focused on the effects of personality traits in group contexts (Hobman, Bordia, & Gallois, 2003; Slocombe & Bluedorn, 1999; Strauss, Barrick, & Connerley, 2001). Since then, research on P-T fit has explored team-level and individual outcomes across deep-level (i.e., goals and values) and surface-level (i.e., demographic) characteristics (Joshi & Knight, 2015; Seong & Kristof-Brown, 2012). P-T fit has consistently shown a moderate association with job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors, but has only had a small effect on other job performance facets, such as task performance (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

P-S fit emphasizes the dyadic relationship between subordinates and their supervisor. Moreover, this facet is concerned with similarities and differences between employees' and their supervisor across values (Colbert, 2004), goals (Witt, 1998), and personality (Schaubroeck, & Lam, 2002). Typically, supervisors' attributes are characterized as the environment (E) component in P-S fit studies. Additionally, supervisors are often expected to represent the values of an organization, and therefore is related to P-O fit. While both facets concern the comparison between an employee and organizational values, P-S fit is focused on individual-level characteristics whereas P-O fit involves a comparison process that considers organization-level characteristics (van

Vianen, 2018). A meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) found that P-S fit influences supervisor and job satisfaction. However, it was only weakly associated with organizational commitment and job performance.

Operationalizations of Fit

There are various approaches to measuring fit which include subjective, perceived, and/or objective (i.e., calculated) measures. Subjective and perceived fit focus on the self-reported perceptions of employees based on how their values align with the organization (Enz, 1988). The primary difference between subjective and perceived fit lies in how compatibility is measured: *indirectly* or *directly* (Kristof, 1996). Subjective fit is measured *indirectly* through assessing the separate components of P-E fit by the same individual (e.g., "how important is this to you?" and "how important is this to your organization?") (see Edwards & Cable, 2009). On the contrary, perceived fit *directly* assesses an employee's sense of compatibility within their workplace environment (e.g., "My personal values match my organization's values and culture") (see Cable & Judge, 1996). Furthermore, depending on the question of interest, perceived similarity (i.e., fit) or discrepancy (i.e., misfit) between the person and environment present two unique approaches to analyzing and interpreting fit (Edwards et al., 2006).

Subjective and perceived approaches are typically favored by researchers in measuring fit from the employee's perspective since they are antecedents of employee attitudes and behaviors, and more conducive to establishing consistency effects (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Kristof-Brown & Billsberry, 2013). Despite this, there are some noteworthy methodological weaknesses embedded within this conceptualization (Edwards, 1994). For instance, some researchers have questioned the distinction between

perceived fit and affective states, such that, individuals reporting whether they fit in with the environment may actually be reporting their level of satisfaction with the environment (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). Moreover, Edwards and colleagues (2006) go on to argue that perceived fit does not necessarily initiate a cognitive comparison between an individual and her/his environment; rather, it is merely a direct assessment of an individual's job attitudes. It is also difficult to assert how individuals combine components of themselves and the environment into perceptions of fit (van Vianen, 2018). Specifically, the perceived fit approach does not offer any indication of how personal and environmental factors are weighed or considered by an individual, nor if they are related to one another. Therefore, depending on how fit is conceptualized, significant implications should be considered.

It is important to note that measures of perceived fit and measures of perceived misfit show very weak correspondence with one another (Edwards et al., 2006). Specifically, perceived similarity and perceived discrepancy between an individual and the environment represent unique subjective experiences. As Edwards and colleagues (2006) found, inconsistencies between measures of perceived fit have led to spurious conclusions regarding the relationship between fit and workplace outcomes. Specifically, differences between atomistic (i.e., indirect measure of P and E, then combine to form concept of P-E fit), molecular (i.e., direct measure assessing perceived discrepancy between P and E), and molar (i.e., direct measure of perceived similarity between P and E) approaches impact the inferences drawn from fit studies. However, while these methods should relate to one another in theory, they do not empirically. Nonetheless,

different types of fit require specific measures that coincide with research questions and provide justification accordingly.

Value-based measures often emerge as the preferred way of conceptualizing fit (Enz, 1988; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). This corresponds with using supplementary types of fit (i.e., P-O, P-S, and P-T fit). Common method bias has also been found to influence the association between fit and attitudes and behaviors. For this reason, conclusions from various studies recommend assessing fit from multiple sources, and perhaps more importantly, at different time points (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, a key measurement issue regularly brought up in the fit literature is the use of difference scores to determine an index of fit (i.e., algebraic, absolute, or squared differences between person and environment components).

In contrast to subjective and perceived approaches, objective or "calculated" fit *indirectly* captures compatibility through individuals' actual characteristics (P) (e.g., skill set, values, and attitudes) as well as similar measures from other workplace sources (E) (e.g., colleagues and supervisors) (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Difference scores aim to generate an index of fit, however, this approach is often criticized for its lack of reliability, failure to account for the direction of P and E differences, disregard for the main effects of P and E attributes, and failure to adequately test fit assumptions (Edwards, 1994). Because of this limitation, alternative approaches for measuring fit have emerged through polynomial regression and response surface analysis (van Vianen, 2018).

Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis

For employees, working in an environment that lacks the attributes they desire can be as damaging as working in an environment that they detest (van Vianen, 2018). For this reason, fit measures must represent the incongruence between employees and the environment. Across much of the fit literature, discussion of P-E fit would be incomplete without the mention of polynomial regression. This is because polynomial regression has surfaced as the prevailing method of testing the relationships between an individual, the environment, and focal outcomes (Edwards & Parry, 1993; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; van Vuuren, Veldkamp, de Jong, & Seydel, 2007; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016). This approach also overcomes weaknesses associated with perceived and calculated fit measures (Edwards, 1994). Specifically, this method enables researchers to analyze the association between a combination of two predictors and an outcome (Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggestad, 2010).

However, a series of conditions must first be met prior to producing this analysis. Specifically, it requires that (1) P-E measures are commensurate (i.e., capture similar constructs), which is often absent in interactionist approaches (Edwards, Caplan, & Van Harrison, 1998); (2) P-E facets are measured on the same numeric scale, though standardized scales have been used (e.g., see Harris, Ansaal, & Lievens, 2008); and (3) traditional regression assumptions are satisfied (see Darlington & Hayes, 2017). The coefficients obtained from a polynomial regression analysis are then used to examine the "response surface pattern," which produces a three-dimensional graphic allowing for more detailed interpretation (Edwards, 1994).

Response Surface Analysis (RSA) is commonly used in conjunction with polynomial regression since this approach yields the unique predictive effects of person and environment attributes (linear and quadratic), including their interaction (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Parry, 1993; Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, & Heggestad, 2010; van Vianen, 2018).

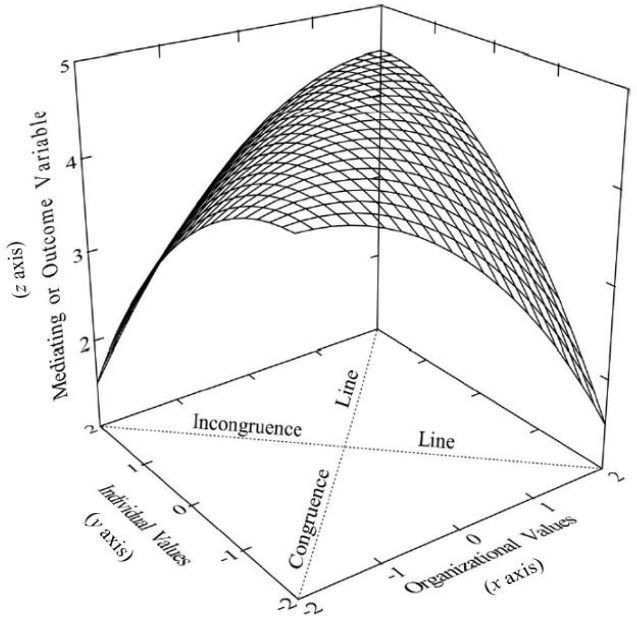

Figure 1. RSA visualization displaying "perfect fit" (from Edwards & Cable, 2009)

In figure 1, organizational values are on the *x* axis representing environmental attributes (E). Individual values appear on the *y* axis and show levels of employees' personal characteristics (P). The focal outcome is displayed on the *z* axis. The congruence line reflects *perfect agreement* between the two predictor variables in relation to an outcome (Shanock et al., 2010). Conversely, the incongruence line represents the *degree of discrepancy* between both predictors and the outcome. In this example, the visualization shows that "perfect" congruence is associated with high levels of the

outcome variable (e.g., job satisfaction). However, as incongruence increases (in either direction), there is a gradual decrease in the outcome.

Shanock and colleagues (2010) highlighted several advantages for using RSA over the standard moderated regression approach. Primarily, RSA permits three-dimensional analysis of relationships whereas moderated regression is limited to two-dimensional analysis. In this regard, RSA offers researchers a way to understand how combined predictors impact a focal outcome. Specifically, researchers are able to observe the level of the outcome when both predictors are aligned, but at low, medium, and high levels of congruence (as well as low, medium, and high levels of incongruence). Additionally, RSA enables examination of non-linear relationships along the lines of congruence and incongruence. While congruence is favorable to some extent, the relationship between fit and workplace outcomes is often hypothesized as curvilinear since fit or misfit tend to tier downward or upward after a certain point.

Moreover, as misfit increases among predictors (i.e., person and environment), the effects on outcomes are likely to become stronger. Thus, higher levels of misfit (in either direction) will lead to a greater magnitude of incongruence between person and environment predictors. RSA is utilized to show how the increasing discrepancy between person and environment impacts a focal outcome. Also, moderated regression is limited to a two-dimensional interaction graph, which only exhibits the incongruence between person and environment attributes at fixed points of the moderator. Therefore, while the focal predictor is analyzed on a continuum, the moderating variable is not, which further limits interpretation.

Ideological Misfit

While the extant literature on P-E fit has established a strong foundation for understanding how fit (and misfit) influences the affective states and behaviors of employees, the variation across different attributes raises new questions about novel types of fit (i.e., ideological misfit). Additionally, given the methodological intricacies involved with conceptualizing fit, there is opportunity to expand research in this domain through the measurement of under-explored facets. P-E fit provides an ideal framework for understanding the relationship between political ideological misfit and employee outcomes since it is rooted in value congruence between employee and organization (e.g., Edwards & Cable, 2009). Indeed, some initial work has recognized ideological misfit as a driver of interpersonal interactions (Chopik & Motyl, 2016) and turnover (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018). However, given the relative nascence of this phenomenon, research has yet to address the role of other relevant workplace consequences, such as job attitudes and counterproductive work performance.

Furthermore, research suggests that ideological misfit represents a value-based construct that parallels other facets such as P-O fit, which lends support for its conceptualization as a supplementary type of fit (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). However, Bermiss and McDonald (2018) contend that ideological misfit is conceptually different from P-O fit, citing that (1) it exists on a social level (instead of an employee or organizational level), (2) the stability of political ideology establishes a belief system that influences behavior, (3) the manifestation of differences in political ideology are difficult to detect and hinder an organization's ability to identify misfits, and (4) ideological misfits react differently to

their workplace environment depending on their political views. Therefore, inclusion of ideological misfit as a conceptualization of fit expands the field of research in a way that offers substantial insight to a contemporary issue.

Political Ideology at Work

Political ideology is defined as "an interrelated set of attitudes and values about the proper goals of society and how they should be achieved" (Tedin, 1987, p. 65). It is common for individuals to identify with various tenets of a political ideology along a conservative or liberal continuum, though this is mainly driven by their social attitudes and perceptions of inequality (Jost, Federico, & Napier, 2009). For instance, conservative ideology is associated with resistance to societal change and tolerance of inequality, whereas liberal ideology endorses change in hierarchical systems and opposes societal injustices (Jost, Glaser, Kruglanski, & Sulloway, 2003). This categorization is made more complex when considering the different factions individuals uphold within each ideology (e.g., social conservatism vs. economic conservatism) (Feldman & Johnston, 2014). Nonetheless, in the United States, conservative political ideology is typically aligned with the Republican Party while liberal political ideology is generally associated with the Democratic Party (Mixon, Sankaran, & Upadhyana, 2019). Ideology is an essential attribute to account for in psychological research since it provides a framework for people's development of values and attitudes and offers justification for their behavior (Jost, 2006). Inevitably, political ideology is therefore likely to permeate other domains of an individual's life, particularly at work.

In organizational research, political ideology has been linked to a series of workplace outcomes, including attitudes toward workplace diversity (Anglim, Sojo,

Ashford, Newman, & Marty, 2019), hiring, promotion, and compensation decisions (based on gender) (Briscoe & Joshi, 2017; Carnahan & Greenwood, 2018), risk-aversion as it relates to managing corporate tax strategies (Christensen, Dhaliwal, Boivie, & Graffin, 2014), and CEO pay (Gupta & Wowak, 2017). However, effects appear to differ depending on an individual's political affiliation. For instance, high conservatism was found to be associated with negative attitudes toward workplace diversity (Anglim et al., 2019). In another study, it was concluded that liberal-minded CEOs were more likely to promote corporate social responsibility and social activism within an organization than conservative CEOs (Briscoe, Chin, and Hambrick, 2014; Chin, Hambrick, & Trevino, 2013). The political ideology of a corporate board of directors is seen as a driver of CEO pay (Gupta & Wowak, 2016). Specifically, conservative executive boards pay CEOs higher salaries than liberal executive boards. The relationship between pay and performance was also found to be stronger for conservative boards than liberal boards. While the research focused on higher level executives, it demonstrates that the political affiliation of organizational leaders can have great influence on the governance, design, and culture of an organization.

At the individual level, some research has found support for the relationship between ideology and cognitive ability (Anglim et al., 2019; Bernabel & Oliveira, 2017), suggesting that liberals and conservatives process information differently. Political ideology is also linked to a variety of personality traits. Specifically, conservatism is negatively related to openness to experience, uncertainty tolerance, and self-esteem, and positively related to intolerance of ambiguity, fear of threat, and need for structure (Jost, Glaser, Kruglanski, & Sulloway, 2003). These findings could carry significant

implications with regard to job performance and other workplace dynamics, particularly since personality has been shown to correlate with fit (Cable & Judge, 1997; Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003) and performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 2003; Witt, Burke, Barrick, & Mount, 2002). Nonetheless, as mentioned earlier, organizational factors play a significant role in how ideology is manifested in the workplace.

In fact, some research has demonstrated the ways in which environmental stimuli can influence the expression of ideology (Jost, Kruglanski, & Simon, 1999; Jost et al., 2003). For example, in an extensive review by Jost and colleagues (2003), researchers found that high levels of uncertainty avoidance were linked to stronger expressions of political conservatism (i.e., resistance to change, inequality). Moreover, while ambiguity or disruption in an organizational setting may trigger resistance to change, this could be rationalized based on the risk-aversive traits of conservatives who seek to mitigate undesirable outcomes. Taken together, the degree to which political affiliation is manifested in an organizational context is driven by situational motives as well as individual differences in ideology. The constraints imposed by an organization on an individual's expression of political ideology can therefore illuminate misalignment between individual and organizational values.

Ideological Misfit as a Type of Supplementary Fit

Ideological misfit refers to the incongruence between an individual's political ideology and the dominant ideology of her/his employing organization (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Chopik & Motyl, 2016). Supplementary fit posits that individuals seek environments where their fundamental values and beliefs match with those of the organization (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). This also coincides with the ideological

migration hypothesis, which suggests that people migrate into and out of communities on the basis of ideological misalignment (Motyl, Iyer, Trawalter, & Nosek, 2014). Ideological misfit meets the criteria as a supplementary type of fit since political ideology serves as a guiding principle for individuals' beliefs and values. Similarly, organizations establish agendas and systemic structures that coincide with external political interests and values of high-level executives. Moreover, the outcomes commonly associated with supplementary fit (i.e., job attitudes and performance) also seem to be influenced by political ideology.

The discrepancy between employee and organizational values has the potential to marginalize individuals, which can negatively impact motivation, discourage employee effort, and has been shown to influence turnover (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018). As a result, this can significantly impact an organization's level of performance as it can undermine the pursuit of institutional objectives. Given that research has found differential effects across the political spectrum (e.g., Anglim et al., 2019; Gupta & Wowak, 2016; Jost et al., 2003), it is possible that ideological misfit in the workplace affects conservatives and liberals differently.

Indeed, Bermiss and McDonald (2018) found that conservative misfits were more likely to quit their "liberal" firm than liberal employees working in "conservative" firms. This finding raises questions related to the social-cognitive processes and environmental factors that impact the relationship between misfit and negative organizational outcomes (e.g., turnover), such as how do organizational misfits rationalize staying on with their employer? There are a number of reasons why employees remain with an organization despite experiencing misfit, including scarcity in employment opportunities or having the

personal resources needed to quit (Ostroff, Shin, and Kinicki, 2005). However, empirical research has yet to address the consequences that emerge when ideological misfits remain with an organization. Furthermore, and perhaps more importantly, what are the appropriate measures for conceptualizing political ideology from the organization's perspective, and how should this be examined?

Measuring Ideological Misfit

Studies have taken varied and innovative approaches to measuring ideological misfit. For example, some have relied on the use of archived and secondary datasets to calculate a proxy for environmental ideology (e.g., organizational, community, university, etc.) (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Chopik & Motyl, 2016; Hanson, Weeden, Pascarella, & Blaich, 2012; Motyl et al., 2014). Using a publicly available dataset that tracks industry professionals working in private equity firms, Bermiss and McDonald (2018) used individual and aggregated political donations from employees and their firm to form *P* and *E* ideology components. In another study, Chopik and Motyl (2016) utilized a secondary dataset, which contained localized voting behavior matched with participants' zip code and used this information to devise the ideological climate of individuals' community. While these approaches represent a type of objective fit, both studies leveraged polynomial regression and RSA techniques to offset the methodological issues (e.g., weak reliability, untested constraints, etc.) that typically arise when using calculated fit measures.

The advantage of using polynomial regression and RSA is that it enables modeling of three-dimensional and curvilinear relationships among variables (Edwards et al., 1998). Additionally, the association between *P* and *E* components and an outcome are

modeled simultaneously, which is not tenable to difference scores approaches (see Edwards & Parry, 1993; Edwards & Cable, 2009). This last part is particularly important since *P* and *E* components separately are known to have varying effects on outcomes, however, this variation in magnitude is discarded when difference scores are used. Additionally, the shape of the relationship between ideological fit and workplace outcomes depends on the importance an individual emphasizes on ideology for *P* and *E* components (see Edwards et al., 1998). For example, while an individual's political identity may be very important to her/him, she/he may or may not weigh the importance of the organization's political views to the same degree. This suggests that the effects of an organization's ideology may level-off or trend upward/downward at a certain point, implying a curvilinear relationship. Generally, congruence studies employing polynomial regression will model quadratic relationships to account for fit in either direction (e.g., Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Chopik & Motyl, 2016; Dennisen, Bleidorn, Hennecke, Luhmann, Orth, Specht, & Zimmermann, 2018; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Zenker, Gollan, & Van Quaquebeke, 2014). Furthermore, a P-E fit meta-analysis found that polynomial regression demonstrated superiority over linear regression, particularly in studies that examined job attitudes as the focal outcome (Yang, Levine, Smith, Ipsas, & Rossi, 2008).

To our knowledge, no study to date has used subjective approaches for measuring ideological fit, likely because of the recentness of the construct; however, this presents a sizable opportunity for future research. Political ideology measures may be adapted to resemble atomistic approaches used to measure supplementary fit (i.e., indirect subjective assessment of political ideology). It is also worth noting that political ideology is often treated as a continuous variable, however, depending on the direction of the scale, it is

often described as a measure of "conservatism" or "liberalism," thereby matching individuals and their organization on conservative or liberal scales. In addition to theorizing about the influence of ideological misfit at work, these advanced methodological approaches allow for more robust exploration and interpretation of this novel concept, particularly across key workplace consequences.

Potential Consequences of Ideological Misfit

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to an employee's affective appraisal of their job, which includes favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward their job or work context (Locke, 1976). Within the job satisfaction construct, emotional, cognitive, and behavioral components contribute to employees' appraisal of satisfaction. Meta-analyses have shown strong support for the relationship between personality and job satisfaction, citing that high levels of positive affect as well as most Big Five facets (i.e., emotional stability, agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness) influence higher levels of job satisfaction (Bowling, Hendricks, & Wagner, 2008; Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002) with the caveat that this could be the result of self-selection (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). While stable levels of job satisfaction seem to be mostly attributed to dispositional traits, this assumes that environmental (i.e., workplace) conditions also remain constant. Moreover, Dormann and Zapf's (2001) meta-analysis revealed that stability in job satisfaction declined when work stressors (e.g., organizational problems, uncertainty) were controlled.

In terms of fit, some research has indicated that high levels of P-O misfit engender negative workplace attitudes, such as affective commitment and job satisfaction

(Finegan, 2000; Ostroff et al., 2005; Vogel et al., 2016). In a meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005), different conceptualizations of job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with supervisor) were associated with corresponding forms of fit (i.e., P-J fit, P-O fit, P-T fit, and P-S fit). These findings were also supported by Ostroff and colleagues (2005), which showed that congruence between employee's values and the cultural values of the organization were positively related to job satisfaction. The study also found that perceptual fit (i.e., employee's perceptions of organizational values and the organization's values perceived by other employees) was related to job satisfaction. In both instances, the relationships between fit and job satisfaction were nonlinear, lending additional support to previous findings in congruence research (see van Vianen, 2018).

Given that political ideology also correlates with a variety of personality characteristics (e.g., openness to experience, self-esteem, tolerance for ambiguity, etc.) (e.g., Jost et al., 2003), it is likely that ideological misfit will disrupt employees' affective states at work. Furthermore, if organizational conditions change or exhibit instability (in this case, a shift in their ideological agenda), this will also negatively impact job attitudes. Thus, depending on the strength of an employee's ideological identification and the apparent political affiliation of her/his organization, there are significant implications for how ideological misfit can destabilize an employee's job attitudes.

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

Generally, counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) are understood from two prevailing viewpoints in the organizational psychology literature: (1) a viewpoint that takes the perspective of the organization (Sackett & DeVore, 2002), and (2) one that

places focus on the employee's perspective (Spector & Fox, 2005). Broadly, CWBs are defined as volitional behaviors on behalf of an organization's employee that are detrimental to the legitimate interests of the organization and/or its members (Sackett & DeVore, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2005). Gruys and Sackett (2003) identified 11 distinct categories of CWBs, which include theft, destruction of property, misuse of information, misuse of time and resources, unsafe behavior, poor attendance, poor quality work, alcohol use (on the job), drug use (on the job), inappropriate verbal actions, and inappropriate physical actions. Additionally, these facets can be further classified depending on the target of these behaviors.

Within the CWB construct, two distinct factors emerge: organizational deviancy and interpersonal deviancy (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Organizational deviance refers to negative behaviors directed toward the organization. Some examples include stealing from the company, lying about work activities, and excessive absenteeism (Raver, 2012). On the other hand, interpersonal deviance pertains to targeting individual employees within an organization. This type of behavior includes activities such as making threats, spreading rumors, ostracizing peers, and making ethically inappropriate comments. Much of the job performance and strain research within organizational psychology considers CWBs to be a function of an individual's dispositional attributes and situation-based causes.

The most researched person-based predictors of CWBs include conscientiousness (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007), trait anger (Ilie, Penney, Ispas, & Iliescu, 2012), locus of (Fox & Spector, 1999), and narcissism (Penney & Spector, 2005). Among environmental factors, norms (Smithikrai, 2008), stress (Spector & Fox, 2005), control (Marcus &

Schuler, 2004), and perceptions of injustice (Berry et al., 2007) are also predictive of CWBs. Antecedents of CWBs have differential effects depending on the type of CWB being analyzed. For example, conscientiousness relates more strongly to CWBs that target the organization rather than those that target people (Berry et al., 2007).

While the extant literature on P-E fit has concentrated a great deal on workplace outcomes like turnover and job attitudes (see Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), there is a notable lack of research examining the relationship between P-E fit and CWBs. However, some research has produced relevant findings. For instance, Liao, Joshi, and Chuang (2004) found that dissimilarity in openness to experience (among other traits) between employees and their organization negatively influenced organizational deviance. Though the use of difference scores for calculating dissimilarity in this study substantially limits interpretation of these findings, and therefore, the differential effects of discrepancy between employees who were high or low in openness are unable to be determined. In another study, Harold and colleagues (2016) explored the relationship between P-E fit and CWBs and found support linking various facets of fit with CWBs. Specifically, P-O, P-T, and P-S fit were negatively related (though to varying degrees) to corresponding targets of CWBs. While the study concluded that frustration mediated the effects between fit and CWBs, more research is needed in identifying potential moderating effects between the P-E fit and CWB relationship. Nonetheless, research on ideological polarization provides some perspective as to why employees experiencing misfit would engage in retaliatory behaviors toward an organization and/or its members.

Employees with strong political leanings are likely to engage in CWBs if there is a perception that their organization represents an opposing ideology. Mackie, Devos, and

Smith (2000) found that strong intergroup identification was associated with anger toward an opponent group, which subsequently influenced behavioral tendencies such as arguing, confronting, opposing, and attacking members of the opposing group. In an ideological misfit context, research on political polarization found that 40-60% of partisan individuals from a nationally representative sample endorsed moral disengagement (i.e., psychological justification for harming others; see Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996) with regard to rationalizing harm toward political opposition (Kalmoe & Mason, 2019). This could also mean that ideological strength serves as a potential explanation for these explicit hostile attitudes toward political opponents (Huddy, Mason, & Aaroe, 2015). Aggressive personality traits and political anger can also influence the desire to harm opposing political entities (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Huddy, Feldman, & Erin, 2007; Kalmoe, 2014), which provides stronger support for engagement in CWBs targeting the organization (CWB-O), particularly because of its association with trait anger (Ilie et al., 2012).

Levinson (1965) provided justification as to why individuals personify powerful entities, such as organizations and corporations. An organization maintains (1) responsibility for the behaviors of its representatives, (2) stability offered by culture and norms, and (3) exerts power, through its representatives, over individual employees. Taken together, examining the relationship between ideological misfit and CWB-Os offers intuitive appeal since both constructs appear to correspond well with one another. Situationally, it is possible that partisan individuals would feel triggered by an organization that took a stance that contradicted their values, which could lead to subsequent aggression in the form of CWB-Os, especially if this provocation induces

stress and/or strain (Meier & Spector, 2013). Furthermore, it seems that in conjunction with strong partisan beliefs, CWB-O outcomes would be exacerbated by personality characteristics as well, particularly for individuals who are low in integrity and conscientiousness (Berry et al., 2007; Ones & Viswesvaran, 2001) and/or high in trait anger.

Perceived Organizational Support as a Buffer of Ideological Misfit

It is a common belief that employees like to feel valued and cared for by their employer. In a way, this is communicated by an organization's commitment to provide resources and support to its employees. Formally, perceived organizational support (POS) describes employees' perceptions regarding the extent to which the organization values their inputs and supports their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). POS has been associated with various antecedents, including organizational justice (Colquitt, 2001), leadership (Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis, 2017), abusive supervision (Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013), and HR practices (Shore & Shore, 1995).

Outcomes of POS are based on a social-exchange process (i.e., employees give to the organization, and in turn, they receive from the organization) (Eisenberger, Shanock, Wen, 2020). Therefore, employees are more likely to reciprocate positive attitudes and behaviors when POS is high. Specifically, POS has been shown to influence organizational commitment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), work engagement (Saks, 2006), and organizational trust (Chiaburu, Peng, Oh, Banks, & Lomeli, 2013). In terms of behavioral outcomes, POS is also associated with CWBs that

target the organization and/or the individual (Kurtessis et al., 2017) as well as safety protocol and well-being (Baran, Shanock, & Miller, 2012).

As a moderator, POS has been shown to buffer the negative effects associated with stressors and strain (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993; Jawahar, Stone, Kisamore, 2007). Understanding that stress and strain are associated with CWBs (Spector & Fox, 2005), and POS is linked to CWBs, it is likely that POS can curtail the effects of ideological misfit on CWBs. Specifically, high levels of POS will attenuate the relationship between high ideological misfit and CWBs, whereas low POS will actually worsen the effects of ideological misfit on CWBs. Furthermore, including POS as a moderator in the relationship between ideological misfit and CWBs offers some practical insight as to how organizations can offset negative behaviors through providing meaningful support.

Purpose of Collected Papers

In this collected papers dissertation, the goal of this dissertation is to assess how ideological misfit affects employee attitudes and behaviors, such as job satisfaction and counterproductive work behaviors. The goal of this framework is to assess how ideological misfit affects these outcomes cross-sectionally and longitudinally across three studies. The first study utilized a qualitative approach to explore employees' experience and expression of political ideology at work (at the industry and organization level). Findings from this first study informed the interpretation of the second and third studies, which examined the consequences of person-industry and person-organization ideological misfit. Additionally, the last study focused on the buffering effects of perceived organizational support on the relationship between person-organization

ideological misfit and counterproductive work behaviors. In similar fashion to Bermiss and McDonald (2018) and Chopik and Motyl (2016), models for study two and three controlled for individual and environmental factors such as gender, employee rank, organization size, age, and job tenure where possible. These factors are known to explain some level of variance in the focal outcomes.

Overview of Collected Papers

The common theme across each paper was centered around understanding how political ideology is experienced and expressed in the workplace. The overall goal was to determine the extent to which ideological misfit influences important employee workplace outcomes (i.e., job attitudes and counterproductive work behaviors), and address the potential impact of situational variables (i.e., perceived organizational support) on this relationship. Additionally, valuable theoretical and practical contributions to the I-O Psychology research emerged from the resulting analyses, which included the expansion of current conceptualizations of P-E fit (i.e., ideological fit-misfit), and contributes to practice by examining how political ideology at the industrial, organizational, and employee-level influence workplace outcomes.

Collected Paper 1

Purpose

The first study focused on generating themes from semi-structured individual interviews using thematic analysis to understand how political ideology is experienced at work. Specifically, the study explored workplace factors that impact or are impacted by ideological misfit, thereby advancing research theory and providing context for subsequent studies.

Method

We recruited participants who identified with a political ideology that significantly differed (perceptually) from their industry and/or organization. A combination of techniques were leveraged, including snowball sampling, online recruitment, and survey websites (i.e., Prolific). Eligibility criteria was advertised on promotional content transmitted through social media platforms and email. After identifying participants and confirming eligibility, a choice of potential dates and times for an interview via a video conferencing application (e.g., Zoom) was offered to participants. Participant demographic information was collected at the onset of the interview, which included written consent form, a participant information sheet, and a participant demographic questionnaire. For the interview, 28 questions (including probes) were developed in collaboration with the principal investigator (see Appendix). A total of 20 participants took part in a 1-hour semi-structured interview.

Data Analysis

At the conclusion of the interviews, sessions were transcribed and analyzed using reflexive coding techniques (i.e., thematic analysis) proposed by Braun and Clarke (2013). NVivo was used to analyze the qualitative data. We invoked an inductive approach to extract themes from the sessions, which were then coded by two researchers in order to reduce bias and enhance trustworthiness and credibility. Upon conclusion of the thematic analysis, differences among coders were addressed and resolved until complete agreement of code and theme interpretation were attained.

Publication submission and formatting

The study was formatted and written in APA format (6th edition) with the intention of submitting to an academic publication. The specific journal that this study will be submitted to has not been decided, but the aim is to submit to a publication that addresses value congruence (e.g., political ideology) and person-environment fit in the workplace, but is also receptive to the chosen methodology.

Collected Paper 2

Purpose

The second study examined the relationship between person-industry ideological misfit and job satisfaction. Moreover, the analysis assessed this association across three time points spaced two years apart at each interval. Relationships were analyzed cross-sectionally and longitudinally to assess how change in ideological misfit influenced the stability of job satisfaction.

Method

To create the primary dataset, we used secondary data from the GSS Panel study which spanned the years 2006 to 2014. These data included information regarding participants' political ideology, employment status, industry of employment, gender, and age. The GSS codes participants' industry according to the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS). Additionally, this data was combined with data from the Center of Responsive Politics (CRP) to derive a proxy measure for industry political ideology. The CRP serves as a robust clearinghouse for data and analysis regarding money in politics. Campaign finance data was derived from the Federal Election Commission (FEC), the Internal Revenue Service (IRS), the Senate Office of Public

Records, and various information-collectors in Congress. The CRP relies on FEC data as a primary resource.

The aggregated donations to Democratic and Republican causes (by year) were used as a proxy to form the political ideology of a given industry. Since this does not align with the political views scale in the GSS, the ratio of Democrat-to-Republican contributions was rescaled to a standardized score for scale equivalency; a practice that has demonstrated adequate empirical support (Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985; Wilk & Sackett, 1996). Industry ideology represented the *E* component in the P-E fit framework, which were matched to participants' industry of employment in the GSS panel dataset.

Data Analysis

An examination of the relationship between ideological misfit and job satisfaction was conducted through polynomial regression and response surface analysis. To examine how ideological misfit and job satisfaction change together over time, we used latent change score modeling. The use of these nonlinear modeling approaches was integrated into the analysis to offset the limitations that are typically encountered in traditional OLS methods (see Curran, Obeidat, Losardo, 2010). Furthermore, ideological misfit was conceptualized as an objective type of fit, which removes perceptions of participant fit. Aside from ideological misfit and job satisfaction, control variables (i.e., gender, age, supervisory status, and industry contributions) were included in the analysis since these factors are known to explain some level of variance in the focal outcomes, and to help contextualize the effects of ideological misfit. All analyses were conducted in R using the *psych* (Revelle, 2021), *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012), and *RSA* (Schönbrodt, 2016) packages.

Publication submission and formatting

The current study will be formatted and written in APA format (6th edition) with the intention of submitting to an academic publication. The specific journal that this study will be submitted to has not been decided, but the aim is to submit to a publication that addresses value congruence (e.g., political ideology) and person-environment fit in the workplace, but is also receptive to the chosen methodology.

Collected Paper 3

Purpose

The third paper expands the research on P-E fit and performance by examining the effects of ideological misfit on counterproductive work behaviors. Moreover, this relationship was analyzed at different levels of perceived organizational support (POS).

Method

Commensurate, indirect measures of subjective political ideology were used to assess person-organization ideological components. This enables both components to be analyzed independently, while also including a subjective comparison from the participant's perspective to form the fit measure. The final sample was made up of 450 full-time employees in the U.S. representing various industries and occupations. To mitigate issues related to common method bias, a two-wave panel design will be implemented using a two-month time lag (Brusso, Cigularov, & Callan, 2014; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Data analysis

Response surface analysis (RSA) was used in tandem with polynomial regression to examine the surface of the quadratic regression equations across each level of POS

(i.e., low, medium, and high). Aside from the ability to model quadratic effects, this approach includes a stationary point where the surface's slope regarding the relationship between X and Y to Z is zero in all directions. The RSA is generated according to polynomial regression weights, which signify the unique effects of focal employee ideology and organizational ideology (linear and quadratic), and their interaction (i.e., ideological misfit). Analyses were conducted in R using the *RSA* (Schönbrodt, 2016) and *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012) packages. To isolate the effects of ideological misfit (at time 1) on CWBs (at time 2), a series of control variables were also included in each model (i.e., gender, age, supervisor status, organizational size, organizational tenure, CWB at time 1, and social desirability).

Publication submission and formatting

The current study will be formatted and written in APA format (6th edition) with the intention of submitting to an academic publication. The specific journal that this study will be submitted to has not been decided, but the aim is to submit to a publication that addresses value congruence (e.g., political ideology) and person-environment fit in the workplace, but is also receptive to the chosen methodology.

Implications of Collected Papers Research

P-E fit continues to demand substantial research in the field of Organizational Psychology. It provides an essential framework for understanding how people's values shape their affective states and behaviors at work. Furthermore, fit is instrumental in fostering interpersonal interactions among employees and establishing a sense of belonging (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Yu, 2013). As society and organizations continue to evolve, so do values, and this results in the emergence of novel conceptualizations of fit.

Indeed, ideological polarization has served as a relentless driving force behind American politics over the last 50 years (Mason, 2015). Additionally, what once remained within the confines of an individual's belief system, now permeates throughout multiple levels of workplace culture. A 2017 survey conducted by Civic Science found that 45% of employees think it is important (to some degree or more) that their employer shares the same political and social beliefs as them (Star, 2017). Moreover, research has found that politically-charged discussions crossing party lines are common at work (Mutz & Mondak, 2006), with a recent survey indicating that 26% of employees have experienced contentious conversations with coworkers (Chaudhary, 2020). In light of this ever-changing phenomenon, research has called for further examination of the correlates associated with ideological misfit at work (Bermiss and McDonald, 2018) as well as exploring the different variations of value congruence and its related consequences (Edwards & Cable, 2009).

These collected papers contribute to the person-environment fit literature in several ways. First, and foremost, organizational researchers will have a better understanding of how the socio-political stances of organizations affect employee fit and workplace outcomes. From a theoretical perspective, this framework expands the notion of P-E fit to include ideological misfit as a potential factor in examining workplace outcomes. Additionally, this research tests the stability of ideological misfit and job satisfaction, and how change in either is related over time. To date fit is seldom analyzed over time, let alone in the context of ideological misfit. This will also provide new insights into understanding the stability of job satisfaction as a function of fit variables.

The final study examines the interaction of ideological misfit and POS on CWBs (targeting the organization and other individuals). As mentioned earlier, fit research has seldom addressed CWB as a consequence, therefore, this notion as well as testing the interactive effects of POS will yield significant contributions. Furthermore, methodologically, this joins the nascent literature employing latent polynomial regression techniques and RSA to examine interactive effects between fit and workplace outcomes. The practical implications are significant for organizational practices and how organizations rethink their positions and communication on key political issues. Therefore, this research seeks to promote novel ideas for how to manage destructive behaviors that result from ideological misfit.

Though this issue of organizational political stances is discussed heavily through various media outlets and national polls, virtually no empirical research has produced findings that explore the consequences of such stances and the potential impact this has on employee attitudes and behaviors. Thus, this research is innovative in the sense that it captures ideological fit in a workplace context using qualitative methods (i.e., interviews). Additionally, following up with quantitative analyses will establish additional interpretation and validation for how different factors associated with ideological misfit impact workplace outcomes. Taken together, these studies contribute to the growing literature on person-environment fit while highlighting key implications resulting from ideological misfit.

II. EMPLOYEES TALKING FIT: A QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS EXPLORING IDEOLOGICAL MISFIT AT WORK (STUDY 1)

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For centuries, it has been considered a widely accepted custom to avoid engaging in political discussions with others (see Martine, 1866). This belief is known to be held even more firmly in formal contexts, such as the workplace, which is not without good reason. For instance, a recent report by the Pew Research Center (2019) found that 48% of individuals felt uncomfortable discussing politics with a stranger. Within the same report, half of U.S. adults expressed that talking politics with individuals they disagree with induces stress and frustration. Despite this discomfort, ideologically-driven discourse has besieged workplace cultures and is often the central topic of regular employee interactions (Chaudhary, 2020; Mutz & Mondak, 2006; Swigart et al., 2020). As of late, these sentiments have also captured the attention of Human Resource departments and organizational leaders, which has spawned a sudden values crisis and predicament for organizations across the country (SHRM, 2020).

In organizational research, political ideology has been associated with workplace outcomes, including attitudes toward workplace diversity (Anglim, Sojo, Ashford, Newman, & Marty, 2019), hiring and selection (Briscoe & Joshi, 2017; Carnahan & Greenwood, 2018), risk-aversion (Christensen, Dhaliwal, Boivie, & Graffin, 2014), and CEO pay (Gupta & Wowak, 2017). Political ideology is also related to various personality traits (i.e., openness to experience, uncertainty tolerance, self-esteem, intolerance of ambiguity, fear of threat, and need for structure; Jost, Glaser, Kruglanski, & Sulloway, 2003). However, to date, limited research within I-O Psychology has examined how and why political ideology manifests in the workplace, and how this impacts individuals' fit with their organization.

Employees strive to fit in with their workplaces, including fitting in with jobs, coworkers, supervisors, and their organizations (Cable & Judge, 1996). In organizational research, this has come to be known as Person-Environment fit (P-E fit), which describes the congruence between the characteristics, personality, and values of an employee and her/his organization (Kristof, 1996). While some of the P-E fit literature has addressed the relationship between value congruence and employee job attitudes and organizational identity (Edwards & Cable, 2009), few qualitative studies have offered an in-depth contemplation of the themes associated with fitting in at work. However, this is a critical area of need considering that political ideology often accounts for key attributes of an individual's personality, values, and beliefs (Jost, 2006; Tedin, 1987). As a value-based measure, an employee's political identity may be expressed in the workplace depending on the perceived fit with their environment. Nonetheless, this assumes that ideological fit plays a substantial role in an individual's attitudes and behaviors at work.

Moreover, it is evident that political ideology plays a pivotal role in shaping individuals' values and attitudes, which justifies their behavior (Jost, 2006). This is likely to spill over into other domains of an individual's life, such as work, which can disrupt employee engagement and job performance (Beck & Shen, 2019). Additionally, the degree to which political affiliation is exhibited in an organizational context may be driven by situational motives as well as individual differences (i.e., person-environment interaction). Thus, the current study explored the subjective experiences of individuals who identify as ideological misfits at their workplace.

Conceptualizing ideological misfit through P-E fit

Ideological misfit refers to the incongruence between an individual's political ideology and the dominant ideology of her/his employing organization (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Chopik & Motyl, 2016). P-E fit suggests that the values and attributes of an organization are shaped by the members in them, which has a sizeable influence on organizational design, practices, and culture (van Vianen, 2018). Therefore, the degree of similarity between an individual's values and those of the organization plays a significant role in how individuals experience their workplace environment.

P-E fit is related to job satisfaction (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer, & Sablynski, 2007), organizational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), job performance (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001), and perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). However, while the extant literature on P-E fit has established a strong foundation for understanding how congruence affects emotional and psychological states and behaviors of employees, the variation between different attributes of fit raises new questions about novel conceptualizations, such as ideological misfit. P-E fit provides an ideal framework for understanding the relationship between political ideological misfit and employee outcomes since it is rooted in value congruence between employee and organization (e.g., Edwards & Cable, 2009). Some seminal work has found support for the effects of ideological misfit on interpersonal interactions (Chopik & Motyl, 2016) and turnover (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018), however, research has yet to fully address the lived experiences of employees who endure misfit at work from an ideological perspective. Perhaps the results may be similar to other studies which

have found a relationship between fit and stress and burnout (Cooper et al., 2001; Edwards & Cooper, 1990); however, these studies emphasized fit with one's job (i.e., person-job fit), and so understanding the consequences from a values perspective offers a valuable contribution to the growing literature.

Furthermore, ideological misfit represents a value-based construct that can be categorized under other conceptualizations of fit, such as P-O fit (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). However, Bermiss and McDonald (2018) argued that ideological misfit should be considered conceptually different from P-O fit, indicating that (1) it exists on a social level (instead of an employee or organizational level), (2) the stability of political ideology establishes a belief system that influences behavior, (3) the manifestation of differences in political ideology are difficult to detect and hinder an organization's ability to identify misfits, and (4) ideological misfits react differently to their workplace environment depending on their political views. This justification supports further inquiry into understanding what it means to be an ideological misfit and what are the potential antecedents and consequences associated with it.

The need for qualitative research

Researchers have called for studies examining new operationalizations of Person-Environment fit (P-E fit) and how different aspects of fit influence job attitudes and performance outcomes (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Harold, Oh, Holtz, Han, & Giacalone, 2016; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). The current climate of American political dialogue demands the need for more research assessing P-E fit and employee workplace outcomes in politically dissimilar environments. Expanding the

literature in this regard will provide a valuable contribution to the field of I-O Psychology and its various subfields.

Research question

Substantial discrepancy between employee and employer values is associated with dissatisfaction and poor performance (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Harold, Oh, Holtz, Han, & Giacalone, 2016). Therefore, as a conceptualization of person-environment fit, ideological misfit poses a predicament for employees who see their political identity as a core part of their self-concept. This leads to the central research question:

> *What are employees' subjective beliefs and experiences with ideological misfit in the workplace?*

The study is especially focused on employees who report experiencing misfit in their work environments. Ideological misfit is more likely than ever before given that over the last several decades underrepresented groups have changed the demography of organizations across the country (Calas & Smircich, 1996). Thus, the boundaries between work and nonwork have deteriorated while seeing an increasing proportion of minorities in organizations and roles that were previously considered homogenous (Ramarajan & Redi, 2013). This suggests that there is greater variation in employees' nonwork identities, which may carry implications for their alignment with organizational values.

Methods

The current study explored themes related to political ideology at work through qualitative inquiry, specifically using semi-structured interviews. This approach enables flexibility compared to structured interviews, since it allows for the emergence of new information and questions that were not previously considered by the researcher (Gill,

Stewart, Treasure, & Chadwick, 2008). Since no previous research to date has produced an in-depth qualitative analysis related to ideological misfit at work, this study seeks to understand the manifestation of political ideology at work. More importantly, recognizing the impact of ideological incongruence on employees' affective states and behaviors is essential to the advancement of fit research.

Qualitative work often requires an understanding of how the topic intertwines with the identity of the researcher (Dodgson, 2019). This offers transparency regarding the considerations taken for interpreting results. In line with reflexive approaches to research, which disclose the influence of the researcher's personal experiences on the study (Rice, 2009), the relevant characteristics of the researchers are made available for transparency and context.

As the primary researcher, I identify as a Hispanic man who comes from an I/O Psychology background. Additionally, my discipline offers a unique lens for interpreting results compared to someone with a Political Science background. My political ideology is liberal. I did not disclose my ideology during interviews to reduce the likelihood of participants suppressing their responses. I am aware that interacting with individuals who identify with a different ideology than mine may impact the interpretation of results. However, my identity intersects with participants in that we have experienced ideological misfit in our careers. Ideological incongruence was the focus of this research—not necessarily the ideology of the individual. Nonetheless, given this aspect of my identity, the use of a reflexive journal and a second coder aided in maintaining neutrality throughout the research process. The second coder identified as a Black woman from a Developmental Psychology background. Her expertise in Developmental Psychology lent

a unique perspective to the research question. Her political ideology is liberal. Given that both coders identified as liberal, we do not have a conservative perspective in interpreting results. However, the primary researcher maintained an audit trail to track notes and follow-ups for all participants to assist in validating interpretations.

Recruitment

We sought participants who perceived themselves to have ideological beliefs that were significantly different from that of their organization. The recruitment strategy was intended to identify a homogenized group of full-time employees working in "misfit" environment, though it was expected that there would be some level of heterogeneity in terms of demographics, strength of political identity, and positions on various socio-political issues. Eligibility criteria was advertised on social media platforms, online survey websites (i.e., Prolific), and email broadcasts.

Sample

To be eligible for the study, participants had to be at least 18 years old, employed full-time in the United States, and perceive their organization's beliefs to be incongruent with their own political beliefs. Our sample was comprised of 20 full-time employees (35+ hours) who identified as ideological misfits (to various extents) and came from a variety of industries and occupations. The size of participants' organizations ranged from less than 100 (20%; $n = 4$) to 10,000 or more (35%; $n = 7$). In terms of supervisory roles, 65% reported not supervising the work of other employees ($n = 13$). Participants provided their U.S. political affiliation as well as their position on the political spectrum (e.g., liberal/conservative). Age ranged from 23 to 58 with an average of 35.1 years old (SD = . The gender composition was 60% women ($n = 12$). The racial/ethnic background

of the sample was 70% White (*n* = 14), 20% Hispanic (*n* = 4), 5% Black (*n* = 1), and 5% Asian (*n* = 1). For educational background, 20% had some college (*n* = 4), 45% obtained a four-year degree (*n* = 9), and 35% had a graduate or professional degree (*n* =7). There was also some mixed representation across social class; 30% identified as working class (*n* =6), while 45% were from the middle class (*n* = 9) and 25% were from the upper-middle (*n* = 5). When it came to organizational tenure, participants varied with 15% having spent less than 1 year (*n* =3), 40% with 1 to 4 years (*n* = 8), 30% with 5 to 9 years (*n* = 6), and 15% with 10 or more years (*n* = 3).

For political party affiliation, 40% of participants identified as Democrat (*n* = 8), 35% as Republican (*n* = 7), 20% as Independent (*n* = 4), and 5% as other (*n* = 1). However, when it came to political attitudes, there was greater variability. The sample was 50% conservative (extremely conservative, *n* = 2; conservative, *n* = 5; slightly conservative, *n* = 3) and 45% liberal (extremely liberal, *n* = 3; liberal, *n* = 5; slightly liberal, *n* = 1). One participant claimed to hold moderate views/middle of the road views, though identified as Democrat. For conservatives, 50% (*n* = 5) perceived to work in organizations that they deemed liberal, 40% (*n* = 4) worked in organizations that were extremely liberal, and 10% (*n* = 1) worked in one that was considered slightly liberal. On the other hand, 78% (*n* = 7) of liberals reported working for organizations that they considered to be conservative, 11% (*n* = 1) in extremely conservative organizations, and 11% (*n* = 1) in organizations that were slightly conservative. The moderate employee considered their organization to be extremely conservative.

Instrument

A total of 28 questions (including probes) were developed in collaboration with the study's second author. Interview questions were informed by careful review of themes in existing research on ideological misfit (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Chopik & Motyl, 2016), value congruence (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kalliath et al., 1999), and P-E fit (Edwards et al., 1998; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Furthermore, questions were designed to enable reflection and expansion on participants experiences at work.

Participants were asked questions on a variety of topics, including their perceptions on the current state of U.S. Politics ("What comes to mind when I say, U.S. politics?"), their ideological values ("Why are politics important to you?"), views on political ideology at work ("How are you made aware of political stances within your organization?", "What do you think about organizations/industries taking stances on social or political issues?"), and their experiences as ideological misfits at work ("How do you feel when you disagree with your organization's political views?", "How has your organization/industry responded to employees who have different political views?"). Special attention was given to responses related to participant reactions to ideological misfit at work (i.e., attitudes and behaviors). In line with semi-structured interview approaches, probe questions were asked where appropriate.

Procedure

Dates and times were agreed upon between the lead researcher and participants based on availability. Interview sessions were facilitated and recorded through Zoom (i.e., video conferencing software). This approach broadened the regional representation of the sample and spared participants from the inconvenience associated with travel. At

the beginning of each interview, a link to a Qualtrics survey was shared with the participant, which included a written consent form, information pertaining to the study purpose, and a demographic questionnaire. Interviews spanned approximately one hour. After each interview session, recordings were then transcribed by trained research assistants. All references to participants' organization, supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates were excluded from the transcription. Participants were compensated with $25 Amazon gift cards for their participation in the interview.

Analysis

Participant responses were analyzed using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Currently, no existing coding system exists that matches the ideological misfit framework, therefore, themes were constructed using an inductive approach. This reflexive approach involved two coders with the intent of reducing bias and strengthening credibility, dependability, and trustworthiness (Braun & Clarke, 2018; Braun et al., 2019). Furthermore, the use of two coders in reflexive thematic analysis can produce findings that better represent the collective views of participants (e.g., Halcomb et al., 2013). The advantages of two coders rest in the "contents of (coding) disagreements and the insights that discussions can provide to refine coding frames'' (Barbour, 2001, p. 1116). Thus, regular meetings were held between both researchers to discuss disagreements in coding and establish the boundaries of each theme (e.g., Fromme et al., 2004).

Both researchers coded 20 interviews independently and then met on several occasions to: (a) discuss the overarching themes across all coded interviews, (b) resolve discrepancies between new themes, and (c) improve and adjust the interpretation of the

codes. Additionally, concept mapping was leveraged to assist in visualizing and condensing codes into themes and subthemes (see final concept map in Figure 2; Byrne, 2021). Upon conclusion of initial coding phase, differences between coders were addressed and resolved until complete agreement was attained. Analyses were conducted in NVivo.

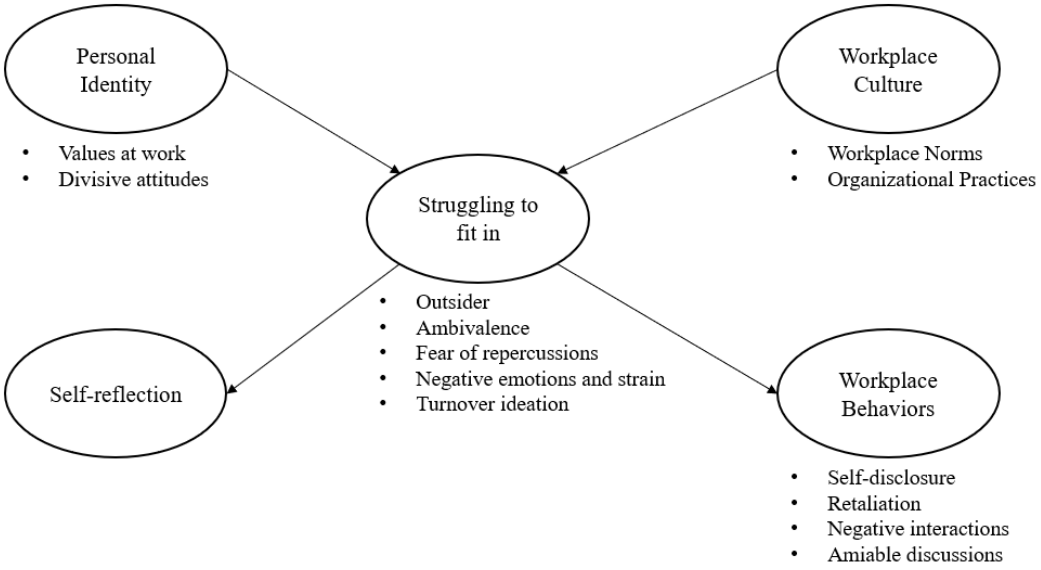

Figure 2. Final thematic map showing key themes and associated subthemes

Results

Across all interviews, participants described subjective workplace experiences related to ideological misfit. Five major themes associated with the research questions surfaced, which included 13 subthemes. The first theme was personal identity and consisted of two subthemes, values at work and divisive attitudes. The second theme was workplace culture, which was made up of two subthemes, norms and organizational practices. The third theme was Struggling to fit in and had five subthemes, which included outsider, ambivalence, fear of repercussions, negative emotions and strain, and

turnover ideation. The fourth theme was workplace behaviors, and included self-disclosure, retaliation, negative interactions, and amiable discussions as subthemes. The final theme was self-reflection and did not include any additional sub-themes.

Personal Identity

The analysis revealed that 85% (n = 17) of participants viewed their political ideology as a central part of their identity and core belief system. Furthermore, participants spoke at length about the state of U.S. politics, the effects of political issues on their personal lives, and their feelings about individuals who hold different views than their own.

Values at work

Individuals discussed the role of politics in their personal lives and ways in which ideology informs their belief system. This theme also includes mention of symbols and personality traits that may be indirectly associated with a person's ideology (85%; n = 17).

"My political beliefs are kind of like integral to who I am as a person, and so I try to live in a way that is supportive to the beliefs that I hold."

Participant 18 ("Liberal" in "Extremely Conservative" organization)

"It's a part of being honest with who I am. I can't--times before, I would just sit and nod, and it's not a thing I want to do. So, I'm not going to argue with you, but this is what I believe in. And I do think that because so many of—so much of what I've viewed has directly affected my life, that it is a part of who I am."

Participant 7 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I care about how it affects me and my family. I care about how it impacts the, you know, the country."

Participant 19 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"I think that is unavoidable to bring your beliefs into the workplace. Right, your beliefs and your values dictate how you live your life. That is unavoidable. It's like, you know, bringing part of your intelligence, bringing part of your brain into the workplace. That is

going to happen regardless of whether you want to or not. Same thing with like an emotional state or anything."

Participant 13 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

Divisive attitudes

For 95% (n = 19) of participants, divisiveness was the first thought that came to mind when asked about the state of U.S. politics. Individuals discussed division and polarization across the country on major political issues.

"It's turned very much into a divisive battle, like a civil war I want to say. You know, and technically, I feel that it is a civil war. If you're considering on a technological-end. Civil war today may look different than civil war in the 1800s. I think we're in one already."

Participant 14 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"I feel like both sides of the issues are very polarized and there is very little common ground, and even when there is common ground, nobody wants to see their side as looking, you know, weak or wrong, even if you know they're compromising so there's very little compromise. I guess that's the best way to phrase it."

Participant 17 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

Additionally, these notions were often accompanied by stereotypes, generalizations, and hostile sentiments toward individuals with different views (85%; n = 17).

"Part of the Democrats' like-overarching ideology now is to interfere with every aspect of your life, you know? Like everything you're doing is wrong, and we kinda intrude everywhere and tell you you're doing this wrong and that wrong, so it's kinda meant to be more intrusive."

Participant 11 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"I had to accept--okay, they believe what they believe, and that's good for them. Where some of them, they're kind of idiots. I mean, they're nice people, but they're idiots."

Participant 7 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"Feelings of entitlement. the government owes me this, the government owes me that. The government is a deep pocket. We can just reach in and take anything out anytime we want to."

Participant 13 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

Workplace culture

All participants identified attributes that informed their perceptions about their employer's political leanings. Specifically, they discussed how the actions and practices of their organization creates a perception about the organization's stance. Additionally, participants addressed aspects of the workplace culture that symbolize political stances.

Norms

The organization's culture was mentioned on several occasions, particularly as a conduit of organizational beliefs (90%; n = 18). Specifically, participants expressed views on how political stances are transmitted and enabled through organizational members. Often, participants interpreted organizational political views through the voices of its members. The notions within this subtheme reflect the norms associated with discussing politics at work and policies that restrict or enable political discussion at work. In some cases, individuals also reflected on how the culture seemed more favorable to employees who held congruent views with their organization.

"They definitely talk about things in the break room or--would share the latest headlines with each other, so it was definitely not discouraged. It was openly shared."

Participant 9 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"People will be very vocal about their political views and their support of whatever candidate. Even though technically you're not supposed to in the organization, everyone's always talking about it."

Participant 18 ("Liberal" in "Extremely conservative" organization)

"When I first started with the company, I was probably the only female in a group of basically like all White-old men, and for the most part, we had agreed on a lot of things. We did not agree on everything, but they talked politics, and so I almost felt like I had to, but I felt okay because we were more conservative overall."

Participant 20 ("Extremely Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"I'm just made aware of everybody's political stance through either--the messaging platform where it's like, well, especially over elections. It's been really--I would note every single person's political view because it--everyone is pretty comfortable and vocal about it because as a company, everyone's view is pretty similar."

Participant 2 ("Slightly conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

Organizational practices

Participants conveyed several observations describing their organization's form of communication and motivations for taking political stances (100%; $n = 20$).

"They did a lot with the Black Lives Matter. They did a lot with this Black history month. We're going to put all these documents out there and all this stuff about historically Black figures."

Participant 13 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"The organization at large is still very, very conservative. I made aware of that, by you know, emails from the chief or emails from you know the other, the other people that are involved."

Participant 15 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"There was a quarterly meeting that happened and normally it happens in person, but this time it was recorded ahead of time, and then sent to everybody where they kinda tell us about the going on in the company and this-the head of the company's politics was made very clear to me in that video. He kinda went on a long, almost a sermon, about God and politics at the end which was like 15 minutes long."

Participant 1 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

Participants also discussed how the ideological viewpoints of the organization inform personnel decisions or influence workplace structure. Some also attributed discriminatory workplace practices to ideological beliefs.

"The institution, you know, created a position that was designed to sort of bridge this gap. I guess a DEI, diversity, equity, and inclusion position, was specifically created. And that position itself was created and then boosted all the way to a senior level management position in the institution, you know? Somebody, you know, brand new to the institution came in and has this super senior role, I guess, in administration now."

Participant 12 ("Slightly Conservative" in "Slightly Liberal" organization)

"We've gone through three or four different general managers and plant managers and whatever and there's a lot of restructuring and the people they always pick to choose to lead and to be in charge, always seem to have a conservative viewpoint."

Participant 16 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I support diversity inclusion, but one of the implications of hiring is that you have to have at least one woman and at least one--but, basically a non-White person in the running for an open position."

Participant 20 ("Extremely Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"There has been a lot of discrimination going towards the LGBT community, which I don't agree with. I don't agree with that at all. And so that of course hinders my role because they are like 'we don't want, like, someone from the LGBT community working with us.' Even though they're extremely qualified and they have everything that they need, but just simply for that fact or they somehow found out, they decide not to."

Participant 4 ("Moderate" in "Extremely conservative" organization)

Struggling to fit in

This theme addressed the challenges with sharing political beliefs at work. Moreover, participants discussed the experience of holding views that were discrepant from the prevailing ideology of their organization. In total, 95% (n = 19) of participants expressed their difficulties with fitting in at work as a result of having different political views.

Outsider

This subtheme described instances when participants felt that the political stance of their organization was not representative of their beliefs and expressed a deficiency in their sense of belonging (95%, n = 19). This is specific to individuals' beliefs regarding the level of support they receive from their employer and its members. This also includes

hypothetical statements, such as the loss of support that would occur if the individual were to publicize their views and opinions (45%, *n* = 9).

"At one point, I was moved into a supervisor position, and the very first thing they did was on my, on my sweatshirt that I wore every day always had a safety pin for allyship as well as a picture of a uterus, "grow a pair"--small little pins I had at my desk. I wasn't like screaming it, but the first thing after they promoted me, my manager took me down to HR, and got me a new jacket. Like it was, 'here, we need you to project this image.'"

Participant 16 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I don't really feel like I'm part of my organization, you know it's more-the message that it brings to me is it's clear that they would prefer politically active employees rather than just the average day guy that wants to just work and support his family."

Participant 14 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"People who see you as part of that company will kind of assume that you also have that stance, and maybe the company wants you to also have that stance even if it doesn't align with you personally."

Participant 18 ("Liberal" in "Extremely conservative" organization)

"On one hand, I see the need, you know, for organizations to take stances on certain issues. But on the other hand, it seems kind of odd to do so because if you're a larger organization, you're obviously not speaking for 100% of your employees."

Participant 12 ("Slightly Conservative" in "Slightly Liberal" organization)

Ambivalence

For this theme, individuals articulated contradictory ideas, conflicting thoughts, or compromising their values regarding the expression of political ideology at work (90%, *n* = 18). This included mixed views about organizational stances on social issues, communication, or exceptions.

"We do have a lot of politically tied work. There's a lot about diversity and inclusion, about you know, equitable selection processes, so these are things that lean towards liberal ideas, which is what-something I completely support, which is why I work there, which is why I love working there. But at the same time, I feel like there's a-there should kinda be like a cap, and I don't know what that is, where it's like--it shouldn't be so extreme."

Participant 2 ("Slightly conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

“With the whole COVID thing, although we want to say that this is, obviously it's a pandemic, it becomes political, and it has been. So, when you have different ideologies from your, like let's say owner of the company or CEO, basically executives who are extremely conservative in the sense that they don't believe that this virus is a thing. They don't believe in following CDC guidelines. Basically, it's kind of been like, I would call it kind of like blind faith. And so, as HR myself, I'm kind of the voice of policies. The one who enforces the policies. People come to me when they're concerned about things, when they don't agree with things that are going on. And I found myself with my hands being tied.”

Participant 4 (“Moderate” in “Extremely conservative” organization)

“I feel conflicted. Conflicted is the word that comes to mind because part of me wants to feel confident that I could share my views in a professional manner, or express concern over something, but I also feel like being a manager-I don't know how-I almost feel like it might be riskier.”

Participant 20 (“Extremely Conservative” in “Liberal” organization)

Fear of repercussions

Participants expressed concerns about how work colleagues would perceive their misaligned views (90%, $n = 18$). This theme included fear of being mischaracterized by colleagues at work and experiencing negative social repercussions because of their beliefs.

“I think it’s a dangerous place to be and that somebody like me cannot or feels uncomfortable to talk almost cause like maybe my job would be at risk, maybe my reputation, maybe the way that people see me is threatened.”

Participant 2 (“Slightly conservative” in “Liberal” organization)

“If they were a liberal, they could view me as an individual that they don't, wouldn't want to work with if they had a choice-or view me as somebody that would not, they wouldn't want to spend free time with.”

Participant 12 (“Slightly Conservative” in “Slightly Liberal” organization)

“I’d rather keep my opinions to myself, and let people like me, than let them know who I am, and risk that they wouldn't like me.”

Participant 13 (“Conservative” in “Extremely Liberal” organization)

“I haven't really voiced that opinion to supervisors out of fear of like punishment for it.”

Participant 18 (“Liberal” in “Extremely conservative” organization)

Negative emotions and strain

This theme describes participants' experiencing negative feelings and attitudes at work because of ideological misfit. Codes include feeling ignored, disappointment, dehumanization, feeling shut down, frustration, decreased morale, hopelessness, feeling pressured, feeling offended, and feeling sad. This was mentioned by 95% (n = 19) of participants.

"I just get so heated and emotional right away."
Participant 14 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"When people like come to you with like a YouTube video and they swear that they have like the right information, it's just like enraging, but I don't- I try not to let it affect me emotionally."
Participant 5 ("Slightly Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I will say I got really annoyed when I saw an article, not from a CEO, but from a different leader that was about White privilege."
Participant 20 ("Extremely Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"Knowing the head of the company supports Donald Trump makes me feel bad about the company I'm working for."
Participant 1 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"Usually negative emotions, usually resentment, bitterness. You know, it's something you can't change, but you have to live with like it's, you know, you look at it and it's like why are we doing it this way or what's the upside, or you know? So yeah, I would say negative, negative emotions."
Participant 11 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"I just feel like ostracized because I- my views are not aligned with theirs."
Participant 9 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

Turnover ideation

This theme considers the feelings and beliefs about an individual's job, which are impacted by ideological differences at work (65%, n =13). This includes mention of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment.

"Overall, I would say good things about my workplace, but really, the politics that I know that the head of the company holds are my biggest issue and the reason I wouldn't stay there. If everything-if that were different, then it would be a reason for me to stay at the company."

Participant 1 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"If I could find a job somewhere that would pay me just as well, with all the other benefits and I believed in the political ideology, I'd go."

Participant 13 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"It definitely made me feel like I didn't want to be there that long anymore. Like if this is the kind of organization I am going to be in, it's just not right."

Participant 6 ("Slightly Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"Political ideology is one of those things where like, if you start feeling left out by your company, then you're not going to be happy at the end of the day—you feel like, it's part of the company just respecting you. Just like they respect your job, just like they respect, you know—you don't feel like the company is going in the right direction. Or if you feel like the company is being disrespectful to you, these are all things that people consider whether they want to keep their job or if they want to find something else. It's more uncomfortable. The more insecure they feel, the less likely they are to stay at their job."

Participant 7 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"Initially I thought, oh, this might be a problem. I should probably look for another job."

Participant 9 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

Workplace behaviors

This theme focused on the behaviors individuals engaged in at work, which stemmed from ideological misfit. All participants referenced destructive behaviors (e.g., counterproductivity, incivility, conflict) that targeted the organization, other individuals, or described experiences where they were targeted. However, in some cases, participants shared instances where conversations with others maintained a level of amicability despite differing viewpoints.

Self-disclosure

Participants discussed their views on sharing political beliefs at work (85%; n = 17). Additionally, they shared examples and instances where they felt forced to suppress

their views (80%; *n* = 16) and moments when they felt the need to speak up (50%; *n* = 10), thereby signaling their political identity to colleagues and supervisors. Conservative and liberal participants who discussed openly expressing their ideological identity at work were split evenly.

"As a woman and a minority, I try to stay as invisible as possible, so I try not to have an opinion about things in the workplace, and I try not to bring up my views especially if I'm outnumbered, and I know that I'm outnumbered."

Participant 5 ("Slightly Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I keep my opinion silent, because I don't want, I don't want to have--I don't know—tension. Like, I just want everyone to be able to perform their best and not influenced by that."

Participant 20 ("Extremely Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

Individuals also expressed the importance of being true to oneself in justifying their political expression at work.

"I had just said on the texting thread at one time when it was getting political, said, bear in mind not everyone on this thread has similar viewpoints or the same viewpoints and I would just, you know, caution you to respect that when considering what to post on this thread. I just literally said something like that, and then they did actually stop making it so political and that so that was nice."

Participant 14 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"I'm in the union. I pay dues every week. And my union, they were all for Biden. All the things they sent us about going to vote and blah blah blah. And I responded with, you know, I showed them the clip of when Biden was yelling at that poor worker saying, 'I don't work for you,' and like, this is what you want?"

Participant 10 ("Extremely Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"I would say that being able to just be honest and be upfront about what I believe and about the way I view politics at large has personal benefit to me in that I don't have to keep it to myself."

Participant 15 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

Amiable discussions

This theme describes talking about political and social issues in a lighthearted manner without initiating a negative interaction or feeling (65%, *n* = 13). This notion was

split nearly evenly between liberals (n = 7) and conservatives (n = 6). Additionally, this may include amiable discussions, use of humor, and setting differences aside at work. Participants express interest in talking with others who hold opposing views in a civil manner. Individuals describe pleasant interactions with others and a desire to get along with others despite holding different views.

"I like to kind of foster an area where we can talk about things like that. We can talk about politics, and we can talk about other issues that might be sensitive, might be sensitive in the workplace. But I, I personally enjoy talking about it, you know I like having the discussions."

Participant 15 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"They've been pretty pleasant. We've usually had to take it in a joking manner you know, kinda humorous when we laugh about it, you know, we've never actually gotten into a heated argument over anything, you know? It's kinda like 'oh, you like that, haha,' or 'I saw this. I thought of you, haha,' things--keep it light. But we have a good work relationship, and I get the job done and as long as the job is getting done, you know, she doesn't care."

Participant 11 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"I've been engaged on both levels as far as with colleagues and the superiors, and so I've engaged them. They usually stay fairly friendly, so there's no, like, hostility about it."

Participant 17 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I think it is good to at least talk with somebody who you expect to at least share your perspective or at least share your value system to make sure that you're not crazy and not overreacting or something like that."

Participant 3 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

Retaliation

Participants discussed potential consequences of not fitting in as it pertains to counterproductive behaviors targeting their employer (70%; n = 14). Additionally, participants were nearly even on this theme with 8 out of 14 participants (57%) identifying as liberal. This includes behaviors such as withdrawal, sabotage, procrastinating or wasting time, and productivity.

"We were asked to do something for Trump Hotels. So, I looked at it, and while I could have said yep, this job cost $50, I look at it go nope, this job costs $55. I am just, moving your price--not moving it up enough that somebody is going to be like 'hey, that looks out of whack,' but just enough that like-man, I want you to pay extra because I am not happy about doing a job for Trump Hotels."

Participant 16 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"Using my work time to look up lots of different political articles and read them."

Participant 1 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I think they work less hard you know. I think if I was stuck at a company, and I didn't like what they were doing, I as an employee, I would maybe work slower."

Participant 11 ("Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

Negative interactions

All participants shared instances where they were the target of incivility, bullying, social undermining, discrimination, or differential treatment. Participants described their relationships and interactions with coworkers and supervisors. Also, this includes behaviors involving arguments with coworkers and/or supervisors, abusive supervision, gossip, intentionally avoiding other colleagues, and threats of retaliation.

"I really don't think that he likes the fact that I voted for Trump. And I wouldn't say he-well, I kinda would say he holds it against me. He can be a very mean person, and he's a bully."

Participant 10 ("Extremely Conservative" in "Extremely Liberal" organization)

"They ended up like kicking me out of this meeting multiple times, which was very frustrating. And I think it did have to do with that discussion, because they were not happy when I was done with that discussion."

Participant 18 ("Liberal" in "Extremely conservative" organization)

"I've definitely seen a lot of sexism, a lot of 'I get paid less, I don't get promoted, I don't get this.' It's something I wasn't overly aware of when I was younger and when I first started in the workforce."

Participant 16 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I know that feedback came from her regarding my performance, which was going to basically reflect my ability to stay within the [job] because it's like okay, how is you know, [participant name] doing with these goals that we had set for him to reach? Are you seeing that he's achieving these goals, or do you have concerns? And she had voiced a lot of concerns rather than things that I had done well in my learning plan. And it put me in a tough spot."

Participant 14 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"To me and to others, yeah, he's definitely yelled at some girls in the office made them cry."

Participant 9 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I've not called certain people in my work crew because I don't feel like dealing with them. I'd rather lug a three-hundred-pound refrigerator up steps with a hand truck with like tracks on the back and a strap, and I'll just do it myself instead of having it be half as much work but have to deal with this guy talking QAnon and shit. You know, like I'd rather hurt myself over actually getting help."

Participant 8 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Slightly Conservative" organization)

Self-reflection

Participants discussed how they have come to terms with their experiences as ideological misfits and at times, contemplate their own views, and express optimism (50%, n = 10; 4 of 10 identified as liberal). Participants may engage in self-reflection through seeking support and validation from others (i.e., family, friends, allies at work, etc.). Individuals may also find ways to counteract feelings of misfit through engaging in activities outside of work that promote their political ideals.

"I'm still there even though I don't agree because I do enjoy my work, and I think if you can find a balance, it could work out."

Participant 9 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"When somebody challenges my view, I go back, and I have to think again in what I believe in. So, if there's no one challenging your views, then do you actually strongly believe in what you believe in, or are you just saying that?"

Participant 2 ("Slightly conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"What I find I tend to do is, it makes me compensate more in other areas of my life. So, if I know my employer is you know, supporting conservative causes, I might spend extra time going, well I'm going to do a letter writing campaign for this, and if I write 10 letters at home, then at least I'm doing something to counteract this."

Participant 16 ("Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

"I saw some ways in which maybe my own reasoning wasn't as crystal clear or foolproof as I was thinking and there's definitely room for me in which I can, you know, I consider certain different aspects. I just wish there were people that were open and friendly enough from the other side of the political spectrum that would be willing to have just like a civil conversation and discussion about these things."

Participant 14 ("Conservative" in "Liberal" organization)

"I think that everybody could kind of figure out that we all share a lot more common ground, then, then we don't. And I think that's how things could actually get done."

Participant 15 ("Extremely Liberal" in "Conservative" organization)

Discussion

The current study sought to understand the experiences of ideological misfits in the workplace. Primarily, the research question was aimed at exploring the attitudes and behaviors of employees as it relates to their political and organizational identity and whether their perceptions evoke feelings of marginalization. We address the general research question based on our themes using a P-E fit framework.

Political ideology informs individuals' identity and values

We investigated individuals' attitudes regarding political ideology to understand the amount of importance they attached to their ideals. This notion complements the "person" component in the P-E fit framework and offers a contextualization of the relationship between their political beliefs and workplace environment. Our analysis revealed that 85% (n = 17) of participants viewed their political beliefs as an essential part of their personal identity. Indeed, an individual's identity is based on the values that form their core self-concept (Hitlin, 2003).

Given that supplementary fit addresses how individuals evaluate their similarities with the environment, this initial theme was consistent with research that conceptualizes fit as the match between individual and organizational values (Edwards & Cable 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Furthermore, political ideology is a known dispositional factor of individuals with research indicating modest to strong relationships with heritability (Alford et al., 2005; Settle et al., 2010), neurocognitive functioning, and self-regulation (Amodio er al, 2007). There is also much research associating ideology with Big Five personality traits, such as conscientiousness and openness (Carney et al., 2008; Gerber et al., 2010; McCrae, 1996). Therefore, individuals' expression of their ideological values may be considered as a reflection of their personal identity.

Ideological beliefs as driver of division

Our findings revealed that political ideology seems to engender a divisive climate. For 80% (n = 16) of participants, this was their initial perception of the current state of national politics. Additionally, 85% (n = 17) of individuals appeared to hold admonishing views toward groups with opposing beliefs. At times, participants often affirmed the importance of staying true to one's values, however, were unwilling to validate the views of individuals who were politically dissimilar. Furthermore, this theme is critical to understanding employees' reactions in terms of the perceived discrepancy between their ideology and their organization's political values. Research also suggests that stronger perceptions of misfit are likely when employees have higher levels of core self-evaluation, which may trigger negative attitudes, attempts to change the work environment, or quit their job (De Haas & Van Eerde, 2015). Throughout the course of

the interviews, participants shared aspects of their identity through their descriptions of the politicized work environment.

The organization's ideology is communicated in various ways

Participants drew upon cues in their work environment to infer the political ideology of their organization. While an organization might not consistently convey its ideological leanings explicitly, participants appeared to derive their perceptions from the workplace culture. Specifically, 100% indicated organizational practices (i.e., hiring, fundraising, internal/external communication, etc.) as the main source for their perceptions of misfit, while 90% (n = 18) added that workplace norms also contribute to this. These themes described *how* participants recognize incongruence. Interestingly, this notion is not often discussed in the P-E fit literature. Rather, much of the literature focuses on the perceived discrepancy between employees and their work environment, but rarely discusses how an individual determines their level of fit (van Vianen, 2018).

Based on our analysis, an organization's political ideology seems to be inferred by the prevalence of political expression by its members. In many cases, participants detailed how they are made aware of their organization's political ideology. Although perceptions can be influenced by leadership communication (i.e., internal company emails), social media posts, or public statements, verbal statements made by colleagues and supervisors were often mentioned as the most prominent reference for environmental attributes (75%; n = 15).

Organizations also engage in practices that seem to communicate ideological stances to employees, such as hiring approaches. The relationship between political ideology and preference for diversity and hierarchical structures is supported by research

(Jost et al., 2003; Jost et al., 2018), suggesting that organizational design and structure may be informed by ideological leanings. Additionally, several participants commented on the politicization of the COVID-19 pandemic, and that organizational health and safety policies were often aligned with the perceived ideological beliefs of the organization. Thus, inferences about the organization's ideology may potentially affect participants' views of the organization's commitment to workplace safety (Neal et al., 2000; Schneider, 1975).

The interaction of individual and organization ideology

Considering that perceptions of fit are derived from the interaction between individual and organizational values, research suggests that larger discrepancies induce stronger negative attitudes and reactions (Idson et al., 2000; van Vianen, 2018). Participants sensitivity to the discrepancy can potentially be explained by the strength of their ideological beliefs. Additionally, it is possible that participants downplay this discrepancy and leverage coping and defense strategies to resolve misfit through cognitive distortion (Edwards et al., 1998). Specifically, individuals may deny or underestimate the true ideological discrepancy between themselves and their organization by describing their views as moderate and practical while perceiving their organization's stance as contrary and excessive (French et al., 1974). While these approaches may momentarily cloak objective misfit with one's perceptions of misfit, inevitably, denying this reality can lead to prolonged strain (Cole & Milstead, 1989).

Misfits experience threat, negative attitudes, and strain

Research on P-E fit has found much support for the relationship between stress-strain outcomes (Cooper et al., 2001; Edwards & Cooper, 1990; Longua et al., 2009).

Albeit this research often approaches fit through a person-job lens (i.e., needs-supplies and demands-abilities), rather than a conventional person-organization conceptualization. Nonetheless, in the case of political ideology, where misfits may perceive aspects of their identity as not widely accepted at work, stress and strain can still be experienced. Thus, considering that political ideology also correlates with a variety of personality characteristics (e.g., openness to experience, self-esteem, tolerance for ambiguity, etc.) (e.g., Jost et al., 2003), it is likely that ideological incongruence disrupts employees' affective states at work. Furthermore, depending on the strength of an employee's ideological identification and the apparent political affiliation of their organization, ideological misfit can lead to an employee feeling a sense of instability and lack of belonging.

The situational circumstances experienced by misfits creates an atmosphere where they are regularly faced with the choice of suppressing their values or risk experiencing a resource loss (e.g., reputation, support, interpersonal relationships, etc.). Prior research related to stigmatized identities has found that suppressing one's identity can lead to various forms of negative emotions (e.g., frustration) and psychological strain (e.g., anxiety and depression) (Keith, 2013; Newheiser et al., 2017). Moreover, research has found that concealing an aspect of one's identity (e.g., race, gender, sexual orientation, etc.) influences perceptions of discrimination and job attitudes, including job satisfaction and turnover ideation (Griffith & Hebl, 2002; Madera et al., 2012). To some extent, this notion is supported by Bermiss and McDonald (2018), who found that conservative misfits working in the private equity industry were more likely to quit their firm than

liberal misfits. However, while our analysis found that 45% (n = 9) of employees considered quitting their job, 6 of the 9 (67%) participants identified as liberal.

Manifestation of misfit in workplace behaviors

The manifestation of employee behaviors resulting from ideological misfit may potentially be explained by the norms established in the workplace culture. Hebl and colleagues (2000) found that individuals are more cautious about conversations with members of an "out-group" than with others from their own group. Expressing identities, despite the risks described by participants in the current study, may enhance job attitudes and assuage turnover intentions. Furthermore, Griffith and Hebl (2002) found that LGBTQ employees experienced higher levels of job satisfaction and less psychological strain when they disclosed their identities rather than suppress it.

Ideological misfit as a source of workplace conflict and undesirable behaviors

Nearly all participants described one or more components of counterproductive work behaviors, including incivility, tension, arguments and verbal altercations, withdrawal, retaliation, and workplace bullying. Mackie and colleagues (2000) found that strong intergroup identification was associated with anger toward an opponent group, which subsequently influenced behavioral tendencies such as arguing, confronting, opposing, and attacking members of the opposing group. Some research has found that the dissimilarity in openness to experience between employees and their organization negatively influenced organizational deviance (Liao et al., 2004). A nationally-representative study on political polarization found that 40-60% of individuals endorsed moral disengagement (i.e., psychological justification for harming others; see Bandura,

Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996), which offers some explanation as to how individuals justify harm toward political opposition (Kalmoe & Mason, 2019).

Personal growth and finding common ground

At times, employees expressed ways in which they managed their ideological misfit without resorting to quitting their job or engaging in detrimental behaviors (50%; *n* = 10). In few cases, participants confessed that their viewpoints had softened upon amicably discussing their views with others. This may be a tactic ideological misfits engage in to attempt reconciling their lack of fit (e.g., eradicate negative perceptions from others) or try to rationalize the situational context and counteract negative job attitudes (Williamson & Perumal, 2021).

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The P-E fit literature offers substantial evidence of how poor fit can be detrimental to employees' workplace attitudes and behaviors (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; van Vianen, 2018). Specifically, this impacts individuals' sense of belonging (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hogg & Terry, 2000), affective commitment (Finegan, 2000), attrition (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and interactions with others (Edwards & Cable, 2009). While conservative and liberal values may be easily distinguishable to the keen political observer, there seemed to be substantial similarity in the experiences of individuals despite their ideological differences.

P-O fit has significant implications for how individuals are impacted by various workplace experiences, including emotional distress, strain, and destructive behaviors. Additionally, individuals may often resort to exiting a job that they may otherwise

succeed in on account of the experienced incongruence. More importantly, this study reaffirms that an individual does not necessarily need to hold strong beliefs (in this case political attitudes) to experience misfit. Alternatively, the discomfort induced by misfit could force some employees to mask the actual magnitude of discrepancy through various defense mechanisms (Edwards et al., 1998). In either case, enduring misfit or attempting to resolve it is likely to subject an individual to negative consequences, including stress and strain (Edwards, 2008).

Given the findings of the current study, organizations may consider enhanced socialization techniques, particularly during the onboarding stage, and providing adequate resources for employees to succeed at work. Certainly, fit considers numerous variables in the work environment—not just political ideology. While it may not be realistic to only select employees who align with organizational values, or for organizations to match employee values, organizations can mitigate the negative impact of ideological misfit by demonstrating support in other ways and supporting employee needs to compensate for the lack of fit.

Limitations and future directions

While our sample reflected a balance of liberal and conservative misfits, there was some variation in the strength of ideological beliefs between individuals and their organization. Despite this, our sense is that these participants offer an appropriate representation of employees with varying views. Perhaps the most glaring limitation is that employees who would be "congruent" with their organization, were not included in the study for comparison. It is possible that congruent employees may also experience moments of ideological misfit between themselves and their employer. This may be more

likely in the realm of political ideology, where those with the same ideology may still hold strongly opposing views at an issues level (i.e., social and economic issues; Claassen et al., 2015; Feldman & Johnston, 2014). While this is a potential area for future research to explore, the current study was concerned with understanding the experiences of employees who see themselves as ideological misfits. While the analysis revealed many insights, future research may also explore how employees compensate for misfit (e.g., through cognitive reframing) or how organizations buffer the effects of misfit through supportive practices.

Additionally, our study did not delve into intersectional frameworks which may further explore how ideological misfit interacts with different gender and racial identities. Beyond this, other conceptualizations of ideological misfit may be examined at various levels of the organization, including person-supervisor fit and person-team fit (van Vianen, 2018). For example, individuals may find that being surrounded by other like-minded employees may buffer the effects of ideological misfit at an organizational level. This notion evokes a sentiment expressed by Participant 20, a conservative employee working in a liberal organization, who felt comfortable around immediate team members who were also conservative and open about their political views.

Given the personality differences found between liberals and conservatives in the empirical literature (Feldman & Johnston, 2018; Jost et al., 2003), it might be expected that ideological misfit would be experienced differently by both groups. However, in general, our analysis did not find substantial differences between liberal misfits and conservative misfits. This is potentially a consequence of our relatively small sample.

Future research may examine whether ideological affiliation plays a role in how workplace outcomes are manifested through these dispositional mechanisms.

Conclusion

The results of our study support the notion that ideological misfits may endure a range of negative experiences at work that clash with their self-concept and threaten their core values. Furthermore, we contribute to the broader P-E fit literature by addressing the personal and environmental factors that influence employee fit perceptions (van Vianen, 2018). In the workplace, ideological misfits perceive incongruence through various elements in their work environment, including cultural norms and practices. Additionally, this lack of fit instills fear, negative emotions, and thoughts of quitting for the focal employee. Ultimately, these affective states are driven by an inadequate sense of belonging. While ideological misfits, prefer to hold their beliefs privately out of fear of repercussions, there are instances when they may disclose their values in cases where their values are threatened. Moreover, the combined effects of the work environment and their emotional state may foster hostile interactions with colleagues and counteract productivity. On a more positive note, employees do recognize the value of finding common ground for the sake of coexisting with others with different views. This sometimes leads to amicable exchanges where people can look past their differences and endeavor towards a more unified state.

III. SAME FIT, DIFFERENT DAY: CROSS-SECTIONAL AND LONGITUDINAL ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN IDEOLOGICAL MISFIT AND JOB SATISFACTION (STUDY 2)

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Over the last two decades, research has found political ideology to be a central aspect to one's identity, which is stable over time (Anglim et al., 2019; Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Huddy et al., 2007; Jost et al., 2003; Mixon et al., 2019; Stern, 2019; Vecchione et al., 2016). However, the same does not seem to hold true for organizations and industries that have increasingly taken firm political stances through campaign contributions, lobbying, and various public relations strategies over the years (Bonica, 2014; Hansen & Rocca, 2018; Martin & Peskowitz, 2018; Newton & Uysal, 2013). While an individual's ideology may remain stable, the industry political stances may change over time and can be tracked based on contributions to federal elections, campaigns, and candidates running for office. Industries demonstrate political ideology through campaign contributions or overt stances on socio-political issues transmitted through media outlets or systemic structural changes (Bonica, 2013). This may shift substantially especially during election cycles or when the external environment is disrupted by societal developments (i.e., social movements, technological advances). It is plausible that a shift in ideology, salient or not to employees, will elicit a strong response from employees who maintain partisan political ideologies (Kalmoe & Mason, 2019).

Since political ideology is known to be associated with resistance to change, fear or threat of loss, and tolerance of inequality (Jost et al., 2003), a sudden change to any of these attributes can negatively influence one's job attitudes, including job satisfaction and organizational commitment. To some extent, it may impact an individual's sense of belonging and threaten aspects of their identity. The current study examined the relationship between person-industry ideological misfit and job satisfaction. Moreover, the analysis assessed this association across three time points. Furthermore, the

relationship between ideological misfit and job satisfaction was analyzed cross-sectionally and longitudinally to assess how change in ideological misfit effects the stability of job satisfaction. Thus, the aim of our analysis was to address the extent to which person-industry ideological misfit is related to job satisfaction. Additionally, we considered whether employee job satisfaction changed over time with person-industry ideological fit.

Conceptualizing Person-Industry Ideological Misfit

We define person-industry fit as the match between employee's ideological values and those of their industry of employment. In this case, it is expected that industry ideology trickles down to the organization level, which is then experienced by employees. Industries are also evidently political by virtue of their lobbying efforts (Bonica, 2013; Wouters, 2020). We argue that industry political ideology is embedded in the design and structure of organizations through classical and humanistic tenets shaped by I-O Psychology (Likert, 1961, 1967). While this conceptualization does not appear in the I-O Psychology literature, it parallels other forms of fit tied to individuals' teams, supervisors, jobs, and organizations (van Vianen, 2018). Furthermore, as found in previous research using other operationalizations of fit, misfit is known to be related to stress (Edwards & Cooper, 1990), job attitudes (Ostroff et al., 2005), and to some extent, performance (Arthur et al., 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

In operationalizaing person-industry fit, the use of campaign contributions to estimate the ideological leanings of an individual, organization, or industry has been tested and validated through sevevral studies across numerous industries and organizations (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Bonica, 2013; Bonica, 2014). This affords

the opportunity to develop an objective measure of fit which is reliable and valid for estimating the ideology of a given industry. This information can then be used to assess workplace outcomes according to the discrepancy between employee and industry ideology.

Some research has demonstrated ways in which environmental stimuli can provoke the expression of ideology (Jost, Kruglanski, & Simon, 1999; Jost et al., 2003), which may contribute to how individuals experience political ideology at work. For instance, ambiguity or disruption in an organizational setting may trigger resistance to change, but this could be rationalized based on the risk-aversive traits of conservatives who seek to mitigate undesirable outcomes. To support this, an extensive review by Jost and colleagues (2003) found that a high level of uncertainty avoidance was linked to stronger expressions of political conservatism (i.e., resistance to change, inequality). The onset of these environmental factors could stimulate a response by an organization and its members that exposes political agendas, special interests, and orientation of their values.

There is also evidence that high levels of P-O misfit engender negative workplace attitudes, such as affective commitment and job satisfaction (Finegan, 2000; Ostroff et al., 2005; Vogel et al., 2016). For instance, in a meta-analysis by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005), different conceptualizations of job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, satisfaction with coworkers, and satisfaction with supervisor) were associated with corresponding forms of fit (i.e., P-J fit, P-O fit, P-T fit, and P-S fit). These findings were also supported by Ostroff and colleagues (2005), which showed that congruence between employee's values and the cultural values of the organization were positively related to job satisfaction. The study also found that

perceptual fit (i.e., employee's perceptions of organizational values and the organization's values perceived by other employees) was related to job satisfaction. In both instances, the relationships between fit and job satisfaction were nonlinear, lending additional support to previous findings in congruence research (see van Vianen, 2018).

Job Satisfaction and P-E Fit

Job satisfaction refers to an employee's affective appraisal of their job, which usually describes positive or undesirable attitudes toward their job or work environment (Locke, 1976). Emotional, cognitive, and behavioral components are said to contribute to employees' appraisal of satisfaction. In addition, this has been supported by meta-analyses, which have shown strong support for the relationship between personality and job satisfaction (Bowling, Hendricks, & Wagner, 2008; Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Specifically, this research underscores that high levels of positive affect as well as most Big Five facets (i.e., emotional stability, agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness) influence higher levels of job satisfaction, albeit with the stipulation that this could be biased because of employee self-selection (Dormann & Zapf, 2001). Much research has highlighted the association between personality and fit (Cable & Judge, 1997; Tranberg, Slane, & Ekeberg, 1993; Tsabari, Tziner, & Meir, 2005; Ryan & Kristof-Brown, 2003; Wille, Tracey, Feys, & De Fruyt, 2014). Given the research that establishes evidence for the relationship between political ideology and personality (Anglim, Sojo, Ashford, Newman, & Marty, 2019; Jost, Glaser, Kruglanski, & Sulloway, 2003) and personality and job satisfaction, it is likely that ideological misfit at the industry level will negatively influence job satisfaction.

H1. Misfit between employee political ideology (i.e., liberal or conservative) and industry political ideology will be associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

While stable levels of job satisfaction seem to be mostly attributed to dispositional traits, changing workplace conditions may undermine the stability of job attitudes. Dormann and Zapf's (2001) meta-analysis revealed that stability in job satisfaction declined when work stressors (e.g., organizational problems, uncertainty) were added as control variables. This suggests that ideological misfit may explain some variance in this decline if it is recognized as a source of stress.

H2. Subsequent job satisfaction (i.e., at time 2 and time 3) will decrease as the discrepancy between employee and industry political ideology (i.e., liberal misfit or conservative misfit at time 1) increases.

Furthermore, if industry conditions change or exhibit instability (in this case, a shift in their ideological agenda), this will also negatively impact job attitudes. Thus, the strength of an employee's ideological identification and the apparent political affiliation of her/his industry will have significant implications for how ideological misfit can destabilize an employee's job attitudes over time.

H3. An increasing change in the discrepancy between employee and industry political ideology (i.e., liberal or conservative misfit) will be associated with a decrease in job satisfaction over time.

Additionally, some research suggests that misfit experiences may be different for liberals and conservatives. While this is an important question to address as support continues to strengthen, more evidence is needed prior to justifying these differences within the workplace environment. However, findings from Bermiss and McDonald

(2018) ultimately suggested that conservative misfits demonstrate a higher likelihood of quitting. Though, this also raises the question of why liberal misfits choose to remain employed within their organization or industry. Nonetheless, collectively, the literature on personality, fit, and job satisfaction suggest that extended exposure to an ideologically dissimilar environment can negatively influence job attitudes, especially for those employees on the extreme end of the ideological continuum. The current study, it is likely that job satisfaction will decline at a greater rate for ideological misfits than for those employees who are ideologically similar to their industry.

Method

Sample

Participants were sampled from the *General Social Surveys* (GSS) Panel Interviews, which were conducted from 2006 through 2014. The GSS is a nationally-representative survey that captures a wide-range of attitudes and behaviors of people living in the United States. Three panels were used from the GSS (2006, 2008, and 2010) to examine the relationship between employee and industry ideological fit. Each panel contained data from three waves, which were spaced approximately two years apart between each wave (e.g., data collection for the 2006 panel occurred in 2006, 2008, and in 2010). To be included in this study, respondent's must have reported working for someone else, and employed full-time. Additionally, since the current study focuses on examining person-industry ideological fit, participants must have also included information about their industry of employment. Furthermore, the sample size for each panel varied depending on cross-sectional (i.e., time 1) and longitudinal (i.e., all three time points) analyses.

2006 panel

After applying the eligibility criteria**,** the 2006 panel began with 843 participants at time 1 (2006), 291 at time 2 (2008), and then 165 at time 3 (2010). Therefore, for cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses, the sample size for 2006 was 843 and 165 participants, respectively. Within the 2006 sample, 160 different industries were represented at time 1 and 57 industries at time 3. At time 1, the sample was 51% female (n = 427). The mean age of the sample was 40.6 (SD = 11.7) years old. For supervisory roles, 39.7% (n =335) reported supervising the work of others at their job.

2008 panel

The 2008 panel had 846 participants at time 1 (2008), then 298 at time 2 (2010), and then 165 at time 3 (2012). For cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses, the sample size for 2008 was 846 and 165 participants, respectively. There were 175 industries were represented at time 1 and 70 industries at time 3. At time 1, The sample was 46% female (n = 391). The mean age of the sample was 42.1 (SD = 12.1) years old. For supervisory roles, 40.3% (n = 335) reported supervising the work of others at their job.

2010 panel

The 2010 Panel had 771 participants at time 1 (2010), 293 at time 2 (2012), and 176 at time 3 (2014). For cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses, the sample size for 2010 was 771 and 176 participants, respectively. For 2010, 176 industries were represented at time 1 and 67 industries at time 3. The sample was 52.4% female (n = 404). The mean age of the sample was 42.3 (SD = 12.3) years old. For supervisory roles, 39% (n = 301) reported supervising the work of others at their job.

Procedure

To create the primary dataset, we used secondary data from the GSS Panel study which spanned the years 2006 to 2014. These data included information regarding participants' political ideology, employment status, industry of employment, gender, and age. The GSS codes participants' industry according to the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS). Additionally, this data was combined with data from the Center of Responsive Politics[1] (CRP) to derive a proxy measure for industry political ideology. The CRP serves as a robust clearinghouse for data and analysis regarding money in politics. Campaign finance data is derived from the Federal Election Commission (FEC), the Internal Revenue Service (IRS), the Senate Office of Public Records, and various information-collectors in Congress. The CRP's use of FEC data as a primary source offers some important context.

Since 1989, the FEC has maintained records of any political contributions (e.g., PACs, candidates) exceeding $200. One of the primary advantages of using the CRP as opposed to the FEC datasets is its intuitive accessibility. However, the CRP goes beyond FEC offerings by grouping contributions from political action committees (PACs) and individual contributions by industry. The justification for this is that corporations will often lean on contributions made by individuals who are affiliated with the organization. Usually, this is because corporations are forbidden from making direct political donations from their treasuries (*Federal Elections Commission*, 2021), but contributions from their institutional representatives are often used to draw political influence (Bonica, 2013).

[1] The CRP is the most comprehensive resource for federal campaign contributions and lobbying data available online. Data is derived from *Federal Election Commission* (FEC) datasets and made publicly accessible by CRP.

Indeed, research has found associations between employer contributions and employees' political attitudes (Bonica, 2016), which strengthens this assumption.

GSS data and CRP data points were collected separately. Subsequently, both datasets were merged based on their industry codes using computer and hand matching techniques. Specifically, GSS industry codes were matched to CRP industry categories for each year (i.e., election cycle) using NAICS descriptors as reference.

Measures

Employee political ideology

Our primary research question focused on the ideological fit between employees and their industry of employment and the relationship with job satisfaction. Therefore, it was necessary to identify measures of political ideology for person and environment components that could be used to examine alignment (and conversely, misfit). The GSS includes an abundance of items relating to individuals' attitudes, behaviors, and values. Included in this comprehensive dataset is a one-item measure which captures the political ideology of an individual. The item was "we hear a lot of talk these days about liberals and conservatives. I'm going to show you a seven-point scale on which the political views that people might hold are arranged from extremely liberal--point 1--to extremely conservative--point 7. Where would you place yourself on this scale?" This single item was used to report individual political ideology at each time point. For interpretation purposes, higher values on this measure indicate higher levels of conservatism

Industry political ideology

The aggregated donations to Democratic and Republican causes (by year) were used as a proxy to form the political ideology for each industry represented in the GSS. Additionally, definitions from NAICS were used as a reference to determine the closest match between GSS and CRP industry codes. To develop an index of political ideology, the total donations to Republican candidates and parties were divided by the total political donations for the given election cycle (i.e., percentage of total donations). This was done to match the direction of the scale for employee political ideology (i.e., higher values represent higher conservatism). Therefore, scores ranged from 0 to 1 with scores closer to 1 indicating higher levels of industry "conservatism" and scores closer to 0 representing more "liberal" leaning industries (see Table 1).

Table 1.
Sample of Industry-level political ideology derived from CRP data

		2006			2008			2010		
Industry (GSS/NAICS)	Definition/Criteria (CRP)	Republican Donations	Total Donations	∝	Republican Donations	Total Donations	∝	Republican Donations	Total Donations	∝
Labor unions	Building Trade Unions, Industrial Unions, Public Sector Unions, Transportation Unions	$7,573,150	$59,575,492	0.13	$5,487,782	$66,790,468	0.08	$4,212,072	$64,860,335	0.06
Construction	Building Materials & Equipment, Construction Services, General Contractors, Home Builders, Special Trade Contractors	$10,638,275	$14,410,516	0.74	$9,937,077	$16,448,956	0.60	$9,218,520	$15,677,120	0.59
Grocery stores	Food stores	$726,012	$1,010,712	0.72	$772,892	$1,257,392	0.61	$841,150	$1,410,974	0.60
Hospitals	Hospitals/Nursing Homes, Health Professionals, Health Services/HMOs, Pharmaceuticals	$3,373,290	$5,587,637	0.60	$2,832,050	$6,883,606	0.41	$3,050,778	$7,563,309	0.40
Air transportation	Air transport	$4,571,423	$6,862,445	0.67	$4,187,999	$7,805,491	0.54	$3,771,977	$7,442,169	0.51

Note. % reflects percentage of contributions made by industries (through PACs) to republican candidates. Values closer to 0 indicate liberal, while values closer to 1 represent conservative (0.5 represents moderate).

Moreover, for interpretation purposes and scale commensurability (i.e., scales are measured within the same theoretical domain; Edwards, 2002), the industry-level variable was subsequently rescaled to match the GSS scale for employee political ideology (i.e., 1-7); a practice that has demonstrated adequate empirical support (Harris et al., 2008; Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985; Wilk & Sackett, 1996). Thus, industry ideology represents the environmental component in the P-E fit framework. This follows a similar approach by Bermiss and McDonald (2018) who used the aggregated political contributions of firm employees to calculate the political ideology of their respective firms.

Job satisfaction

Our focal outcome for the current study was employee job satisfaction. The GSS contains several variables related to the workplace. However, we sought to include an item that best represented the outcome of interest. Therefore, the item used was "on the whole, how satisfied are you with the work you do--would you say you are very satisfied, moderately satisfied, a little dissatisfied, or very dissatisfied?" This 4-point measure was the most suitable item for examining job attitudes.

While use of single item measures presents some methodological concerns, some research has found that single measures of job satisfaction will often suffice (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983; Ittner & Larcker, 1998; Wanous et al., 1997). Moreover, Wanous and colleagues (1997) conducted a meta-analysis on 17 studies of job satisfaction and found single item measures performed sufficiently well (i.e., single items of job satisfaction correlated highly with total scores). They further stated that "single-item measures are more robust than the scale measures of overall job satisfaction" and should not be

dismissed outright. Ittner and Larcker (1998) found that a single 10-point item of overall satisfaction with a company's service performed equally as well as a multi-scale measure of job satisfaction in predicting financial performance. Taken together, these findings suggest that at least one important measure of job satisfaction can be captured with a single item.

Control variables

The model used to examine the hypothesized relationships included gender, age, supervisory status, and industry contributions as control variables. The intention was to try isolating the effects of ideological fit on job satisfaction while accounting for these other variables. Data for gender, age, and supervisory status were derived from the GSS, while total industry donations for the given election cycle were collected from the CRP.

For gender, female participants were coded as 1 to control for the effects of misfit on job satisfaction. Political ideology can manifest at high levels of an organization's structure through leadership, culture, socialization, and design (Anglim et al., 2019; Briscoe & Joshi, 2017; Carnahan & Greenwood, 2018; Christensen et al., 2014; Gupta & Wowak, 2017). Therefore, an individual who belongs to an underrepresented demographic group within their industry (e.g., males in the education field, females in the construction industry) may experience the effects of misfit to a greater extent than those who belong to the prevailing demographic group.

Participant age may play a role, especially as it pertains to political ideology. A 2017 survey conducted by Civic Science found that 45% of employees think it is important (to some degree or more) that their employer shares the same political and social beliefs as them (Star, 2017). It is also likely that a participant's age, which may be

correlated with their years of work experience, will have some effect on the formation of beliefs and attitudes at work through emotional and cognitive development processes.

It is possible that individuals who supervise employees are differentially impacted by misfit than those who are not responsible for overseeing the work of others. Supervisors who experience a high level of misfit may struggle with job attitudes since they may be more susceptible to conflicting emotions regarding their ideological beliefs and their position with an organization. This is especially likely to be the case when examining these relationships longitudinally. For instance, misfits with supervisory roles might remain working within an industry despite having negative attitudes about their job. They may find that their professional experience or job characteristics compensate for the lack of fit or find that they are unwilling to leave the industry in fear of losing their status.

The overall amount of industry contributions was derived from the CRP dataset. Primarily, this was included as a control variable to account for the sheer amount of political involvement of an industry. For instance, while industry ideology is coded based on the proportion of total donations to Republican campaigns, this does not account for weight of their involvement in politics. An industry that contributes a few thousand dollars to political funds may be coded the same as one that contributes millions in terms of ideology. However, the total amount that is donated may signal the political norms of an industry, which could have a substantial effect on ideological misfits (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018).

Analytical Strategy

The current study captures the degree of similarity between employee and industry political ideologies using multiple sources. Specifically, employee political ideology was obtained from self-reported responses associated with the GSS while industry-level ideology was obtained through the CRP dataset. The method of analysis used for examining hypotheses 1 and 2 was polynomial regression with response surface analysis. The equation below shows the typical polynomial regression terms, including b_1, which reflects the main effect of employee political ideology and b_2, which is the main effect of industry ideology. b_3 is the quadratic term of employee political ideology, b_4 is the interaction between employee political ideology and industry political ideology, and $b_5$is the quadratic term for industry political ideology. The polynomial terms for this analysis are not particularly interpretable, however, they are necessary for calculating the response surface parameters.

$$Z = b_0 + b_1(X) + b_2(Y) + b_3(X^2) + b_4(XY) + b_5(Y^2)$$

Edwards and Cable (2009) outlined specific criteria that must be met to satisfy the congruence hypotheses of interest. For Hypotheses 1 and 2, the expected result be should ultimately reflect a concave (i.e., saddle shaped) surface (see Figure 1, page 18). This would indicate that job satisfaction decreases as the discrepancy between employee and industry ideology increases in either direction. Next, job satisfaction should be maximized along the line of congruence regardless of the direction of employee and industry ideology (i.e., this reflects that job satisfaction will be highest when employee and industry ideology are aligned). Lastly, the surface should be flat along the line of congruence regardless of employee and industry ideology.

While it is important to evaluate the shape of the response surface, one may rely on the response surface parameters, which are derived from the polynomial coefficients, to assess congruence. For instance, the downward curve on the congruence line is determined by a^4 or $b_3(X^2) - b_4(XY) + b_5(Y^2)$. This value should be negative to meet the first part of the congruence criteria. Second, the first principal axis (FPA) is used to determine whether the ridge of the surface is parallel to the line of congruence. The FPA parameters for the intercept (P_{10}) and the slope (P_{11}) should not be significantly different from 1 and 0, respectively (i.e., an intercept of 1 with a slope of 0 corresponds to the line of congruence). Third, if the surface along the line of congruence is flat, then a^1 or $b_1(X) + b_2(Y)$ and a^2 or $b_3(X^2) + b_4(XY) + b_5(Y^2)$ should not be significant (i.e., should equal 0). Additionally, another necessary step is ensuring that the measures of employee ideology and industry ideology are mean scale centered prior to analysis (i.e., centered on a common scale; Edwards, 2004).

Despite the criteria needed to satisfy a strict congruence effect (Humberg et al., 2019), Edwards (2009) contends that it is not necessarily the case that each criterion needs to be satisfied to find support for a congruence effect. Specifically, Edwards (2009) states that the first condition (i.e., downward curvature along LOIC) must be met for any claim of congruence. However, the FPA only confirms that the outcome is maximized when employee and industry ideology are congruent, which may still be supported even in cases where the FPA intersects with the LOC (via ridge rotation). Moreover, if the third condition is not met (i.e., the surface varies along the LOC), but the first two conditions are satisfied, then support for a congruence effect may still be claimed. Though, this also suggests that the outcome depends on the direction of the congruence

relationship. While our hypotheses focused on examining the effects along the line of incongruence (i.e., a^3 and a^4), congruence effects were evaluated for exploratory purposes.

We used latent change scoring modeling to examine the relationship between change in ideological congruence and change in job satisfaction over time (i.e., Hypothesis 3). Additionally, the sample was based on participants who were employed within the same industry at each wave. This approach is justified since it is common for longitudinal studies to experience a drop in response rates between the first and last measurement occasions (Chan, 1998). Furthermore, respondents who drop out are often eliminated from all subsequent data analyses because the use of complete cases avoids overstating results (McArdle, 2009). Therefore, only participants who provided responses at each time point were included in the analyses.

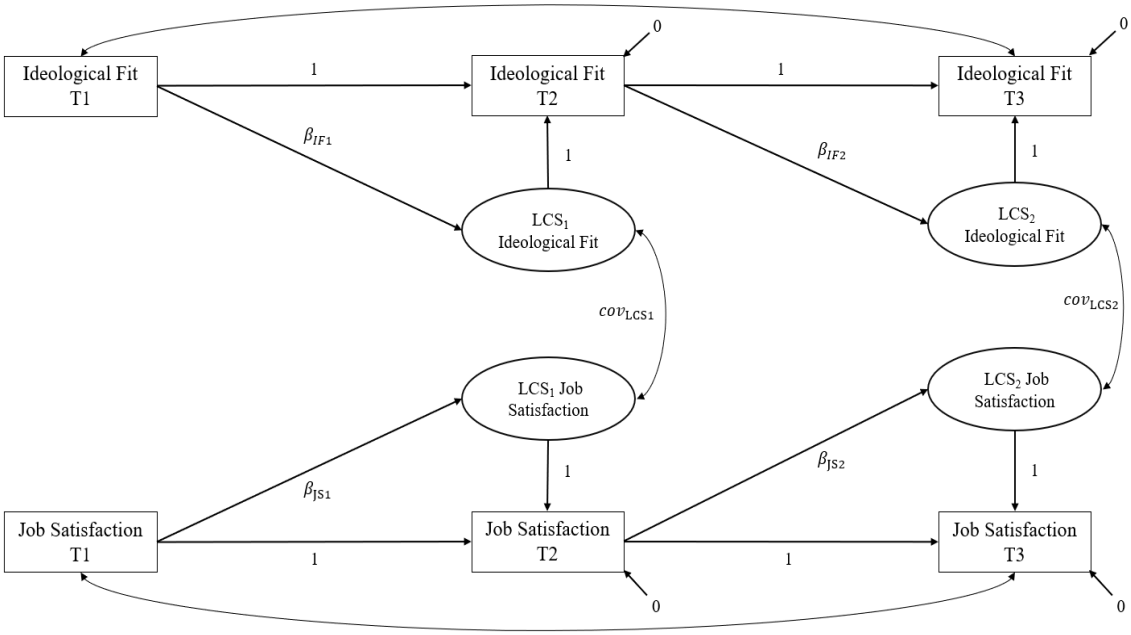


Figure 3. LCSM model used in the current study, with latent change in ideological fit relating to latent change in job satisfaction over four years.

Sample sizes of at least 100 are commonly used to fit various types of latent growth models (Curran, Obeidat, & Losardo, 2010). The sample of panel participants meets this threshold with at least 165 participants or higher for each. The LCSM approach also accommodates partially missing data, unequally spaced time points, etc. (i.e., non-normally distributed or discretely scaled repeated measures, complex nonlinear or compound-shaped trajectories, time-varying covariates (TVCs), and multivariate growth processes). This method is also more robust and flexible than traditional repeated measures designs.

Results

Cross-sectional analyses

The following analyses were based on three different cross-sections for the years 2006 (n = 843), 2008 (n = 846), and 2010 (n = 771). Data were screened for outliers using studentized residuals and Cook's d to remove influential cases. However, across all panels, no cases of outliers were identified. This may be attributed to the rigorous methodology and screening process undertaken by GSS to ensure the quality of the data. Descriptive analyses were followed by polynomial regression and response surface analyses for each panel to test Hypothesis 1. All analyses were conducted in *R* and relied on the *psych* (Revelle, 2021), *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012), and *RSA* (Schönbrodt, 2016) packages.

Descriptive statistics

Means, standards deviations, and correlations for all study variables are presented in Table 2. Notably, for 2006, industry ideology was negatively related to job satisfaction (r = -.11, p < .01) suggesting that job satisfaction was lower in industries that leaned

more conservative. While no relationship was found between employee ideology and industry ideology for 2006 (r = -.04, *ns*) and 2010 (r =.07, *ns*), employee ideology was positively (albeit weakly) related to industry ideology for 2008 (r = .07, p < .05) indicating that employees worked in industries with similar ideologies. Additionally, a general election was held in 2008, which was indicative by the doubled total amount of contributions compared to 2006 and 2010. This was also negatively related to industry conservatism (r = -.17, p < .01; 2010), suggesting liberal leaning industries were more likely to donate to federal elections in 2008.

For 2010 participants, political ideology was positively related to job satisfaction (r = .10, p < .01), however, industry ideology was negatively related to job satisfaction (r = -.11, p < .01). While higher employee ideology (i.e., higher conservatism) was related to higher levels of job satisfaction, the opposite was true when it came to industry conservatism.

Demographically, correlations were consistent across panels. Female participants were less likely to work in conservative industries (2006, r = -.22, p < .01; 2008, r = -.17, p < .01; 2010, r = -.21, p < .01). Also, older participants were more likely to be conservative (2006, r = .11, p < .01; 2008, r = .12, p < .01; 2010, r = .12, p < .01), but less likely to work in conservative industries for two of the three years (2006, r = -.11, p < .01; 2008, r = -.09, p < .01; 2010, r = -.01, *ns*). Across each panel, supervisory status was associated with higher levels of job satisfaction (2006, r = .11, p < .01; 2008, r = .08, p < .12; 2010, r =.16, p < .01).

Table 2.

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Study Variables (Cross-sectional)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
2006[1]								
1. Political Ideology	4.11	1.40						
2. Industry Ideology	4.72	1.32	-.04					
3. Job Satisfaction	3.30	0.78	-.03	-.11**				
4. Female	0.51	0.50	-.07	-.22**	.00			
5. Age	40.63	11.73	.11**	-.11**	.05	.07*		
6. Supervisor	0.40	0.49	-.02	.01	.08*	-.05	.04	
7. Industry Contributions	22,872,609.66	21,943,243.50	.03	-.02	.02	-.12**	-.02	.10**
2008[2†]								
1. Political Ideology	3.98	1.42						
2. Industry Ideology	4.31	1.44	.07*					
3. Job Satisfaction	3.38	0.71	.03	-.05				
4. Female	0.46	0.50	-.03	-.17**	.02			
5. Age	42.10	12.05	.12**	-.09**	.05	.01		
6. Supervisor	0.40	0.49	.04	-.07*	.12**	-.03	.05	
7. Industry Contributions	40,241,104.34	34,919,119.67	.00	-.17**	.02	-.09**	-.04	-.02
2010[3]								
1. Political Ideology	4.06	1.39						
2. Industry Ideology	4.26	1.38	.07					
3. Job Satisfaction	3.36	0.75	.10**	-.11**				
4. Female	0.52	0.50	-.07	-.21**	-.01			
5. Age	42.35	12.27	.12**	-.01	.16**	.01		
6. Supervisor	0.39	0.49	.04	-.00	.10**	-.04	.02	
7. Industry Contributions	23,527,889.37	19,998,918.12	-.05	-.01	-.07	-.02	.05	.06

Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. [1]n = 843. [2]n = 846. [3]n = 771. [†] denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative.

*p < .05. **p < .01.

Prior to conducting polynomial regression analyses, we examined the rate of discrepancies across the three samples to obtain a profile of discrepancies between the two focal predictors (i.e., employee ideology and industry ideology; see Table 3). This is essential for assessing the existence and direction of discrepancies in the sample (Shanock et al., 2010). Based on our analysis of ideological agreement among respondents and their respective industries, we concluded that analyzing the ideological fit of employees as it relates to job satisfaction was justified.

Table 3.
Ideological agreement between employees and industries by year (Cross-section)

Agreement groups		Mean Employee Ideology		Mean Industry Ideology	
2006	Percentage	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Conservative Misfit	24.4	5.31	1.15	3.34	1.18
In agreement	26.7	4.45	1.09	4.50	1.03
Liberal Misfit	48.9	3.32	1.12	5.52	0.82
2008†					
Conservative Misfit	27.2	5.13	1.14	3.03	1.15
In agreement	28.5	4.24	1.10	4.19	1.12
Liberal Misfit	44.3	3.10	1.15	5.17	1.16
2010					
Conservative Misfit	32.2	5.08	1.11	3.16	1.02
In agreement	29.8	4.14	1.20	4.16	1.16
Liberal Misfit	38.0	3.15	1.11	5.26	1.02

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. [1]n = 843. [2]n = 846. [3]n = 771. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. "Liberal Misfit" describes employees who are less conservative than their organization. "Conservative Misfit" is used to describe employees who are more conservative than their industry. A cutpoint of $|\Delta z| > 0.5$ is used to categorize numerical congruence, which means that employees are categorized into misfit groups if the discrepancy in either direction is 0.5 standard deviations or higher.

To reduce multicollinearity and simplify the interpretation of results, focal predictors (i.e., employee ideology, b_1 and industry ideology, b_2) were centered on a common scale at their grand mean (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991; Edwards, 1994; Humberg et al., 2019). Subsequently, three additional terms were created to reflect the square of employee ideology (b_3), the interaction of employee ideology and industry

ideology (b_4), and the square of industry ideology (b_5). Additionally, control variables were included in the polynomial regression (i.e., gender, age, supervisor, and industry contributions).

The results of the polynomial regression for each year are indicated in Table 3. Typically, polynomial regression coefficients are not interpreted in the context of fit research (Edwards & Parry, 1993; Humberg et al., 2019; Shanock et al., 2010). However, if the R^2 value is significantly different from 0, then we proceed to evaluate the response surface values ($a_1 - a_4$), which are derived from the regression coefficients.

The slope of the line of congruence is determined by a_1 ($b_1 + b_2$). Curvature along the line of congruence is determined by a_2 ($b_3 + b_4 + b_5$). The slope along the line of incongruence is reflected in a_3 ($b_1 - b_2$). The curvature on the line of incongruence is evaluated by a_4 ($b_3 - b_4 + b_5$). The first principal axis on the response surface indicates where change in job satisfaction is maximal (i.e., the "ridge" of the surface; Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Humberg et al., 2019). Since our hypotheses were centered around ideological misfits, focus was given to coefficients a_3 and a_4 for evaluating our hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 posited that misfit between employees' political ideology and industry ideology would be associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. To assess the degree of discrepancy between employee ideology and industry ideology as is relates to job satisfaction, each cross-section was analyzed separately (see Table 4). Specifically, curvature effects were examined along the line of incongruence. Response surface plots were provided for interpretation of the results for each cross-section.

For 2006, curvature along the line of misfit was significant and positive, a^4 = 0.040, $p < .05$. Figure 4 indicates a convex surface (i.e., "bowl" shaped) of the misfit relationship. That is, job satisfaction increases as the discrepancy between employee and industry ideology increases, which contradicts Hypothesis 1. In the 2008 cross section, there was no curvature along the line of incongruence, a^4 = -0.019, p = .43, suggesting that ideological misfit did not influence employee job satisfaction. Figure 5 exhibits a flat surface for this group. Similarly, for 2010, no curvature along the line of incongruence was detected, a^4 = -0.024, p = .27 (see Figure 6). Despite these unexpected findings, the slope along the line of incongruence was positive and significant for 2006 (a^3= 0.066, p <.05) and 2010 (a^3= 0.103, p <.001), which suggests that job satisfaction was lower for liberal misfits than conservative misfits.

We also explored whether any notable effects existed along the line of fit. There were no linear or curvilinear effects for 2008 (a^1 = 0.000, p=0.99; a^2 = 0.011, p=.48) or 2010 (a^1 = -0.028, p=0.28; a^2 = -0.009, p=.66), indicating that there was no influence on job satisfaction when employee and industry ideology were in agreement. However, 2006 was found to have a significantly negative slope (a^1 = -0.065, $p < .05$) and a significantly positive curve (a^2 = 0.044, $p < .05$) along the line of congruence. This is not typically expected when testing congruence relationships (Shanock et al., 2010). The positive curve indicates a convex surface ("upward" curve), which signifies that job satisfaction decreases at an increasing rate as conservative fit increases. While directional effects were not specified in Hypothesis 1, the results from 2010 suggest that liberal misfits experience lower levels of job satisfaction than conservative misfits (and employees who have "perfect" fit). Therefore, we found mixed support for Hypothesis 1.

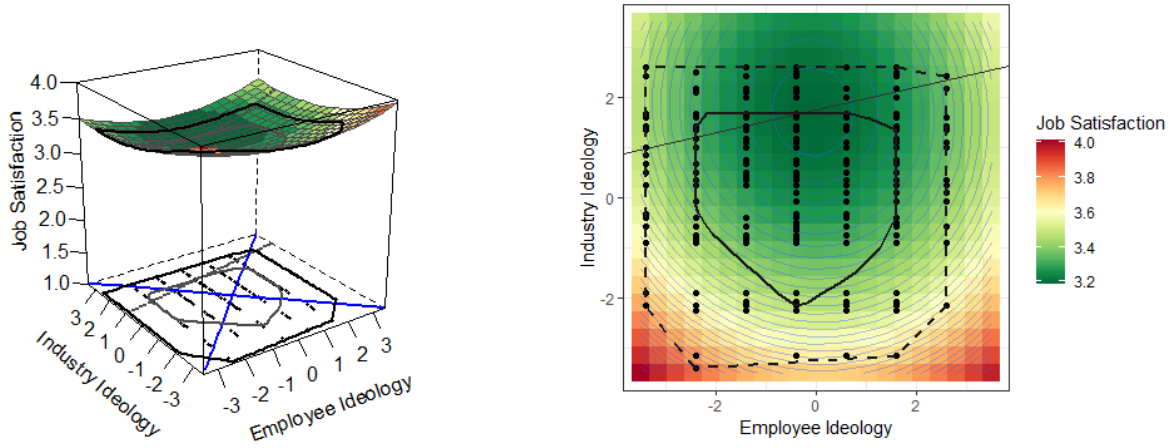
Table 4.
Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis predicting Job Satisfaction

			95% CI		
2006[1]	Estimate	SE	LL	UL	*p*
Constant	3.103***	0.116	2.876	3.331	<.001
Employee Ideology	0.000	0.020	-0.039	0.040	.989
Industry Ideology	-0.065**	0.021	-0.107	-0.024	.002
Employee Ideology^2	0.023*	0.010	0.004	0.043	.019
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.002	0.012	-0.022	0.026	.870
Industry Ideology ^{2}	0.019	0.013	-0.007	0.045	.157
Female	-0.031	0.056	-0.140	0.078	.572
Age	0.002	0.002	-0.002	0.007	.313
Supervisor	0.123*	0.053	0.019	0.227	.020
Industry contributions	0.012	0.037	-0.060	0.084	.742
R^2				0.03*	.003
Position of Principal Axes					
P_{10}	1.736	1.355	-0.919	4.391	.200
P_{11}	0.227	1.507	-2.726	3.181	.880
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.065*	0.029	-0.122	-0.008	.026
Fit Curvature (a^2)	0.044*	0.020	0.005	0.084	.028
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.066*	0.029	0.008	0.123	.025
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	0.040*	0.020	0.000	0.080	.047
2008[2†]					
Constant	3.225***	0.113	3.004	3.446	<.001
Employee Ideology	0.016	0.019	-0.021	0.054	0.396
Industry Ideology	-0.017	0.018	-0.052	0.019	0.358
Employee Ideology^2	0.002	0.011	-0.019	0.023	0.864
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.015	0.013	-0.010	0.040	0.236
Industry Ideology ^{2}	-0.006	0.012	-0.029	0.018	0.644
Female	0.013	0.050	-0.086	0.112	0.792
Age	0.002	0.002	-0.002	0.006	0.347
Supervisor	0.160***	0.049	0.065	0.256	<.001
Industry contributions	0.017	0.037	-0.056	0.090	.652
R^2				0.02*	.042
Position of First Principal Axis					
P_{10}	-1.295	2.098	-5.406	2.817	0.537

P_{11}	0.621	0.634	-0.62	1.863	0.327
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	0.000	0.024	-0.047	0.046	0.988
Fit Curvature (a^2)	0.011	0.016	-0.020	0.043	0.482
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.033	0.029	-0.024	0.089	0.254
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.019	0.024	-0.066	0.028	0.434
2010^3					
Constant	3.042***	0.106	2.835	3.25	<.001
Employee Ideology	0.038*	0.019	0.001	0.074	0.043
Industry Ideology	-0.066***	0.019	-0.104	-0.028	<.001
Employee Ideology^2	-0.007	0.01	-0.027	0.013	0.479
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.008	0.013	-0.018	0.033	0.541
Industry Ideology ^{2}	-0.009	0.013	-0.036	0.017	0.492
Female	-0.052	0.054	-0.158	0.054	0.333
Age	0.009***	0.002	0.005	0.014	<.001
Supervisor	0.141**	0.052	0.038	0.244	0.007
Industry contributions	-0.095*	0.044	-0.181	-0.009	0.031
R^2				0.06***	<.001
Position of First Principal Axis					
P_{10}	-3.837	4.982	-13.601	5.927	0.441
P_{11}	0.779	1.692	-2.537	4.095	0.645
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.028	0.026	-0.079	0.023	0.281
Fit Curvature (a^2)	-0.009	0.019	-0.046	0.029	0.657
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.103***	0.028	0.049	0.158	<.001
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.024	0.022	-0.068	0.019	0.272

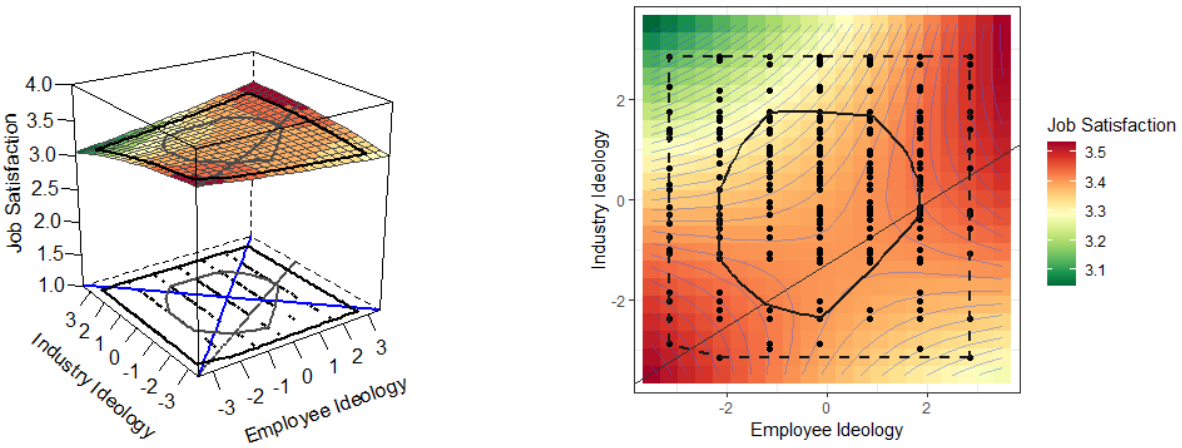
Note. ^1n = 843. ^2n = 846. ^3n = 771. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X – Y$; $a^4 = X^2 – XY + Y^2$.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Figure 4. Ideological Misfit and Job Satisfaction (2006)



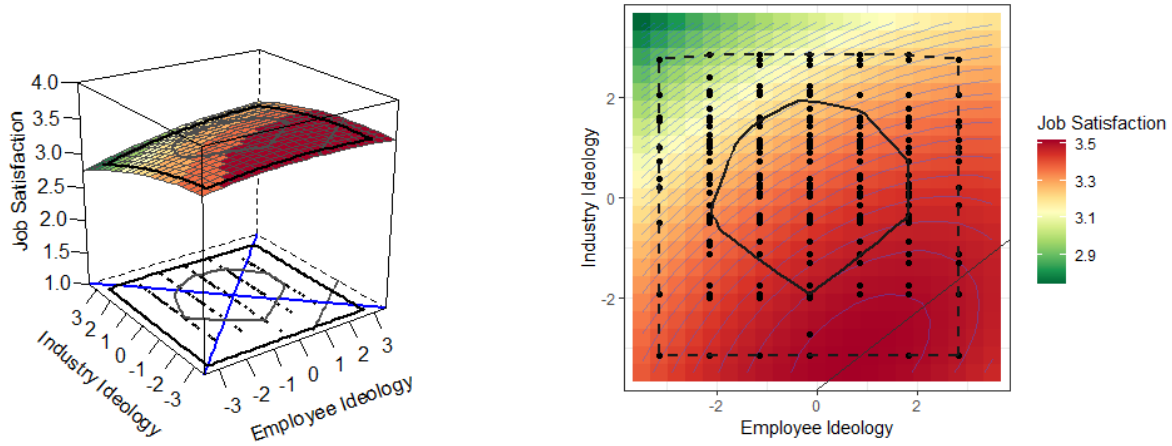
Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting job satisfaction. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. *n* = 843.

Figure 5. Ideological Misfit and Job Satisfaction (2008)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting job satisfaction. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. *n* = 846.

Figure 6. Ideological Misfit and Job Satisfaction (2010)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting job satisfaction. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. *n* = 771.

Longitudinal analyses

Longitudinal analyses were based on three panels: 2006 (*n* = 165), 2008 (*n* = 176), and 2010 (*n* = 165). Each group was a subset of the sample from the prior cross-sectional analyses. The sample was comprised of participants who were employed by the same industry at each timepoint. A three-wave panel design (with a four-year time lag between time 1 and time 3) was used to test subsequent job satisfaction at time 2 and time 3 (Hypothesis 2). Additionally, to test how ideological misfit and job satisfaction change over time, latent change score modeling was used (Hypothesis 3).

Descriptive statistics

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of the study variables were examined for each panel (see Tables 5a – 5c). Across all three panels, correlations for focal employee political ideology from time 1 to time 3 were positive, strong, and stable with coefficients ranging from .69 to .79. Similarly, correlations for industry political

ideology from time 1 to time 3 were consistently strong and positive with coefficients ranging from .94 to .99 for all panels.

For the 2006 panel, job satisfaction (T1) was negatively related to industry ideology (T1) (r = -.31, p < .05), indicating that higher industry conservatism was associated with lower job satisfaction. However, no significant relationship was found between employee political ideology and job satisfaction at any time point. The 2008 panel did not show any associations between the focal predictors and job satisfaction. Although, unlike the 2006 panel, employee political ideology and industry ideology were positively correlated at time 2 (r = .16, p < .05) and at time 3 (r = .18, p < .05), which indicated that participants were more likely to work in industries with similar ideological leanings. For the 2010 panel, job satisfaction (T2) was negatively related to industry ideology (T2) (r = -.15, p < .05), suggesting that higher industry conservatism was associated with lower job satisfaction during the given year (i.e., 2012).

Table 5a.

2006 Panel: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Political Ideology (T1)	4.21	1.39						
2. Political Ideology (T2)†	4.07	1.38	.69**					
3. Political Ideology (T3)	4.15	1.43	.73**	.71**				
4. Industry Ideology (T1)	4.39	1.46	.05	.06	.13			
5. Industry Ideology (T2) †	3.88	1.48	.06	.06	.13	.98**		
6. Industry Ideology (T3)	4.52	1.45	.03	.03	.11	.94**	.97**	
7. Job Satisfaction (T1)	3.46	0.66	-.00	.15	-.03	-.31**	-.32**	-.33**
8. Job Satisfaction (T2) †	3.42	0.65	-.08	-.04	-.05	-.13	-.13	-.13
9. Job Satisfaction (T3)	3.36	0.72	-.02	-.00	-.09	-.09	-.09	-.08
10. Female (T1)	0.55	0.50	-.15	-.05	-.13	-.23**	-.27**	-.26**
11. Female (T2) †	0.54	0.50	-.15	-.04	-.11	-.25**	-.28**	-.28**
12. Female (T3)	0.55	0.50	-.13	-.02	-.09	-.24**	-.27**	-.27**
13. Age (T1)	43.81	10.42	.02	.12	.05	-.09	-.08	-.13
14. Age (T2) †	45.75	10.53	.04	.14	.07	-.06	-.05	-.11
15. Age (T3)	47.73	10.55	.05	.14	.07	-.06	-.05	-.10
16. Supervisor (T1)	0.36	0.48	-.04	.01	.04	.08	.09	.12
17. Supervisor (T2) †	0.42	0.50	-.10	-.04	-.07	.04	.05	.09
18. Supervisor (T3)	0.44	0.50	-.11	-.06	-.10	.01	-.00	.06
19. Industry Contributions (T1)	23,557,259.80	21,412,781.22	.08	.08	-.01	-.08	.03	.05
20. Industry Contributions (T2) †	47,412,236.58	41,957362.08	.10	.10	-.01	-.34**	-.23**	-.18*
21. Industry Contributions (T3)	27,379,469.60	23,688,553.71	.11	.10	.02	-.10	.01	.03

	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
1. Political Ideology (T1)								
2. Political Ideology (T2)†								
3. Political Ideology (T3)								
4. Industry Ideology (T1)								
5. Industry Ideology (T2) †								
6. Industry Ideology (T3)								
7. Job Satisfaction (T1)								
8. Job Satisfaction (T2) †	.57**							
9. Job Satisfaction (T3)	.45**	.55**						
10. Female (T1)	.10	.01	.05					

11. Female (T2) †	.13	.03	.04	.99**			
12. Female (T3)	.12	.03	.01	.95**	.96**		
13. Age (T1)	.05	.04	.06	.24**	.24**	.22**	
14. Age (T2) †	.04	.02	.04	.21**	.21**	.19*	.98**
15. Age (T3)	.04	.03	.04	.22**	.22**	.20**	.98**
16. Supervisor (T1)	-.01	.09	.13	-.07	-.09	-.09	-.05
17. Supervisor (T2) †	-.02	.16*	.15*	.04	.03	.02	-.10
18. Supervisor (T3)	.04	.18*	.08	.00	-.01	.00	-.04
19. Industry Contributions (T1)	-.01	.03	-.01	-.06	-.05	-.02	-.02
20. Industry Contributions (T2) †	.08	.06	.02	.02	.03	.06	.00
21. Industry Contributions (T3)	.02	.05	-.01	-.04	-.03	-.00	-.00

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Political Ideology (T1)							
2. Political Ideology (T2) †							
3. Political Ideology (T3)							
4. Industry Ideology (T1)							
5. Industry Ideology (T2) †							
6. Industry Ideology (T3)							
7. Job Satisfaction (T1)							
8. Job Satisfaction (T2) †							
9. Job Satisfaction (T3)							
10. Female (T1)							
11. Female (T2) †							
12. Female (T3)							
13. Age (T1)							
14. Age (T2) †							
15. Age (T3)	.99**						
16. Supervisor (T1)	-.05	-.05					
17. Supervisor (T2) †	-.11	-.11	.60**				
18. Supervisor (T3)	-.05	-.06	.47**	.57**			
19. Industry Contributions (T1)	-.02	-.02	.01	-.01	-.07		
20. Industry Contributions (T2) †	-.00	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.03	.94**	
21. Industry Contributions (T3)	-.00	-.00	-.01	-.03	-.08	.99**	.94**

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. n = 165. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 5b.

2008 Panel: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Political Ideology (T1) †	3.92	1.57						
2. Political Ideology (T2)	3.95	1.45	.79**					
3. Political Ideology (T3) †	4.10	1.47	.71**	.79**				
4. Industry Ideology (T1) †	3.80	1.62	.14	.16*	.22**			
5. Industry Ideology (T2)	4.00	1.48	.13	.16*	.18*	.98**		
6. Industry Ideology (T3) †	4.14	1.58	.13	.15	.18*	.98**	.97**	
7. Job Satisfaction (T1) †	3.45	0.65	.07	.03	-.03	.01	.01	.00
8. Job Satisfaction (T2)	3.49	0.61	-.01	-.01	-.03	-.05	-.04	-.04
9. Job Satisfaction (T3) †	3.41	0.63	-.01	-.02	.02	-.10	-.11	-.10
10. Female (T1) †	0.47	0.50	-.07	-.09	-.11	-.20*	-.20*	-.17*
11. Female (T2)	0.47	0.50	-.07	-.09	-.11	-.20*	-.20*	-.17*
12. Female (T3) †	0.48	0.50	-.07	-.09	-.11	-.18*	-.18*	-.16*
13. Age (T1) †	43.28	11.39	.12	.09	.12	-.09	-.11	-.09
14. Age (T2)	45.45	11.30	.14	.12	.15	-.07	-.10	-.07
15. Age (T3) †	47.53	11.21	.13	.11	.15	-.07	-.09	-.06
16. Supervisor (T1) †	0.41	0.49	.04	.05	.07	.02	.03	.01
17. Supervisor (T2)	0.45	0.50	.07	.13	.09	-.01	.00	-.02
18. Supervisor (T3) †	0.41	0.49	.16*	.15	.09	-.02	.01	-.02
19. Industry Contributions (T1) †	46,743,238.88	39,351,620.00	-.01	.06	.00	-.21**	-.18*	-.16*
20. Industry Contributions (T2)	26,470,280.70	21,529,536.54	.03	.10	.05	.06	.06	.10
21. Industry Contributions (T3) †	49,711,489.85	36,973,215.59	.01	.06	.00	-.17*	-.13	-.11

	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Political Ideology (T1) †							
2. Political Ideology (T2)							
3. Political Ideology (T3) †							
4. Industry Ideology (T1) †							
5. Industry Ideology (T2)							
6. Industry Ideology (T3) †							
7. Job Satisfaction (T1) †							
8. Job Satisfaction (T2)	.52**						
9. Job Satisfaction (T3) †	.46**	.52**					
10. Female (T1) †	-.11	-.03	.03				

11. Female (T2)	-.11	-.03	.03	1.00**			
12. Female (T3) †	-.10	-.02	.04	.99**	.99**		
13. Age (T1) †	.01	.05	.07	.11	.11	.12	
14. Age (T2)	.03	.07	.08	.11	.11	.11	.97**
15. Age (T3) †	.03	.06	.09	.11	.11	.12	.97**
16. Supervisor (T1) †	.10	.11	.11	-.10	-.10	-.11	.08
17. Supervisor (T2)	.18*	.12	.09	-.08	-.08	-.10	.13
18. Supervisor (T3) †	.26**	.13	.16*	-.10	-.10	-.11	-.01
19. Industry Contributions (T1) †	.02	-.00	-.02	-.18*	-.18*	-.18*	-.16*
20. Industry Contributions (T2)	.00	-.02	-.05	-.20*	-.20*	-.18*	-.20**
21. Industry Contributions (T3) †	.02	.01	-.03	-.17*	-.17*	-.16*	-.13

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Political Ideology (T1) †							
2. Political Ideology (T2)							
3. Political Ideology (T3) †							
4. Industry Ideology (T1) †							
5. Industry Ideology (T2)							
6. Industry Ideology (T3) †							
7. Job Satisfaction (T1) †							
8. Job Satisfaction (T2)							
9. Job Satisfaction (T3) †							
10. Female (T1) †							
11. Female (T2)							
12. Female (T3) †							
13. Age (T1) †							
14. Age (T2)							
15. Age (T3) †	1.00**						
16. Supervisor (T1) †	.10	.11					
17. Supervisor (T2)	.15	.15*	.67**				
18. Supervisor (T3) †	.01	.02	.57**	.67**			
19. Industry Contributions (T1) †	-.13	-.13	-.08	-.05	.03		
20. Industry Contributions (T2)	-.17*	-.17*	-.11	-.08	-.00	.94**	
21. Industry Contributions (T3) †	-.10	-.10	-.09	-.07	.02	.98**	.93**

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. n = 165. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 5c.

2010 Panel: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Political Ideology (T1)	3.99	1.40						
2. Political Ideology (T2)[†]	4.06	1.43	.71**					
3. Political Ideology (T3)	4.03	1.49	.69**	.73**				
4. Industry Ideology (T1)	3.94	1.41	.13	.18*	.14			
5. Industry Ideology (T2) [†]	4.06	1.49	.13	.17*	.14	.96**		
6. Industry Ideology (T3) [†]	4.20	1.43	.15	.18*	.17*	.96**	.99**	
7. Job Satisfaction (T1) [†]	3.54	0.60	-.01	.10	-.00	-.02	-.03	-.01
8. Job Satisfaction (T2) [†]	3.45	0.69	.11	.15	.08	-.13	-.15*	-.12
9. Job Satisfaction (T3)	3.44	0.68	.07	.14	.12	-.13	-.14	-.12
10. Female (T1)	0.53	0.50	-.01	-.10	-.04	-.20**	-.21**	-.20**
11. Female (T2) [†]	0.55	0.50	-.01	-.08	-.04	-.20**	-.20**	-.19*
12. Female (T3)	0.53	0.50	.02	-.07	-.02	-.19*	-.18*	-.17*
13. Age (T1)	44.82	11.43	.10	.14	.13	-.03	-.03	-.02
14. Age (T2) [†]	46.78	11.42	.10	.14	.13	-.03	-.03	-.02
15. Age (T3)	48.72	11.42	.09	.14	.13	-.04	-.03	-.03
16. Supervisor (T1)	0.41	0.49	-.03	-.00	.03	-.06	-.08	-.06
17. Supervisor (T2) [†]	0.41	0.49	.11	.10	.10	-.02	-.02	-.01
18. Supervisor (T3)	0.51	0.50	-.04	.06	.02	-.10	-.08	-.07
19. Industry Contributions (T1)	27,398,119.85	23,436,700.49	-.07	-.08	-.08	.08	.16*	.11
20. Industry Contributions (T2) [†]	51,983,835.80	41,809,960.44	-.09	-.11	-.14	-.10	-.03	-.10
21. Industry Contributions (T3)	29,460,555.40	25,033,888.88	-.07	-.08	-.09	.11	.20**	.13

	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Political Ideology (T1)							
2. Political Ideology (T2)[†]							
3. Political Ideology (T3)							
4. Industry Ideology (T1)							
5. Industry Ideology (T2) [†]							
6. Industry Ideology (T3)							
7. Job Satisfaction (T1)							
8. Job Satisfaction (T2) [†]	.49**						
9. Job Satisfaction (T3)	.41**	.45**					
10. Female (T1)	.04	.02	.06				

11. Female (T2) †	.04	.04	.07	.98**			
12. Female (T3)	.06	.04	.08	.98**	.98**		
13. Age (T1)	.23**	.21**	.13	.12	.10	.10	
14. Age (T2) †	.23**	.21**	.13	.12	.10	.10	1.00**
15. Age (T3)	.23**	.21**	.14	.12	.10	.10	1.00**
16. Supervisor (T1)	.07	.10	.00	.14	.12	.14	.05
17. Supervisor (T2) †	.15	.10	.05	.12	.10	.12	.12
18. Supervisor (T3)	.11	.14	.13	.03	.01	.03	.06
19. Industry Contributions (T1)	-.02	-.07	-.05	-.05	-.01	-.01	.03
20. Industry Contributions (T2) †	-.01	-.04	-.04	-.03	.02	.01	.04
21. Industry Contributions (T3)	-.02	-.08	-.08	-.07	-.03	-.03	.03

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Political Ideology (T1)							
2. Political Ideology (T2) †							
3. Political Ideology (T3)							
4. Industry Ideology (T1)							
5. Industry Ideology (T2) †							
6. Industry Ideology (T3)							
7. Job Satisfaction (T1)							
8. Job Satisfaction (T2) †							
9. Job Satisfaction (T3)							
10. Female (T1)							
11. Female (T2) †							
12. Female (T3)							
13. Age (T1)							
14. Age (T2) †							
15. Age (T3)	1.00**						
16. Supervisor (T1)	.05	.05					
17. Supervisor (T2) †	.12	.12	.58**				
18. Supervisor (T3)	.06	.06	.58**	.60**			
19. Industry Contributions (T1)	.02	.03	.01	.08	.07		
20. Industry Contributions (T2) †	.04	.04	-.02	.04	.04	.94**	
21. Industry Contributions (T3)	.02	.02	-.02	.05	.04	.98**	.96**

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. $n = 176$. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Once again, the rate of discrepancy across the three samples was analyzed between the two focal predictors (i.e., see Table 6). The analysis of ideological agreement between focal employees and their industries supports examination of the effects of ideological fit on job satisfaction over time is acceptable. Although there is some slight variation at each time point regarding the proportion of ideological misfits, this lends additional support for analyzing change in the predictor and outcome over time.

Table 6.

Ideological agreement between employees and industries by year (Panel analysis)

Agreement groups		Mean Employee Ideology		Mean Industry Ideology	
2006[1] (T1)	Percentage	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Conservative Misfit	30.9	5.25	1.13	3.12	1.19
In agreement	26.7	4.39	1.32	4.29	1.37
Liberal Misfit	42.4	3.34	1.01	5.53	1.12
2006[1] (T2) †					
Conservative Misfit	41.2	4.78	1.18	2.69	0.99
In agreement	24.8	4.29	1.21	4.35	1.22
Liberal Misfit	33.9	3.05	1.10	5.10	1.03
2006[1] (T3)					
Conservative Misfit	28.4	5.43	0.98	3.48	0.96
In agreement	32.1	3.94	1.32	4.04	1.23
Liberal Misfit	39.4	3.38	1.14	5.65	1.09
2008[2] (T1) †					
Conservative Misfit	34.5	5.00	1.12	2.60	1.04
In agreement	33.3	3.69	1.57	3.72	1.48
Liberal Misfit	32.1	2.98	1.28	5.17	1.17
2008[2] (T2)					
Conservative Misfit	35.2	4.98	1.19	2.98	1.03
In agreement	27.9	3.78	1.35	3.85	1.34
Liberal Misfit	37.0	3.10	1.12	5.09	1.19
2008[2] (T3) †					
Conservative Misfit	33.3	5.09	1.19	2.85	1.09
In agreement	27.9	3.85	1.32	4.03	1.34
Liberal Misfit	38.8	3.42	1.33	5.33	1.12
2010[3] (T1)					
Conservative Misfit	38.1	4.97	1.04	3.03	0.95
In agreement	29.0	3.67	1.38	3.68	1.24
Liberal Misfit	32.9	3.16	1.06	5.21	1.00
2010[3] (T2) †					
Conservative Misfit	38.1	4.90	1.12	2.96	1.10
In agreement	28.4	3.90	1.46	4.09	1.34
Liberal Misfit	33.5	3.24	1.18	5.27	0.97
2010[3] (T3)					
Conservative Misfit	34.1	5.15	1.09	3.24	1.07
In agreement	26.1	3.78	1.41	3.87	1.34
Liberal Misfit	39.8	3.23	1.24	5.24	1.04

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. [1]n = 165. [2]n = 165. [3]n = 176. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. "Liberal Misfit" describes employees who are less conservative than their organization. "Conservative Misfit" is used to describe employees who are more conservative than their industry. A cutpoint of $|\Delta z| > 0.5$ is used to categorize numerical congruence, which means that employees are categorized into misfit groups if the discrepancy in either direction is 0.5 standard deviations or higher.

Time lag analysis

A three-wave panel design (with a four-year time lag between time 1 and time 3) was used to test Hypothesis 2. In addition to focal variables and polynomial terms, employee gender, age, and supervisor status were entered as control variables. Job satisfaction at time 1 was included as a control variable when job satisfaction at time 2 was the outcome, while job satisfaction at time 2 was controlled for when the outcome was job satisfaction at time 3. This approach was used to control for past job satisfaction and account for any changes in the outcome from the previous timepoint (Brusso et al., 2014). For the environmental component, we also controlled for industry contributions. In evaluating Hypothesis 2, curvilinear effects along the line of incongruence were examined for each panel using polynomial regression. Subsequently, response surface plots were analyzed to interpret congruence.

Results for the 2006 panel are presented in Table 7. Curvature along the line of misfit was not significant in predicting job satisfaction at time 2, $a^4 = -0.05$, *ns*. Moreover, the slope along the line of incongruence was not significant, $a^3 = -0.067$. Figure 7 displays a concave shape (i.e., "saddle" shaped) of the response surface. Similarly, no curvilinear effects were found along the line of incongruence in predicting job satisfaction at time 3, $a^4 = -0.026$, *ns*. Figure 8 showed a concave surface, but noticeably flatter than the shape in figure 7. The slope along the line of incongruence for job satisfaction at time 3 was also not significant, $a^3 = 0.025$, *ns*. Additionally, no effect was found along the line of congruence upon further analysis. Results for the 2006 panel suggested that ideological misfit did not negatively impact subsequent job satisfaction.

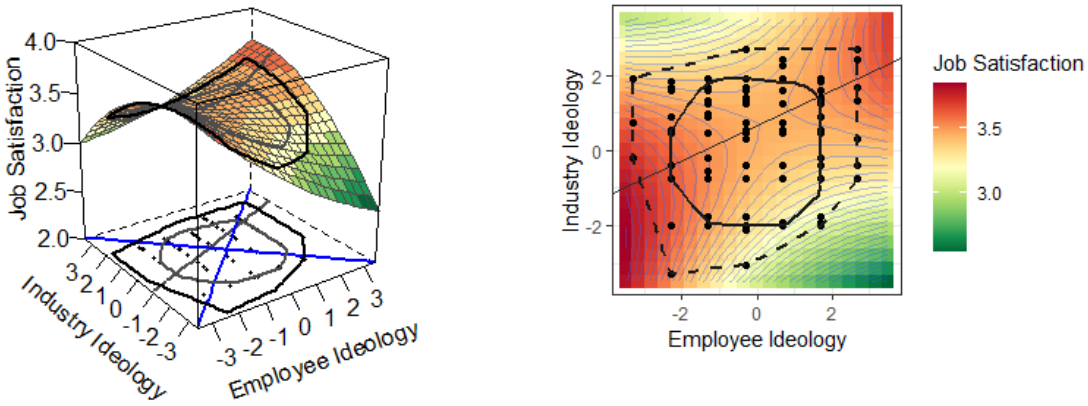
Table 7.
Polynomial Regression and RSA predicting Subsequent Job Satisfaction (2006 Panel)

			95% CI		
Job Satisfaction at Time 2[†]	Estimate	SE	LL	UL	*p*
Constant	1.236***	0.317	0.615	1.856	<.001
Employee Ideology	-0.043	0.029	-0.099	0.014	0.137
Industry Ideology	0.024	0.033	-0.041	0.089	0.463
Employee Ideology^2	0.009	0.016	-0.022	0.04	0.551
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.04	0.023	-0.005	0.085	0.08
Industry Ideology^2	-0.024	0.02	-0.063	0.014	0.211
Female	-0.074	0.083	-0.237	0.089	0.372
Age	0.001	0.004	-0.006	0.009	0.698
Supervisor	0.241	0.074	0.097	0.386	0.001
Industry contributions	0.067	0.059	-0.049	0.183	0.255
Job satisfaction (T1)	0.586***	0.073	0.443	0.729	<.001
R^2				0.39	<.001
Position of First Principal Axis					
P_{10}	0.656	0.697	-0.711	2.022	0.347
P_{11}	0.464	0.241	-0.009	0.938	0.055
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.018	0.043	-0.103	0.067	0.674
Fit Curvature (a^2)	0.025	0.033	-0.041	0.091	0.455
Misfit Slope (a^3)	-0.067	0.044	-0.154	0.020	0.131
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.055	0.037	-0.127	0.017	0.137
Job Satisfaction at Time 3					
Constant	1.293***	0.333	0.640	1.946	<.001
Employee Ideology	0.015	0.031	-0.047	0.076	0.641
Industry Ideology	-0.01	0.035	-0.078	0.058	0.769
Employee Ideology^2	0.012	0.019	-0.024	0.049	0.501
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.018	0.024	-0.028	0.064	0.446
Industry Ideology^2	-0.02	0.026	-0.071	0.031	0.437
Female	0.068	0.095	-0.118	0.253	0.473
Age	0.001	0.004	-0.008	0.01	0.83
Supervisor	-0.005	0.1	-0.201	0.191	0.96
Industry contributions	-0.033	0.074	-0.178	0.111	0.649
Job satisfaction (T2)	0.594***	0.077	0.444	0.744	<.001
R^2				0.32	<.001
Position of First Principal Axis					
P_{10}	-0.308	0.791	-1.858	1.242	0.697

P_{11}	0.256	0.331	-0.392	0.904	0.439
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	0.004	0.047	-0.088	0.097	0.924
Fit Curvature (a^2)	0.010	0.036	-0.061	0.081	0.780
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.025	0.046	-0.066	0.116	0.593
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.026	0.041	-0.106	0.054	0.528

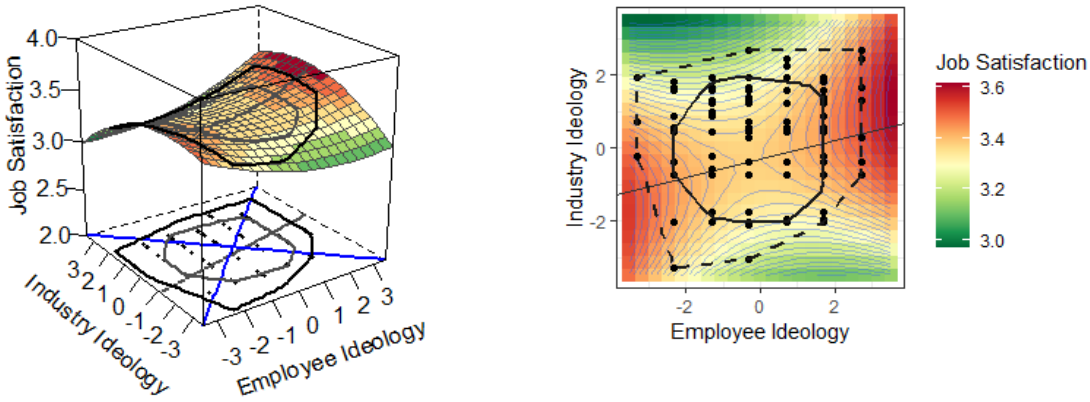
Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. n = 165. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. For the 2006 Panel, data collection took place in 2008 for time 2 and in 2010 for time 3. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X - Y$; $a^4 = X^2 - XY + Y^2$.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Figure 7. 2006 Panel: Ideological Misfit (T1) Predicting Job Satisfaction (T2)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology at time 1 and Industry-level ideology at time 1 predicting job satisfaction at time 2, which was in 2008. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. n = 165.

Figure 8. 2006 Panel: Ideological Misfit (T1) Predicting Job Satisfaction (T3)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology at time 1 and Industry-level ideology at time 1 predicting job satisfaction at time 3, which was in 2010. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. n = 165.

For the 2008 panel, curvature along the line of misfit was not significant in predicting job satisfaction at time 2, a^4 = -0.006, *ns* (see Table 8). The slope along the line of incongruence was not significant, a3 = 0.000. Figure 9 displays a flat shape with slight curving along the edges of the response surface. At time 3, no curvilinear effect was not detected along the line of incongruence in predicting job satisfaction, a^4 = -0.031, *ns*. The slope along the line of incongruence was not significant for job satisfaction at time 3, a^3 = 0.037. Nonetheless, Figure 10 reflected a concave shape as expected. The slope along the line of incongruence was also not significant, a^3 = -0.067, *ns*. In exploring congruence effects, no relationship was found along the line of fit. Like 2006, 2008 panel results indicated that ideological misfit did not negatively impact subsequent job satisfaction.

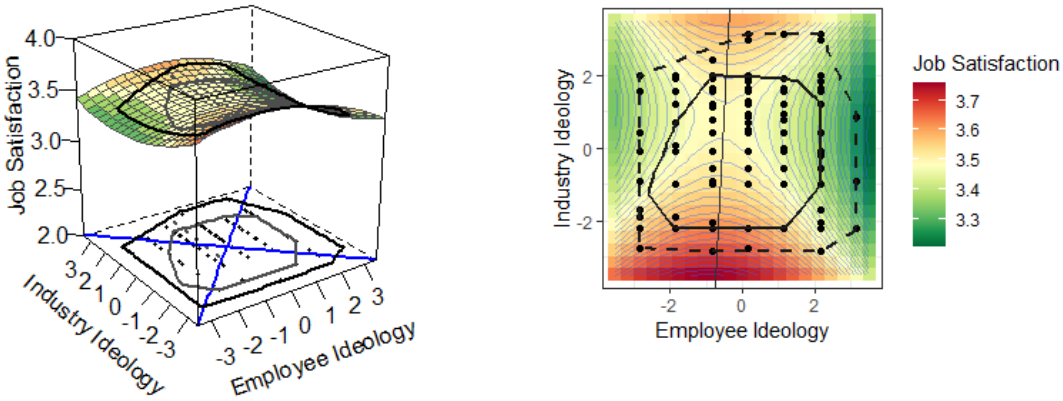
Table 8.
Polynomial Regression and RSA predicting Subsequent Job Satisfaction (2008 Panel)

			95% CI		
Job Satisfaction at Time 2	Estimate	SE	LL	UL	p
Constant	1.714***	0.305	1.115	2.832	<.001
Employee Ideology	-0.021	0.028	-0.076	-0.05	0.468
Industry Ideology	-0.021	0.025	-0.069	-0.06	0.399
Employee Ideology^2	-0.017	0.014	-0.045	-0.080	0.229
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.003	0.017	-0.030	0.015	0.846
Industry Ideology ^{2}	0.015	0.017	-0.018	0.059	0.385
Female	0.046	0.081	-0.113	0.038	0.574
Age	0.001	0.004	-0.006	0.020	0.783
Supervisor	0.084	0.079	-0.071	0.069	0.288
Industry contributions	0.000	0.054	-0.107	0.000	0.994
Job satisfaction (T1)	0.485***	0.073	0.342	0.513	<.001
R^2				0.29	<.001
Position of First Principal Axis					
P_{10}	10.76	63.672	-114.04	135.553	0.866
P_{11}	19.08	99.851	-176.63	214.785	0.848
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.041	0.038	-0.117	0.034	0.28
Fit Curvature (a^2)	0.001	0.027	-0.052	0.054	0.98
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.000	0.037	-0.072	0.072	0.996
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.006	0.029	-0.064	0.052	0.839
Job Satisfaction at Time 3					
Constant	1.504***	0.304	0.908	2.100	<.001
Employee Ideology	0.009	0.028	-0.046	0.063	0.759
Industry Ideology	-0.029	0.028	-0.084	0.026	0.303
Employee Ideology^2	0.007	0.013	-0.019	0.033	0.608
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.026	0.016	-0.006	0.058	0.107
Industry Ideology ^{2}	-0.011	0.017	-0.045	0.022	0.507
Female	0.004	0.087	-0.167	0.175	0.961
Age	0.002	0.004	-0.006	0.009	0.625
Supervisor	0.114	0.088	-0.058	0.286	0.195
Industry contributions	-0.046	0.075	-0.194	0.101	0.538
Job satisfaction (T2)	0.517***	0.078	0.365	0.669	<.001
R^2				0.30	<.001
Position of First Principal Axis					

P_{10}	-0.912	1.138	-3.143	1.318	0.423
P_{11}	0.524	0.374	-0.208	1.257	0.161
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.020	0.037	-0.094	0.053	0.588
Fit Curvature (a^2)	0.022	0.027	-0.030	0.074	0.411
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.037	0.042	-0.044	0.119	0.369
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.031	0.027	-0.085	0.023	0.261

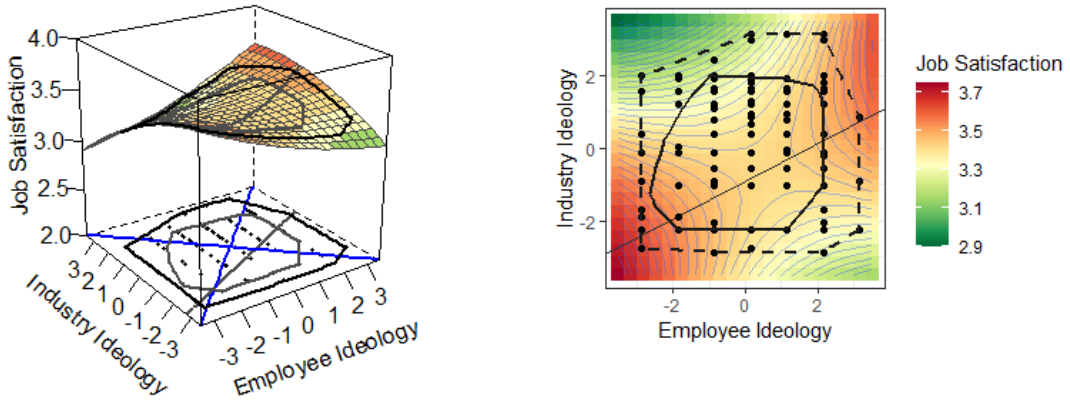
Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. n = 165. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X - Y$; $a^4 = X^2 - XY + Y^2$.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Figure 9. 2008 Panel: Ideological Misfit (T1) Predicting Job Satisfaction (T2)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology at time 1 and Industry-level ideology at time 1 predicting job satisfaction at time 2, which was in 2010. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. n = 165.

Figure 10. 2008 Panel: Ideological Misfit (T1) Predicting Job Satisfaction (T3)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology at time 1 and Industry-level ideology at time 1 predicting job satisfaction at time 3, which was in 2012. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. n = 165.

For the 2010 panel, curvature along the line of misfit was not significant in predicting job satisfaction at time 2, $a^4 = -0.018$, *ns* (see Table 9). However, the slope along the line of incongruence was significant, $a^3 = 0.126$, $p < .05$. This suggested that as liberal misfit increased, job satisfaction decreased (i.e., job satisfaction was lower when the discrepancy is such that industry conservatism was higher than employee conservatism). Figure 11 shows a linear relationship along the line of incongruence while a convex shape appears along the line of congruence.

However, no curvilinear effect was found along the line of incongruence in predicting job satisfaction at time 3, $a^4 = 0.011$, *ns*. Additionally, the slope along the line of incongruence was not significant, $a^3 = 0.053$, *ns*. Figure 12 exhibits a flat shape along the line of incongruence while showing a concave surface on the line of congruence. In analyzing the congruence effects, no relationship was found along the line of fit. Unlike

the 2006 and 2010 panels, some support for Hypothesis 2 was found for ideological misfit predicting subsequent job satisfaction.

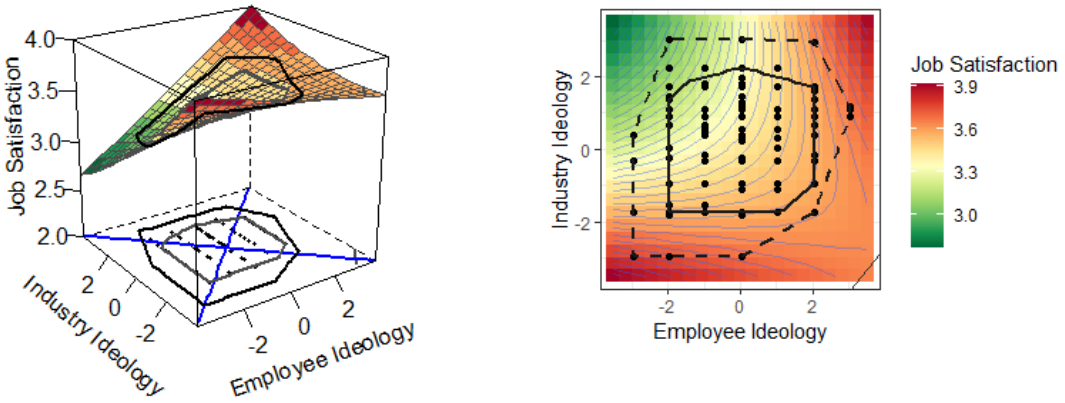
Table 9.
Polynomial Regression and RSA predicting Subsequent Job Satisfaction (2010 Panel)

			95% CI		
Job Satisfaction at Time 2[†]	Estimate	SE	LL	UL	p
Constant	1.313***	0.344	0.639	1.988	<.001
Employee Ideology	0.062	0.038	-0.013	0.137	0.106
Industry Ideology	-0.064*	0.033	-0.128	0.000	0.049
Employee Ideology^2	0.002	0.028	-0.052	0.057	0.933
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	0.029	0.028	-0.026	0.083	0.300
Industry Ideology^2	0.008	0.028	-0.047	0.064	0.764
Female	-0.051	0.09	-0.227	0.126	0.572
Age	0.006	0.005	-0.004	0.015	0.229
Supervisor	0.027	0.09	-0.15	0.204	0.767
Industry contributions	-0.051	0.072	-0.191	0.089	0.477
Job satisfaction (T1)	0.537***	0.077	0.386	0.687	<.001
R^2				0.29	<.001
Position of First Principal Axis					
P_{10}	-7.62	24.187	-55.025	39.786	0.753
P_{11}	1.238	1.725	-2.142	4.618	0.473
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.002	0.042	-0.085	0.080	0.959
Fit Curvature (a^2)	0.039	0.03	-0.02	0.099	0.195
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.126*	0.057	0.014	0.239	0.028
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.018	0.058	-0.131	0.095	0.757
Job Satisfaction at Time 3					
Constant	1.883***	0.29	1.315	2.451	<.001
Employee Ideology	0.014	0.034	-0.052	0.080	0.683
Industry Ideology	-0.039	0.037	-0.112	0.033	0.286
Employee Ideology^2	-0.019	0.02	-0.059	0.020	0.339
Employee Ideology *Industry Ideology	-0.031	0.025	-0.081	0.018	0.216
Industry Ideology^2	-0.001	0.023	-0.046	0.044	0.968
Female	0.035	0.094	-0.15	0.220	0.709
Age	0.002	0.004	-0.005	0.010	0.546
Supervisor	0.069	0.093	-0.114	0.252	0.462
Industry contributions	-0.034	0.068	-0.168	0.100	0.615
Job satisfaction (T2)	0.422***	0.067	0.286	0.558	<.001

R^2				0.23	<.001
Position of First Principal Axis					
P_{10}	-0.268	1.246	-2.711	2.174	0.830
P_{11}	-1.749	1.681	-5.044	1.546	0.298
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.026	0.047	-0.118	0.067	0.587
Fit Curvature (a^2)	-0.052	0.035	-0.120	0.016	0.137
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.053	0.053	-0.050	0.157	0.314
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	0.011	0.044	-0.074	0.096	0.799

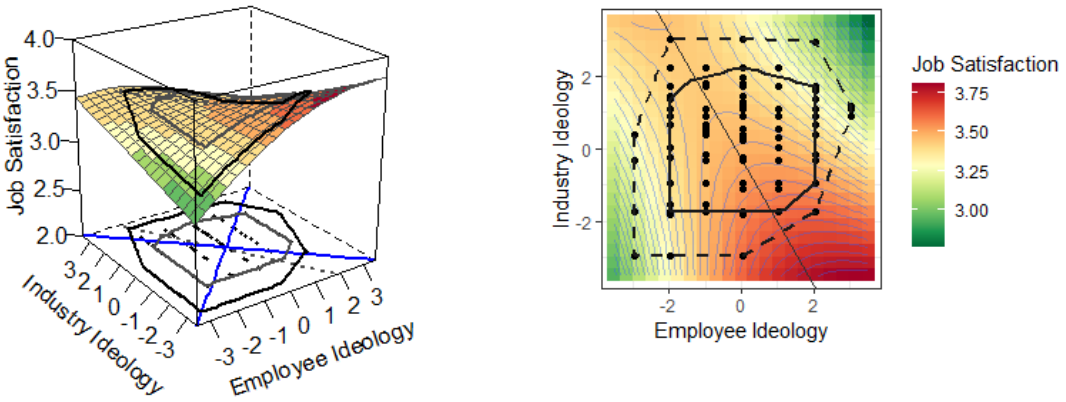
Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. n = 176. † denotes general election year. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X - Y$; $a^4 = X^2 - XY + Y^2$. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Figure 11. 2010 Panel: Ideological Misfit (T1) Predicting Job Satisfaction (T2)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology at time 1 and Industry-level ideology at time 1 predicting job satisfaction at time 2, which was in 2012. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. *n* = 176.

Figure 12. 2010 Panel: Ideological Misfit (T1) Predicting Job Satisfaction (T3)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology at time 1 and Industry-level ideology at time 1 predicting job satisfaction at time 3, which was in 2014. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. *n* = 176.

Latent change score model. We examined whether change in ideological misfit is associated with parallel change in job satisfaction from time 1 to time 3 using LCSM. The analysis was conducted in *R* using the *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012) and *lcsm* (Wiedemann,

2020) packages. Additionally, we followed the approach used by other congruence research that has examined change in congruence over time (Ghetta et al., 2020; Kievit et al., 2018). For this approach, congruence was calculated based on obtaining the absolute difference between employee and industry political ideology, and then subtracted the difference by the theoretical maximum difference of 7 (i.e., 0 represents maximum incongruence, 7 represents maximum congruence) (see Ghetta et al., 2020). This allows for a more accurate congruence measure rather than only taking the difference between both scores

LCSM allows researchers to model within-person change over time, which is assessed based on the latent change factors (i.e., cov_{lcs1} and cov_{lcs2}). The covariance between the simultaneous change in ideological fit and job satisfaction shows whether change in ideological fit is related to a concurrent change in job satisfaction between time 1 and time 2 and between time 2 and time 3. Results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10.
Latent Change Score Model for overall ideological congruence across each panel

	2006 Panel[1]		2008 Panel[2]		2010 Panel[3]	
Parameter	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
β_{IF1}	0.002	0.007	0.006	0.007	-0.003	0.006
β_{IF2}	0.002	0.007	0.006	0.007	-0.003	0.006
β_{JS1}	-0.014	0.007	-0.006	0.007	-0.014	0.007
β_{JS2}	-0.014	0.007	-0.006	0.007	-0.014	0.007
cov_{lcs1}[a]	0.092*	0.019	0.007	0.040	0.039	0.032
cov_{lcs2}[a]	-0.063*	0.019	-0.037	0.031	-0.006	0.030
Model fit						
$\chi^2(df)$	13.47 (15)		27.31 (15)*		18.88 (15)	
CFI	1.000		0.966		0.988	
TLI	1.005		0.966		0.988	
RMSEA	0.000		0.069		0.038	

Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. [1]n = 165. [2]n = 165. [3]n = 176. χ^2= chi-square test statistic; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean-square error of approximation. [a]Covariances cov_{lcs1} and cov_{lcs2} are not set to be equal. *p < .05

For the 2006 panel, the positive covariance of the latent change scores between time 1 and time 2 indicated that change in ideological misfit was related to change in job satisfaction, (cov_{lcs1}= 0.092, p <.05). The positive covariance indicated that ideological fit increased over time the more job satisfaction increased. However, the negative covariance for time 3 indicated an opposite effect; as ideological congruence increased, job satisfaction decreased (cov_{lcs2}= -0.063, p <.05). The 2008 panel did not show significant covariance between time 1 and time 2, (cov_{lcs1}= 0.007, ns), nor was there significant covariance between time 2 and time 3 (cov_{lcs2}= 0.007, ns). Lastly, The 2010 panel did not show significant covariance between time 1 and time 2, (cov_{lcs1}= 0.039, ns). Additionally, no significant covariance between time 2 and time 3 was found (cov_{lcs2}= -0.006, ns). Results from the 2006 panel demonstrated that change in ideological misfit is associated with change in job satisfaction, at least from time 1 to time 2. Covariance from time 2 to time 3 was significant, but in the opposite direction than expected. Therefore, we found mixed support for H3.

Discussion

We investigated how ideological misfit between employees and their industry of employment impacts job satisfaction**.** The current study makes several contributions to the person-environment fit literature, including the development of a novel conceptualization of P-E fit (i.e., person-industry fit). Using datasets from the GSS and CRP, along with a unique approach to capture industry political ideology, we generally found mixed support for our hypotheses. The nature of these mixed findings are consistent with Bermiss and McDonald (2018) who found directional differences associated with turnover. Political ideology is an intersection of one's identity, and there

are several other dispositional and environmental factors that complicate the fit relationship, including the weight individual's place on these facets of their identity. An industry's political ideology is likely perpetuated through the norms established by the sum of organizations within it. We argue that this is driven by campaign contributions, lobbying (Bonica, 2013), design, structure, and industry agendas, which trickle down to organizations and inevitably, their employees.

Given the level of agreement across all analyses between employee and industry political ideology, approximately two-thirds of employees may potentially consider themselves ideological misfits within their industry at any given timepoint (at least based on objective measures). Though this may not come across as a surprising notion since industries are comprised of many different types of organizations all with varying views, though some more clustered than others. Nonetheless, this study found that more than half of employees hold significantly discrepant views from their industry of employment in either direction.

With the exception of the 2006 panel (cross-sectional analysis) we did not find curvature along the line of congruence, however, there were instances where a linear relationship was found between misfits and job satisfaction, such as the 2010 cross-sectional analysis. This implied that there are possible directional differences between liberals and conservatives, such that liberal misfits are more harshly affected by working in industries that tend to be more conservative. This is also consistent with Bermiss and McDonald (2018) who found that conservative misfits were more likely to quit their firms. While Edwards and Cable (2009) establish the conditions for idealized value congruence, they acknowledge that failing to completely satisfy this criteria does not

necessarily mean that congruence is not supported. However, in the case of the current study, the caveat for the incongruence effects found seem to depend on the direction of the misfit.

In cross-sectional analyses where no effect (2008) or the opposite effect (2006) was found, it is possible that the social context, the changing nature of workplace, and industry norms accounted for this. The famous *Citizens United* case determined that unions and corporations were permitted to promote and advertise support (or opposition) toward candidates running for public office without any limitations on spending (*Citizens United v. Federal Election Comm'n*, 2010). This period marked a change in political dynamics that led to greater involvement on behalf of organizations and industries (Klumpp et al., 2016). Upon closer examination of regression coefficients for the 2010 cross-section, two main effects emerged between employee ideology (b = -0.038, $p < .05$) and industry ideology (b = -0.066, $p < .001$) that were not apparent with the other two cross-sections (see Table 4). Conservatives appeared to have higher levels of job satsifaction, however, conservative industries showed a negative association with job satisfaction. Moreover, industry contributions had a negative relationship with job satisfaction in 2010 (b = -0.095, $p < .05$), but not with the other years, implying that higher contributions influenced lower levels of job satisfaction during this time. It is possible that this confluence of factors contributed to the politicization of the workplace, which could have indirectly impacted employees' attitudes. While effects were not found cross-sectionally for the other years, this may be in part due to the context of the time period in which data was collected.

Close inspection of the repsonse surfaces for our time-lagged analyses show consistent patterns in the expected directions. Due to the lack of statistical power, the effects did not always emerge as significant. Though, liberal misfits did appear to have lower levels of job satisfaction than conservative mifits (at time 2) for the 2010 panel. This effect was no longer apparent at time 3, though it is possible that misfits find other organizations within the same industry that may be more closely aligned with their ideological views. Additionally, time 2 for the 2010 panel occurred in 2012, which was the first general election since the *Citizens United* case. There is a possibility that the political climate was more salient during this time, which made employees more sensitive to the political involvement of their respective organizations. We were unable to account for this in the current analysis, but this may serve as potential area for future research to examine.

Additionally, our research contributes to the growing literature on job satisfaction, which included approaches to assessing change over time through a fit perspective.We saw some evidence for within-person change in congruence covarying with change in job satisfaction. If change in congruence is associated with change in job satisfaction, it may be reasonable to infer that ideological misfits assimilate or seek employment at another organization within their industry (Bermis & McDonald, 2018; Meyerson, 2001). Altenatively, over time, an industry may shift in a direction that is more aligned with an employee's ideology, which may or may not be communicated directly, thereby causing the employee to reevaluate their ideological congruence. However, more research is needed to support these assertions as methodologies involving change over time usually require robust sample sizes and a sufficient number of time points.

Overall, our findings broadly suggest that misfit can be experienced at the industry-level, though it is unclear whether this evaluation happens at a conscious-level for employees. Specifically, ideological congruence may not always be at the forefront of an employee's mind. However, the ideological orientation of an organization or industry can manifest throughout the work environment, which impacts hierarchy, diversity, hiring and selection processes, cultural norms, and values. In this regard, industry and organization ideology can embody these environmental factors.

Several implications related to research and practice surfaced. First, the high level of discrepancy between employees and industries suggests that the manner in which industries, sectors, and organizations communicate values, especially those tied to political or social issues, is crucial. While organizations risk leaning too far in one direction and alienating a significant portion of their employee base (including those who identify as moderate or apolitical), it is important to showcase these values and educate employees in way that fosters congruence. Values are often a key source of information for employees as they assess fit between themselves and their workplace (Kristof, 1996). Organizations may strive to emphasize values during the early stages of employee recrutiment to attract candidates who are congruent, but to also directly communicate their values to prospective applicants (Highhouse et al., 2006). Communicating and practicing prosocial values can enhance satisfaction and wellbeing of employees and may temper the negative effects of ideological misfit. Typically, integrating more humanistic approaches (e.g., organizational support, authentic leaderhsip, autonomy, etc.) into the cultural orientation of an organization can support job attitudes (Braun & Peus, 2018; Rosanas, 2008; Suazo & Turnely, 2010).

Limitations and Future Directions

Though the current study delivered various contributions and insights to the literature on P-E fit and value congruence, it is not without its limitations. First, the use of a secondary dataset to explore the focal relationships may restrict the generalizations regarding our results. A wide variety of industries were represented in the sample and items were restricted to single measures, which presents challenges in assessing reliability and validity. However, we attempted to balance this through exploring these relationships and testing our hypotheses across three different panels and subgroups within each panel. Furthermore, research within I-O Psychology has provided ample support for the use of single item measures to capture affective states and job attitudes (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983; Ittner & Larcker, 1998; Wanous et al., 1997).

The person-industry relationship may seem at first as a broad and abstract conceptualization within the P-E fit context. This is further complicated by the notion that employees can work for different organizaitons within the same industry, thereby impacting their preceptions of fit. Nonetheless, our research question was focused on assessing fit at this level as industry trends and behaviors are likely to filter to the organization level. Additionally, if effects exist at the industry level, it is also likely that these effects are present at the organizational-level, if not more so. Future research should continue to build on this conceptualization to examine its validity and impact on other workplace mechanisms, such as performance, stress, and motivation. Considering that employees are known to conceal aspects of their identity that they fear will be stigmatized or accompanied by a loss of resources (Kallschmidt & Eaton, 2018), strain is an additional outcome that merits further exploration (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; van

Vianen, 2018). On a macro-level, the behavior of organizations that may be deemed misfits within their industries could elicit research questions and results that may eventually tie back to employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., "the conservative-oriented university," "the progressive construction company").

There are often challenges with intersecting a topic like political ideology with theories derived from a separate, specialized discipline, such as I-O Psychology. We are not naïve to think that all possible explanations have been accounted for in our analysis. There are possibly other interpretations that may have been explored or interpreted differently by researchers from different fields. Future research may consider integrating interdisciplinary approaches by incorporating perspectives from disciplines outside of I-O Psychology (i.e., sociology, political science). Doing so will potentially help refine interpretations, enhance accessibility and application of findings, and strengthen inferences to optimize our understanding of these important issues.

Conclusion

Our paper contributes to the extant literature of P-E fit as well as the emerging research on ideological misfit at work. We offer a novel conceptualization of P-E fit that captures the relationship between employee and industry political ideology. Additionally, ideological misfit appears to have some effect on employee job satisfaction, albeit depending on the time period in which this is assessed. We detected some notable associations with the more recent panel (i.e., 2010), which raises the question of whether the trajectory of political ideology at work is on the rise. Ultimately, industries and organizations wield great power in communicating values and generating resources so that these ideals are manifested in the workplace. Despite this influence, it would be wise

for organizaiton to tend to the morals and beliefs of their employee population in a way that supports their wellbeing and success, which in turn carries significant implications for the survival of their institutions.

WHEN FIT HITS THE FAN: EXAMINING THE INTERACTIVE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDEOLOGICAL MISFIT AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS (STUDY 3)

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In 2020, 44% of HR professional reported extreme conflict, hostility, and tension related to political ideology at work (SHRM, 2020[b]). More recently, there has been a call for research to examine new operationalizations Person-Environment (P-E) fit and workplace outcomes (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Harold, Oh, Holtz, Han, & Giacalone, 2016; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Thus, motivations for the current study are rooted in examining correlates of ideological misfit using a P-E fit framework. Specifically, we explored the effects of ideological misfit between employees and their organizations on counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). We focused on CWBs that target the organization (CWB-O) and those that are aimed at other individuals (CWB-I). We also examined whether these relationships were moderated by perceived organizational support (POS), such that higher levels of support mitigate the occurrence of CWBs.

From an applicant's perspective, a major goal in searching for a job is to find a place of work that is well-suited to their values, needs, and abilities (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Similarly, organizations invest significant resources in recruiting and selecting employees that align with the company's mission and values. Strong alignment between individuals and their employing organizations can yield substantial benefits, such as retention, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Ostroff, Shin, & Kinicki, 2005; van Vianen, 2018). However, there are often significant mismatch between employees and organizational values, which can lead to negative consequences like unfavorable job attitudes and undesirable performance behaviors (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Harold, Oh, Holtz, Han, & Giacalone, 2016).

Person-Organization (P-O) fit is based upon the notion that the values and attributes of an organization are shaped by the members in them, which in turn, has an imposing influence on organizational design, practices, and culture (van Vianen, 2018). Thus, P-O fit is based on the degree of similarity between an individual's values and those of the organization (van Vianen, 2018). Research has linked P-O fit with several workplace correlates, including job satisfaction (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer, & Sablynski, 2007), organizational commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991), job performance (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001), and perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

Ideological Misfit and P-O fit

Political ideology reflects an agent's attitudes and values about the goals of society, and how those goals should be achieved (Tedin, 1987). It is common for individuals to identify with various tenets of a political ideology along a conservative or liberal continuum, though this is mainly driven by their social attitudes and perceptions of inequality (Jost, Federico, & Napier, 2009). When employees work for an organization which they perceive to have discrepant morals and ideals from their own, they are less likely to see themselves as a "good fit."

Ideological misfit refers to the incongruence between an individual's political ideology and the dominant ideology of her/his employing organization (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Chopik & Motyl, 2016). Therefore, organizational "misfits" are employees who perceive their values to be incongruent from their employing organization (Kristof, 1996). This conceptualization of fit is warranted since political

ideology serves as a guiding principle for individuals' beliefs and values. Similarly, organizations establish agendas and systemic structures that coincide with external political interests and values of high-level executives. Therefore, the discrepancy between employee and organizational values has the potential to marginalize individuals, which can negatively impact motivation, discourage employee effort, and has been shown to influence turnover (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018). As a result, this can significantly impact an organization's level of performance as it can undermine the pursuit of institutional objectives.

In the context of the current study, misfit is not solely dichotomized into two political factions, but instead, along a continuum in which a broader set of ideological views are represented (i.e., liberal to conservative). Therefore, "excess" ideology refers to the perceived surplus of conservative values espoused by the target organization, while "deficiency" describes to liberal ideology. Related to this, Edwards (1996) discussed the effects of excess on employee outcomes regarding environment supplies and employee values. While Edwards (2006) describes this using a different conceptualization of fit, the findings suggest that excess supplies (in this case, conservatism) may lead to strain for misfit employees who are less conservative than their organization.

Inferring Organization Political Ideology and Ideological Misfit

People are known to classify others into social categories based on physical appearance (Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2000). Perceptions of one's surroundings can be interpreted and motivated by one's ideological beliefs, which may also influence group categorization and negative attitudes towards outgroup members (Stern, 2019). When it comes to inferring the political ideology of an organization, individuals may weigh a

variety of dispositional and situational factors to make sense of their organization's political leanings. For political ideology, dispositional factors may include characteristics tied to the individual's identity and personality, such as openness to experience, fear of threat and loss, tolerance for ambiguity, or preference for hierarchical versus equitable structures (Jost et al., 2003). Individuals often seek environments that are conducive to their personal values (Chopik & Motyl, 2016). However, in many ways, their ability to accurately infer these similarities may not be as precise (Stern, 2019). As it relates to perceiving an organization's political ideology, Levinson (1965) provided justification as to why individuals personify powerful entities, such as organizations and corporations. An organization maintains (1) responsibility for the behaviors of its representatives, (2) stability offered by culture and norms, and (3) exerts power, through its representatives, over individual employees.

While organizations try to minimize hiring individuals who do not fit in with company culture or values, there are a few reasons why P-E misfit continues to be prevalent in the workplace. Factors such as suboptimal economic conditions, lack of alternative employment options, HR selection practices that prioritize competency over fit, and motivated job applicants who disregard the importance of fit can increase the pervasiveness of misfits throughout an organization (Sthapit, 2010; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016). Despite the negative connotations often attributed to misfits, these situations can positively influence organizational effectiveness through increased diversity and creativity (Hoever, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Barkema, 2012). Nonetheless, over time, misfits inevitably feel a lack of belonging within their

organization and become disengaged with their work (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Edwards & Shipp, 2007; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016).

CWBs as a consequence of Ideological Misfit

CWBs are defined as volitional behaviors on behalf of an organization's employee that are detrimental to the legitimate interests of the organization and/or its members (Sackett & DeVore, 2002; Spector & Fox, 2005). Additionally, these facets can be further classified into two subdimensions depending on the target of these behaviors: CWBs that target the organization (CWB-O) and those that target other individuals (CWB-I) (also referred to as organizational deviancy and interpersonal deviancy; Bennett & Robinson, 2000).

CWB-O refers to negative behaviors directed toward the organization. Some examples include stealing from the company, lying about work activities, and excessive absenteeism (Raver, 2012). On the other hand, CWB-I includes activities such as making threats, spreading rumors, ostracizing peers, and making ethically inappropriate comments. Much of the job performance and strain research within organizational psychology considers CWBs to be a function of an individual's dispositional attributes and situation-based causes (Berry et al., 2007; Gruys & Sackett; 2003; Spector & Fox, 2005).

The most researched person-based predictors of CWBs include conscientiousness (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007), trait anger (Ilie, Penney, Ispas, & Iliescu, 2012), locus of control (Fox & Spector, 1999), and narcissism (Penney & Spector, 2005). Among environmental factors, norms (Smithikrai, 2008), stress (Spector & Fox, 2005), control (Marcus & Schuler, 2004), and perceptions of injustice (Berry et al., 2007) are also

predictive of CWBs. Antecedents of CWBs have differential effects depending on the type of CWB being analyzed. For example, conscientiousness relates more strongly to CWBs that target the organization rather than those that target other individuals (Berry et al., 2007).

While the extant literature on P-E fit has concentrated a great deal on workplace outcomes like turnover and job attitudes (see Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), there is a notable lack of research examining the relationship between P-E fit and CWBs. However, some research has produced relevant findings. For instance, Liao, Joshi, and Chuang (2004) found that dissimilarity in openness to experience (among other traits) between employees and their organization negatively influenced organizational deviance. Though the use of difference scores in this study, limit the assertions we may deduce from this. However, in another study, Harold and colleagues (2016) investigated the relationship between P-E fit and CWBs, which found support linking various facets of fit with CWBs. Specifically, P-O was negatively associated to corresponding targets of CWBs. The study concluded that frustration mediated the effects between fit and CWBs, but this further informed the need to understand potential moderating effects between the P-E fit and CWB relationship.

Research on ideological polarization provides some perspective as to why employees experiencing misfit would engage in retaliatory behaviors toward an organization and/or its members. Employees with strong political leanings are likely to engage in CWBs if there is a perception that their organization represents an opposing ideology. Mackie, Devos, and Smith (2000) found that strong intergroup identification was associated with anger toward an opponent group, which subsequently influenced

behavioral tendencies such as arguing, confronting, opposing, and attacking members of the opposing group.

Taken together, examining the relationship between ideological misfit and CWBs offers intuitive appeal since both constructs appear to correspond with one another. Situationally, it is possible that partisan individuals would feel provoked by an organization that took a political stance counter to their values, which could lead to subsequent aggression in the form of CWBs, especially if this provocation induces stress and/or strain (Meier & Spector, 2013).

H1. The prevalence of (a) CWB-Os and (b) CWB-Is will increase as discrepancy in political ideology between an employee and organization increases.

Buffering effects of Perceived Organizational Support

Research on political polarization has found that 40-60% of partisan individuals endorsed moral disengagement (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 1996) regarding their rationalization for destructive behaviors toward political opponents (Kalmoe & Mason, 2019). Some potential explanations to this are tied to individuals' personalities. For instance, aggressive personality traits and political anger can influence the desire to harm opposing political entities (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Huddy, Feldman, & Erin, 2007; Kalmoe, 2014), which provides stronger support for engagement in CWBs, particularly because of its association with trait anger (Ilie et al., 2012). However, organizational factors can potentially assuage the negative outcomes associated with misfit through demonstrating genuine care and well-being for employees. Perceived organizational support (POS), or employees' perceptions regarding the extent to which

the organization values their inputs and supports their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), can serve as this buffer.

As a moderator, POS has also been shown to buffer the negative effects associated with stressors and strain (George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993; Jawahar, Stone, Kisamore, 2007). Considering that stress and strain are associated with CWBs (Spector & Fox, 2005), and POS is negatively related to CWBs that target the organization and/or the individual (Kurtessis et al., 2017), it is likely that POS can curtail the effects of ideological misfit on CWBs. Specifically, high levels of POS will attenuate the relationship between high ideological misfit and CWBs, whereas low POS will worsen the effects of ideological misfit on CWBs.

H2. POS will buffer the effects of the relationship between ideological misfit and (a) CWB-Os and (b) CWB-Is, such that, when POS is high, the effects along the line of incongruence will be less pronounced. However, when POS is low, the effects along the line of incongruence will be stronger as ideological discrepancy increases.

Furthermore, including POS as a moderator in the relationship between ideological misfit and CWBs offers some practical insight as to how organizations can offset negative behaviors through providing meaningful support.

Method

Commensurate, indirect measures of subjective political ideology were used to assess person-organization ideological components. This enables both components to be analyzed independently, while also including a subjective comparison from the participant's perspective to form the fit measure. Additionally, our study used a time-lag

approach (i.e., data collected at two time points) to reduce the effects of common method bias (Podsakoff, 2003).

Sample

Participants were recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), which enables researchers to assign specific criteria for participants. We estimated the needed sample size for at least 80% power based on prior approaches used in research related to P-E fit and negative workplace outcomes (with buffering effects; e.g., Vogel et al., 2016), Power analysis indicated at least 400 participants would be needed to detect a small effect size with alpha equal to .05, 1 - β equal to 0.80. Therefore, a total of 800 participants were recruited at the initial time point to account for attrition at time 2. The criteria were as follows: workers must have had a minimum approval rating of 90% or higher, employed full-time, located in the United States, and their political affiliation was equal to liberal or conservative (400 each). After time 1 data collection was completed, participants were offered the opportunity to take the survey again at time 2 (two months later). Of the original 800 participants, 453 responded at time 2 (57%). Participant scores from time 2 were matched with scores from time 1 using their Amazon worker ID as the unique identifier.

The final sample was made up of 450 full-time employees in the U.S. representing various industries and occupations. Approximately 57% (n = 254) of respondents identified as men, 76% (n = 340) had earned a four-year degree or higher, 60% (n = 269) reported having supervisory responsibilities, 53% (n = 237) worked for an organization with fewer than 500 employees, the average age was 41 years old (SD = 11.01), and average organizational tenure was 8.04 years (SD = 6.02).

The mean political ideology of the sample was 3.82 (*SD* = 2.00, skew = 0.08) [(rated on a scale of 1 ("extremely liberal") to 7 ("extremely conservative")]. We also collected participant party affiliation, which was 56% (*n* = 253) democrat, 31% (*n* = 138) republican, 12% (*n* = 54) independent, and 1% (*n* = 5) other. While the mean political ideology averaged to what would be considered a "moderate" score (4 is the midpoint), our intention was to strive for an even split between liberals and conservatives to have representation from the two polar ends of the political continuum. This balance was nearly attained with 49% (*n* = 219) of participants having a score less that 4 (i.e., liberals), and 40% (*n* = 178) having a score more than 4 (i.e., conservatives). However, there was a slight discrepancy between participants' self-reported political ideology and their self-reported party affiliation (i.e., republicans who identified as liberals and vice-versa). Upon closer investigation (see Figure 1), the distribution appeared to reflect national trends. Within the past year, it was reported that half of registered Democrats identify as having liberal views, while the other half is made up of moderates (approx. 38%) and conservatives (approx. 14%) (Pew Research Center, 2020). Thus, the small discrepancy between ideology and party affiliation reflects the nuanced views tied to individuals' political identity. The implications of this are addressed in our discussion.

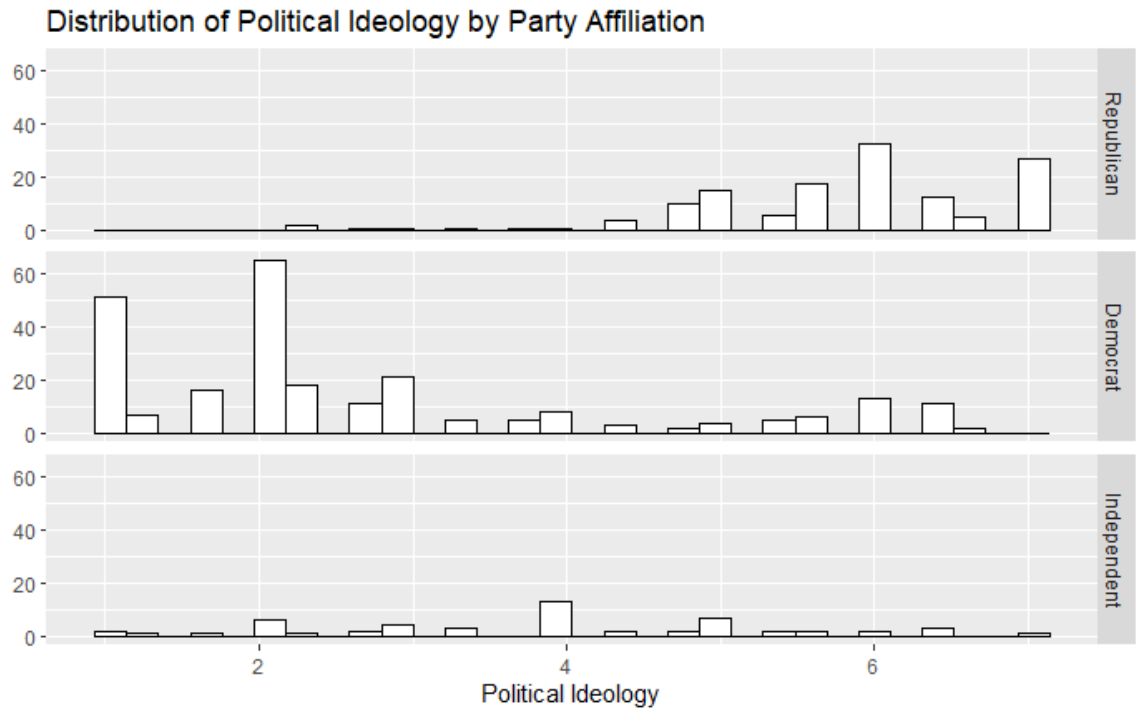


Figure 13. Political Ideology by participant party affiliation

Procedure

To mitigate issues related to common method bias, a two-wave panel design was implemented using a two-month time lag (Brusso, Cigularov, & Callan, 2014; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). A two-month interval was chosen since shorter time lags are likely to inflate effects between variables, while longer time lags increase the risk of participant attrition (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Indeed, intervals less than two months have previously been used in time-lagged congruence (Schuh, Niels, Keck, Göritz, De Cremer, & Xin, 2018; Vogel et al., 2016) and CWB (De Clercq, Haq, & Azeem, 2019) studies to effectively reduce common method bias. Nonetheless, a two-month interval is preferred considering that the

effects of stressors (in this case, misfit) on CWBs have been shown to be similar across shorter and longer time lags (i.e., over an eight-month span; Meier & Spector, 2013).

Measures

Political Ideology

For employee and organization political ideology (at time 1), we used the Political Conservatism Measure by Kim and Tidwell (2014). An example item for employee ideology is "how would you describe your political outlook with respect to social issues?" whereas the corresponding item for organization ideology is "How would you describe your ORGANIZATION'S political outlook with respect to social issues?" Items were rated from a 1 to 7-point scale with 1 being "very liberal" and 7 being "very conservative." The reliability for employee political ideology was strong ($\alpha = 0.95$). Additionally, organization political ideology had high internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.93$)

Perceived Organizational Support

For POS (at time 1), 10 items were used from Eisenberger and colleagues (1986). An example item is "The organization values my contribution to its well-being." The POS scale demonstrated high reliability ($\alpha = 0.96$).

Counterproductive Work Behaviors

CWBs (at time 2) were rated using a 12-item measure from Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009), which incorporates elements from Bennet and Robinson (2000) and Sackett and DeVore (2002). This scale included subscales for CWBs that target the organization and CWBs that target other individuals. The measure also emphasizes more common types of CWBs (e.g., "took an unnecessary break") rather than less frequently occurring ones (e.g., "using illegal drugs or consuming alcohol on the job"). An example

item for CWB-O is “spoke poorly about my organization to others.” An example item for CWB-I was “Behaved in an unpleasant manner toward a coworker.” Items were rated on a 5-point scale (see Appendix). CWB items were prefaced with the stem: “In the last two weeks, to what extent have you engaged in the following behaviors?” Reliability was strong for the CWB-O ($\alpha = 0.92$) and CWB-I ($\alpha = 0.95$) subscales.

Social Desirability

CWB is a difficult construct to measure given that it tends to have a low base rate for more severe forms (e.g., theft, substance abuse, sabotage). CWBs relationship with integrity (Berry et al., 2007) also suggests that self-reports of CWBs could potentially be inflated because of social desirability in responding (Sackett, 2002). To offset this, some research recommends procedures such as the random response technique (Donovan, Dwight, & Hurtz, 2003) and social desirability scales (Peterson, Griffith, Isaacson, O’Connell, & Mangos, 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003). In this case, a 10-item social desirability scale was included to account for this potential confound (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). An example item is “I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake.” The purpose of including this scale is to assess whether social desirability ratings influence responses to CWBs. The reliability for social desirability (at time 2) was adequate ($\alpha = .71$).

Analytical Strategy

To test H1, ideological misfit (time 1) will be used to predict counterproductive work behaviors at time 2, while controlling for counterproductive work behaviors at time 1 (see Brusso et al., 2014). In examining H2, POS (time 1) will be used to test the interaction. Additionally, as recommended by Edwards (1994), variables should be

centered on a common scale prior to polynomial regression analysis as this approach diminishes high levels of multicollinearity among P-E components and their corresponding quadratic terms. Furthermore, moderated polynomial regression will follow a path analytic technique (see Su, Zhang, Liu, & Tay, 2019). The advantage of using this approach over traditional OLS is that it mitigates the amount of measurement error that is known to bias parameter estimates. Furthermore, while the inclusion of a third variable as a moderator (i.e., POS) adds a level of complexity, it allows for further examination of environmental factors that potentially attenuate or accentuate consequences. This approach is fairly novel in that researchers have only recently theorized about modeling congruence using structural equation (Su et al., 2019). Furthermore, model comparison was conducted to test incremental change in R^2 (i.e., one model constraining interactive polynomial terms, and a subsequent model including the moderator terms; Edwards, 2009)

Response surface analysis (RSA) was used in tandem with polynomial regression to examine the surface of the quadratic regression equations across each level of POS (i.e., low, medium, and high). Aside from the ability to model quadratic effects, this approach includes a stationary point where the surface's slope regarding the relationship between X and Y to Z is zero in all directions. The RSA is generated according to polynomial regression weights, which signify the unique effects of focal employee ideology and organizational ideology (linear and quadratic), and their interaction (i.e., ideological misfit). Analyses were conducted in R using the *RSA* (Schönbrodt, 2016) and *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012) packages. To isolate the effects of ideological misfit (at time 1) on CWBs (at time 2), a series of control variables were also included in each model (i.e.,

gender, age, supervisor status, organizational size, organizational tenure, CWB at time 1, and social desirability).

Results

Data were screened for influential outliers using studentized residuals and Cook's d to remove influential cases (Belsley et al., 1980; Fox, 1991). Cases that exceeded the cutoff for both approaches were examined for aberrant responses. Three cases were removed based on this criterion, which accounted for less than 1% of the sample. Hypotheses were tested using polynomial regression and response surface analysis techniques. All analyses were conducted in *R* using the *psych* (Revelle, 2021), *lavaan* (Rosseel, 2012), and *RSA* (Schönbrodt, 2016) packages.

Descriptive statistics

Means, standards deviations, and correlations for all study variables are presented in Table 11. Correlations appeared stable across all focal variables between time 1 and time 2, suggesting that there was minimal change during the two-month time lag. Among the focal variables, employee political ideology and organizational ideology were positively and strongly correlated (time 1; $r = .52$, $p < .01$). This indicated that employees tend to work in organizations where they perceive a similar political ideology. Employee ideology was also positively correlated with perceived organizational support (time 1; $r = .19$, $p < .01$). Higher levels of employee conservatism were associated with higher levels of perceived organizational support. Employee political ideology (at time 1) was also positively related to CWBs targeting individuals (time 2; $r = .28$, $p < .01$) and CWBs targeting organizations (time 2; $r = .14$, $p < .01$). Higher conservatism was associated with higher engagement in CWBs.

Similarly, perceived organization political ideology (at time 1) was positively related to CWBs targeting individuals (time 2; $r = .20$, $p < .01$) and CWBs targeting organizations (time 2; $r = .16$, $p < .01$). Organizations that were perceived to be more conservative was associated with a higher frequency of CWBs. Perceived organizational support (at time 1) was negatively related to CWBs that target the organization (time 2; $r = -.12$, $p < .01$). No significant relationship was found between perceived organizational support and CWBs that target individuals (time 2; $r = .07$, *ns*).

Table 11.

Means, standard deviations, and correlations with confidence intervals

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Woman	0.43	0.50	-							
2. Age	40.88	11.01	.02	-						
3. Supervisor	0.60	0.49	-.12*	-.04	-					
4. Organization Size	0.46	0.50	-.01	.09	-.05	-				
5. Organization Tenure	8.04	6.02	-.06	.47**	.08	.15**	-			
6. Social Desirability (T1)	4.82	2.37	.00	.10*	.04	.04	.03	(0.70)		
7. Social Desirability (T2)	4.68	2.43	.00	.05	.03	-.01	.02	.81**	(0.71)	
8. Employee Ideology (T1)	3.82	2.00	-.12*	.10*	.15**	-.06	.07	.12*	.10*	(0.95)
9. Employee Ideology (T2)	3.81	1.98	-.08	.12*	.14**	-.07	.07	.10*	.11*	.91**
10. Organization Ideology (T1)	4.23	1.60	-.07	.10*	.03	-.01	.08	.01	.01	.52**
11. Organization Ideology (T2)	4.22	1.62	-.06	.09*	.06	-.03	.09	-.02	.02	.42**
12. POS (T1)	5.22	1.27	-.05	.05	.21**	-.15**	.06	.24**	.23**	.19**
13. POS (T2)	5.24	1.32	-.03	.02	.21**	-.15**	.05	.21**	.20**	.15**
14. CWB-I (T1)	1.75	1.07	-.08	-.14**	.34**	-.06	.04	.05	.05	.35**
15. CWB-I (T2)	1.76	1.09	-.08	-.11*	.35**	-.07	.01	.09	.07	.28**
16. CWB-O (T1)	1.93	1.03	-.09	-.17**	.23**	-.04	.00	-.03	-.01	.22**
17. CWB-O (T2)	1.96	1.01	-.07	-.08	.21**	-.02	.03	-.02	-.07	.14**

	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Woman									
2. Age									
3. Supervisor									
4. Organization Size									
5. Organization Tenure									
6. Social Desirability (T1)									
7. Social Desirability (T2)									
8. Employee Ideology (T1)									
9. Employee Ideology (T2)	(0.95)								
10. Organization Ideology (T1)	.45**	(0.93)							
11. Organization Ideology (T2)	.47**	.66**	(0.93)						
12. POS (T1)	.17**	-.02	-.02	(0.96)					
13. POS (T2)	.16**	-.01	-.05	.79**	(0.96)				
14. CWB-I (T1)	.33**	.29**	.33**	.09*	.07	(0.93)			

15. CWB-I (T2)	.28**	.20**	.25**	.07	.07	.81**	(0.95)		
16. CWB-O (T1)	.21**	.19**	.26**	-.09	-.08	.82**	.70**	(0.92)	
17. CWB-O (T2)	.14**	.16**	.21**	-.12**	-.13**	.66**	.81**	.74**	(0.92)

Note. $N = 450$. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Reliabilities located on diagonal in parenthesis. Values for *Woman* are assigned as Woman = 1, Man = 0. Values for *Supervisor* are assigned as Supervisor = 1, non-Supervisor = 0. Values for *Organization Size* are more than 500 employees = 1, fewer than 500 employees = 0. POS is Perceived Organizational Support. *CWB-I* is Counterproductive Work Behaviors targeting individuals. *CWB-O* is Counterproductive Work Behaviors targeting the organization.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Prior to conducting polynomial regression analyses, we examined the rate of discrepancy between the focal predictors (i.e., employee ideology and organization ideology; see Table 12). This is essential for assessing the existence and direction of discrepancies in the sample (Shanock et al., 2010). Based on our analysis of ideological agreement among respondents and their respective organizations, we concluded that analyzing the ideological fit of employees as it relates to job satisfaction is justified. The sample was nearly split evenly in terms of employees "in agreement" and ideological misfits. Agreement at both time points was included to assess stability of the fit relationships.

Table 12.
Ideological agreement between employees and organization at time 1 and time 2

		Mean Employee Ideology		Mean Organization Ideology	
Agreement groups	Percentage	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Conservative Misfit (T1)	17.1	5.73	1.11	3.56	1.21
In agreement (T1)	47.6	4.33	1.87	4.31	1.87
Liberal Misfit (T1)	35.3	2.21	1.14	4.46	1.26
Conservative Misfit (T2)	16.7	5.66	1.21	3.23	1.30
In agreement (T2)	47.1	4.31	1.85	4.30	1.83
Liberal Misfit (T2)	36.2	2.30	1.26	4.58	1.24

Note. M and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. $n = 450$. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. "Liberal Misfit" describes employees who are less conservative than their organization. "Conservative Misfit" is used to describe employees who are more conservative than their industry. A cutpoint of $|\Delta z| > 0.5$ is used to categorize numerical congruence, which means that employees are categorized into misfit groups if the discrepancy in either direction is 0.5 standard deviations or higher.

In Table 13, we present results for ideological misfit (at time 1) predicting CWB-O (at time 2). In evaluating H1a, Curvature along the line of misfit was not significant in predicting CWB-O, $a^4 = -0.029$, *ns*. Moreover, the slope along the line of incongruence was not significant, $a^3 = -0.058$, *ns*. The response surface for this relationship showed a concave shape (i.e., slight "saddle" shape; see Figure 2). However, the expected

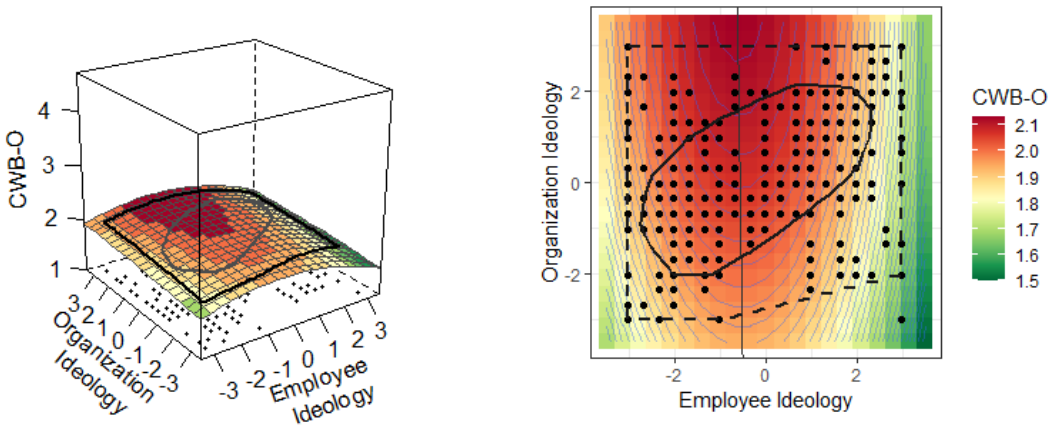
relationship would have suggested a convex or "bowl" shaped surface. Given the concave surface, the first principal axis indicates where downward curvature is least (Edwards, 2002). In other words, the maximum predicted values of CWB-O appeared in an area of the surface where employees would be considered "politically moderate" misfits in politically conservative organizations. Additionally, no effects were found along the line of congruence (a^1 = -0.005, *ns;* a^2 = -0.031, *ns*), suggesting that employees in agreement with their organization's ideology did not differ in CWB-O engagement regardless of their level of congruence. H1a was not supported.

Table 13.
Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis predicting CWB-O

			95% CI		
Variable	Estimate	SE	LL	UL	*p*
Constant	0.498**	0.166	0.172	0.824	0.003
Employee Ideology (T1)	-0.031	0.016	-0.063	0.001	0.054
Organization Ideology (T1)	0.027	0.022	-0.017	0.071	0.235
Employee Ideology^2	-0.027**	0.01	-0.048	-0.007	0.009
Employee Ideology *Organization Ideology	-0.001	0.009	-0.018	0.017	0.936
Organization Ideology ^{2}	-0.003	0.013	-0.029	0.023	0.831
Woman	-0.001	0.061	-0.12	0.119	0.992
Age	0.005	0.003	-0.001	0.012	0.096
Supervisor	0.116	0.063	-0.008	0.239	0.066
Organization Size	0.031	0.066	-0.099	0.161	0.642
Organization Tenure	-0.002	0.005	-0.013	0.008	0.654
CWB-O (T1)	0.727***	0.042	0.645	0.808	<.001
Social Desirability (T2)	-0.026*	0.011	-0.048	-0.004	0.02
R^2				0.57	<.001
Position of Principal Axes					
P_{10}	-39.01	494.68	-1008.57	930.55	0.937
P_{11}	-68.67	849.81	-1734.27	1596.92	0.936
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.005	0.025	-0.053	0.044	0.847
Fit Curvature (a^2)	-0.031	0.017	-0.064	0.003	0.071
Misfit Slope (a^3)	-0.058	0.03	-0.118	0.002	0.057
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.029	0.019	-0.066	0.007	0.113

Note. N = 450. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X - Y$; $a^4 = X^2 - XY + Y^2$.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Figure 14. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-O (T2)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting the organization. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. n = 450.

Results for ideological misfit (at time 1) predicting CWB-I (at time 2) are presented in Table 14. The response surface reflected a concave shape (i.e., slight "saddle" shape; see Figure 3) along the line of incongruence, which is indicated by the non-significant slope (a^3 = 0.008, *ns*) and negative and significant curvature (a^4 = -0.041, $p < .05$). This indicated that as ideological misfit increased, CWB-I decreased. While this interpretation was unexpected, evaluation of the first principal axis showed that the maximum predicted values of CWB-I appeared in an area of the surface where employees would be considered "politically moderate" misfits in politically liberal organizations.

Additionally, no effects were found along the line of congruence (a^1 = -0.024, *ns;* a^2 = -0.027, *ns*), which indicated that employees in agreement with their organization's ideology do not differ in CWB-I engagement regardless of their alignment. While the criteria for a *strict* congruence effect were met (see Humberg et al., 2019), the shape of

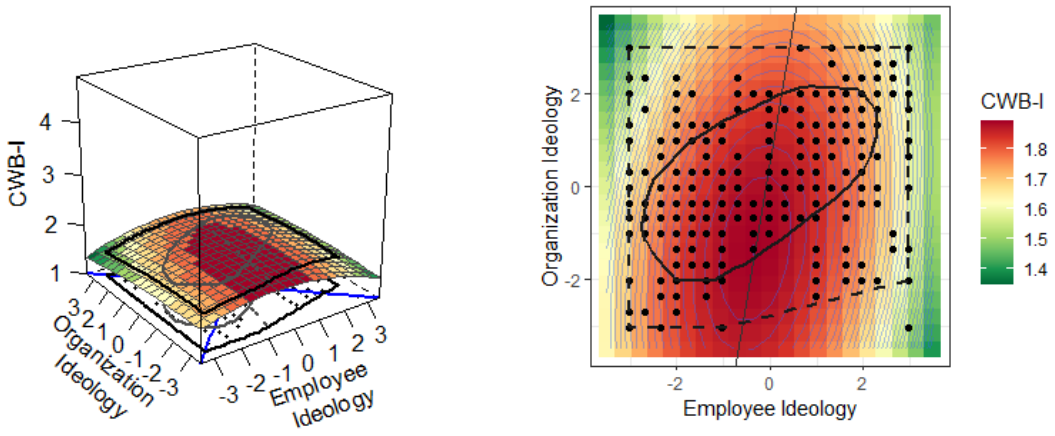
the surface was opposite of what was expected and suggests that the prevalence of CWB-I may be higher among employees who are moderate on the political continuum. This suggests that moderates may still experience misfit in organizations that are perceived to be liberal or conservative, particularly since predicted values of CWB-I appear to be higher in liberal organizations. Therefore, support for H2b is mixed since some portion of ideological misfits engage in a higher frequency of CWB-I, albeit with lower levels of discrepancy (see Figure 3). This is addressed further in the discussion.

Table 14.
Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis predicting CWB-I

Variable	Estimate	SE	95% CI LL	95% CI UL	*p*
Constant	0.299*	0.146	0.012	0.586	0.041
Employee Ideology (T1)	-0.008	0.014	-0.035	0.019	0.565
Organization Ideology (T1)	-0.016	0.021	-0.057	0.026	0.455
Employee Ideology^2	-0.027**	0.009	-0.046	-0.009	0.003
Employee Ideology *Organization Ideology	0.007	0.008	-0.009	0.023	0.371
Organization Ideology ^{2}	-0.007	0.012	-0.03	0.016	0.566
Woman	-0.006	0.059	-0.122	0.11	0.918
Age	0.002	0.003	-0.004	0.008	0.447
Supervisor	0.182**	0.061	0.062	0.301	0.003
Organization Size	-0.028	0.062	-0.148	0.093	0.653
Organization Tenure	-0.007	0.004	-0.016	0.001	0.103
CWB-I (T1)	0.799***	0.038	0.724	0.874	<.001
Social Desirability (T2)	0.011	0.01	-0.008	0.031	0.261
R^2				0.67	<.001
Position of Principal Axes					
P_{10}	0.562	1.815	-2.996	4.12	0.757
P_{11}	5.918	7.478	-8.738	20.574	0.429
Response Surface Analysis					
Fit Slope (a^1)	-0.024	0.026	-0.074	0.026	0.353
Fit Curvature (a^2)	-0.027	0.017	-0.06	0.006	0.113
Misfit Slope (a^3)	0.008	0.025	-0.041	0.057	0.755
Misfit Curvature (a^4)	-0.041*	0.017	-0.074	-0.009	0.013

Note. N = 450. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X - Y$; $a^4 = X^2 - XY + Y^2$.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Figure 15. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-I (T2)



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting other individuals. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. *n* = 450.

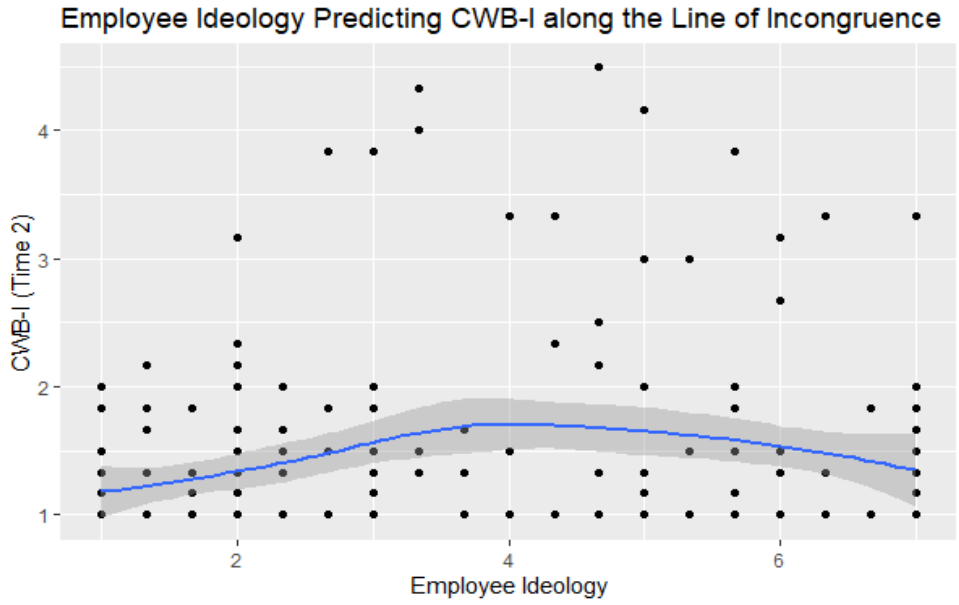


Figure 16. Relationship between employee ideology and CWB-I along the line of incongruence (reflecting RSA parameter a4)

Hypothesis 2 considered the interaction of ideological misfit and POS using a path analytic approach (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). Table 15 shows the results of the moderated polynomial regression and response surface tests for predicting CWB-O (at

time 2). An interactive effect is determined by the increment change in R^2, which is assessed after adding the five moderator terms to the initial equation. In the case of CWB-O, the incremental change in R^2 was not significant, therefore moderation was not supported (ΔR^2=0.003, p = 0.79; see Table 16). Simple surfaces were inspected for exploratory purposes, particularly with regard to effects along the line of incongruence (see Figures 5 – 7).

Table 15.
Moderated Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis predicting CWB-O

			95% CI		
Variable	Estimate	SE	LL	UL	*p*
Constant	0.633	0.288	0.07	1.197	0.028
Employee Ideology (T1)	-0.043	0.054	-0.15	0.063	0.428
Organization Ideology (T1)	0.198	0.096	0.01	0.386	0.039
Employee Ideology^2	-0.005	0.034	-0.072	0.062	0.874
Employee Ideology*Organization Ideology	0.035	0.03	-0.024	0.095	0.245
Organization Ideology ^{2}	-0.057	0.047	-0.15	0.036	0.228
Perceived Organizational Support (POS; T1)	-0.027	0.046	-0.117	0.063	0.561
Employee Ideology*POS	0.003	0.01	-0.016	0.023	0.736
Organization Ideology*POS	-0.031	0.017	-0.065	0.003	0.071
Employee Ideology^2*POS	-0.004	0.007	-0.018	0.009	0.531
Employee Ideology *Organization Ideology*POS	-0.006	0.005	-0.016	0.005	0.287
Organization Ideology ^{2}*POS	0.01	0.009	-0.007	0.027	0.236
Woman	0.009	0.062	-0.113	0.13	0.889
Age	0.005	0.003	-0.001	0.011	0.099
Supervisor	0.137	0.067	0.006	0.268	0.041
Organization Size	0.007	0.072	-0.134	0.148	0.923
Organization Tenure	-0.003	0.005	-0.013	0.008	0.63
CWB-O (T1)	0.722	0.042	0.638	0.805	0.00
Social Desirability (T2)	-0.025	0.012	-0.049	-0.002	0.031

Note. N = 450. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. POS is Perceived Organizational Support. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X – Y$; $a^4 = X^2 – XY + Y^2$.
*p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 16.
Model comparison and incremental variance after adding POS interaction terms to predict CWB-O

	df	Δdf	AIC	BIC	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2	ΔR^2
Model 1	15		918.12	979.38	2.497		0.568**	
Model 2	20	5	925.62	1007.31	0.00	2.497	0.571**	0.003

Note. Model 1 included polynomial terms, moderator, and control variables where *X* is Employee Political Ideology, *Y* is Organizational Political Ideology, and *V* is Perceived Organizational Support, $[b_1(X) + b_2(Y) + b_3(X^2) + b_4(XY) + b_5(Y^2) + b_6(V)]$. Model 2 includes all variables from Model 1with the addition of the five interaction terms, $[b_7(XV) + b_8(YV) + b_9(X^2V) + b_{10}(XYV) + b_{11}(Y^2V)]$.

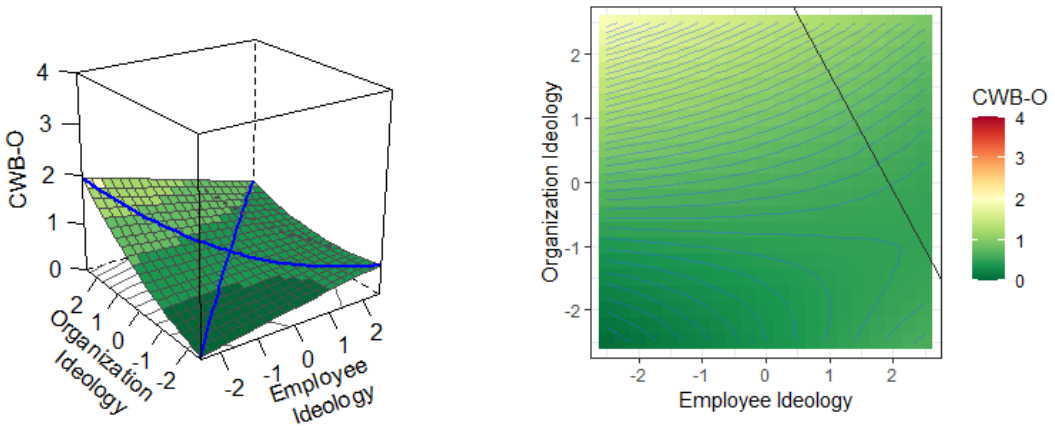
Response surface parameters at each level of POS are presented in Table 17. The slope along the line of incongruence was significant at each level, indicating that CWB-O increases in as discrepancy increases between liberal employees and their organization. While the surface appears to flatten as POS increases, the lack of a moderating effect suggests that these differences are not statistically meaningful, but appear to change in the expected direction.

Table 17.
Simple quadratic equations predicting CWB-O at low, medium, and high levels of POS

Parameters	Fit Slope (a1)	Fit Curvature (a2)	Misfit Slope (a3)	Misfit Curvature (a4)
Low POS	0.173 [-0.01,0.38]	-0.027 [-0.16,0.10]	-0.263* [-0.55, -0.02]	-0.105 [-0.24,0.0 3]
Moderate POS	0.137 [-0.003,0.30]	-0.027 [-0.13,0.075]	-0.219* [-0.45, -0.03]	-0.089 [-0.20,0.02]
High POS	0.101 [-0.01,0.22]	-0.027 [-0.11,0.05]	-0.176* [-0.35, -0.03]	-0.074 [-0.16,0.01]

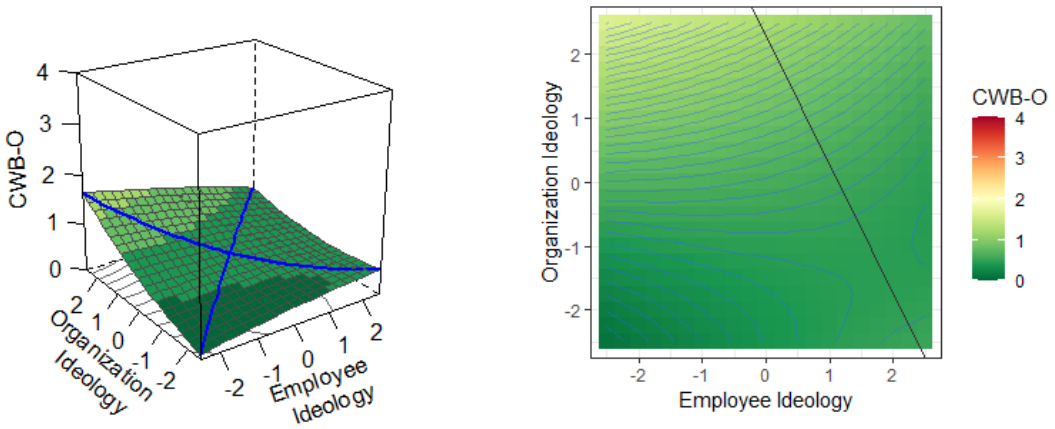
Note. N = 450. 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals produced from 10,000 bootstrapped estimates. *POS* is Perceived Organizational Support.
*$p < .05$

Figure 17. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-O (T2) at Low Levels of POS



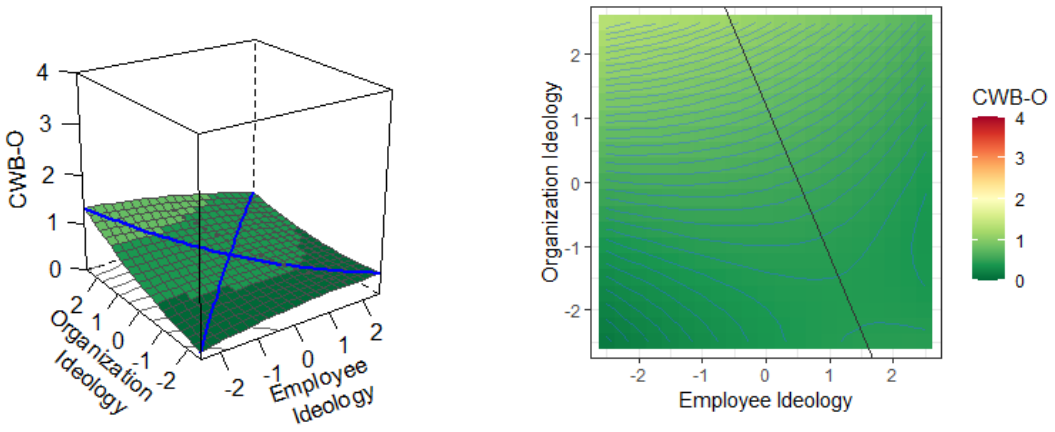
Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting the organization. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). *n* = 450.

Figure 18. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-O (T2) at Moderate Levels of POS



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting the organization. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). *n* = 450.

Figure 19. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-O (T2) at High Levels of POS



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting the organization. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). n = 450.

The results of the moderated polynomial regression for predicting CWB-I (at time 2) are presented in Table 18. The incremental change in R^2 was not significant, therefore moderation was not supported (ΔR^2=0.005, p = 0.29). In some cases, simple surfaces included significant effects along the line of incongruence. Similar to the previous analysis, we examined simple surfaces post-hoc to explore the response surface after adding the new variables (see Figures 17 – 19).

Table 18.
Moderated Polynomial Regression and Response Surface Analysis predicting CWB-I

			95% CI		
Variable	Estimate	SE	LL	UL	*p*
Constant	0.260	0.265	-0.26	0.779	0.327
Employee Ideology (T1)	0.095	0.049	-0.001	0.192	0.051
Organization Ideology (T1)	0.092	0.083	-0.071	0.255	0.27
Employee Ideology^2	0.037	0.032	-0.025	0.10	0.241
Employee Ideology*Organization Ideology	0.006	0.023	-0.04	0.052	0.804
Organization Ideology ^{2}	-0.041	0.037	-0.114	0.032	0.271
Perceived Organizational Support (POS; T1)	0.003	0.043	-0.082	0.088	0.941
Employee Ideology*POS	-0.018	0.009	-0.036	0.00	0.044
Organization Ideology*POS	-0.019	0.016	-0.05	0.011	0.215
Employee Ideology^2*POS	-0.013	0.006	-0.025	0.00	0.048
Employee Ideology *Organization Ideology*POS	0.001	0.005	-0.008	0.01	0.826

Organization Ideology ^{2}*POS	0.007	0.007	-0.007	0.021	0.326
Woman	-0.009	0.06	-0.128	0.109	0.876
Age	0.002	0.003	-0.004	0.008	0.475
Supervisor	0.191	0.062	0.07	0.313	0.002
Organization Size	-0.064	0.065	-0.192	0.064	0.326
Organization Tenure	-0.007	0.005	-0.015	0.002	0.151
CWB-I (T1)	0.016	0.011	-0.005	0.037	0.141
Social Desirability (T2)	0.802	0.038	0.727	0.876	0.00

Note. N = 450. Ideology is scored on a scale of 1 to 7 with 1 being extremely liberal and 7 being extremely conservative. POS is Perceived Organizational Support. $a^1 = X + Y$; $a^2 = X^2 + XY + Y^2$; $a^3 = X - Y$; $a^4 = X^2 - XY + Y^2$. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 19.
Model comparison and incremental variance after adding POS interaction terms to predict CWB-I

	df	Δdf	AIC	BIC	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	R^2	ΔR^2
Model 1	15		872.53	933.80	6.154		0.668**	
Model 2	20	5	876.38	958.07	0.00	6.154	0.673**	0.005

Note. Model 1 included polynomial terms, moderator, and control variables where *X* is Employee Political Ideology, *Y* is Organizational Political Ideology, and *V* is Perceived Organizational Support, $[b_1(X) + b_2(Y) + b_3(X^2) + b_4(XY) + b_5(Y^2) + b_6(V)]$. Model 2 includes all variables from Model 1with the addition of the five interaction terms, $[b_7(XV) + b_8(YV) + b_9(X^2V) + b_{10}(XYV) + b_{11}(Y^2V)]$.

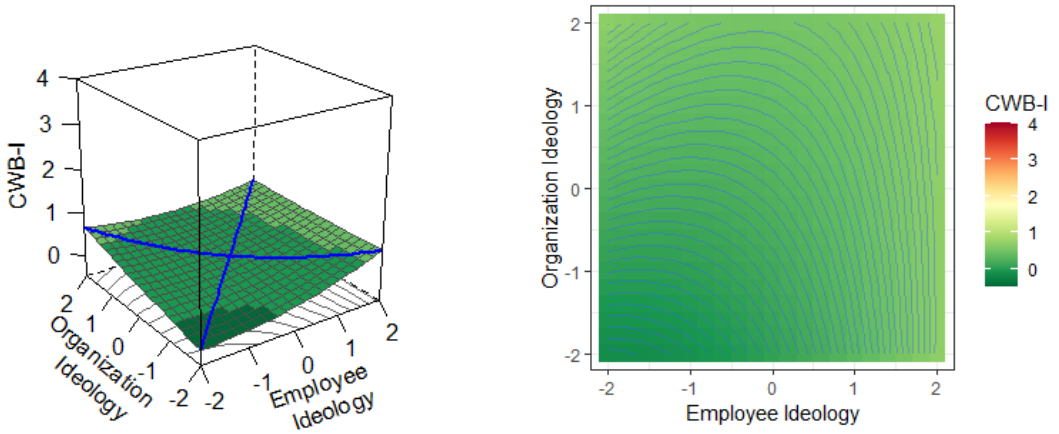
Slopes along the line of congruence and incongruence were significant (and positive) at each level of POS (see Table 20), suggesting that CWB-I increases as employee conservatism increases regardless of the employee-organization level of agreement. Once again, as seen with CWB-O, the surface appears to flatten in the expected direction as POS increases.

Table 20.
Simple quadratic equations predicting CWB-I at low, medium, and high levels of POS

Parameters	Fit Slope (a1)	Fit Curvature (a2)	Misfit Slope (a3)	Misfit Curvature (a4)
Low POS	0.225* [0.08,0.49]	0.007 [-0.10,0.18]	0.002* [0.001,0.46]	-0.003 [-0.04,0.33]
Moderate POS	0.177* [0.05,0.38]	0.001 [-0.08,0.14]	0.003* [0.01,0.37]	-0.012 [-0.04,0.26]
High POS	0.130* [0.03,0.28]	-0.006 [-0.07,0.10]	0.005* [0.02,0.28]	-0.021 [-0.05,0.18]

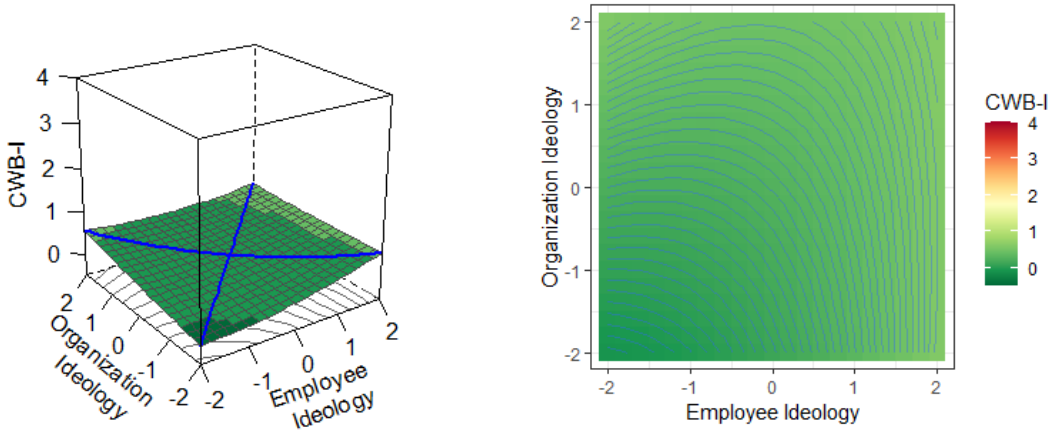
Note. N = 450. 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals produced from 10,000 bootstrapped estimates. *POS* is Perceived Organizational Support. *p < .05

Figure 20. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-I (T2) at Low Levels of POS



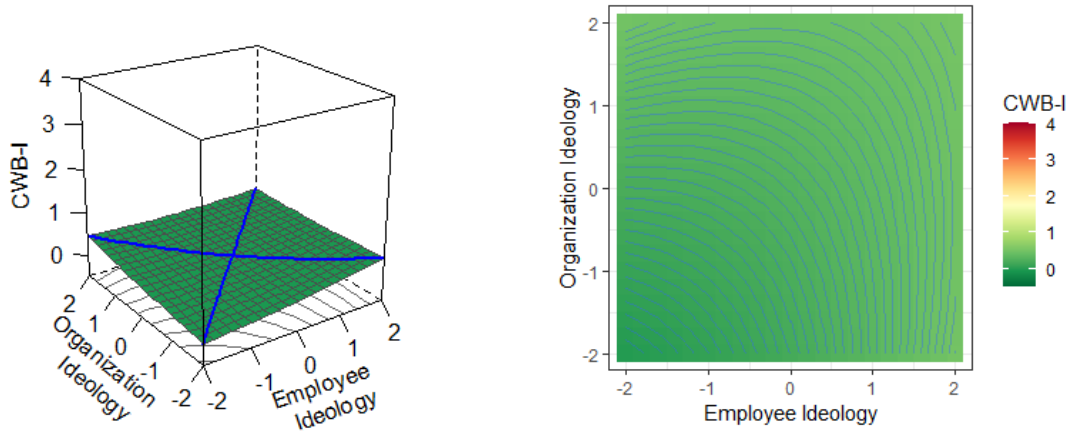
Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting individuals. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). *N* = 450.

Figure 21. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-I (T2) at Moderate Levels of POS



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting individuals. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). *N* = 450.

Figure 22. Ideological Misfit Predicting CWB-I (T2) at High Levels of POS



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting CWBs targeting individuals. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). *N* = 450.

Post-Hoc Analysis

To our surprise, we did not find support for Hypothesis 2, however, for post-hoc analysis, a linear regression was conducted to determine whether POS was related to CWBs. After controlling for social desirability at time 2 and CWBs at time 1, we found that there was no significant association between POS and CWBs. Table 21 presents the results.

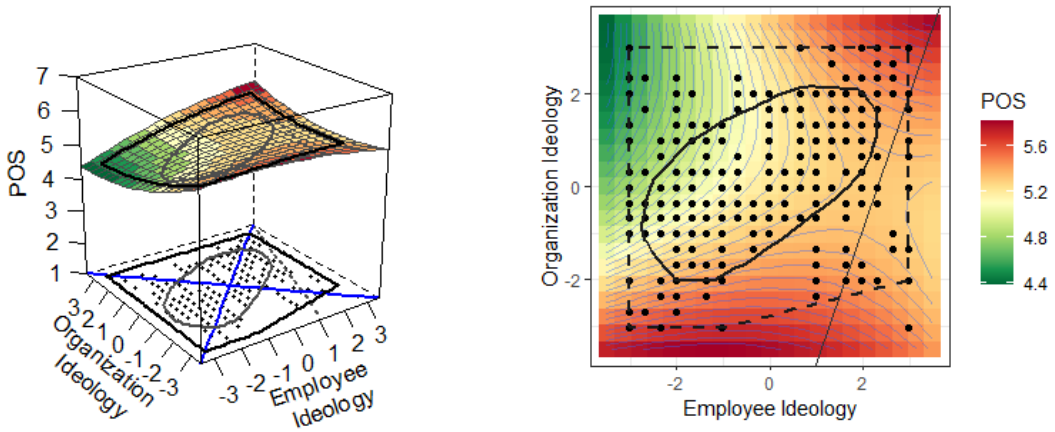
Table 21.
Regressing CWBs (at time 2) on POS

	Predicting CWB-O				Predicting CWB-I			
Coefficients	Estimate	*SE*	*t*	*p*	Estimate	*SE*	*t*	*p*
Constant	0.84**	0.16	5.42	0.00	0.30*	0.14	2.21	0.03
POS (T1)	-0.04	0.03	-1.47	0.14	-0.01	0.02	-0.46	0.65
CWB-O (T1)	0.72**	0.03	23.22	0.00	-	-	-	-
CWB-I (T1)	-	-	-	-	0.82**	0.03	28.86	0.00
Social Des. (T2)	-0.02	0.01	-1.43	0.15	0.02	0.01	1.33	0.18

Note. *N* = 450. *POS* is Perceived Organizational Support. CWB-O is counterproductive work behaviors targeting the organization. CWB-I is counterproductive work behaviors targeting other individuals. Social Des is Social Desirability. *$p < .05$, **$p < .001$

However, response surfaces suggested that some linear relationship potentially existed between ideological misfit at (time 1) and POS (at time 2) where employee political ideology was positively correlated with POS, $r = .19$, $p < .01$. A polynomial regression with RSA was conducted to assess the relationship between ideological misfit and POS (see Figure 23), which found a significantly positive linear effect along the line of incongruence (with no effects along the line of congruence), $a^3 = 0.07$, $p < .05$. We may interpret this finding as POS being significantly lower for liberal misfits than conservative misfits. While along the line of congruence, no differences were found regardless of the direction of fit. We address this further in the discussion.

Figure 23. Ideological Misfit Predicting POS



Response Surface Graph of Employee-level ideology and Industry-level ideology predicting POS. Ideology is scored on a conservatism scale ranging from -3 (extremely liberal) to 3 (extremely conservative). The inner ellipses represent the inner 50% of the raw data points. The outer ellipses reflect the boundaries of actual data whereas the area outside the border represents predicted values. $N = 450$.

Discussion

The growing political involvement of organizations has influenced the possibility of engendering ideological misfit. Past research has found that misfit can negatively impact a variety of workplace outcomes including job satisfaction (Ostroff et al., 2005),

affective commitment (Finegan, 2000), and strain (Yang et al., 2008). Our perspective addresses a looming conceptualization of fit that is only beginning to emerge in the empirical literature (see Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Chopik & Motyl, 2016) and has significant implications for the workplace. This study tested a model that examined the relationship between employee-organization ideological misfit and counterproductive work behaviors. We also evaluated whether this relationship was moderated by the focal employee's perceived organizational support. Our findings suggest that ideological misfit can be conceptualized as a type of value congruence within the P-E fit framework. There are various environment factors that may provoke employees' inferences about organizational values (Edwards & Cable, 2009; van Vuuren et al., 2007). At the very least, it is apparent that employees are consciously aware of the prevailing political ideology in their work environment as evidenced by the ideological agreement profile of our sample (see Table 2).

We did not find support for the effects of ideological misfit on CWBs targeting the organization. While we controlled for several dispositional and environmental factors, a variety of factors could explain the reasoning for this outcome. It is possible that some dispositional traits associated with an individual's ideology may inhibit engagement in behaviors that could jeopardize their employment. This approach is rooted in social cognition (Fiske & Taylor, 1991), which suggests that individuals will apply their attitudes, motives, and beliefs to new situations. For instance, Jost and colleagues (2003) found a positive association between fear of threat and conservatism. This is more likely with conservative misfits who may fear retribution from their organization.

Additionally, Schelenker and colleagues (2012) found that conservatives tend to have a stronger positive outlook and higher transcendent moral beliefs than liberals, which provides some explanation as to why conservative misfits might not retaliate against the organization on account of incongruent values. Conservatives are also more likely to justify away social inequalities (Schelenker et al., 2012), which helps manage uncertainty and establish structure (Jost et al., 2003). On the other hand, liberalism is associated with higher tolerance for ambiguity, lesser need for closure (Anglim et al., 2019), and a higher affinity for collectivism (Tetlock, 2000). Moreover, from a situational perspective, there may be additional moderators that impact this relationship, including strength of political attitudes, job characteristics, personality, organizational identity, work-life balance, etc. From a logistical perspective, the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic has forced many to work remotely. Therefore, this potentially limits the likelihood of employees engage in CWBs because of the reduced interaction with members of their organization.

We did find some mixed support surrounding CWB-Is. For instance, along the line of incongruence, CWB-I increased more sharply as the degree of ideological misfit decreased (alternatively, CWB-I decreased more sharply as ideological misfit increased). While we expected CWB to increase as discrepancy increased, it is possible that those who are on the extreme ends of the misfit continuum find ways to suppress their identity while at work, reconcile differences between their work and political identities, or avoid drawing attention to themselves altogether (Bermiss & McDonald, 2018; Meyerson & Scully 1995; Ramarajan 2014). The end result may be that extreme ideological misfits find fewer opportunities to interact with others in the work environment thereby

decreasing the likelihood of engaging in CWB-I. Conceptually, moderate misfits in organizations may prefer an apolitical workplace environment and any slight deviation from this may lead to some negative interactions, particularly toward employees who express strong political views at work. By the same token, it could be that extreme ideological misfits will more often find themselves as targets of CWBs (see Kalmoe, 2014; Scott & Judge, 2009). Based on the measures used to capture political ideology, this potentially explains why lower discrepancy (i.e., "moderate" misfits) along the line of incongruence was associated with higher CWB-Is.

Claassen and colleagues (2015) address the notion of "conflicted conservatives" and "conflicted liberals" which describes individuals who symbolically identify with a particular political ideology, but also support policies and values that contradict the mainstream ideals of their respective ideological identity. For example, conflicted conservatives may adopt a conservative labeling because it most closely aligns with their values (e.g., religious beliefs, structure and stability, social dominance; see Jost et al., 2003), though many will often side with modern liberal economic and social policies. It is possible that this group represents the "moderate misfits" in the current study who may have conflicting ideological viewpoints. This nuanced perspective complicates the interpretation of our findings given the range of combinations that moderates' beliefs potentially comprise. Nonetheless, individuals who are apolitical may be more vulnerable to misfit as organizations continue to take more polarizing stances. Given the nuanced characteristics associated with ideological beliefs, research in this area should consider how individuals weigh different components of their political ideology (i.e., economic

and social attitudes). Assessing fit through this lens could offer more precision in understanding the relationship between value congruence and workplace outcomes.

To our surprise, POS did not exhibit a moderating effect in the relationship between ideological fit and CWBs. Moreover, we found that there was no significant relationship between POS and CWBs, which is counter to findings from earlier research (Kurtessis et al., 2017; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). However, this may be due to the different operationalization of CWBs. This notion led to the possibility that ideological misfit was predictive of POS, which found some support during post-hoc analysis where a linear effect (though no curvilinear effect) along the line of incongruence was present, $a^{3} = 0.07$, $p < .05$. It is reasonable to assume that political ideology is a core component of individuals' value system. Therefore, employees who perceive a high level of value congruence within their organization may also perceive a higher level of support. Afterall, POS reflects employee perceptions of how much the organization values their contributions and well-being (Eisenberger et al. 1986). Organizational values are potentially transmitted through sources of organizational support, and employees may see these situational factors as structural elements tied to political ideology. For example, a liberal employee who agrees with the statement "the organization cares about my opinions," may associate this with core progressive values, such as caring and fairness (Smith et al., 2019). To our knowledge, research has not explored this topic in the I-O Psychology literature, but merits further exploration as enhancing support structures may be a way for organizations to communicate values and promote congruence.

Limitations and Future Directions

While the present study offered several new insights and directions for future research, there were a few limitations worth noting. Perhaps the most immediate is the sample used to address the central research questions. The use of MTurk is sometimes the subject of critique among academic circles as a questionable source for data collection. However, when meticulous steps are taken to implement specific participant qualifications, regularly monitor data collection, attention checks, and screening procedures, this approach can be suitable for empirical purposes (McDuffie, 2019; Mortensen & Hughes, 2018). Moreover, research supports that MTurk workers are more representative of the U.S. population than college students (Highhouse & Zhang, 2015). Our study also invoked a two-month time lagged approach to minimize common method bias and support the collection of quality data.

The sample was also limited to employees working full-time in the U.S. Future studies may endeavor to explore the role of ideological misfit across different cultures. The U.S. was chosen as the focal context since our research questions and theoretical underpinnings were specific to U.S. political dynamics. However, there is some evidence that partisanship in collectivist nations tends to be weaker than in Western countries (Sheng, 2016). Though, it raises the question of whether organizational political stances are more or less salient in East Asian countries. These questions can be expanded to other parts of the world and other populations (e.g., part-time employees, employees in specific industries, supervisors, subordinates, etc.) to examine whether these patterns exist in foreign contexts.

With respect to the current study, the political ideology measure was based on participants' mean economic, social, and overall ideological beliefs and demonstrated

high internal consistency, however, given the nuance of ideological beliefs, we are unable to determine which economic issues or social issues participants used as a frame of reference. This is worth noting since people tend to weigh the importance of issues and values differently (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards & Cable, 2009), which is especially the case in a political context. One potential approach for future research could involve having participants rank values or issues that are important to them separately, and then examine misfit according to their highest ranked values (see Vogel et al., 2016).

As the case with much of the CWB literature, studies often lament methodological issues related to low base rate and participant truthfulness. While we attempted to manage this through choosing measures that included "less severe" CWBs, and incorporated a measure of social desirability, our analysis still had low frequency of CWBs. Naturally, (and perhaps fortunately), this is a common issue in CWB research. Ultimately, it is the researcher's responsibility to ensure that theoretical and empirical support precede the inclusion of CWB measures. Should an effect exist, then the issue of low base rate should not be of utmost concern. Additionally, because of the COVID-19 pandemic forcing many to work remotely, thereby reducing the likelihood of interacting with others, future studies may consider including an item related to remote employment to account for this possibility. Going forward, researchers should also consider outcomes such as strain and wellbeing, as misfit may still impact these consequences even in remote environments.

Conclusion

This research endeavored to address questions surrounding the relationship between fit and performance and its possible moderators (van Vianen, 2018). We have

contributed to the growing body of literature on P-E fit, and specifically, possible moderators of the fit relationship, new conceptualizations of fit, and the association between fit and performance. As polarization in our political atmosphere continues to proliferate, so does the increase in the number of misfits across organizations. Organizations must prioritize finding solutions to alleviate discrepancies through extending support and communicating values that promote the welfare and wellbeing of their employees.

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APPENDIX

Study One Material

Recruitment Script

Hello!

Have you ever disagreed with a political stance taken by your employer?

I am in the process of collecting data for my dissertation and need help recruiting participants for one of my proposed studies. The purpose of the study is to examine political beliefs in the workplace.

More specifically, I am looking to conduct one-on-one interviews with employees who believe that their views on important political issues are at odds with the stances of their employing organization.

Participation involves completing a one-on-one interview lasting approximately one hour via a Zoom video call. Participation and responses will remain confidential throughout the study. Participants will be compensated $25 USD (in the form of an Amazon e-gift card) for their participation.

To be eligible for this study you must meet the following criteria:

- 18-39 years of age (look at emerging adulthood) 18-29 conflicts most likely to emerge? 18 and over and reported a mismatch (very few people over 50 responded to our ad). Don't want to limit ourselves to a younger age group
- Be employed full-time (40 hours per week or more) within the United States
- Identify with politically liberal ideals, but work for an organization that you believe contrasts your political views (ALT: Identify with politically conservative ideals, but work for an organization or industry that you believe contrasts your political views)

You can help me by:

1. Participating if you meet the criteria.
2. Sharing this message on your own social media or through word of mouth.

Thank you for your interest!

Please contact me at dlesante@fiu.edu if you have any questions or comments.

Demographic Questionnaire (*answer choices in parenthesis*)

1. How old are you?
2. I am a: (*Man, Woman, Other*)

3. How would you describe your racial/ethnic background? (e.g., White, Black, Hispanic, White Jewish, Asian Muslim, etc.)
4. What is your highest level of education? (*1-6 years, 7-9 years, 10-12 years, High school graduate, some college, Associate degree, Bachelor's degree, Graduate or professional, don't know, No answer, Not applicable*)
5. How would you describe your social class? (e.g., working class, middle class, no class category, etc.)
6. What industry do you currently work in?
7. What is your current occupation?
8. How many years have you worked in your current organization?
9. Do you currently supervise the work of other employees? (*Yes, No*)
10. About how many people would you say are employed in your entire organization (including part-time and fulltime workers)? (*1-9; 10-49; 50-99; 100-499; 500-999; 1,000-1,999; 2,000-9,999; 10,000 or more; don't know; no answer; not applicable*)
11. How would you describe your political ideology? (e.g., extremely liberal, liberal, slightly liberal, moderate/middle of the road, slightly conservative, conservative, very conservative).
12. What is your political party affiliation?
13. How do you perceive your organization's political ideology?
14. How do you perceive your industry's political ideology?
15. What e-mail address should payment (i.e., Amazon e-gift card) be remitted to?

Interview Questions

Thank you for agreeing to help us with this project. The interview should take about 45 to 60 minutes. I just want to reaffirm that your identity, your organization, any names, places, and people—will remain confidential throughout the study. The records of this study will be kept private and will be protected to the fullest extent provided by law. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be stored securely, and only the research team will have access to the records. At the conclusion of this study, you will receive a $25 Amazon gift card for your participation. If at any point during the interview, you feel uncomfortable or wish to withdraw, you may do so without any penalty.

The purpose of this study is to explore how political ideology is manifested in the workplace. I am going to ask you a series of questions. Take your time in responding to each one and to the best of your ability. Before we jump into any specific research questions, do you have any questions for me?

1. What comes to mind when I say, "U.S. politics"?
2. Why are politics important to you?
3. How are you made aware of political stances within your organization?
    a. (Can you elaborate or provide an example?)

    b. Can you tell me about a political stance your organization took that you disagreed with?
4. What do you think about employees bringing their social or political beliefs into the workplace?
    a. How have you brought your social or political beliefs into the workplace?
    b. Have you experienced any benefits as a result of bringing your political beliefs into the workplace?
        1. Can you elaborate?
    c. Have you experienced any negative consequences from brining your political beliefs into the workplace?
        1. (If no, what do you think would happen if you brought your political beliefs into the workplace?)
        2. Can you elaborate?
5. What do you think about organizations/industries taking stances on social or political issues?
    a. How might an organization/industry take a stance on a social or political issue?
    b. Are there any advantages to organizations/industries taking a political stance?
    c. Has your organization/industry experienced any negative consequences as a result of their political stance?
        1. From employees?
6. What do you think happens when employees disagree with the political stances of their organization/industry?
    a. How do you *feel* when you disagree with your organization's political views?
    b. How do you *react* when you disagree with your organization's political views?
    c. How has your organization/industry responded to employees who have different political views?
        1. Why do you think that is?
7. Do you think it makes a difference to employees when their employer's (i.e., organization/industry) take a public stance versus a private one?
    a. (i.e., private political donations, "astroturfing")
8. What do you think about the idea that organizations/industries *should not* take any stances on social/political issues?
    a. Are they being complicit with the current state of affairs if they do not take a stance? How so?
9. Do you have any other thoughts or views you'd like to share?
10. Before we wrap things up and talk about next steps, can you tell me why you decided to participate in this study?

Thank you for your participation. We appreciate it tremendously. Please do not hesitate to call or e-mail should you think of additional areas that we should include or if you have any questions.

Study Three Material

Construct	Item	Reference
Social Desirability (10 items)	I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake (T). I always try to practice what I preach (T). I never resent being asked to return a favor (T). I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own (T). I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. (T) I like to gossip at times. (F) There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. (F) I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (F) At times, I have really insisted on having things my own way. (F) There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things. (F)	Strahan & Gerbasi (1972)
Emp. Political Ideology (3 items)	How would you describe YOUR political party preference? How would you describe YOUR political outlook with respect to economic issues? How would you describe YOUR political outlook with respect to social issues?	Adapted from Kim & Tidwell (2014)
Org. Political Ideology (3 items)	How would you describe your ORGANIZATION'S political party preference? How would you describe your ORGANIZATION'S political outlook with respect to economic issues? How would you describe your ORGANIZATION'S political outlook with respect to social issues?	
Perceived Organizational Support (10 items)	The organization values my contribution to its well-being. The organization strongly considers my goals and values. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem. The organization really cares about my well-being. The organization wishes to give me the best possible job for which I am qualified. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work. The organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part. The organization is willing to extend itself to help me perform my job to the best of my ability. The organization cares about my opinions.	Eisenberger et al. (1986) (see annual review from 2020)

CWB-I (6 items)	Behaved in an unpleasant manner toward a coworker.	Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin (2009)
	Tried to harm a coworker	
	Criticized a coworker's opinion or suggestion.	
	Excluded a coworker from a conversation	
	Tried to avoid interacting with a coworker.	
	Spoke poorly about a coworker to others	
CWB-O (6 items)	Did not work to the best of my ability.	
	Spent time on tasks unrelated to work.	
	Spoke poorly about my organization to others.	
	Criticized organizational policies.	
	Took an unnecessary break.	
	Worked slower than necessary.	
Demographics (10 items)	What is your gender?	
	What is your highest level of education?	
	Do you currently supervise the work of other employees?	
	About how many people would you say are employed in your entire organization (including part-time and fulltime workers)?	
	How old are you?	
	How long have you worked in your current organization?	
	What industry do you currently work in?	
	What is your current occupation?	

Note. T is True, *F* is False.

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PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Jain, N., Le Sante, D. R., Viswesvaran, C. and Belwal, R. (2021). Incongruent influences: joint effects on the job attitudes of employees with psychological contract breach in the MENA region. *Review of International Business and Strategy*. Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print. https://doi.org/10.1108/RIBS-01-2021-0021

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Le Sante, D. R., Eaton, A. A., & Thomas, Z. (under review). Employees Talking Fit: A Qualitative Analysis Exploring Ideological Misfit at Work. Manuscript under review.

Le Sante, D. R., Jain, N. K., Viswesvaran, C., Belwal, R., (2020, June). Psychological Contract Breach and Corporate Reputation Influence Job Attitudes. Poster session presented at the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Austin, TX. (Conference moved to virtual format)

Le Sante, D. R., (2020, February) Reporting Assessment Results using R: An Applied Example. Workshop presented at the Florida Association of Institutional Research (FAIR) Conference, Orlando, FL.

Le Sante, D. R., Eaton, A. A., & Viswesvaran, C., (2019, April). Interpersonal Facilitation Predicts Employees' Leader Emergence Through Perceptions. Poster session presented at the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Washington, D.C.

Le Sante, D. R., (2017, March). FIU Accountability: Making the shift toward informed decision making. Paper presented at the Florida Association of Institutional Research (FAIR) Conference, Orlando, FL.