

**THE EFFECT OF OVERQUALIFICATION ON
TURNOVER INTENTION AND THE IMPACT OF
PERSON-ENVIRONMENT FIT AND EMPLOYEE
WELLBEING ON THE RELATIONSHIP**

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By

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**THE EFFECT OF OVERQUALIFICATION ON TURNOVER INTENTION AND THE
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THE RELATIONSHIP**

PhD Thesis under the Faculty of Social sciences

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Certificate

This is to Certify that the thesis titled “**The Effect of Overqualification on Turnover Intention and the Impact of Person-Environment Fit and Employee Wellbeing on the Relationship**” is a record of bonafide research work done by Razeena Rasheed, part-time research scholar, under my supervision and guidance. The thesis is the outcome of her original work and has not formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or any other similar title and is worth submitting for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy under the Faculty of Social Sciences of Cochin University of Science and Technology. I further certify that all the relevant corrections and modifications suggested by the audience during the pre-synopsis seminar and recommended by the Doctoral Committee of the candidate have been incorporated in the thesis. Plagiarism has been checked and found to be 1% in the literature review and 3% in all other chapters and there for well within limits.

Dr. M.Bhasi
(Research Guide)

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled “**The Effect of Overqualification on Turnover Intention and the impact of Person-Environment Fit and Employee Wellbeing on the Relationship**” submitted to Cochin University of Science and Technology for award of PhD degree under the Faculty of Social Sciences is the record of bonafide research work carried out by me under the supervision and guidance of Dr. M. Bhasi, Professor and Dean, School of Management studies, Cochin University of Science and Technology, Kochi-22.

I further declare that this thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title of recognition.

Kochi: 22
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Razeena Rasheed

Dedicated to my Parents...

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Abstract

The Kerala model of Development characterized by high human development on one extreme and high level of educated unemployment on the other extreme has been widely acclaimed nationally and internationally. The resultant growth of a large supply of labor rising over the demand for labor led to a phenomenon known as overqualification. This has raised a curiosity in the researcher so as to investigate into the consequences of this phenomenon.

Overqualification is a phenomenon where employees with higher qualifications are working in jobs requiring lesser educational qualifications. From an individual level, an immediate consequence of overqualification is reported to be turnover intention arising from job dissatisfaction. Subjective overqualification is found to have more negative influence on work attitudes than objective overqualification. This study looks at the effect of subjective or perceived overqualification on turnover intention observed among overqualified employees in the labor market context of Kerala. The main objective of study is to explore the intervening variables that can reduce the turnover intention observed among them. The intervening variables identified from the literature were person environment fit and employee wellbeing. Hence this research purports to study the effect of perceived overqualification on turnover intention and the impact of person environment fit and employee wellbeing in this relationship.

Data was collected using structured questionnaire from nationalised and private banks. Validated instruments were used to measure all the variables. After checking for reliability and validity, data analysis has been done using ANOVA and independent sample t-test for testing the impact of demographic variables. Exploratory factor analysis has been done for exploring the underlying dimensions of perceived overqualification. This has been validated further through confirmatory factor analysis. An Integrated model linking all the four major variables was tested using structure equation modeling. The results indicate that, perceived overqualification had only an indirect relationship with turnover intention which is mediated through person environment fit and employee wellbeing. The mediating effect of employee wellbeing was found to be more compared to person environment fit. Surprisingly it was also observed that the effect of perceived overqualification on employee wellbeing was not significant in nationalised banks.

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Abbreviations

AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit
AIC	Akaike's Information Criterion
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BBA	Bachelor of Business Administration
BCA	Bachelor of Computer Applications
BCC	Browne- Cudeck Criterion
BCom	Bachelor of commerce
BHMS	Bachelor of Homeopathic Medical Sciences
BSc	Bachelor of Science
BTech	Bachelor of Technology
CAIC	Consistent Akaike's Information Criterion
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
d.f	Degrees of Freedom
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
Error-cov	Error Covariance
EWB	Employee Wellbeing
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
HSC	Higher Secondary
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
IHDR	Indian Human Development Report
ITI	Industrial Training Institute

KMS	Kerala Migration Survey
LLB	Bachelor of Legislative Law
MA	Master of Arts
MBA	Master of Business Administration
MCA	Master of Computer Applications
MCom	Master of Commerce
MSc	Master of Science
NFI	Normed Fit index
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
PE Fit	Person Environment Fit
POQ	Perceived Overqualification
RMR	Root Mean Square Residual
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SDR	State Human Development Report
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
SSLC	Secondary School Leaving Certificate
TI	Turnover Intention
TLI	Tucker Lewis Index
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
χ^2	chi-square statistic

INTRODUCTION

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1.3	The problem of educated unemployment and the Labor market paradox
1.4	Unemployment and Migration
1.5	The Problem of Overqualification
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1.1 Introduction

The State of Kerala is much known for its achievements in health and education. The measures followed by the State in upholding social and human development had been much acclaimed nationally and internationally. By following Kerala model of development, the State has endeavored to create a healthy, literate and educated society (economic survey 2016). One significant feature of this model is the increased investment in education and health by the Government. As a result the social and human development indicators in Kerala stand a lead ahead all other States in India (table 1.1). In terms of major human development indicators, Kerala has achieved the standards reached by the developed Countries. The Human Development Index of Kerala for the year 2017 was reported to be 0.784 (GDL, 2017) while the National average was 0.640 (UNDP, 2018). In the year 2007-08 this was reported to be 0.790

(Planning Commission, 2011) for Kerala while the National average was 0.525 (UNDP, 2013). The Government of Kerala has given due importance to the social development of the State than mere economic growth.

1.2 Educational Achievements of Kerala

Regarding the educational achievements, Kerala is well ahead of the national objectives in the primary and secondary education and is striving for attaining international standards in Higher education, Technical education and Research (Kerala Economic Review 2013). Education always had a central role in determining Kerala's performance in social development (Kerala Economic Review 2017). Since the data collection for this research study is conducted in the year 2014-15, the data and statistics pertaining to the preceding years are presented here. According to census of India (2011), the literacy rate in Kerala is 93.9% as against the National literacy rate of 74%. Kerala holds the highest literacy rate among all other States in India. According to the recommendation of Kothari Commission on education in 1966, 6% of National or State income should be spent on education. Kerala is one of the States in India trying to achieve this investment limits. Kerala is said to experience an 'education explosion' since 1950. The growth of education in Kerala started with Christian missionaries and Travancore kings in the early nineteenth century. They established a vast network of educational Institutions in the State. Now the educational institutions range from those owned and managed by government, private agencies, government aided private colleges, voluntary organisations, nongovernmental organisations to tutorial colleges and parallel colleges run by private individuals. The private educational institutions have played a prominent role in expanding education throughout Kerala. The government has framed educational policies with a view to extend education to all backward communities and vulnerable sections in the society through reservations, fee concessions, subsidies and grants.

Higher levels of literacy and education enables an economy to improve upon other social indicators like better levels of health and nutritional status, economic growth, population control, empowerment of the weaker sections and community as a whole (Planning Commission, 2011). A review of census data for the past ten years (1901-11 to 2001-2011) has shown that the growth rate of Kerala's population is 4.9 per cent, the lowest among Indian states. When compared the national growth rate of population of 17.6 per cent, Kerala is addressed to be progressing towards a zero population growth by 2051 (planning commission, 2008). Of Kerala's population of 33 million, 40% is under the age of 25, against 50% for India overall. A summary of the macroeconomic profile of Kerala is provided in table 1.2 from the year 1960 to 2011.

Table 1.1 Basic Social Development Indicators of Kerala (2011-12)

Sl. No	Item	Unit	Kerala	India
1	Total Population (2011 Census)	'000s	33,387	12,10,193
2	Geographical Area (2001) Census)	Sq: Km	38,863	32,87,240
3	Sex Ratio (2011 Census)	(Females per 1000 males)	1084	940
4	2001-2011 Decadal Growth of Population	Per cent	4.86	17.64
5	Literacy Rate (2011 Census)	Per cent	93.91	74.04
6	Total Workers (2001 Census)	'000s	10283.9	402234.7
BASIC HEALTH INDICATORS (2012)				
7	Birth Rate	'000population	14.8	22.1
8	Death Rate	'000population	7	7.2
9	Infant Mortality Rate	'000population	13	47
10	Child Mortality Rate (0-4 years)	'000population	2	15
11	Maternal Morality Rate	Per lakh live birth	81	212
12	Total Fertility Rate	Children per woman	1.7	2.6
13	Life at Birth:			
14	Male	In years	71.4	62.6
15	Female	In years	76.3	64.2
State/National Income 2011-12 QE at current prices				
16	Gross Income	₹. Crore	315206	8148952
17	Per Capita Income	₹	90816	68491

Source: Kerala Economic Survey 2012

Citing the notes of Kerala State Development Report prepared by planning commission of India (2008), “two aspects of educational developments of Kerala are particularly relevant. First, education is wide spread that there are hardly any illiterate men or women in the prime reproductive age groups. Second, the supply of educated personnel has remained far in excess of demand, thus leading to the growing problem of the educated unemployed.”

A summary of the macroeconomic profile of Kerala is provided in table 1.2 from the year 1960 to 2011.

Table 1.2 A summary of Macro Economic Profile of Kerala for the years 1960-2001

Sl. No.	Item	Units	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	2000-01	2010-11	2015-16	2016-17
1	Geographical Area	Sq.Km.	38856.7	38864	38863	38863	38863	38863	38863	38863
Administrative Setup										
2	Districts	-do	9	10	12	14	14	14	14	14
Population as per Census			1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011	2016-17
3	Total	(in 000s)	13549.1	16903.72	21347.38	25453.68	29098.51	31843.8	33406.06	33406.06
4	Literacy Rate	Percentage		55.08	60.42	70.42	89.81	90.9	94	94
5	Sex Ratio	Females per 1000 males		1028	1022	1016	1032	1036	1058	1084
GSDP - at constant prices			1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	2000-01	2009-10	2015-16	2016-17
6	GSDP	Rs.Crore	462	1255	3823	12195	63715	180812	467243.13	480878.13
7	Primary Sector	-do	241	652.6	1682.12	4756.05	14017.3	15966	49206.31	47846.2
8	Secondary Sector	-do	68	163.15	841.06	3170.7	14017.3	38249	111177.23	108667
9	Tertiary Sector	-do	153	439.25	1299.82	4268.25	35680.4	126597	264407.59	268075
10	Per capita Income	Rupees	276	594	1508	4207	19951	47360	136811	140107
Education			1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	2000-01	2009-10	2012-13	2015-16	2016-17
11	Primary Schools	No.	9437	9605	9682	9714	9828	9737	9861	9862
12	Enrolment	'000s	4156	4284	4402	3637	3015	2545	2398	2384
13	High Schools	No.	1199	1971	2451	2596	2814	2890	3021	3119
14	Enrolment	'000s		1310	1498	1611	1443	1426	1365	1297

Source: Kerala Economic Survey 2017

1.3 The problem of educated unemployment and the Labor market paradox

The Kerala model of Development has been popularly described as a paradox of high social development and economic stagnation (George, 1993). Despite high level of human development indicators and educational achievements, Kerala also ranks first in the level of unemployment among all States in India. The figure of unemployment becomes worse when it comes to educated unemployment. A review of the economic surveys of Kerala economy through the years 2010 to 2013 has found that Kerala has the highest unemployment rate when compared with the larger Indian States. The State development report prepared by the planning commission (2008) reported that about one half of the labor force of the age group 15 to 29 years was unemployed.

As per the ninth employment and unemployment Survey conducted by the NSSO during the year 2011-12 as a part of 68th round of National Sample Survey, as reported in the Kerala economic Survey, 2013, among the larger Indian States, Kerala is the state having the highest unemployment Rate. According to the current daily status (CDS) approach, Kerala's unemployment rate for persons of age 15-59 years was 16.5 per cent, as against the national average of 5.8 per cent.

Table 1.3 Percentage Share of Employment Seekers according to level of Education–Kerala

Sl. No	Level of Education	Share (per cent)					
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Upto September 2013
1	Below SSLC	15.0	14.5	13.8	13.5	13.3	11.2
2	SSLC	61.5	62.2	62.4	62.8	63.1	62.3
3	HSC or equivalent	16.5	16.5	16.7	16.6	16.6	17.3
4	Degree	5.7	5.6	6.0	6.0	5.9	7.7
5	Post Graduate	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.5
Total Work Seekers		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Kerala Economic Survey, 2013

A few highlighted features of Kerala Economy reported in the economic surveys of Kerala conducted by State planning board in the year 2012 and 2013 has been presented below. A significant feature observed is that unemployment rates were found to increase with the level of education. Of the total employment seekers as on September 2013 registered in the live registers of employment exchanges, 11.2 per cent possess below SSLC qualification, 62.3 per cent possess SSLC qualification, 17.3 per cent possess higher secondary or equivalent, 7.7% were graduates and 1.5% was post graduates. The percentage share of work seekers in various levels of education from 2008 to 2013 is given in Table 1.3

Table 1.4 represents the data of professional and technical job seekers encompassing medical and engineering graduates, diploma holders in engineering, ITI certificate holders, Agriculture graduates and veterinary graduates as recorded in the live registers of employment exchange. Data reveal that ITI certificate holders and Diploma holders in Engineering together constitute 80.4 per cent of the total professional & technical work seekers (Kerala economic survey, 2013). It can be seen from the table that the percentage of job seekers in these categories is on an increase except ITI certificate holders.

Table 1.4 Percentage Share of Professional and Technical work seekers in Kerala

Sl. No	Educational Qualification	Share (per cent)					
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Upto September 2013
1	Medical Graduates	1.6	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.7	7.7
2	Engineering Graduates	5.5	6.5	5.4	6.7	8.5	11.2
3	Diploma holders in Engineering	22.2	24.8	23.4	23.0	22.9	25.6
4	ITI Certificate holders	69.8	66.2	69.3	68.2	66.2	54.8
5	Agricultural Graduates	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
6	Veterinary Graduates	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Kerala Economic Survey, 2013

Unemployment turns to be a serious problem haunting Kerala. The basic reasons behind the educated unemployment were the large supply of arts and science graduates, heavy subsidization of education, poor employability of graduates, preference for white collar jobs and government jobs (Alphonsa, 1994; Mathew, 1995). One reason behind the large supply of arts and science graduates is that education is seen as a desirable substitute for unemployment (Mathew, 1994). The study conducted by Mallika, (2013) reported that even though only a very small percentage of labor force is having graduation and above qualification, it is the lack of job opportunities to absorb the educated labor force that accounts for high level unemployment. The liberal education system prevailing in Kerala has created reluctance for manual labor and a high preference for white collar jobs. Mukherjee and Isaac, (1994) pointed out certain preference for employment in the formal sector among the educated individuals. They reported that 73% of those who seeks employment preferred to be in a clerical grade and another 15% preferred to be in managerial or professional grades. The proportion who preferred a factory job constitutes less than 5% and nearly 1% preferred unskilled manual work. Being educated happened to raise the expectations of graduates and they themselves withdraw from traditional manual occupations. A prominent feature of the labor market scenario in Kerala is that for jobs requiring lesser educational qualifications demand exceeds its supply and for jobs requiring higher educational qualifications labor supply exceeds its demand resulting in high level of educated unemployment. This resulted in a labor market paradox of labor scarcity in selected sectors in spite of severe unemployment prevailing in the State. Among the educated people, it was studied that the unemployment rate among the technically qualified exceeds the unemployment rate of liberal arts and science graduates and postgraduates (Mallika, 2013).

Kerala Human Development Report (2005) reported the problem of educated unemployment as one of the fundamental constraints for Kerala's further development. It has been reported that of the Nation's 5.3 million currently unemployed university graduates, approximately half a million are from Kerala (Grigorenko, 2007). And due to this reason Kerala ends up in a situation of bus and auto drivers, office attendants with master degrees. Thus Kerala has culminated to a State with a high level of educated unemployment.

The project report prepared by Asian Development Bank in the year 2015, in support of additional skill acquisition program of Kerala Government mentioned some of the demand side and supply side factors which were held responsible for such a situation. The supply side factors were identified to be low employability skills of the graduates, lack of vocational guidance in the high school level or higher secondary level, and the existing outdated technical and vocational educational training imparted to them. Demand side reasons were primarily attributed to the fact that relative change in economic shares of the primary, secondary, and tertiary sectors have changed rapidly since 2004, but their employment shares (32.3% primary, 28.5% secondary, and 39.2% tertiary) have not changed accordingly. Between 2004 and 2011, the share of the primary sector in the state's gross domestic product (GDP) declined sharply from 17.9% to 9.5% and that of the secondary sector declined from 22.5% to 20.2%. The share of service sector in state GDP rose from 59.6% to 70.3% between 2004 and 2011. The decline in the shares of primary and secondary sectors resulted in a large group of employees exiting these sectors and has significantly constrained the creation of productive jobs within the state. Regarding the service sector the youth in Kerala were not considered to be employable enough particularly due to the absence of effective vocational

courses. All these reasons have culminated in a large number of Keralites getting migrated to foreign Countries, especially to the Middle East, in search of jobs. Thus the stagnation and decline in the real production sector and lack of job opportunities to absorb the educated labor force is identified to be the basic reason behind high level of unemployment.

1.4 Unemployment and Migration

The high unemployment together with the preference for high paid jobs persuades the unemployed youth to migrate to foreign Countries in search of better career prospects. According to the study conducted by Zachariah, Irudaya Rajan, & Mathew, (1999) corresponding to every 100 households in 1998, there were 60 migrants. The results of Kerala migration survey (KMS), 2011 as reported by Zachariah & Irudaya Rajan (2012), emigrants constitute 6.3% of Kerala's population. The Kerala Migration Survey, 2007 indicates that the emigration rate is 11.2% among degree holders, 9.3% among secondary school leaving certificate holders and 5.5% among persons who have not completed secondary level of schooling. Reportedly, migration has been beneficial enough to reduce the unemployment rate in Kerala. On the basis of Kerala Migration Survey 2011, Zachariah and Irudaya Rajan, (2012) reported that, had there been no migration, the unemployment rate in Kerala would have been 16 per 100 in the labour force. In 2007, the unemployment rate was as high as 29.2 percent among the emigrants when the general employment rate was 12.2 percent. If these persons had not emigrated, the unemployment rate in the state would have been 14.4 percent.

Migration has created a socio economic impact on Kerala economy through the remittances it brings back to the state. These remittances were instrumental in imparting strong education base in Kerala. The NRI (Non

Resident Indians) families devoted a major part of their family income by way of remittances for imparting good education for their children.

The increased investment in education has created a preference for white collar jobs among the graduates in Kerala with an equal aversion to manual jobs. In fact majority of graduates move on to higher levels of education in order to prevent them from being unemployed or underemployed. In a report published by Majumdar, (2005), it was addressed that: *“At one level there is an excess demand in the market for skilled and semi-skilled workers, from technicians and skilled artisans to professional software engineers. At another level, in the absence of avenues for suitable occupations, upon completing successfully one stage of education, students move on to the next stage as a matter of course and postpone entry into the workplace not due to the urge to pursue higher education per se but because of the lack of employment opportunities.”* Those who are not willing to pursue higher education resort to migration as the next best alternative. Among those who do not migrate, a large section of people remain either unemployed or underemployed within the State. The growing unemployment and underemployment is primarily due to the growing preference of job seekers for non agriculture, non manual type of occupations (Eapen, 1994). Even though the problem of unemployment leads to migration and Kerala reaping the benefits of a remittance based economy, the problem of underemployment widely persists in the economy. The existing graduates, who do not migrate, in order to prevent them from being unemployed accept any job that comes on their way leading to a phenomenon known as overqualification.

1.5 The Problem of Overqualification

Overqualification has been explained in three ways by Tsang and Levin (1985): as the possession of workers of greater educational skills than their jobs requires; as under fulfilled expectations of the educated workers with respect to their occupational attainments and as a decline in the economic position of educated individuals relative to historic higher levels. This is fundamentally due to an oversupply of graduates and concentration of certain skills in the labor market. Individuals invest too much in education expecting good labor market prospects after graduation. This will raise the average level of education attained by every graduate and results in an oversupply of graduates and concentration of certain skills in the labor market (Green, McInthosh, & Vignoles, 1999). When certain skills are more in supply in the labor market it has the effect of driving down their wages. Raising the average years of education in economy makes low-skilled workers more scarce there by raising their wages, while at the same time increasing the supply of highly educated workers, reduces their wages (Tuelings & Van Ren 2002). The end result of this phenomenon is that highly skilled people occupy jobs that are meant for people with lower level of education resulting in underutilization of skills. This underutilization of skills or overskilling is known as overqualification.

In Kerala the educational expansion has led to a mismatch between aspirations of new entrants to the labor force and the requirement of the labor market for people to fill relatively unskilled, low productivity jobs (Chakraborty, 2005). The growing mismatch between the supply of the educated job seekers produced by the fast expanding education system in Kerala and slow growth of employment opportunities due to stagnation in productive sectors is emerging as a major concern for the State (Mukherjee

& Isaac, 1994). Many studies reported that the large supply of graduates resulted in reducing their remuneration levels. Mathew (1994), studied that this decline in remuneration levels happened in two ways. Firstly, there has been an up gradation of minimum educational qualification required for each kind of job. The jobs that were meant for matriculates were later being filled by graduates. The jobs which were meant for graduates were later been filled by post graduates. Secondly, though the prescribed minimum qualification for various posts remained same for over years, many graduates seek jobs for which they be educationally qualified but which might be preempted by others having higher levels of education. This happens because our economy is unable to absorb the output of our educational system. This process is addressed as ‘cascading effect’ which point towards a situation where highly qualified replace the less qualified and the latter replaces people with even less qualification. The same phenomenon was also addressed as bumping out or crowding out by Borghans and Grip (2000). Therefore people start acquiring higher levels of education in order to reduce the waiting period for getting employed. This indicates wastage of skills and harms lower educated people in the labor market. This accentuates the problem of unemployment. Hence these people are forced to accept jobs for which they are overqualified. This leads to a situation where they end up in desperation and discontentment.

1.6 Consequences of Overqualification

Education enhances knowledge, skills and abilities of people and paves way for better prospects of job and earnings. But if the educated individuals are not able to fulfill their aspirations, they often end up in desperation. One primary reason for their under fulfilled aspirations are labor market imperfections. Spending on education can be considered as an investment

(Black, 2012). Hence Individuals evaluate the returns to their education through the employment they achieve. Labor markets also critically evaluate such investments and the results are often interpreted through increased earnings, high labor force participation rates, increased worker productivity etc. This is done because labor market failures can negatively affect the returns expected by individuals and societies. The labor market failures are often judged through the failure to facilitate the full utilization of human capital attained through education. This happens due to market imperfections where firms are not in a position to adjust jobs so as to fully utilize the human capital of employees and so long as the employees are willing to accept jobs for which they are overeducated. Berg (1970) reported that individuals moving through educational system come to expect an “appropriate type of work” upon completing their education. This appropriate type of job might not be simply a high paying job but rather the one with a right kind of income, working conditions, identity and the like. This perception of mismatch can lead to a cognitive dissonance and dissatisfaction when the worker finds himself in a position “beneath” that for which he was prepared. Thus from an individual level, an immediate consequence of overqualification is reported to be job dissatisfaction leading to turnover intention.

1.7 Turnover Intention

When individuals involuntarily end up in jobs requiring lesser educational levels, educational mismatch will turn to be a source of dissatisfaction (Artes, Jimenez, & Jimenez, 2014). Dissatisfaction may lead to job search behavior and turnover intention. Turnover intention signifies the intention of employees to quit the work or the relationship with the employer, organization or profession. Basically the job search behavior and turnover intention observed among overqualified employees are partly driven

by the urge to find an employment worth enough to utilize their skills better (Maynard & Feldman, 2011). According to Sloane, Battu & Seaman (1991), overeducated workers are likely to have shorter tenure and suggested that the firms hiring such workers were more likely to lose investments in training, recruitment and screening. Turnover intention actually comprises of a sequence of steps starting from thinking of quitting, intentions to search to intention to quit (Mobley 1982; Mobley et al., 1979; Wong, Wong & Wong, 2015). The study of turnover intention is significant in the sense that it predicts and is an actual precursor to employee turnover (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Jha, 2009; Sharma & Nambudiri, 2013; Chia & Hsu, 2002).

1.8 Importance of Person Environment fit and Employee Wellbeing

The emotional make up which an employee brings to the workplace is very significant for an organization which is greatly influenced by the satisfaction they derived from their job. Every working individual aspire to have a safer and more satisfying and healthier working life (Baptiste 2008). An overeducated employee who is not able to fulfill his expectations, or is not able to utilize his skills fully exhibit a low job satisfaction, poor emotional make up and a higher intention to quit and more likely to possess a poor wellbeing. Positive relations with employees, skill use, perceptions of match between their skills and desires were found to be associated with employee wellbeing. It has been exposed that individuals with low levels of wellbeing will be more likely to leave their organization as a result of low job satisfaction (Wright and Bonnet 2007). Danna and Graffin (1999) high light how work experiences affect individuals themselves through impact on physical and psychological health and how this can “spill over” into non-work

domains. Good employee wellbeing serves as a competitive advantage and serves in recruiting and retaining employees (Rath and Harter 2010).

Person environment fit has been broadly defined as the compatibility between the individual and work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched (Kristof Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Person environment fit is the degree of match between the person and work environment and is presumed to impact the attitudes and behaviors through its effects on need fulfillment, satisfaction, and value congruence (Cable & Edwards, 2004). The significance of person environment fit is that individuals will have positive work experiences when work provides an environment compatible with their personal characteristics (Pervin 1968). Employees possessing a high person environment fit is found to exhibit positive behaviors and work attitudes (Kristof, 1996; June & Mahmood, 2011) while a low fit is associated with undesirable outcomes (Redelinghuys, 2015). Person environment fit is also studied to have an association with employee wellbeing (Caplan, 1987; Edwards 1996) and turnover intention (Lauver & Kristof, 2001; Cable & De Rue, 2002).

1.9 Current Study

The consequences of overqualification seemed to be more dismal when it is subjective (Burris, 1983; Maynard, Joseph and Maynard, 2006; Johnson marrow and Johnson, 2002). When the overqualified employees feel that their potential is not being fully utilised and the opportunity to learn and grow on the job is limited, they tend to have negative work attitudes. Their feelings are also observed to be high when working along with undereducated graduates in the same post (Burris 1983a).

In contrast a few empirical studies throw light on certain situations where subjective overqualification leads to a decision to stay or inability to leave organizations. Certain people deliberately prefer to be overqualified in order to gain experience and acquire basic work related skills (Sicherman and Galore, 1990; Mavromas, McGuinness, O' Leary, Sloane, & Wei, 2010), some would try to promote personal meaningfulness in their work (Rokitowski, 2012). Vaisey (2006) suggested that the subjective impact of the educational mismatch will be smaller for women. According to Ward and Sloane (2000), satisfaction is considered to be a reflection of utility derived by the workers from working and depends upon the income, hours of work and a set of worker specific and job specific characteristics. In such cases they are reported to demonstrate favorable work behaviors in which employees themselves actively engage with their jobs, with the intention to align jobs with their own preferences, passions and motives. Accordingly they reported higher educated employees place lesser emphasis on pecuniary benefits and more on non-pecuniary benefits. This view was also supported by Mora, Aracil, and Ville, (2007)

Diverse views are being held regarding the impact of overqualification on turnover intention. In Kerala even though the problem of educated unemployment has been studied extensively, the phenomenon of overqualification has been rarely attended to. Since the reason behind this phenomenon is identified to be largely structural, this study intends to examine the influence of perceived overqualification on turnover intention of employees in the labor market context of Kerala. At the same time this study also recognises the importance of person environment fit and employee wellbeing and their potential mediating role from the works of Vaart, Vander (2012) and Ahmed & Veerapandian (2012). Both these variables are also

reported to be good predictors of turnover intention as explained in section...Thus this study intends to study the potential mediating roles of person environment fit and employee wellbeing on the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention.

1.10 Research Schema of the study

This descriptive study is conducted in the banking sector in the three districts of State of Kerala. Employees working in the post of clerical and officers cadre in the nationalised and new generation private banks were surveyed. Stratified proportionate sampling was used for selecting the sample. A structured questionnaire incorporating standardised scales authored by well-known researchers was adopted to collect data on designated variables. The demographic variables included in this study were gender, age, marital status and educational qualification.

1.11 Organisation of the Study

This thesis is organised into five chapters. The first chapter has provided an introduction to the study. Second chapter provides the review of literature and research gap. Third chapter provides the research methodology covering aspects like research design, sampling details, operational definitions of major variables, survey instruments, pilot study and reliability analysis. Chapter four and five explains the sample profile, preliminary analysis of major variables and validation of conceptual model. Fifth chapter discusses the summary of findings, interpretations and discussions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

- 2.1 Overqualification
- 2.2 Person Environment Fit
- 2.3 Employee Well Being
- 2.4 Turnover Intention
- 2.5 Research Gap
- 2.6 Research Questions

2.1 Overqualification

The concept of overqualification was first introduced by Richard Freeman (1976). The research in overqualification gained attention when Freeman point towards a phenomenon where graduates with a university degree in the western labor markets were forced to enter a job which does not require a graduate degree. He used the term ‘overeducation’ for addressing this phenomenon. He found that overeducation is accompanied by a decline in the wage premium associated with a degree. One reason for this trend was identified to be the increase in the supply of graduates driving down their wages. Freeman’s findings emerged as a significant one because it questioned the widely held belief that a college degree is a “good investment” and a guarantee of economic success (Dolton & Vignoles, 2000). Since then a good number of empirical studies has been conducted in this area, evaluating the different aspects of this phenomenon like incidence of overqualification, its determinants and consequences, impact on earnings and work attitudes.

In a study made by Berg (1970), a drift of ‘better’ educated people into ‘middle’ level jobs has been discovered. Rumeberger in 1980, also found

that even though people with lower level of education has reduced nearly half of them are in jobs requiring lesser qualifications. Other evidences on overqualification were proved in the studies conducted by Bisconti & Solomon (1976), Duncan and Hoffman (1978).

According to Tsang and Levin (1985) overqualification is commonly defined in one of three ways: as a decline in the economic position of educated individuals relative to historically higher levels; as under fulfilled expectation of the educated with respect to their occupational attainments; as the possession by workers of greater educational skills than their jobs require. Vaisey, (2006) defined overqualification to occur when a worker has more education than is required for the performance of his or her job. The term overqualification is also termed as overeducation (Freeman, 1976), surplus schooling (Rumberger, 1987), underemployment (Scurry & Blekinsopp, 2011) and underutilization of skills, overskilling (McGuinness & Wooden, 2007). This phenomenon is much more likely to reflect the under utilisation of skills and is generally termed as overqualification in the literature (Green, McIntosh, & Vignoles, 1999). Hence forth this study will be using the terminology - overqualification in the subsequent sections and chapters.

Mason (1996) defined underutilised graduates as those where two conditions apply. One is there are no salary differences between graduates and non graduates. The second condition is where the jobs in question have not been substantially modified in any way to take account of graduate level skills. Mavromas, McGuinness, O' Leary, Sloane, & Wei, (2010) suggested four possible categories of worker-job matching. They are: 1) Well matched (the individual is matched in both education and skills) 2) Only overeducated (the individual is matched in skills but is overeducated) 3) Only over skilled (individual is matched in education, but overskilled) 4) Overeducated and

overskilled (the individual is overeducated and overskilled). Chevalier, (2003) distinguished between genuine and apparent mismatch. Genuine mismatch explain the situation of objective overqualification which implies the possession of excess qualification by employees than required by the job leading to a lower job satisfaction. In contrast apparent mismatch explain the situation in which the employee is overeducated but satisfied with the job. He found that overqualified workers have lower education credentials than matched graduates and argued that overqualification persisted due to lack of skills of graduates. He observed that overqualification is associated with a pay penalty of 5%–11% for apparently over-educated workers compared with matched graduates and of 22%–26% for the genuinely over-educated.

2.1.1 Perceived overqualification

Perceived overqualification is a subjective aspect of overqualification and explains how an employee views his excess qualification with respect to the job requirements of his current job. Perceived overqualification is said to occur when an individual believes that his or her skill set exceeds the requirements of the job (Johnson & Johnson, 2000). It is also defined as the extent to which an employed individual perceives that he or she possesses surplus job qualifications or has limited opportunities to acquire and use new job related skills (Johnson, Morrow and Johnson, 2002). Since overqualification is conceptualized as a dimension of underemployment Feldman termed it as perceived underemployment and defined it as an individual's perception that he is working in an inferior, lesser or lower quality type of employment (Feldman, 1996). It is also understood as a situation where individuals feel that their skills and abilities are not fully utilized (Khan and Morrow, 1991).

Subjective overqualification is literally considered to be measuring occupation related relative deprivation, which is a self-perceived situation of unfairly disadvantaged employment conditions or unmet job expectations (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). Although both constructs are helpful to understand the employee behavior they serve different outcomes. Subjective overqualification helps to identify who is “likely to leave” the organisation, where as objective overqualification explains who is “able” to leave (Hoskins, 2003).

The consequences of overqualification seemed to be more dismal when it is subjective. It was observed that subjective overqualification shows more effect on work attitudes than objective overqualification (Burriss, 1983; Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard, 2006; Johnson, Morrow, & Johnson, 2002). According to Burriss (1983b), the subjective feelings of overqualification were not closely related to educational background. For some individuals, when they feel that they had mastered over jobs wanted to try something different. Another reason is their potential not being fully used and the opportunity to learn and grow on the job is limited. Their feelings are also observed to be high when working along with undereducated graduates in the same post. Lack of training and promotional opportunities, autonomy, constitutes another reason. The inability to apply skills and knowledge acquired in college, the difficulty of applying the specific content which they have learned also amount to a negative perception towards overqualification.

2.1.2 Voluntary Overqualification

Sicherman and Galore (1990) argued that certain people prefer to be overeducated to gain experience. In their career mobility theory stated that overeducated people were offered more promotional opportunities. So

differential wages, autonomy, job security, promotional opportunities may all work as compensators for overqualification and mask the true impact of overqualification on job satisfaction.

Mavromas, McGuinness, O' Leary, Sloane, & Wei (2010) supported this view stating that mismatch may be considered as a short term strategy by individuals to acquire basic work related skills keeping in view the job mobility and enhanced earnings. They add that mismatch between education and job can also arise out of choice as workers compensate lower wages for other intrinsic aspects of the job that increase their satisfaction. In such cases employees might be overeducated and over skilled and bearing a wage penalty but possesses a high job satisfaction and less propensity to quit.

Robst (1995) pointed towards the fact that overqualification might be a temporary phenomenon for the employee but a permanent part of the economy. He re-examined and extended the empirical tests on career mobility among workers in jobs with similar required schooling. He found that overeducated workers are no longer likely to change jobs than adequately educated workers in jobs requiring same level of education.

McGuinness & Wooden (2007) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the extent to which overskilling is a transitory phenomenon. Their study suggested that though over skilled workers are more likely to quit their current job, they are relatively not confident about finding a better job match. The mobility observed among over skilled workers are largely involuntary and even in case of voluntary job separations, majority of them do not result in improved skill matches.

Scurry & Blekinsopp (2011) explained that overqualification can be a temporary transitional period for acquiring additional skills and experience, a

stepping stone or bridge into more desirable situations or a “stop gap” before career decisions was made. They also addressed that the subjective overqualification gradually disappear when they realise they are nearing promotion.

Battu, Belfield, & Sloane (2000) explained that some individuals may express a preference for less stress jobs or may have less motivation. Such individuals may voluntarily prefer to be overeducated in order to enter such jobs. According to Feldman (1996) unemployment is largely an involuntary phenomenon and hence voluntary underemployment can be seen as a means to avoid unemployment.

Burris (1983) suggested that the ‘cure’ for overqualification is more education. Overqualified employees happen to engage in more intellectual and “high” cultural activities during the off-work hours. The activities ranges from reading, to attending as part-time student, cooking, carrying on a side business, maintaining alternate source of income or engage in some sort of entertainments.

2.1.3 Consequences of Overqualification

The education attained by the employees play a crucial role in determining the satisfaction level of employees. Numerous literatures identify the major consequence of overqualification as job dissatisfaction, turnover intention among employees leading to high turnover rates, lower levels of job involvement, lower self esteem, psychomatic symptoms, higher rates of absenteeism, lower productivity, underutilisation of skills of employees proving costly to the firms. In contrast certain positive aspects of recruiting overqualified employees reported were high promotion rates and lower investment in training them. Hersh, (1995) point towards a positive aspect of

recruiting overqualified employees. He addressed that employers need lower investment for training such workers.

The literature pertaining to perceived overqualification also presented similar negative consequences on various work attitudes. It has been found that an individual who possess a high perceived overqualification will exhibit job dissatisfaction and will be engaged in job search behavior and ultimately result in turnover behavior. Generally overqualified employees are considered to be undesirable for job as they are expected to be dissatisfied and under challenged at work.

2.1.3.1 Overqualification and Job Satisfaction

Overqualified employees are found dissatisfied with their wages, responsibilities, challenges, career advancements and other aspects of their job. Basically the job search behavior and turnover intention observed among overqualified employees are partly driven by the urge to find an employment worth enough to utilize their skills better (Maynard & Feldman, 2011).

When individuals involuntary end up in jobs requiring lesser educational levels, educational mismatch will turn to be a source of dissatisfaction (Artes, Jimenez, & Jimenez, 2014). Vroom (1964) maintains that job satisfaction depends upon the match between characteristics of the individuals and the characteristics of job which they hold. The workplace attitudes and behaviors focus on two sets of factors: characteristics of individuals and characteristics of their jobs. Individual characteristics include such factors as age, education, personality and work values while job characteristics include financial rewards, autonomy, variety and other non monetary rewards.

Verhaest & Omey, (2009) maintained that the assessment of relationship between job satisfaction and overqualification helps to know the voluntariness of being overeducated. According to them, when overqualification is involuntary employees have to accept a job below their education credentials, due to the reasons beyond their control. This forms the basis of their dissatisfaction. Moreover job satisfaction has a strong influence in lowering the intention to quit and enhancing employee performance.

Diverse literature exists regarding the influence of high level of education and associated job satisfaction. Certain studies articulate that high levels of education are associated with job dissatisfaction while others stress on the fact that overqualification may not always result in job dissatisfaction.

According to Clark and Oswald (1998) satisfaction gets a theoretical meaning if it is considered as a reflection of utility. Utility derived depends upon individual's relative or absolute position. Individuals compare their position with that of others and the resulting outcome will determine their present level of satisfaction. If a person is able to achieve his other desires from the current job, irrespective of the fact that he is overeducated, he may achieve some sort of satisfaction. This has been later supported by the findings of Ward and Sloane (2000) and addressed that higher educated employees place lesser emphasis on pecuniary benefits and more on non pecuniary benefits.

Mora, Aracil, & Ville (2007) held the same view and reported that certain non monetary benefits were found to increase the utility level of employees. For example, the fringe benefits, general working conditions, consumption benefits etc. These benefits are subjective and depend upon the personal preferences and likings. They also reported that those who get a

practical oriented learning and got opportunities to practice what they learned exhibited a higher job satisfaction than those with poorer educational experiences.

The study conducted by Black (2012) considered the returns to investment in education other than wages and recognizes that many job attributes can affect individual's utility levels like hours of job, job security, required effort etc. And hence some overeducated individuals may prefer jobs that maximize their expected utility and try to achieve their preferred outcome resulting in voluntary overeducation. Such individuals tolerate an overqualification wage penalty given that they trade of wages for non-pecuniary benefits of employment.

Burris (1983) examined the effect of underemployment on the work attitudes and behaviors of clerical workers in US. They observed that overqualification lead to job dissatisfaction, higher turnover rates, reduced job involvement, impaired co-worker relations, and more emphasis on future aspirations. Clerical workers of all educational backgrounds were prone to the negative feelings of overqualification and complained about the nature of workplace control. However they also emphasized that educational attainments appeared as less importance in fostering critical attitudes towards the work place.

Battu, Belfield, & Sloane (2000) measured graduate overqualification in UK using three new measures to study the effect on job satisfaction and earning. Three aspects of overqualification is examined using two cohorts of graduates. They found that irrespective of the measures used overqualification had a negative impact on earnings and job satisfaction and the consequence is

found to be more among females. They also observed that overqualified employees were not able to upgrade their jobs overtime.

Bulmahn & Krakel (2002) presented an insurance approach in the employment of overeducated employees. They conducted their study on two types of workers and two types of jobs. They were high-skilled workers and low-skilled workers, high skilled jobs and low skilled jobs. They stated that overeducated workers were able to offer improvisory solutions in case of crisis situations. They need less supervision and get a high degree of autonomy. Overeducated workers have a high degree of job security and there observed a high degree of turnover among lower educated workers because of job complexity.

Johnson & Johnson (2002) evaluated and extended the dimensions of two components of perceived overqualification developed by Khan and Marrow (1991). They were perceived lack of growth and opportunity and perceived mismatch of individual qualifications and job requirements. The scale was extended by two dimensions and examined in terms of relationships with affective and continuance organizational commitment, somatisation and job satisfaction. They use three sample of nurses, unionised railroad workers and US postal service employees and found that both components were significantly negatively related to work satisfaction.

Buchel & Schult (2004) hypothesised that overeducation is contingent upon the differing human capital endowments of employees. They considered selective acquisition of school qualifications, and selective choice of vocational training porgrams with varying levels of quality. They found that the type of school diploma and the grade obtained has a strong effect on being

overeducated later. They also reported that as the experience, tenure and on the job training increase the risk of overeducation reduced.

Vaisey (2006) hypothesized overeducated employees to possess low job satisfaction, politically more liberal and less likely to put in more efforts. His findings supported the hypotheses and found that these effects remain relatively stable over time. He conducted a cross-sectional survey of Canadian workforce and found that overeducated males received a positive income from their jobs which seeks bachelors degree as the required qualification. They also reported that females are likely to get lower pay due to their structural position in the society. Women are likely to leave their jobs due to momentary reasons. As such the subjective impact of the educational mismatch will be smaller for women.

Kler (2006) examined the impact of overeducation on higher education graduates and finds that overeducated graduates suffer from lower levels of satisfaction than their matched peers, with the exception of satisfaction with hours worked and job security.

Finea & Nevob (2008) examined the impact of a high level of cognitive ability among 156 US based customer service representatives on job satisfaction and job and training performance. They found that people with a high cognitive overqualification exhibits job dissatisfaction and is weekly related to measures of job and training performance.

Verhaest & Omey (2009) examined a sample of school leavers to study the relationship between overqualification and job satisfaction both directly and indirectly through various types of compensations like differential earnings, job autonomy, promotional opportunities and job security by computing shadow prices and cost of overqualification. They find less

compensation and lower job satisfaction among employees possessing similar education and those performing similar jobs. They advocated a net increase of 26% of their wages in order to compensate for the total costs of overqualification and lower utility of overqualified workers. They found that overqualification is largely involuntary resulting from inefficient working labor markets. They also found that the indirect compensations to overqualification were also not effective. They also gathered some factors which reduced the negative effects of overqualification as exemplified by different authors. These factors were as follows- Overqualified employees were seen to be selected for jobs requiring complex tasks and improvisory solutions during crisis situations. They needed less supervision and enjoyed high degree of autonomy, high degree of security in the form of promotional opportunities and those working in a secured job or with an assured career path are found to possess a good satisfaction. In certain cases overqualified employees were also found to enjoy high wages than adequately matched colleagues.

2.1.3.2 Impact on Wages, Productivity, Job Performance

It has been reported that overqualification has larger negative impact on the economy by reducing worker's productivity and wages. The link between education and earnings leads to establishment of a relationship between education and productivity because earnings are directly proportional to individual productivity (Tsang, Rumberger, & Levin, 1991). The excess supply of educated people constitutes one major reason for overqualification and results in driving down their wages. Berg (1970) questions a central assumption of human capital theory that higher education results in more skilled and productive worker by empirically proving the inverse relationship between education and productivity among workers in low-level jobs.

Contrary to the above findings Smith (1986) stated that the fear of declining economic returns to education was not found and stated that they alter a downward movement initially, and then the returns rise overtime. Varhaest and Omey (2006) found that overeducated workers earn more than adequately educated workers but have a high turnover rate. Baur, (2002) found that overqualification pay penalty can be attributed to unobserved heterogeneity among individuals who may differ in terms of the abilities and skills or a non-random assignment to jobs respectively. Green and Zhu (2008) classified overqualification into into real and formal. The employees belonging to real overqualification suffers from high wage penalties than the other group and exhibited lower job satisfaction.

Rumberger (1987) developed a model to study the impact of overqualification on productivity and earnings. The model divides the education derived by employee into two components. One is the required education which is fully utilized in the job and the other one is the education that exceeds the required one and got underutilized. The model is tested with the data of quality of working life surveys for the year 1969, 1973 and 1977. They found that underutilised education derived lower returns which inturn depend upon the type of job in hand.

Tsang, Rumberger, & Levin (1991) studied the impact of overqualification on various work attitudes and behaviors and the effect on productivity and found that overqualification results in less job satisfcation, less productivity and tunover intention. They described that understanding the extent of difference in education possessed by employees and that required by the job is crucial for studying productivity of overeducated employees.

Feldman & Turnley (1995) explored the consequences of underemployment on attitude towards jobs, careers, and lives in general. They conducted their study among 283 business college graduates and also examined how the coping strategies adopted by them for coping with underemployment impacted their psychological wellbeing. They found that there is great turnover intention among them.

Green, McIntosh, & Vignoles (1999) attempted to quantify the extent of genuine skill and educational mismatch and to link these phenomena into the existing literature on skill-biased change and wage inequality. Using data from the International Adult Literacy survey, UK Skills Survey, and the National Child Development Study they evidenced the prevalence of skill underutilisation in the British labor market. They observed that there is 'genuine' overeducation of 20% in Britain and discussed the policy and welfare implications of their findings.

Hartog (2000) studied certain conceptual issues and measurement problems of overeducation using the data collected from United States, The Netherlands, Portugal and United Kingdom. Three models were used to study the impact on earnings- searching for the good match in an environment, human capital interpretation and the hedonic/assignment interpretation. The results showed that the returns to required schooling are higher than the returns to actual education, returns to overeducation were positive, but smaller than required education and returns to undereducation were negative. The penalty for undereducation is always smaller than the returns to required education.

Dolton & Vignoles (2000) analysed the impact of overqualification on earnings in UK labor market with the help of a cross-section survey of British

graduates which took place in 1986 and generated a 1 in 6 sample of all graduates. They found that 38% of graduates were overeducated for their first job and, even after six years later, 30% of the samples were overeducated. Their results confirmed that overeducated people earn less than their peers in graduate jobs, indicating that the return on surplus education is less than the return on required education. Their results supported the assignment model which states the earnings are determined by the characteristics of the job, as well as the individual.

Buchel (2000) hold a positive view that overeducated workers are more focused on their career, engage in job training and is likely to experience longer periods of tenure. He conducted both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies among West German workforce and found that overeducated workers enjoy wage premiums for their surplus schooling. He observed that even though returns are lower for surplus education, they are positive. He criticised the view that, overqualified workers are less productive. He compared overqualified employees with those who perform similar jobs and reported that had job satisfaction and also performed better.

Teulings & Van Ren (2002) used cross Country panel data to study the effect of income inequality on private return and GDP data to estimate the social return. They found that the private return falls by 1.5 percentage points when the average education increases by one year. They found that the when the social return in the short run equaled the private return, in the long-run return is two times higher. This is served as evidence in favor of endogenous technological progress. They found that when workers are imperfect substitutes, the supply of human capital is negatively related to its return. They also found that higher educational levels compress wage differentials.

Rubb (2003) tested the “standard” required-surplus deficit education model developed by Duncan and Hoffman (1981) who found that overqualified individuals earn more than their properly educated co-workers, but less than others with their level of schooling. They found that although returns from required education were greater than the returns from overeducation, they generate positive returns. They also found that returns from undereducation were negative and smaller in magnitude than the returns from required education. When controlled for required education, they found the premium paid for being overeducated is approximately equal to the penalty for being undereducated. They also argued that the definition of required education may impact the returns from overeducation, required education, or undereducation.

Elias & Purcell (2004) examined the relationship between graduate skill utilisation and earnings in UK labor market. They conducted their study among the graduates who acquired their qualification between 1980s and 1990s. For this purpose they analysed the changing occupational structure in UK and the graduate earning premium along with the job characteristics of a large sample of graduates who graduated in 1995 and seven years after their graduation. They found that even though there was a decline in the earnings enjoyed by older graduates, for those who graduated in 1995 the average wage premium was holding up well. They found that the new technical and managerial jobs as a result of occupational restructuring were commensurate with availability of increased supply of highly qualified people.

Mcguinness & Wooden (2007) criticized the judgment of an employees’ skills merely by the qualifications held. Qualification cannot be considered as an accurate indicator of skills. So they stress the need for developing more direct measures of skills utilisation. They made use of

longitudinal data to study the extent to which work related skills and abilities are being utilized in current employment. They found that over skilled employees were more likely to quit their current job at the same time not confident of fetching an improved job match even in case of voluntary job separations.

Edwards (1996) described two alternative processes that help understand how overqualified individuals could be high performers. In a process termed *carryover*, they argued that overqualified individuals may apply their excess of abilities to demands of new performance-related tasks. They give the example of a training situation in which individuals whose technical skills become developed beyond those required for a particular task could go on to develop new expertise that transfers to other tasks. Alternatively, they point out that it may be possible that the savings in time or effort that overqualified individuals accrue can be reserved for future demands or be applied to other dimensions related to performance, a process called *conservation*. They also point towards two processes where a perception of misfit leads to negative outcomes. They are depletion and interference. Depletion happens when excess ability in the present causes a decrement in the level of ability in future.

Dolton & Silles (2008) examined the determinants of overqualification and its associated impact on earnings. They conducted their study in the University of Newcastle in the UK and also considered the measurement error associated with cross-sectional data. For the purpose they collected data on multiple measurements of overqualification and found that that overqualification reduces earnings by 35–40 percent.

Tsai (2010) conducted a longitudinal study using the US panel of Income Dynamics over the period 1979-2005 and showed that overqualification does not result in lower earnings when controlled for non-random assignment of workers to jobs. He gave importance to the time variant productivity differences in biasing the estimated wage effect of overqualification. He added that wage differential found in previous studies is due to the ignoring of non random assignment of workers to jobs.

Mavromas, McGuiness, O' Leary, Sloane, & Wei (2010) distinguished between overeducation and overskilling and found that the negative attitudes are more pronounced when both are combined. They analysed the effects on pay, job satisfaction and job mobility and found overskilling to be more welfare reducing. They found that pay penalty and job satisfaction was found to be more in case of overskilling the job mobility was not significantly affected. They also stressed on the importance of controlling for unobserved heterogeneity while estimating labor market outcomes.

2.1.3.3 Impact on Career Mobility

Some authors reported that overqualified employees show high rates of job mobility high rates of within-firm promotion and greater levels of quit intentions. The reason behind high rate of job mobility is that they actively engage in job search behavior seeking a better matched job or jobs requiring higher educational qualifications. Sicherman (1991) explained that *“overqualification may be part of worker’s career paths and while the less educated will stay in the occupation, the more educated will likely to be promoted or leave the organization for another higher paying occupation”*.

Dekker, De Grip, & Heijke (2002) analysed the effect of training and overqualification on upward mobility in the internal labor market, the

professional market and the supplementary labor market. They found that training and overqualification enhanced upward mobility and supported the view that it is a temporary phenomenon at the individual level. They explained that overqualification is a temporary phenomenon at the individual level. They stress the role of supplementary market in playing an important role in the transition process between initial education and the labor market. A supplementary job segment could be an attractive step towards reaching a more suitable position in the labor market for overeducated individuals.

Buchel & Mertens (2004) reexamined the theory of career mobility advocated by Sicherman and Galor 1990 and the reanalysis done by Robst (1995). Using data based on German socio economic panel the results displayed that contrary to the former predictions, wage rate growth of overqualified employees is low than for adequately matched, while undereducated workers enjoy higher rates of relative wage growth. They are found to have less access on formal and informal on the job training which have an impact on raising the wages. But their results confirm Robst's findings that overqualified workers indeed receive less training than adequately matched ones.

Blazquiz & Malo (2005) studied the overqualification among disabled persons using Spanish data containing the information on disability and educational mismatch. A lower proportion of overqualification is observed among them. They found that people with disability doesn't pay much importance to overqualification due to their disabilities. They leave mismatch to inactivity or marginal employment and do not show a tendency to aim for a better match.

Blazquiz & Mora (2010) used cross-sectional survey data to study the impact of job mobility on the likely hood of over qualification. They found that the number of jobs held by an individual increases the likelihood of over qualification for both males and females. They also found that for permanent jobs the incidence of overqualification is less.

Baert, Cockx, & Verhaest (2012) investigated whether the transition of unemployed graduates from overqualification to adequate employment is accelerated or delayed. They used data from a representative sample of two cohorts (birth years 1978 and 1980) of the SONAR survey conducted when respondents were 23 years old. These data were supplemented with data from two follow-up surveys, completed at age 26 for the 1978 cohort and at age 29 for the 1980 cohort. They adopted timing of event approach and found that overqualification actually emerges a trap during the early unemployment period and the transition is retarded.

Meliciani (2014) studied the impact of recruitment through informal channels and migration on the probability of overqualification in Italian labor market. They found that the probability of overqualification is more incase of informal recruitment while migration reduced overqualification only in case of private employment and selected geographical areas.

2.1.3.4 Impact on wellbeing

On way through which an educational mismatch is likely to produce negative effects is through affecting individual levels of wellbeing. Education is usually seen as contributing to individual's wellbeing by reducing the probability of unemployment (Sicherman & Galore, 1990). Subjective wellbeing depends on the gap between aspirations and actual realizations (Verhaest & Omey, 2009).

Johnson & Johnson (1996) examined the relationship between perceived overqualification and psychological wellbeing within the framework of stress-illness models using attitude surveys. Overqualification was measured using perceived mismatch and perceived no grow. The relationship has been studied using certain control variables like age, gender, and education and the data were collected from 288 respondents of 20–75 yrs old. Their results confirmed a positive relationship between perceived overqualification and psychological wellbeing and found that psychological distress is associated with a high perceived overqualification. The study conducted among American postal workers found that greater the perceived overqualification greater is the psychological distress. The interaction between perceived overqualification and gender was not found to be significant.

Gal, Kaplan, Gross, & Levav (2008) analysed the impact of status inconsistency and mental health using the data of Israel based World mental health survey. They define status inconsistency by the combination of high education with low income. Their results show increased mood and anxiety disorders and emotional distress among those who feel a status inconsistency.

Piper (2012) used British longitudinal data of young people in order to measure relative overqualification and life satisfaction. Using dynamic panel analysis, they found that the relatively overqualified is relatively less happy. They adopted realised matches method for measuring overqualification. They also observed that the of negative coefficient, when measured by the combination of occupation and industry, is, more for males, and about half the size of the positive benefit is associated with being married.

Bracke, Pattyn, & Knesebeck (2013) examined the mental health of overqualified individuals. For the purpose they measured overqualification

using the years of education, realized matches and job analyst method. They higher than expected levels of depressive symptoms among well educated people even when they personally do not hold jobs they are overqualified for.

Artes, Jimenez, & Jimenez (2014) analyse the effect of educational mismatch on subjective wellbeing of both overqualified and undereducated individuals. Their results show that education creates certain aspirations in individuals, which when not fulfilled lead to a negative impact on life satisfaction and hence a loss of psychological wellbeing while the same is positive for undereducated employees. The lower satisfaction and wellbeing in turn leads to low productivity. They conducted the same study among employees possessing different educational levels but doing similar jobs. In such cases they found undereducated individuals have a negative life satisfaction and the reason is attributed to the inferiority complex possessed by them or the difficulty in performing a less demanding job.

2.1.3.5 Impact on Turnover Intention

One immediate consequence of overqualification is addressed to be turnover intention. The dissatisfaction of overqualified employees forms the basis behind their turnover intention. An overqualified worker feels dissatisfied with his present job requiring lesser skills and education. This leads to lower organizational commitment. These negative attitudes form the root cause of turnover intention. A The consequent attritions are to pave the way to a chain of consequences like employee dissatisfaction ending up with organizational inefficiency, poor service quality, high customer turnover and decreased profitability

Hersch (1991) conducted a study on education - job match in manufacturing and warehouse firms and found that overqualified workers exhibit job dissatisfaction and were more prone to quit.

Tsang, Rumberger, & Levin (1991) tried to re-examine the hypothesis that employees surplus schooling results in adverse effects on job satisfaction, worker productivity and labor turnover. They resorted to secondary sources of data pertaining to the survey of working conditions (1969) and the 1973 and 1977 Quality of Employment Surveys and conducted a review of literature in industrial psychology to study the relationship between overqualification and productivity. Using a production function model, their results supported their proposition explored that the negative effects of excess schooling changes overtime.

Sagie, Birati, & Tziner (2002) developed a model which explains employee withdrawal behavior in two stages. In the first stage the experience of negative attitudes and feelings leads to psychological withdrawal which leads to the withholding effort in the second stage. The second stage is described to be the first observable form of employee withdrawal behavior. This can be observed through employee showing up late then to absenteeism and gradually to turnover. Turnover intentions are said to be a stage prior to turnover.

Hoskins (2003) conducted a study on the graduates of Air force institute of technology in US and found that the perception regarding utilization of skills play a role on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The study says that the quality of match, perceived overqualification, and overqualification had an impact on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover. When an employee

experience mismatch, he would search for a better job and is more likely to leave the current job.

Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard (2006) validated 9 item scale of perceived overqualification to tap employee perceptions with respect to surplus education, experience and KSAs (knowledge, skills and abilities). They conducted three studies to examine the relationship between underemployment and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Study one demonstrated a negative link between underemployment and job satisfaction in general and showed that different facets of satisfaction are affected by different dimensions of underemployment. Study was conducted to evaluate the psychometric properties of the scale and a high internal consistency of 0.92 has been obtained. In study 3 they found that perceived overqualification was associated with lower affective commitment and higher turnover intentions. Involuntary part time workers exhibited more negative attitudes and intentions than voluntary part time or full time workers.

Saravanabawan & Uthayatharshika (2014) observed that perceived overqualification correlated negatively with job satisfaction, affective and continuance commitment and positively related to turnover intention. They study perceived overqualification with respect to certain personality characteristics. Overeducated employees were found to show lower confidence resulting in low self-esteem and turnover decisions.

A few empirical studies reported that on certain situations perceived overqualification leads to a decision to stay or inability to leave organizations.

Rokitowski (2012) took situational and interpersonal variables as having a moderating effect on relationship between perceived overqualification and job

crafting behaviors. The study found a negative relationship between perceived overqualification and job crafting. Job crafting is considered to be a favorable work behavior in which employees themselves actively engage with their jobs, with the intention to align jobs with their own preferences, passions and motives. Job crafting increases wellbeing and is therefore considered as an important outcome in an organisational setting. He stated that employees will initiate adaptive actions in order to promote personal meaningfulness in their work. The study also highlighted that individuals who believe they are overqualified for their job may still avoid behaviors that could negatively impact the impression that others in the workplace have of them.

2.1.4 Reviews related to Intervening variables in Overqualification literature

Johnson & Johnson (2000) studied the impact of perceived overqualification on satisfaction with work and the moderator role of positive and negative affectivity in this relationship. They collected data from 288 American postal workers aged between 20 and 75 years. Perceived overqualification was measured under two dimensions – perceived mismatch and perceived no grow. The results rejected their hypothesis that the negative relationship between overqualification and satisfaction with work is greater for those perceiving high negative affect than for those perceiving low negative affect.

Erdogan and Bauer (2009) studied the relationship between perceived overqualification and job satisfaction, intention to remain, voluntary turnover and objective sales performance and considered empowerment as a moderating variable in these relationships with an objective of reducing the negative outcomes while stimulating a higher performance. It was found that

empowerment reduced the negative effects of perceived overqualification and did not affect the positive relationship between perceived overqualification and objective sales performance. Citing relative deprivation theory the study states that the deprivation felt by the overqualified employees will be alleviated through the characteristics of the working environment that provides autonomy and a sense of being valued and respected and feel competent to achieve their goals. The study also found that overqualified employees were rated as higher performers by their supervisors. Similarly, they also argued that individuals who are overqualified in terms of education or job experience are more likely to have already attained the declarative and procedural knowledge and skill necessary for performing the job at a high level.

Lobene & Meade (2010) found job satisfaction to mediate the relationship between perceived overqualification and work attitudes. The work attitudes studied were organisational commitment and turnover intention. But perceived overqualification showed a not significant relation ship with withdrawal behaviors like absenteeism and truancy.

Hamilton (2011) developed a conceptual model of perceived underemployment among immigrants in Canada. Three studies were conducted using 190 immigrants, 199 immigrants and 75 immigrants respectively and their results demonstrated that perceptions of underemployment among immigrants are predicted by job characteristics, unemployment history, and credential recognition. Perceived underemployment was found to partially mediate the relationship between job characteristics and organization relevant outcomes. They also explored that the attributions made by immigrants had an impact on the organisational level, individual level and society level outcomes.

Liu & Mo (2012) presented a conceptual study incorporating a multilevel model of perceived overqualification which enumerates the antecedents and consequences and the role of certain mediators and moderators in this relationship. The moderators were group level (group overqualification and social support) and individual level (justice sensitivity, empowerment, attribution, career stage) and the mediators were cognitive reactions (self esteem, self efficacy), emotional reactions (Anger, boredom). They addressed certain methodological issues and stressed the importance of studying perceived overqualification with respect to recruiters perceptions.

Maynard and Parfyonova (2013) examined a moderated mediated model of perceived overqualification with job attitudes as mediators and workvalues as moderators. They conducted a longitudinal study with data collected six months apart and the job attitudes considered were turnover intention and organisational commitment whereas the work values considered were competence and growth. The study was conducted among college graduates from diverse occupations and found that the direct relationship between perceived overqualification and job-search behavior were moderated by work values. The relationship was found to be stronger for employees who possess high values. This offered them skill utilization and growth. The study also found that perceived overqualification was also predictive of voluntary turnover. The study was conducted in two time periods and found that graduates who quit their jobs reported less perceived overqualification in their new positions. The study also realized that individual differences also have an influence on the reaction to overqualification.

2.1.5 Research Gap identified in the literature of Overqualification

A greater part of literature on overqualification paid attention to the consequences of overqualification at the individual level, organisation level and at a macro level. Several lines of evidence suggested that overqualification results in negative work attitudes where as a very few studies established that it may not result in negative work attitudes always. It has been observed that only rare studies had been conducted to evaluate the impact of intervening variables in the studied relationships that can reduce the negative effect of overqualification.

2.2 Person Environment Fit

The concept of person environment fit in the work context is defined as the degree of congruence or match between a person and his working environment (Holland, 1997; Kristof, 1996; Schneider, 1987). Tracing the history, it can be seen that there had been a dispute among the researchers regarding the relative importance of person versus situation in determining human behavior. One group of researchers argued, it is the situation which is primarily responsible for individual behavior, while another group argued that it is the personal characteristics that is responsible for behavior (Sekiguchi, 2003). According to Muchinsky & Monahan (1987) a good fit is the mutually offsetting pattern of relevant characteristics between the person and the environment.

The basic theory underlying the concept of person environment fit is the interactionist theory (Chatman, 1989; Muchinsky and Monahan, 1987; Sekiguchi, 2003). Interactionist theory describes the different perspectives of social interaction and begins with the assumption that human behavior occurs in response to the stimulus and reflects active cognitive processes of

perceiving, learning, remembering, thinking and linguistic communication. The human experiences, thoughts and actions take place in an explicitly social context of cooperation, competition and exchange, family and group memberships, organisational, institutional, social and cultural structures (Kihlstrom, 2013). The basis of person environment fit emanates from proposition of Kurt Lewin that behavior is a function of person and environment. It is the interaction between the person and the environment that determines the human behavior and attitudes.

Person environment fit is an extensively researched concept and has contributed tremendously to the literature related to recruitment, selection, job search, occupational choice, job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment turnover intention, psychological and physical wellbeing.

Studies related to person environment fit had been in existence for over 100 years and initially it has been studied as a single construct. But gradually some studies stressed on the multidimensionality of person environment fit. Ideally it has been found that rather than interacting with one aspect of the environment people are ingrained in multiple dimensions of the environment (Granovetter, 1985; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski & Erez, 2001).

2.2.1 Multidimensionality of Person-environment fit

Numerous studies have postulated multiple dimensions of fit experienced by the employees in the work place. Many recent studies attempted to study the combined effect of these dimensions to explain the concept of person environment fit. Cable and DeRue (2002) used a three factor model comprising of person organization fit, need supplies fit and demand abilities fit to explain the fit perceptions of employees. Their study found that employees distinguish between these three types of fit.

The study conducted by Veerapandian (2012) conceptualised person environment fit as operating at three different levels namely person job fit, person group fit, and person organization fit. According to him person job fit relates to how the person is suited to the type of job he is currently holding. Person group fit relates to how well the person get along with his team members or colleagues, and person organisation fit relates to how well the person's values and behavior, fit with the organisation's culture. Thus, person environment fit is a comprehensive concept that includes one's compatibility with multiple systems in the work environment (Carless, 2005).

2.2.1.1 Actual or Objective and Perceived or subjective fit

The subjective or perceived fit is conceptualized as the judgment of a person that he fits well with the environment. It is defined as the direct assessment of compatibility between person and environment, suggesting a subjective rather than objective measurement (Kristof, 1996). On the other hand, actual or objective fit is the comparison between separately rated individual and environmental characteristics (Cable & Judge, 1996). The objective fit is measured through profile comparisons and mathematical calculations such as profile correlations (Lauver & Kristof, 2001).

A consistent finding in fit research is that perceived fit has a stronger impact on people's choices, preferences and work outcomes than actual fit. Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith (1995) stated that 'people's' preferences for particular organizations are based upon an implicit estimate of the congruence of their own personal characteristics and the attributes of potential work organizations'. Since subjective fit depicts the perceptions of employee with regard to the fit between their personal characteristics and the working environment, it is said to have more influence in determining their decisions regarding whether to accept a job offer or whether to stay within the

organization. (Caplan, 1987; Carless, 2005; Lauver & Kristof, 2001, Cable & DeRue, 2002; Kristof Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Davis, 2006). This is argued on the basis of the assumption that person environment fit is viewed as a psychological phenomenon, that the person is aware of his or her fit with the environment (Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp, 2006). Thus perceived person environment fit is a judgment of the similarity between the person and environment (Cable & DeRue, 2002).

2.2.1.2 Person Organisation fit

The person organization fit has been defined as the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both (Kristof, 1996).

Judge and Bretz (1992) hypothesised that the value alignment between students and manipulates scenerios will be positively related to the students' job choice decisions. The study was conducted among students in two American Universities by presenting them with eleven manipulated organisational and value variables. They found that as hypothesised the value alignments were positively related to the students's job choice decisions.

Bretz & Judge (1994) explains person organisation fit from four general perspectives. The first perspective viewed person organisation fit as the degree to which Individual's knowledge, skills and abilities matched job requirements. The second perspective defines person organization fit as the degree of congruence between individual needs and organisational reinforcement systems and structures. The third perspective defines person organisation fit as the match between individual value orientations and organisational culture. And the last one describes person organisation fit in

terms of individual personality and perceived organizational image or personality. Although traditionally person organisation fit has been defined from various perspectives, the studies which are conducted recently identified the importance of values in understanding the concept. That means at a broader level, person organisation fit is explained from the perspective of organization's culture. Culture is based on a set of values that provide unwritten rules for behavior. Person organisation fit is established when individuals share these values (Chatman, 1989; Carless, 2005).

Thus the degree of congruence between individual and organisational values is termed as person organisation fit (Posner and Schmidt, 1993; Cable & DeRue, 2002; Wright, 2000). Such congruence as perceived by employee is known as perceived person organisation fit. It basically addresses the values of an individual in comparison with those espoused by organization (Davis 2006). Chatman (1991) addressed that the person organisation focuses on how the pattern and content of a person's values, when apposed with the value system in the organization, influence the individual's behavior and attitudes. Dominant work values within an organization serve to represent the organization's values as a whole. These values result in organizational norms and are the basic components of organizational culture, serving to guide employee behavior.

Person organisation fit is also explained from the perspective of goal congruence among individuals, organizational leadership, and peers. Schneider (1987) holds the view that people, more than the environments in which they work, determine organizational behavior. They construct the environment simply through their presence. Further, individuals are attracted to and participate in organizations with which they are compatible at multiple levels (e.g., values, goals, and personality). The concept of goal congruence in

operationalising person organisation fit emanate from Schneider's (1987) Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) framework, which suggests that individual will seek out organizations that are attractive to them, will be selected to be a part of the organization and will leave when they are no longer attractive to each other. The basic proposition behind attraction-selection-attrition theory is that organizations are functions of the kind of people they contain and organization membership is a function of an attraction-selection-attrition cycle. The attraction-selection-attrition approach makes use of person organisation fit as an interpretation for the increase of intra-organization similarity over time. A majority of research on person-organization fit has examined similarities between values or goals (Kristof, 1996; Schneider, 1987).

The most frequently used operationalisation of person organization fit is the congruence or fit between individual and organisational values (Chatman, 1989; Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Along with this, drawing from the attraction-selection-attrition theory of Schneider (1987), congruence between individual's goals with that of organisational leaders and peers were also used to explain person organisation fit (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; Wright, 2000).

Person organisation fit perceptions is used as a consideration by the job seekers during the organizational entry process and job choice decisions. A study conducted by Lee and Mitchell (1994) proposed that factors other than person organisation fit may also cause dissatisfaction but later Wheeler, Buckley, Halbesleben, Brouer, & Ferris (2005) found that, apart from other factors, person organisation fit could act as the originator of job dissatisfaction.

The studies pertaining to person organization fit were conducted on the assumption that jobseekers develop perceptions concerning their degree of fit with organizations. These studies indicated that job seekers prefer organizations where their personal characteristics are matched with organizational attributes.

2.2.1.3 Person job fit

Person job fit is conceptualized as the match between individual knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) and demands of the job or the needs or desires of an individual and what is provided by the job (Edwards, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). It is the degree to which demands and responsibilities of a job correlate with contributions and expectations of an individual (Davis, 2006; Carless, 2002). The capabilities that an individual brings when applying for a job in relation to the responsibilities, duties, tools, resources, physical actions, or situations that an individual may encounter during the course of regular operations are elements of person job fit (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002).

Presence of a good person job fit is found to have a positive impact on various job outcomes. Higher ratings of person job fit are related to higher ratings of job satisfaction, career satisfaction, occupational commitment, as well as, to a lesser degree, job performance (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Vogel & Feldman, 2009). It is also found to have negative relations with intentions of leaving the job and the organization (Feldman, 1996; Feldman & Whitecomb, 2005; Vogel & Feldman, 2009). The concept of person job fit has been studied extensively in the recruitment selection literatures. Person job fit is considered to be the foundation of employee selection process traditionally for finding the applicants with adequate skills and abilities necessary to do the job (Sekiguchi,

2003). Edward (1991) demonstrates person job fit as an aggregate of two sub dimensions – demand abilities fit and need supplies fit.

2.2.1.4 Demand Abilities Fit (Job Demands-Worker Abilities Fit)

Demand abilities fit refers to the perceived congruence between job demands and the possessed abilities of employees. It refers to the comparison of the demands of the environment to the abilities knowledge, skills, energy of the person (Kristof, 1996). In other words demand abilities fit points towards what is the requirement of the job and does the employees' abilities and skills meet those requirements

2.2.1.5 Need Supplies Fit

Need supplies fit refer to the perceived congruence between job rewards and the services provided by the employee. It refers to the comparison between the psychological needs of the person and the environmental supplies that serve as rewards for needs (Kristof, 1996). In other words needs supplies fit refers to what the employee expect from his job and does the job meets his expectation.

2.2.1.6 Person Coworkers Fit

Person Coworkers fit exists when there is interpersonal congruence between the individual and other members of the immediate work group (Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). It is defined as the match between individuals and work groups ie coworkers and supervisors (Sekiguchi, 2006). Person coworkers fit can enhance compliance with important group norms and help promote group performance (Feldman, 1984). Further, individuals possessing strong relationships with coworkers are more likely to give and receive valuable resources from co-workers.

According to Davis (2006) person group fit is a level of perception that falls within both the supplementary and the complementary fit categories. A group is a collection of individuals who interact in an open system with one another in such a way that each person influences and is influenced by others. Individuals characterize groups by: (a) defining themselves as members, (b) identifying with one another, (c) possessing a collective perception of unity, (d) engaging in frequent interaction, and (e) pursuing interdependent goals. The more attracted an individual member becomes to the group and the greater the individual's desire to participate, the stronger the level of cohesiveness and loyalty. In a group with high cohesiveness, members feel a desire for the group to prosper so that it may continue to provide the satisfactions and fulfill the individual needs that initially made the group attractive (Tindalle & Kerr, 2004)

2.2.1.7 Person Vocation fit

Person vocation fit refers to the congruence between individuals' interests and abilities and the characteristics and requirements of their vocation (Holland, 1985). Person vocation fit refers to the congruence of skills and needs at the level of the occupation.

2.2.1.8 Complementary fit and Supplementary fit

A review of literature in the field of person environment fit illustrates that the fit perspectives, on the whole consists of two types of fit-complementary fit and supplementary fit. These two concepts have been introduced by Muchinsky & Monahan (1987). Cable and Edwards (2004) termed them as two traditions in the literature of person environment fit - complementary and supplementary tradition. Through their study they advocate that the literature connected with two types of fit draw from the same

theory and draws same conclusions but the concepts underlying them are different. Complementary fit is defined by Muchinsky and Monahan (1987) as the “mutually offsetting pattern of relevant characteristics between the person and the environment”. It is said to occur when a person’s attributes “make whole” the environment or add to it what is absent (Wright, 2000). It is the characteristic of an individual to complement the characteristics of an environment. When the characteristics of employees or the organization compensate or add missing elements to one another, complementary fit is achieved (Davis, 2006). For example, when the skill set possessed by an employee match with what the organisation requires, or the organization provides the rewards as expected by the employee. Thus, complementary fit refers to occasions when “the weaknesses or needs of the environment are offset by the strength of the individual, and vice-versa” (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987).

Supplementary fit on the other hand refers to the match between a person’s values and environmental supplies available to fulfill those values (Edwards, 1996; Edwards and Cooper, 1990). It is the similarity between person and environment, where the environment refers to other people individually or collectively in groups, organizations or vocations (Muchinsky & Mohanan, 1987). The environmental supplies refer to amount, frequency, and quality of environmental attributes that may fulfill the person’s values (French, Caplan & Harrison, 1982). These supplies can be considered as subjective and objective, and it is the subjective fit that is found to influence the outcomes (Edwards 1996; 1992). Thus the core process underlying supplementary fit is the cognitive comparison of the perceived and desired amount, frequency or quality of conditions or events experienced by the person. When a person and organization is said to possess similar or matching

characteristics (Cable & Edwards, 2004) then supplementary fit occurs. This type of fit actually examines the similarity on various dimensions such as values, personality, and demographics. As such studies related to supplementary fit can be seen in literatures related to value congruence.

Different researchers gave different interpretations regarding the various fit perspectives explained above. The concept of demand abilities fit is used by to explain complementary fit by some researchers as it point towards individual's skills meeting the environmental needs. In 1996, Kristof Brown give an extension to the above definition by including need supplies fit, which is also known as supply values fit. Thus according to Kristof (1996) complementary fit consists of two components – supply values fit and demand abilities fit.

According to Cable & Edwards (2004) complimentary fit basically underlie the studies carried out in the area of psychological need fulfillment and supplementary fit underlie the studies carried out in the area of value congruence. Theories of psychological need fulfillment indicate that people become dissatisfied when the supplies provided by the environment fall short of what the person desires. Conversely, these theories predict that satisfaction increases as supplies increase toward desires. Reactions to excess supplies (receiving more supplies than desired) depend on the particular needs under investigation and may follow different functional forms (Edwards, 1996; Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998; Rice, McFarlin & Hunt, 1985).

Cable & Edwards (2004) tested three alternative conceptual models that examine the complementary and supplementary traditions using a sample of 963 adult employees ranging from laborers to executives. Their aim is to integrate the two traditions and to find the predictions coming out of this

linkage. They found strong relationships between personal values and psychological needs and also between organizational values and supplies. Thus, one major conclusion of their study is that complementary and supplementary fit are interrelated but both contribute independently to outcomes.

2.2.2 Literature Review Pertaining to Person Environment Fit and its Dimensions

The studies conducted so far have examined either person environment fit as a whole or any one or two of its dimensions and its influence on various work attitudes. Jansen and Kristof (2006) propose that different aspects of the environment become salient to individuals at different points in their work lives. As a result, whether fit relates positively to outcomes depend, to a large extent, upon which aspects of the work environment are most salient to individuals at any given time.

The studies related to person organization fit and person job fit have been mainly carried out in the area of recruitment and selection. The significance of person organization fit to recruitment and selection stemmed from the Attraction-Selection-Attrition (ASA) model introduced by Schneider (1987) which states that attraction to, selection into, and remaining in an organization are all determined by the perceived similarity between the person and his/ her work environment.

Caplan (1987) analysed the role of past, present and anticipated person environment fit on wellbeing and employee behavior. He also studied whether changing one or both the components of person environment fit will have an effect on the outcomes. The components of 'P' can be abilities or aspirations and the components of 'E' can be job demands and rewards. His results

suggested that properties of organizations can be included in studying the person environment fit.

Schneider (1987) hold the view that even if individuals have the skills necessary to perform a job successfully, they may still experience low person organisation fit if the values of the vocation are discrepant with personal values. In his study he found that person vocation fit relates positively to person organisation fit and person job fit for two reasons. First, individuals may not be able to achieve person organisation fit and person job until some threshold level of person vocation fit is reached. For example, if an individual who have not mastered in his subject may struggle with a poor person job fit. Second, person vocation fit may have ceiling effects on how much person organisation fit or person job fit individuals can subsequently achieve. Even if individuals have the skills necessary to perform a job successfully, they may still experience low person organisation fit if the values of the vocation are discrepant with personal values.

Edwards & Cooper (1990) analysed the methodological issues in the study of person environment approach and related stress. Some of the methodological issues has been attended to and offered some solutions to address this. The problems include some imprecise and incomprehensive measurement of person environment fit dimensions and inappropriate analytical techniques for assessing the effects of fit.

O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991) developed and validated an instrument – Organisational culture profile for assessing person organisation fit. They made use of both longitudinal (accountants and MBA students) and cross sectional data (employees of government agencies and public accounting firms) for the purpose. They also analysed the relationship between individual

preferences and organizational culture across a broad range of values. They found that person organization fit predicted job satisfaction, organizational commitment and actual turnover.

Witt & Nye (1992) attempted the conceptualization used by Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) to measure person organization fit in terms of person goal congruence. They hypothesized that higher levels of goal congruence would be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment; goal congruence related to the perceptions of organizational support and organizational politics. They studied 991 employees of FAA Civil Aeromedical Institute and found that goal congruence had a positive relationship with favorable job attitudes. They also observed that most of the variance in this relationship is accounted by the partialing out of organizational support and organizational politics scores. The study recommends the use of goal congruence to study person organization fit.

Kristof (1996) performed a comprehensive study on person organization fit incorporating supplementary and complementary aspects of fit. They have made a comprehensive review of the existing literature in person organization fit, and a comparison has been as to how the concept can be measured directly and indirectly. The associated measurement issues has been addressed.

Edwards (1996) examined the effects of needs supplies fit and demand abilities fit to stress. He found that needs supplies fit was primarily connected with dissatisfaction and demand abilities fit to tension. Strain increases as supplies fall short of values. But different views were held regarding the effects of excess supplies. Two of these views are 'conservation' and 'carryover.' Conservation occurs when excess supplies are retained to satisfy

the focal value at a later time. For example accumulated sick leave or surplus income saved for future expenses. Carryover indicates that excess supplies on one value may help fulfill other values. When excess autonomy enables a person to bring about desired changes at work or a promotion beyond one's aspirations signifies status and accomplishment. The other two views hold that excess supplies increase strain through the process of 'depletion' and 'interference'. Depletion occurs when excess supplies hinder the future fulfillment of values on the focal dimension. For example the excess support of a supervisor in one occasion and forbidding support in another occasion. Interference point towards the fact that excess supplies on one dimension inhibit value fulfillment on other dimensions. For example excess challenge hinders an individual's desire to obtain a sense of proficiency, or when excess contacts with co-workers inhibit his or her desire for privacy. As regards the strain it is the demands which the person perceives that leads to stress. It is said that excess demand increase strain but differ according to the effects of insufficient demands. By applying the concepts of carryover, conservation, interference and depletion such differences can be resolved.

Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison (1998) made an overview of research in person environment fit for the past 25 years and bring out certain flaws and limitations in the available literature. They identified various opportunities for bringing out the content dimensions relevant to person environment fit, that explain the relationship between person, the environment, and the outcomes for examining its association with strain, coping, and defense over time.

Kristof (2000) investigated whether employers discriminate between perceptions of person job fit and person organisation fit of applicants. She made two types of studies with actual recruiters and mock applicants. One study used grid methodology and the second study was conducted in a field setting. She

concluded that both fits individually predicts hiring recommendations and employers discriminate between both types of fit.

Lauver & Kristof (2001) collected data from 231 employees of National trucking company and show a low correlation between person job fit and person organisation fit and found that both had a unique impact on intention to quit. They found that there was a positive relationship between person organisation fit perceptions and contextual performance which is explained as the extra role behaviors an employee performs beyond those prescribed in their job description. But no such relationship was found between person job fit and task performance. Their study also highlighted that person organisation fit perceptions have more effect on turnover intentions than person job fit.

Kristof & Stevens (2001) extended their research on individual and group goals by examining how congruence between member's personal goals and their perceptions about their group member's goals influence individual satisfaction and contributes to the team. The study examined the personality similarity, demographic similarity and value similarity with the co-workers in a project team in order to pin point the precise form of goal-congruence relationships. Their results indicated that perceived performance goals congruence led to greater satisfaction at the individual level. Perceived team mastery goals showed a greater influence on the individual level outcomes than perceived congruence in self-other mastery goals. Congruent self-actual team goals showed weaker but similar relationships to individual outcomes, but contrary to hypotheses, this effect was not mediated by congruence in perceived self-other goals.

Werbel & Johnson (2001) proposed to make valid and reliable assessments of person group fit during the selection process for work teams so that it will create more cohesive and effectively functioning work units. These work units stems from quality work relationships formed as a result of a good person coworkers fit. In the words of Werbel and Jhonson : “ *An individual with high quality work relationships can interact more with colleagues and therefor make more substantial contributions to group decisions*”. Their study proposed ways make valid and relaiable assessments of person group fit that couldbe used to minimise bias in the selection process. They also addressed several implications

Kristof, Berrick and Franke (2002) examined how the interviewee characteristics influence the impression management tactics adopted by the applicants during the interview. They also studied how these tactics in turn influence the perception of employers regarding the person job fit and applicant interviewer similarity. They found that extravert individuals use self promotion as impression management tactic during the interview which greatly influenced the employers perception about person job fit of the applicant. Agreeableness people use non verbal cues as a major impression management tactic which influenced the perception regarding the perceived similarity of employers.

Kristof, Jansen, & Colbert (2002) carried a study which examined a simultaneous impact of person job fit and person organsiation fit on work satisfaction. They found that all these fit types exert an independent effect on satisfaction respondents use complex strategies for combining these fit perceptions. Their work experience demonstrate how each of them gave weightage to each type of fit.

Cable & De Rue (2002) made use of a longitudinal design of 187 managers to study whether employees develop perceptions of person organization fit, needs supplies fit, and demands abilities fit. Their results strongly supported refining person job fit into needs supplies fit and demands abilities fit. They found that person organization fit perceptions were related to organization focused outcomes like organizational identification, citizenship behaviors, and turnover decisions. Needs supplies fit perceptions related to job and career focused outcomes like job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and occupational commitment. Demands abilities fit perceptions were not found to relate to hypothesized outcomes like job performance and pay rises but identified as a distinct construct. They identified needs supplies fit as a strong predictor of job focused attitudes than demand abilities fit.

Cable & Edwards (2004) test their propositions with complementary and supplementary conceptualisation of person environment fit frame work. They took psychological need fulfillment as a dominant prototype to exemplify complementary fit and value congruence to exemplify supplementary fit. They developed three alternative conceptual models that explain how these traditions may be integrated and tested these models using 963 adult employees. Their results displayed that an integrative model dominated the other two models, and both these traditions predicted the outcomes in simultaneously different ways.

Kristof, Zimmerman, & Johnson (2005) conducted a meta analysis of the relationship between person job fit, person organization fit, person group fit and person supervisor fit with job entry level aspects like applicant attraction, job acceptance, intent to hire, job offer and post entry individual aspects like attitudes, performance, withdrawal behaviors, strain and tenure. They conducted an extensive search of published articles and other working

papers and analysed the different conceptualizations, measurements and interrelationships between various types of fit. They provided a strong evidence for the importance of multiple type of fits for work related attitudes and behaviors.

Micheal Kennedy (2005) used a different approach to measure person organisation fit. If traditionally person organisation fit is measured using value congruence, Kennedy attempted to measure person organisation fit using needs supplies fit conceptualisation. The study used additional conceptualisations of needs supplies fit, demand abilities fit, value, personality, interest congruence to the already existing measures of fit levels. Thus a six factor model comprising person organisation value congruence, person job need supplies fit, person job demand abilities fit, person organisation needs supplies fit, person vocation needs supplies fit and general person vocation has been explored. He also found that person organisation fit perceptions predicted organisation focused outcome of organisational identification and person vocation fit perceptions predicted profession focused outcome of occupational commitment. The need supplies fit conceptualisation of both person organisation and person job fit predicted intention to quit and job satisfaction.

Kristof, Barrick, & Stevens (2005) collected data from two project teams in order to study nature of person team fit relationship for extravert people on member's attraction toward their teams. They hypothesised that individuals will experience greater attraction towards team when their level of extraversion is dissimilar and will make greater contributions. They conducted two studies on a sample of 324 MBA students comprising of 64 case analysis teams and 217 members of 26 manufacturing teams. Their results supported

their hypothesis and recommended that complementary nature of extraversion will be successful.

Carless (2005) conducted a longitudinal study to analyse the combined effect of person job fit and person organization fit on organizational attraction and job acceptance decisions. They collected data from 193 graduate applicants prior to the selection process, during the selection process and at the end of selection process. The findings of their study showed that the perceptions of person job fit and person organization fit influenced attraction at different stages of selection. The organizational attraction partially mediated the relationship between perceptions of person job fit and person organization fit and intention to accept a job offer. During the mid selection person job fit perceptions and intention to accept a job offer was mediated by organizational attraction. And at the end of the selection process, a direct relationship has been established between person job fit perceptions and intentions whereas no such relation existed with person organization fit. Thus it has been found that person job fit and person organization fit perceptions were unrelated to job acceptance decisions and the study highlights the importance of ensuring that applicants have sufficient information about the job during the recruitment and selection process.

Jansen & Kristof Brown (2006) developed a model combining the various dimensions of fit to create person environment fit, and explored factors that predicted the relative influence each dimension is likely to have on the multidimensional construct. They intended to address how fit with single aspects of the work environment combine and interact to affect a variety of individual-level outcomes. For the purpose they used five dimensions of person vocation fit, person organisation fit, person group fit, person job fit and person person fit and studied the combined effect on individual level outcomes

like satisfaction, commitment and withdrawal. They considered five stages of employment namely pre-recruitment, recruitment/job search, selection/ job choice, socialization and long term tenure.

Davis (2006) investigated the convergent and discriminant validity of needs supplies, person group, person job, and person organization Sfit using 274 employees. They validated a conceptual model using structural equation modeling, which established a relationship among the four fit perceptions, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. Their results indicated that job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment increased as the degree of these fits became stronger.

Edwards, Cable, Williamson, Lambert, & Shipp (2006) distinguished 3 approaches to study perceived person environment fit. These approaches were used to study the different aspects of the psychological process linking the perceived person and environment to perceived person environment fit. One is atomistic approach which is used to study the person and environment seperately and combine them in some manner to represent person environment fit. The second is molecular approach which is used to study the perceived discrepancy between the person and environemt. The third is known as molar approach which is used to study the perceived similarity or match between the person and environment. These approaches were used to study needs supplies fit, demand abilities fit and supplementary fit. Some of their observations are reported here: In the studies related to needs supplies fit, the atomistic approach are evident that analyse the needs and supplies seperately by asking respondents to describe perceived and desired amount of charectersitics of the job or organisation. Molecular approach is evident in the studies pertaining to analyse the perceived discrepancies between needs and

supplies by asking respondents whether they have more or less than they want or they have of various job characteristics. The molar approach can be seen in the studies where the respondents report how well their job meets or fulfills their needs and how well their needs are met or fulfilled by their job.

Sekiguchi (2007) carried out a study to propose the relative importance of person job fit and person organisation fit during the selection process. He focused on the characteristics of different types of employees and employment relationships that determine the relative importance of person job fit and person organization fit in the selection process. The results suggested that when organizations hire employees to form transactional psychological contracts, to obtain general human capital, person job fit turned to be more important. When organizations hire employees to form relational psychological contracts, to develop firm specific human capital, person organisation turned important.

Ballout (2007) conducted a review of relevant literature with a view to develop a theoretical framework and testable propositions concerning how human capital, person environment fit and organizational support relate to career success. The study explored the impact of person job fit, person organization fit, and person culture fit on career success. The study also detailed various approaches to career success and its antecedents. The study concluded that person environment fit and organizational support are important antecedents of career success. Knowledge of career changes and these antecedents help individuals and organizations to manage career success.

Wheeler, Gallagher, Brouer, & Sablynski (2007) examined the relationship between person organization fit and intention to leave and found that job satisfaction mediates the relationship between them. They found that a

poor person organization fit initially leads to job dissatisfaction which further leads to intention to leave. They further explored that when the impact of person organization fit on job satisfaction and intention to leave has been measured concurrently, results a poor *person organization fit - dissatisfaction – turnover sequence* had been observed. The authors opined that a poor person organization fit and the consequent dissatisfaction does not always lead to turnover intention in case of no available job opportunities. They explored job mobility as a successful moderator in the relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave to substantiate the above finding. The above findings supported the findings of Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, (2003) who explored that person organization fit and person job fit have a strong correlation with job satisfaction and a weaker negative correlation with intention to leave, when measured independently.

Vogel & Feldman (2009) examined the inter relationship between person vocation fit and person group fit with person organisation fit and person job fit. The data were collected from both employees and supervisors using web-based surveys at the headquarters of a nationwide restaurant chain with a sample size of 167. The results showed that person vocation fit related positively to person organization and job fit. These constructs were also found to fully mediate the relationship between person vocation fit and outcome variables which were turnover intention, job satisfaction, subjective career success, in role performance and citizenship behavior. Person group fit moderated some of these relationships with in role and extra role performance.

Edwards & Billsberry (2010) attempted to explore the multidimensionality of employee's fit by testing the multidimensional model of person environment fit developed by Jansen and Kristof Brown (2006). They presented the multiple dimensions of person organisation, person job, person group, person person and

person vocation fit as facets of a single overarching sense of fit. The model advanced by Jansen and Kristof (2006), put forward that five dimensions of fit combine to create a multidimensional fit construct. But the findings of Edwards and Billsberry contradicted the above findings which supported an alternative model with the separate forms of fit influencing the outcomes of commitment, intention to leave, and job satisfaction independently. Edwards and Billsberry attempted to prove that rather than construing multidimensional fit as a reconstruction of various dimensions of fit, they operate separately on behavioral and psychological outcomes.

June & Mahmood (2011) found a significant relationship between person job fit and job performance and found that presence of a good job fit leads to effective completion of a job. The study was conducted in the service sector in Malasia. They reported that employees who perceive a good congruence between their KSAs (knowledge, skills and abilities) and the job requirements have intention to stay within the organization achieve good performance results.

Cable and Judge (2011) investigated whether the match between any one aspects of the organisational environment will have an influence on the job search behavior. The study was conducted among engineering and hotel administration students. The congruence between 32 different pay and compensation scenarios with individual personality traits has been analysed.

The results show that greater the levels of 'fit' between individual personality traits and the characteristics of the compensation system, greater the attractiveness of the pay policies.

Seong & Kristof (2012) attempted to bring out a model explaining the sub dimensions of person coworkers fit and examined values based,

personality based, and KSA based fit as its distinct dimensions. The study made of a longitudinal survey in a manufacturing firm in Korea and collected data from 793 employees, their supervisors and the Human resource department. It was found that each dimension had a unique impact on the outcomes although the aggregate model was not supported. The study proposed that the overall perception of these distinct dimensions predicts commitment to team, employee voice and knowledge sharing respectively and finally contributing to the employee task performance.

Hassan, Akram, & Naz, (2012) explored the mediating effect of psychological climate in the relationship between person organization and person job fit on employee turnover intention. They conducted the study among 260 bank employees working in five different commercial banks in Paksitan and found that both types of fit had a negative relationship with turnover intention. Psychological climate is found to have a partial mediating effect in the relationship between person organization-fit and turnover intention and full mediation in the relationship between person job fit and turnover intention.

Ilyas (2013) examined person job fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit using a data of 170 employees working in different organisations in Pakistan. Their result showed that person job fit had a positive relationship with job satisfaction but they couldn't establish the negative relationship with intention to quit. They found that organizational commitment moderated the relationship between person job fit and intention to quit but not with that of job satisfaction.

Issah (2013) purported to study the relationship between perceived person job fit, organization fit as well as its subscales with job satisfaction.

They conducted their study among administrative staff members in a Midwestern public university using a correlational design. They found that the perceived fits are related with University environment and job satisfaction. They also found that the demographic characteristics of the respondents predicted job satisfaction and perceived fit with the university environment.

2.2.3 Reviews related to intervening roles of person environment fit and its Dimensions.

Huang, Cheng, & Chou (2005) studied the mediating effect of person organisation fit in the relation between Charismatic leadership and organizational commitment. They found that charismatic leadership had a direct and indirect effect on employees' extra effort to work, satisfaction with CEO and organizational commitment. These relationships were also found to be mediated by employees' perceived person organization values fit. The study also point towards the significant relation between person-organization values fit and employee outcomes.

Cable & Judge (1996) conducted a study among 96 active job seekers across three time periods to investigate into subjective person organisation fit perceptions of job seekers and new employees. The three time periods range from their initial job search activity to their intended turnover from the jobs they accepted. The results found that their fit perceptions are predicted by the congruence between their values and what they perceive is the organisation's value and not by their demographic similarity with the organisational representatives. The study concluded that employees may experience person organisation fit not because they choose an organisation where they fit during job search, but because subsequent organisational socialisation process affected their values their perceived fit or both. The study also explored the mediating

effect of perceived value congruence on job choice intentions and work attitudes. On the basis of their findings they point towards the fact that person organisation fit have a greater impact on job offer acceptance than person job fit.

Judge & Cable (1997) examined the dispositional basis of job seekers' organizational culture preferences and how these preferences interact with recruiting organizations' cultures in their relation to organization attraction. The study examined whether big five personality theory traits were related to the various dimensions of culture preferences among 182 students. Their results supported their hypothesis and found that both the objective and subjective fit perspectives of person organization fit were related to organisation attraction. The subjective person organisation fit is found to mediate the relationship between objective fit and organisation attraction.

Boon, Hartog, Boselie, & Paauwe, (2011) analyzed the meditating effect of person organisation fit in the relation between human resource policies and employee outcomes. The study was conducted among 412 employees and found that person organisation fit had a partial mediating role in the relationship between perceived human resource practices and the organization related outcomes such as organisational commitment and organization citizenship behavior. Whereas person Job fit is found to partially mediate the relationship between perceived HR practices and the job-related outcomes such as intention to leave and job satisfaction. This study highlighted that person organization and person job fit influence employees' perceptions of HRM, as people who achieve a match with their job and organisation may have a more positive view of HR.

Ahmad & Veerapandian (2012) explored a significant mediating effect of person environment fit on the relationship between organisational culture

and job satisfaction. They collected data from 204 full-time employees who were working in private and public sectors from various organisations in Malaysia. Their results demonstrated that organisational culture had a significant positive relationship with employees' job satisfaction and person environment fit has a significant mediating influence on this relationship. He suggested that managers need to pay attention to not only their organisational culture such as training, rewards, teamwork and communication but to also ensure that there is a fit between individuals and their work environment.

2.2.4 Research Gap Identified in the literature of Person Environment Fit

The literature in the area of person environment fit has shown that, it has been studied as a single construct initially. Later on several researchers started identifying varying dimensions of fit. These dimensions were found to have studied individually and some studies examined the combined and individual effect of one or two of its dimensions. Recently several authors suggested for a combined examination of more of its dimensions. The research studies that enquire into the combined effect of these varying dimensions were found to be very rare and are in an emerging stage. Similarly the intervening role of the individual dimensions of person environment were found to have studied but very rare studies were conducted that examined the intervening role of most of its dimensions combined together, though many authors had suggested it.

2.3 Employee WellBeing

Wellbeing implies absence of negatives in one's life and having a positive, well-lived and a thriving life (Moore, Bates, Brierly, & Taaffe, 2012). Wellbeing as a concept was originated and lengthily researched in clinical and health contexts. Recently the concept has been widely considered for research

in workplace contexts and is described as mental health. It is explained to be the presence of wellbeing and absence of illness (Kathryn, Dianne, & Vella, 2009). Initially it was described as absence of disease (Keyes, 2006) but later it was illustrated as the presence of wellness (Diener, 1984; Ryff, 1989; Waterman, 1993). Keyes (2002, 2005) made a broad study on wellbeing and defined mental health as the possession of symptoms of both positive feelings and positive functioning by individuals.

Wellbeing at work is increasingly being recognized as an important factor in determining organizational success. All businesses strive to be in a healthy state. If their employees are not in a good state of health and wellbeing, this is likely to negatively contribute to successful performance (Baptiste, 2008). According to Warr (2002) job-related wellbeing refers to people's satisfaction with their jobs in terms of facets like pay, colleagues, supervisors, working conditions, job security, training opportunities, involvement, team working and the nature of work undertaken. Baptiste (2008) suggested wellbeing at work as a concern of overall sense of happiness, physical and mental health of the workforce. Employee wellbeing is also addressed as work well-being, quality of work life, and work quality of life. It is also termed as affective, emotional or psychological wellbeing and is described as a state where a person is content and happy with their life and with the balance of their work, home, emotional spiritual lives (Boddy, 2014). In simple words it can be said that an employee possessing a good wellbeing is a happy worker and a happy worker is a productive worker (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004).

Some literature linked wellbeing with organizational factors which came to be known as positive organizational behavior. This area of study aimed to promote positive aspects like hope and resilience among employees

(Luthans, 2002; Luthans and Youssef, 2004). Another is positive organizational scholarship, which is the study of what is positive and flourishing at the organisational level (Cameron & Caza, 2004; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). Flourishing indicates being in an optimal range of human functioning (Dutton & Sonenshein, 2007).

From the Organization's perspective the absence of employee wellbeing costs high in terms of increased turnover, less involvement and less productivity, adverse workplace behavior. From the employees perspective, it is a matter of satisfying their aspirations and future goals and serve as a main pointer towards their overall wellbeing. As such attaining employee wellbeing stands important for both organizations and employees and is considered as an important precursor to organizational wellbeing (Kathryn, Dianne, & Vella, 2009).

Although numerous studies has been conducted regarding wellbeing very limited studies were found to have with regard to employee wellbeing. The study of employee wellbeing is significant on the ground that, it is related to the health status of individual employees. Danna & Griffin, (1999) conducted a detailed literature review in health and wellbeing. They discussed the antecedents, consequences and suggest methods to improve health and wellbeing. They explained that individual's experiences at work affect them through the impact on physical and psychological health which "spill over" into non-work domains and lead to more serious health complaints.

The emotional make up which an employee brings to the workplace is very significant for an organisation which is greatly influenced by the satisfaction they derived from their job. An overeducated employee who is not able to fulfill his expectations, or is not able to utilize his skills exhibit a low

job satisfaction, poor emotional make up and a higher intention to quit. Job satisfaction hence is considered as an enhanced form of motivation and an essential ingredient of organizational wellbeing. Employee wellbeing serve as a competitive advantage in terms of recruiting and retaining employees (Harter & Rath, 2010).

Some authors distinguished employee wellbeing to be different from job satisfaction and employee engagement. According to Robertson and Cooper (2010) employee engagement describes positive employee behavior that is of direct interest to the organization owing to the benefits it is likely to deliver operationally. In contrast, employee wellbeing encompasses a much broader concept that is likely to be more important to the workers themselves (Juniper, Bellamy, & Nicola 2011).

Wright and Bonnet (2007) revealed that individuals with low levels of wellbeing will be more likely to leave their organization as a result of low job satisfaction. The cost of employee turnover and low performance is very high for organizations. The degree to which one is satisfied with the job contributes to their overall life satisfaction and will be reflected in their wellbeing. It is proposed that promoting and preserving employee mental health leads to improvements in employee performance and reduces turnover.

2.3.1 Job Characteristics and Employee Wellbeing

Job characteristics have been identified as a key component in employee wellbeing. Several attempts have been made to link job characteristics and employee wellbeing. (Wilson, Dejoy, & Vandenberg, 2004) found that employee's perception of their organization affect their perception of the climate, which impacts the way people relate to their job and see their future in the organization, ultimately impacting their work

adjustment, health and wellbeing. Out of the extrinsic attributes job insecurity is explained to have an impact not only on the wellbeing of individual, but also on their work attitudes and behavior. Employees' reactions to uncertain employment conditions are of fundamental importance from both the occupational health and managerial perspectives (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987).

Some studies reported that job insecurity is associated with impaired employee well-being. Physical health complaints, mental distress, and work to leisure carry-over is reported to increase proportionately with the level of job insecurity (Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson, 199; Witte, 1999; Banchflower & Oswald, 1999). According to Kathryn, Dianne, & Vella (2009) the presence of certain job characteristics enhance the wellbeing of employees whereas the absence impairs it.

2.3.2 Literature Review in Employee Wellbeing

Warr (1987, 1994) distinguished five components of mental health: affective wellbeing, competence, autonomy aspiration and integrated functioning. The Vitamin model proposed by Warr suggested that the job characteristics act as psychological 'vitamins' and boost employee wellbeing. The vitamin model developed by Warr (1987) is situation-centered and focuses on characteristics of the work environment rather than the experience of the worker. He also described that people are assumed to be able to shape the character of their work environment and to influence the impact upon them. As a consequence, individual characteristics are viewed as possible moderators of main effects of job characteristics on mental health.

Rosenbach, Dailey, & Morgan (1979) made a comparative study on the attitudes of men and women about job dimensions and work outcomes and

found that a very few difference existed. Some differences were noted to exist between men's and women's perceptions of positive relationships between job demands and affected work outcomes. These differences were due to hierarchical positions and sex-role stereotyping and are expected to disappear when women are allowed to move into jobs that are characterized by the presence of high levels of intrinsic job dimensions.

Parker, Chmiel, & Wall (1997) explored the effects of downsizing on employees who remain in the organization. Rather than focusing on the immediate reactions of their colleagues' reactions the longer term implications of strategic downsizing on employee wellbeing as a function of its effects on work characteristics had been explored. A four year longitudinal study on 139 retained employees showed that potential detrimental effect of demands appears to have been offset by improvement in work characteristics arising from initiatives introduced as part of the downsizing strategy. This interpretation is consistent with analyses at the individual level, which showed that high demands were associated with poorer wellbeing but that increases in control, clarity, and participation were associated with improved well-being.

Jonge, Bosma, Peter, & Siegris (2000) made use of a cross-sectional survey of 11,636 employed Dutch men and women in order to investigate the effect of job demand-control (JD-C) model and the effort-reward imbalance (ERI) model on employee well-being. They found that high psychological and physical efforts and low rewards adversely affected employee well-being. They controlled for job sector, demographic characteristics, managerial position, employee reporting high psychological and physical demands psychosomatic and physical health complaints and job dissatisfaction. They found that high efforts and low occupational rewards were stronger predictors of poor wellbeing.

Van Vegchel, De Jonge, Meijer, & Hamers (2001) examined the relationship between effort reward imbalance and employee wellbeing using a cross-sectional survey of 167 ancillary health care workers of two nursing homes. In order to study this relationship they used three different concepts of efforts namely psychological demands, physical demands and emotional demands. Their results showed that employees with high efforts and low rewards had higher risks of psychosomatic health complaints, physical health symptoms and job dissatisfaction. Employees with high efforts and high rewards had elevated risks of physical symptoms and exhaustion. The study concluded that employees with high efforts and low rewards imbalance had poor employee wellbeing and a combination of high efforts-high rewards is important for employee well-being.

Vallone & Donaldson (2001) tested the effects of work family conflict on employee wellbeing on 342 non professional employees. The data were collected at two periods of time and is resorted to two sources of data - self reports and co workers reports. They found that work family conflict had more influence on employee wellbeing than social desirability bias. Work family conflict was found to be a longitudinal predictor of employee wellbeing.

Holman (2002) conducted a survey among 557 customer care executives in order to study the relationship of job design, performance monitoring, human resource practices and team leader support on well being. The dimensions of wellbeing examined in the study was anxiety, depression, intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction. He found that employee wellbeing is highly associated with control over methods and procedures , a low level of monitoring and a supportive team leader. In contrast to other findings the study also reported that wellbeing in call centers were similar to other comparable forms of work.

Lapierre & Allen (2006) analysed how work–family conflict avoidance methods stemming from the family domain, the work domain, and the individual independently relate to different dimensions of work–family conflict and to employees’ affective and physical well-being. They found that support from family and supervisor and the use of problem-focused coping seem most prominent in terms of avoiding work–family conflict and decreased well-being. Use of telework is found to have a potential increase in the extent to which family time demands interfere with work responsibilities. They conclude that factors based within the workplace (supervisor support), the family (family support), and the individual (problem-focused coping) may each play a unique role in helping to avert work–family conflict.

Grawitch, Gottschalk, & Munz (2006) linked healthy work place practices to employee wellbeing and organizational improvements. They identified five different healthy workplace practices like work life balance, employee growth and development, health and safety, recognition and employee involvement. They suggested that the link between these practices and organizational improvement have a significant impact on employee and organisational outcomes. This is also dependent on the effectiveness of communication within the organization and the alignment of workplace practices with the organizational context.

Grant, Christianson, & Price (2007) highlighted the impact of various managerial practices on various dimensions of employee wellbeing. The various dimensions of wellbeing studied were psychological wellbeing, physical wellbeing and social wellbeing. They identified factors like work redesign, incentive compensation, team-building, and safety practices often increases one dimension of employee wellbeing while decreasing another.

They also identified steps that managers may take to avoid these tradeoffs and achieve wellbeing synergies.

Warr (2007) reexamined the findings of Karesk (1979) that there could be a non linear association between job charecteristics and employee wellbeing. He found that both linear and non linear relationships exists between the two constructs. He found that the job features can predict job-related depression-enthusiasm and job related anxiety-contentment.

Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, (2008) conducted their study on a sample of 587 telecomm managers in order to study the impact of antecedantes of burnout and certain aspects of work like long working hours, job charecteristics, work outcomes, quality of social relationships and perceived health. They concluded that workaholism, burnout and work engagement are three different types of employee wellbeing.

Macky & Boxall (2008) studied the influence of high performance work systems and work intensification on employee wellbeing on 775 employees in New Zealand. Four variables were used as dependent variables to study employee wellbeing: job satisfaction, fatigue, job-induced stress, and work–life imbalance. The results showed that high involvement processes is associated with higher job satisfaction. Though better outcomes were observed in terms of job induced stress, fatigue and work life imbalance, in situations where pressures to work longer hours are higher, where employees feel overloaded and where managers place stronger demands on personal time, employees are likely to experience greater dissatisfaction with their jobs, higher stress and fatigue, and greater work–life imbalance. The study implied that organizations that can promote smarter working without too much pressure to work harder are likely to enhance employee well-being.

Silla, Cuyper, Gracia, Peiro, & Witte (2009) investigated the relationship between job insecurity and wellbeing (psychological distress and life satisfaction), and the potential role of employability in this relationship. Their results showed that job insecurity is related to poor wellbeing, while no such association is found for employability and is found to moderate the relationship between job insecurity and life satisfaction. Employability has been taken as a moderating variable because it is assumed to have a compensating role for employee wellbeing.

Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer (2010) demonstrated the relationship between psychological capital and employee wellbeing over time on 280 employees. Psychological capital consists of positive psychological resources of efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience. The study found a positive association between psychological capital and employee wellbeing.

Wilks & Neto (2013) examined the effect of age and gender on work related subjective wellbeing by studying job related affective wellbeing and job satisfaction. The study investigated the “double jeopardy effect” of older women who are at a disadvantage of being a women and being aged. They found that age have more influence than gender with lower job related wellbeing and higher job satisfaction. The decrease of subjective wellbeing with age impacts on both genders.

Carvalho & Chambel (2014) demonstrated the importance of job characteristics to explain work-to-family enrichment and its influence on employee wellbeing. The studies made use of job demands-control-support model and also analysed the relationship of employees’ perception of high performance work system and job characteristics. The study was conducted on a sample of 1390 employees from a Portuguese bank and found that job

demands were negatively correlated to work family enrichment while autonomy and supervisor support displayed a positive correlation. They also observed that work family enrichment can be considered as an important frame work to understand the relationship between job characteristics and employee wellbeing.

2.3.3 Positive and Negative affectivity

One conceptualization of employee wellbeing involves the amount of positive and negative affect experienced in the work place. Employee's sense of wellbeing is heightened when he or she experiences more positive than negative affect regularly at work. Affective dispositions of employee are more related to job satisfaction than personality characteristics (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, & Chermont, 2003).

Warr (1994) mentioned three categories of individual characteristics: (1) abilities; (2) values; and (3) baseline mental health can act as a moderator in the relationship between job characteristics and mental health. Abilities include all kinds of personal skills, and can be viewed as relatively stable characteristics. Values deals with all types of specific value orientations, such as preferences, motives and attitudes. Baseline mental health covers dispositions like negative affectivity. Two kinds of effects are postulated, namely (1) direct effects and (2) moderating effects. In the former case, affective wellbeing is directly influenced by one of more stable individual characteristics. According to the latter situation, individual characteristics modify the relationship between job characteristics and affective well-being. This means that individual characteristics that match particular job characteristics will cause a stronger, moderating, effect than those which lack this matching property.

Cummins (2000) tried to empirically prove that there is an intimate relationship between personal wealth and subjective wellbeing which comprises a cognitive and an affective component. Cognitive component is the aggregate of satisfaction across a number of life domains which is also termed as subjective quality of life. The affective component is measured as a composite of several items such as positive and negative affect. The study hypothesized and proved that different levels of subjective wellbeing will be experienced by people with different level of incomes. Subjective wellbeing can be determined by personality but subject to two types of buffers which are internal and external. Internal buffers comprise beliefs in perceived control, self esteem and optimism. The external buffer comprises resources such as personal assistance that ameliorate the impact of potentially negative events. They found that money can bring happiness limited by the external resources permitting optimum functioning of subjective wellbeing.

Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, & Chermont (2003) related trait based and state based positive and negative affectivity to job related attitudes. Job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention and job burnouts were the attitudes studied. They used data from all primary studies in their data base and found that each affect had a unique relation each job attitude studied. Positive affectivity is found to be an important correlate of job attitudes.

Mignonac & Herrbach (2004) conducted a study among French Managers to identify the consequences of job related events on affective states at work. They found that work events leads to affective reactions which in turn influences work attitudes and it is the affective reactions which had a greater impact than work events. The affective states are also found to have a partial mediating effect on work attitudes.

Tsai J. L. (2007) explained what is an ideal affect and discuss the cultural and temperamental factors that shapes affect and behavior. He compares American and East Asian cultures, that differs in their valuation of high-arousal positive affective states (e.g., excitement, enthusiasm) and low-arousal positive affective states (e.g., calm, peacefulness) and introduced affect valuation theory. This theory integrates ideal affect with that of the current models of affect and emotion and predicts that (a) ideal affect differs from actual affect; (b) cultural factors shape ideal affect more than actual affect, whereas temperamental factors shape actual affect more than ideal affect; and (c) when there are large discrepancies between people's actual and ideal affect, they actively try to reduce those discrepancies by engaging in specific behaviors that elicit their ideal affect.

Liu, Siu, & Kan (2010) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and employee wellbeing and the mediation role of employees' trust in the leader and self-efficacy on this relationship. For this purpose they studied three aspects of individual employees' wellbeing namely positive affective wellbeing (job satisfaction), negative affective wellbeing (perceived work stress), and physiological wellbeing (stress symptoms). A survey on 745 employees from the People's Republic of China had been conducted and found that employees' trust in the leader and self-efficacy partially mediated the influence of transformational leadership on job satisfaction, and fully mediated the influence of transformational leadership on perceived work stress and stress symptoms. Work stress, job satisfaction and stress symptoms were used as the dimensions to measure employee wellbeing.

Claes & Van Loo (2011) tested the relationship of proactive behavior of older employees with job related affective wellbeing and the anticipated retirement age in a sample of aged employees above 50 years of age. The

study found that employees who acted proactively feel energetic, enthusiastic, inspired, at ease, relaxed and satisfied. Those employees who were found to experience positive affect are seen to retire late.

Simsek, Gunlu, & Erkus (2012) used positive and negative affect as two independent variables and found that a four factor structure occupational scale mediate the relationship between general affect, affect in the work place and job satisfaction.

Boddy (2014) studied the influence of corporate psychopaths in stimulating counterproductive work behavior among employees and found that they have a large and significant impact on conflict and bullying and employee wellbeing which in turn leads to counterproductive behavior. They conducted the study among 304 respondents using a psychopathy scale and found that there is no difference between male and female degrees of negative reaction to the presence of managers who are corporate psychopaths.

2.3.4 Research Gap Identified

The literature review in the area of employee wellbeing has shown that hardly any research has been undertaken in the area of overqualification linking it with positive and negative affectivity. It has also been observed that employee wellbeing is usually studied as a dependent variable and very rare studies explored its mediating role. Although the impact of overqualification on employee wellbeing has been studied though rarely, a possible mediating effect of employee wellbeing has not been tried.

2.4 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention signifies that the employees would initiate the process of termination of their relationship with their employer, organization,

profession only when there is perceived desirability to do so and there is a perceived possibility of such ease of movement (March and Simon, 1958). This perceived desirability of termination of employee-employer relation is known as turnover intention (Jha, 2009). Turnover intention is also addressed as intention to quit and intention to leave.

The study of turnover intention turns significant because it predicts actual behavior. Turnover intention is identified to be the most immediate determinant of actual turnover behavior (Jha, 2009; Sharma & Nambudiri, 2013; Boatright, 2014; Tüzün, Çetin, & Basım, 2014; Chia & Hsu, 2002). Turnover intention actually comprises of a sequence of steps starting from thinking of quitting, intentions to search, to intention to quit (Mobley, 1982; Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979; Wong, Wong, & Wong, 2015). Thus turnover intention results in employee turnover and if identified, organizations can adopt proactive measures to control the actual turnover.

When employees voluntarily leave an organisation or a profession, it can be termed as employee turnover. When employees initiate an action to terminate the employee employer relationship, it is known as voluntary turnover (Lambert, Hogan & Barton, 2001). Turnover is defined as the termination of a person's membership usually employment with an organization (Chia & Hsu, 2002). It is accepted as a combination of social, economic and psychological process. It is also found to have a multistage nature comprising of attitudinal, decisional, and behavioral components (Price and Mullar 1981; Jha, 2009). A number of reasons have been cited as the reasons for voluntary turnover out of which turnover intention has been emerged as a major antecedent.

Turnover intention crops up due to a number of factors ranging from personal as well as organizational factors. An individual may have an intention to immediately quit the organization or to quit the organization in the near future or may have intentions to quit the job, or quit the profession. Whatever be the intention, it is essential for the organizations to understand the reasons for quitting behavior of their employees so as to restrain their voluntary quitting behavior (Jha, 2009). The antecedents of employee turnover and turnover intention have remained an area of research interest for many years. According to (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, & Meglino, 1979) intention to quit occurs due to a number of factors ranging from organizational, individual employee characteristics, job-related, labor-market expectations, and individual values.

Many organisational, personal and social factors emerged as the antecedents of turnover intention. From an extensive literature review following factors have been studied as the determinants of turnover intentions. Perceived organizational support (Jha, 2009), perceived supervisory support (Tüzün, Çetin, & Basım, 2014), Organization commitment (Eisenberger, Fasalo & Davis., 1990), organization citizenship behavior, HR practices, compensation and negotiation conditions, job satisfaction, autonomy, stress, leadership, distributive justice, work group cohesion, job content and promotional chances (Sharma & Nambudiri, 2013) are reported as some of the organizational antecedents of employee turnover. Different factors were cited by different authors that affects employee wellbeing. These factors range from work-family conflict, low remuneration, lack of benefits, absence of career growth, lack of training and development programs, uncordial relationship with management, poor working environment, quality of work life (Almalki, FitzGerald, & Clark, 2012), employees' goal orientation and intrinsic

motivation is also identified to predict employee turnover and turnover intention, respectively.

Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly (2008) examined the relationship between organisational commitment and turnover intention among the employees in Internet Industry. Three dimensions of organizational commitment like affective, continuance and normative were examined for the purpose. The relationship was also compared between technical employees and managerial and non-managerial employees. The results depicted a significant negative relationship between affective and normative components of organisational commitment and turnover intention. And it was also identified that turnover intention does not differ significantly between the different groups of employees.

Lyons & O'Brien (2006) examined the assumptions of theory of work adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) by conducting a study on African American employees. They analysed the strength of the relationship between fit with job satisfaction and turnover intention, the ability of racial climate to moderate the above relationship, potential difference in the mentioned relationship between African Americans and European Americans and the qualitative determinants of job satisfaction. They conducted their study among 204 employees and found that fit perceptions explained 43.20% variance in jobsatisfaction and 20.20% variance in turnover intention. The racial climate did not serve as a moderator in the relationship and the qualitative data were also identified to support these findings.

Jawahar & Hemmasi (2006) examined turnover intention among women executives and professionals in the absence of organisation's support on women's advancement. The study was conducted in two phases covering

332 female executives and 186 female managers respectively. The respondents were the members of US- based national women executive association and the intervening role of job satisfaction and employer satisfaction in the relationship between perceived organizational support and turnover intention is studied. The results of the two studies indicated that the perception of organizational support is related to turnover intention and both the employer satisfaction and job satisfaction were found mediating the relationship. But it was the employer satisfaction that is found to have a stronger effect than job satisfaction. Employer satisfaction indicated the satisfaction of the respondents with their employer.

Jha (2009) made an extensive review of literature in order to explore the reasons behind turnover intentions to device remedial actions so as to reduce the outflow of key personnel and thereby strengthening the competitive advantage. They identified both cognitive and non-cognitive factors leading to turnover intentions. Cognitive factors include aspects like personal characteristics of an employee like skills, ability etc, personality traits like positive and negative affectivity, individual perceptions etc and organisational characteristics like perceived organisational support (POS), organizational justice etc. Non cognitive factor include ability, gender, number of years of experience etc.

Michael (2009) conducted her research among 1766 potential job seekers and employees in the island of Cyprus in the Mediterranean. The purpose of the study was to investigate the antecedents and consequences of job choice decisions and to determine the probability of any potential business-related problem arising from poor person-environment. The study found that extrinsic job attributes were valued more by the respondents than intrinsic and their overall job satisfaction were weakly and negatively related

the composite measures of extrinsic and intrinsic job factor rankings. Further person job demands abilities fit, person job needs supplies-fit, person organization needs supplies fit, person organization goal congruence and person-organization value congruence were positively and moderately related to employees' overall job satisfaction and negatively and moderately related to intentions to quit. The employees were relatively less happy with the intrinsic aspects like promotion opportunities, autonomy in decisions, superiors, company policies and practices etc.

Dysvik & Kuvaas (2010) integrate motivational antecedents of turnover intention and thereby turnover by studying the combined influence of intrinsic satisfaction and mastery goals. The respondents of the survey was drawn from 4320 employees representing 400 organisations from various Industrial sectors who attended training activities offered by a large Norwegian training institution. The data drawn from 965 respondents suggests that intrinsic motivation is the strongest predictor of turnover intention compared with mastery goals. Intrinsic motivation emerged as a moderating variable in the relation between the two other variables. It was also found that mastery goals were positively related to turnover intention and intrinsic satisfaction played a moderating role.

Almalki, FitzGerald, & Clark (2012) attempted a cross-sectional survey to study the relationship between quality of work life and turnover intention among the health care nurses in Saudi Arabia. The study was conducted among 508 Public health care nurses in the Jazan Region of Saudi Arabia. The study found that the quality of work life is significantly and negatively associated with turnover intention. The survey showed that 40% of the nurses had turnover intention due to the dissatisfaction with their quality of work life.

Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr (2012) examined the effect of job satisfaction, wellbeing and employee engagement on the relationship between emotional intelligence, organisational commitment and turnover intention. The survey was conducted among 193 police officers in Australia. The study revealed that emotional intelligence leads to positive job satisfaction and wellbeing leading to positive employee engagement there by leading to better organisational commitment and reduced turnover intentions. Organisational commitment was found to have a mediating effect in the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intention.

Herda & Lavelle (2012) analysed the consequence of burnout among auditors on turnover intention. The study was conducted among 204 auditors at two accounting firms and the perceived firm fairness were taken as the independent variable. The study revealed that as long as the auditors perceive a fair treatment by the firm the auditors commitment is assured and the commitment were found to vary inversely with burnout and turnover intention. Thus the study brings out the importance of organisational fairness in fostering a positive social exchange relationship between auditors and firm which will have the effect of reducing the burnout levels and turnover intention.

Sharma & Nambudiri (2013) examined whether job leisure conflict influence turnover intention of IT professionals in India. The study was conducted among 173 IT Professionals in India working in software service organizations in the areas of software development, maintenance and support. The IT and ITES sector in India witnessed 15% attrition rate. The study explored various reasons behind the high attrition rate in the sector and examined the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship. The study found that as the job leisure conflicts increased turnover intention also increased and as job satisfaction increased, turnover intention decreased.

Moreover jobsatisfaction mediates the relationship between job leisure conflict and turnover intention.

Ha, Kim, Hwang, & Lee (2014) studied the influence of organisational characteristics on turnover intention of care workers in the nursing homes of Korea. The study was conducted among 504 care workers working at 14 nursing homes. The organizational characteristics examined included high performance work practices, support and organizational commitment. The study found that turnover intention of care workers depends upon their perceptions of work practices. Besides, organizational support and commitment is found to have a mediating role in the relationship between the two. It was also observed that organisation commitment exhibited the largest direct influence on turnover intention. Thus the study concludes that the turnover intent among care workers can be reduced by improving high performance work practices which will enhance their emotional and moral commitment to the workplace.

Saija, Decuyper, Tolvanen, Kinnunen, & Makinkangas (2014) examined the role of occupational wellbeing in the relation between job insecurity and turnover intention. The study was conducted among staff of Finnish University at the individual and department level spanning 78 work departments with a sample size of 2137. The findings show that occupational wellbeing has a partial mediation effect in the relationship at both the individual and department levels. The study found that the negative effect of job insecurity on turnover intention at the individual level is more when the wellbeing is lower at the department level.

Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton (2012) conducted a study among 193 police officers in order to examine the relationship between emotional

intelligence on job satisfaction, wellbeing and employee engagement and how does this explain their organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The results showed that emotional intelligence lead to job satisfaction and wellbeing leading enhanced employee engagement and organizational commitment which in turn influences turnover intentions. Organisational commitment is also found to partially mediate the relationship between employee engagement and turnover intentions.

Boatright (2014) focused on the study of influence of work design on turnover intention of IT professionals in United States. The IT Industry in US presented a high degree of turnover rates and hence an attempt was made to understand whether work design exerted any influence. The results indicated that there is no significant relationship between work design and turnover intention but a slight positive correlation was witnessed with task characteristics. Among the task characteristics, autonomy was the only one which contributed to the relationship.

Tuzun, Cetin & Basum (2014) investigated the importance of pshycological capital in the relationship between perceived organisational support and perceived supervisor support on turnover intention. The study was conducted among 255 academicians working in state and foundation universities in Turkey. They found that psychological capital mediates only the relationship between perceived organsiational support and turnover intention but not with perceived supervisor support. But a low psychological capital is found to have a moderating effect in the perceived organisational support - turnover intention relationship. Thus no significant indirect effect is spotted in the relationship between PSS and turnover intentions. The results also bring out a negative relationship between POS and PSS with turnover intention.

Erturk (2014) analysed how turnover intention among IT professionals working in Turkish public sector can be decreased. They examined the role of social aspects and interrelationships among the employees as one antecedent of turnover intent along with high involvement human resource practices and organizational trust and leader member exchange. The study conducted among 197 IT professionals revealed that perceived organizational support fully mediates the relationship between participation in decision making, information sharing, fair rewards and turnover intention and partially mediates the relationship between recognition and turnover intention. Leader member exchange is found to have a full mediation effect on the association between information sharing, fair rewards and turnover intention and a partial mediation effect between recognition and turnover intentions. It was also found that trust in organisation moderates the relationship between leader member exchange and turnover intention.

2.5 Research Gap

Overqualification literature basically concentrates on its consequences at the individual level, organisation level and at a macro level. Numerous studies pointed out that overqualification results in negative work attitudes where as a very few studies established that it may not result in negative work attitudes always. This raises a curiosity in researcher to test this relationship in the labor context of Kerala. Similarly it has been found that the role of any intervening variables that can reduce the negative consequences of overqualification had not been investigated into.

Complementing to this research idea is the finding that employees possessing a high person environment fit is found to exhibit positive behaviors and work attitudes (Kristof, 1996) while a poor environment fit is

associated with undesirable outcomes (Redelinguys, 2015). The degree of match between the person and work environment is presumed to impact attitudes and behaviors through its effects on need fulfillment, satisfaction, and value congruence (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Studies related to person environment fit personify that attitudes, behavior and other individual level outcomes result not from the individual or environment separately, but rather from the relationship between the two (Lewin, 1951; Pervin, 1989).

Person environment fit was found to have studied as a single construct initially. But later on different dimensions of fit were identified by several authors. These dimensions were found to have studied individually and some studies examined the combined and individual effect of a very few of its dimensions. Recently several authors suggested for a combined examination of more of its dimensions. It has been found that rather than interacting with one aspect of the environment people are ingrained in multiple dimensions of the environment (Granovetter, 1985; Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski & Erez, 2001). The research studies that enquired into the combined effect of these varying dimensions were found to be very rare and are found to be in an emerging stage. Similarly the intervening role of the individual dimensions of person environment were found to have studied but very rare studies were conducted that examined the intervening role of most of its dimensions combined together, though many authors had suggested it. The multidimensionality of person environment fit has been stressed upon in many studies pointing towards the fact that Individuals are faced with a holistic environment which encompasses various aspects (Jansen & Kristof, 2006). Moreover person environment fit was found to have studied as an independent variable in most studies. Thus a gap has been identified which point towards the possibility of a potential mediating effect of person environment fit

encompassing most of its dimensions in the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention.

Wellbeing at work is increasingly being recognized as an important factor in determining organizational success. Warr (2002) explained that job related wellbeing refers to people's satisfaction with their jobs in terms of facets like pay, colleagues, supervisors, working conditions, job security, training opportunities, involvement, team working and the nature of work undertaken. Baptiste (2008) suggest wellbeing at work as a concern of overall sense of happiness, physical and mental health of the workforce. Both organizations and employees expect to lead a healthier organizational life to satisfy mutual goals. From the Organization's perspective the absence of employee wellbeing costs high in terms of increased turnover, less involvement and less productivity, adverse workplace behavior. From the employees perspective, it is a matter of satisfying their aspirations and future goals and serve as a main determinant of their overall wellbeing. As such attaining employee wellbeing stands important for both organizations and employees and is considered as an important precursor to organizational wellbeing (Battu, Belfield, & .Sloane, 2000).

Education is usually seen as contributing to individual's wellbeing by reducing the probability of unemployment (Sicherman & Galore, 1990). Subjective wellbeing depends on the gap between aspirations and actual realizations (Verhaest & Omey, 2009). (Artes, Jimenez, & Jimenez, 2014) analyse the effect of educational mismatch on subjective wellbeing of both overeducated and undereducated individuals. Their results showed that education creates certain aspirations in individuals, which when not fulfilled lead to a negative impact on life satisfaction and hence a loss of psychological wellbeing while the same is positive for undereducated employees.

From the literature review it was observed that employee wellbeing is studied as a dependent variable in most of the studies and very rare studies explored its mediating role. A study conducted by Vaart, Vander (2012) found that employee wellbeing partially mediates the negative relationship between psychological contract and Intention to leave. Even though the relationship between overqualification and employee wellbeing has been established the intervening role of wellbeing in influencing the work attitudes of overqualified employees have been rarely studied. Similarly hardly any research has been found to be done in the area of overqualification linking it with positive and negative affectivity. Although the impact of overqualification on employee wellbeing has been studied though rarely, a possible mediating effect of employee wellbeing has not been done. Thus it was found worth exploring the role of employee wellbeing as having a mediating role in the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention.

2.6 Research Questions

On the basis of the literature review and discussions with the experts a possibility has been judged that overqualified employees will have a more turnover intention and less wellbeing compared to adequately qualified employees. At the same it was also observed that employees who perceive a person environment fit are likely to stay and is said to experience positive work outcomes and less intent to quit and possess good wellbeing. People tend to select and remain in environments that provide person environment fit (Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, 1998). Based on these findings certain questions were raised which was found worth exploring.

1. Does an overeducated employee remain content if he/she perceives a fit with the working environment?

2. Does enhanced wellbeing and person environment fit have a compensating effect in reducing extent of discontentment faced by overqualified employees?
3. Does an overqualified employee, after joining an organisation, through his interaction with work environment get adjusted to the work and working environment, and exhibit less turnover intention?

Thus the study intends to explore the relationship between perceived overqualification of employees on turnover intention and the role of person environment fit and employee wellbeing on this relationship.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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	3.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter explains the methodological options employed in this study. Since a fairly large amount of data has to be collected survey method has been adopted. The chapter presents a detailed explanation of the research design, sample size estimation, the methods adopted for collecting data, description of major variables under study, development of measurement scales and their validity measures, details of demographic variables studied. This chapter also explains the objectives and hypothesis formulated, and the statistical tools adopted to analyse the data. The study was conceived and executed in three different stages – preliminary study, pilot study and final study.

3.1 Preliminary Study

In order to identify the relevant variables to be included in this research, a preliminary study has been conducted on the basis of literature review and discussion with experts. It was assumed that overqualified employees are likely to have more turnover intention and less wellbeing compared to adequately qualified employees. It was also assumed that employees who perceive a high person environment fit are likely to stay longer, experience positive work outcomes and possess high levels of wellbeing. According to Edwards, Caplan, & Harrison, (1998) people select environments that fulfill their needs, a process resulting in person environment fit. So linking these two possibilities it was found worth exploring that overqualified employees who perceive a high level of person environment fit are likely to exhibit low level of turnover intention. As such a preliminary study has been conducted among 100 informants to study the above relationship. The study was conducted among full time permanent non teaching staff of Cochin University and private colleges. The objective of the preliminary study was to measure the extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction of overqualified employees, their perceived person environment fit and employee wellbeing. The study revealed that the problem of overqualification is very much existent and is found to be highest among professional, arts and science graduates and postgraduates. Despite the fact that overqualified employees work in the same job, draw the same salary, same working conditions, with time bound promotions, and with lesser options left, it was observed that turnover intention and employee wellbeing doesn't differ significantly with that of adequately qualified employees. Moreover the perception of environment fit of overqualified employees is found to have an impact on their turnover intention and well being. It was also found that the government

employees were found to possess a higher extrinsic job satisfaction but lesser intrinsic satisfaction and they possess wellbeing. The preliminary study was helpful in gaining an insight into the area under study. It was also helpful to generate an understanding of the present state of labor market and how the present context differs from the International context.

3.2 Research Problem

From the preliminary study, it was observed that, as different from the international phenomena, overqualification in Kerala is more prominent among highly qualified graduates. As such the intensity of overqualification can be concluded to be more severe in the State. Hence it is quite natural that overqualified applicants become a part of the recruitment and selection process for the jobs requiring basic qualifications.

It has been reported in a news paper article written by Devasia, (2010) that for a post of peon in the Government offices in Kerala the number of applications received were the highest. The post of peon requires a minimum eligibility of reading and writing skills and carries a meager salary of Rs 7000. But the highest number of applications was received from graduates, postgraduates and research scholars from the districts of Cochin, Thiruvananthapuram, and Calicut .These are places where high paying private sector jobs are available. Similarly another news paper article (Indian Express, 2013) reports an increasing number of professional graduates including IT graduates are applying for Kerala public sector lower division clerical jobs that at least they value a secure job, regular income and other non-monetary benefits offered by the Government jobs.

As a result of this phenomenon of overqualification, a major proportion of graduates including professional graduates are forced to accept a job which

is far below the job they are eligible for based on their educational qualification. It has also been observed that many technically and professionally qualified graduates ultimately prefer government jobs. Even though these jobs are entirely different from the area of their study, the basis for their preference stems from need of a secure job. These jobs are often characterized by time bound promotions and the graduates are infact forced to accept and remain in such jobs since there are lesser number of options left.

When employees are overeducated, it will normally result in discontentment and adverse workplace attitudes and may end up in job hopping. In addition, the excess supply of educated people results in driving down their wages. Thus higher educational qualifications beyond what is required by the job can be counterproductive, increasing job dissatisfactions, turnover intention, increased job search behavior and underutilization of skills of employees which proves costly to the firms. Such employees are difficult to retain and results in financial losses to the organization concerned.

3.3 Objectives of the Study

Based on the literature review and research gap identified the study aims to investigate the following set of objectives and test the hypothesis stated.

3.3.1 Major Objective.

To study the importance of perceptions of person environment fit and employee wellbeing in affecting the turnover intention of overqualified employees.

3.3.2 Specific Objectives

1. To study the influence of demographic variables on major variables under study.

2. To study the direct effect of perceived overqualification on turnover intention
3. To study the indirect effect of perceived overqualification on turnover intention mediated through person environment fit.
4. To study the indirect effect of perceived overqualification on turnover intention mediated through employee well being.
5. To integrate and validate the above relationships into a model

3.4 Research Hypothesis

To support the objectives stated above and based on the information obtained from literature review following hypothesis were formulated:

- H1: *There is a significant positive relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention.*
- H2: *There is a significant negative relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing.*
- H3: *There is a significant negative relationship between perceived overqualification and person environment fit*
- H4: *There is a significant positive relationship between person environment fit and employee wellbeing.*
- H5: *There is a significant negative relationship between person environment fit and turnover intention*
- H6: *There is a significant negative relationship between employee wellbeing and turnover intention*
- H7: *Person environment fit mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention*

H8: *Person environment fit mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing*

H9: *Employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between person environment fit and turnover intention*

H10: *Employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention*

3.5 Conceptual Model

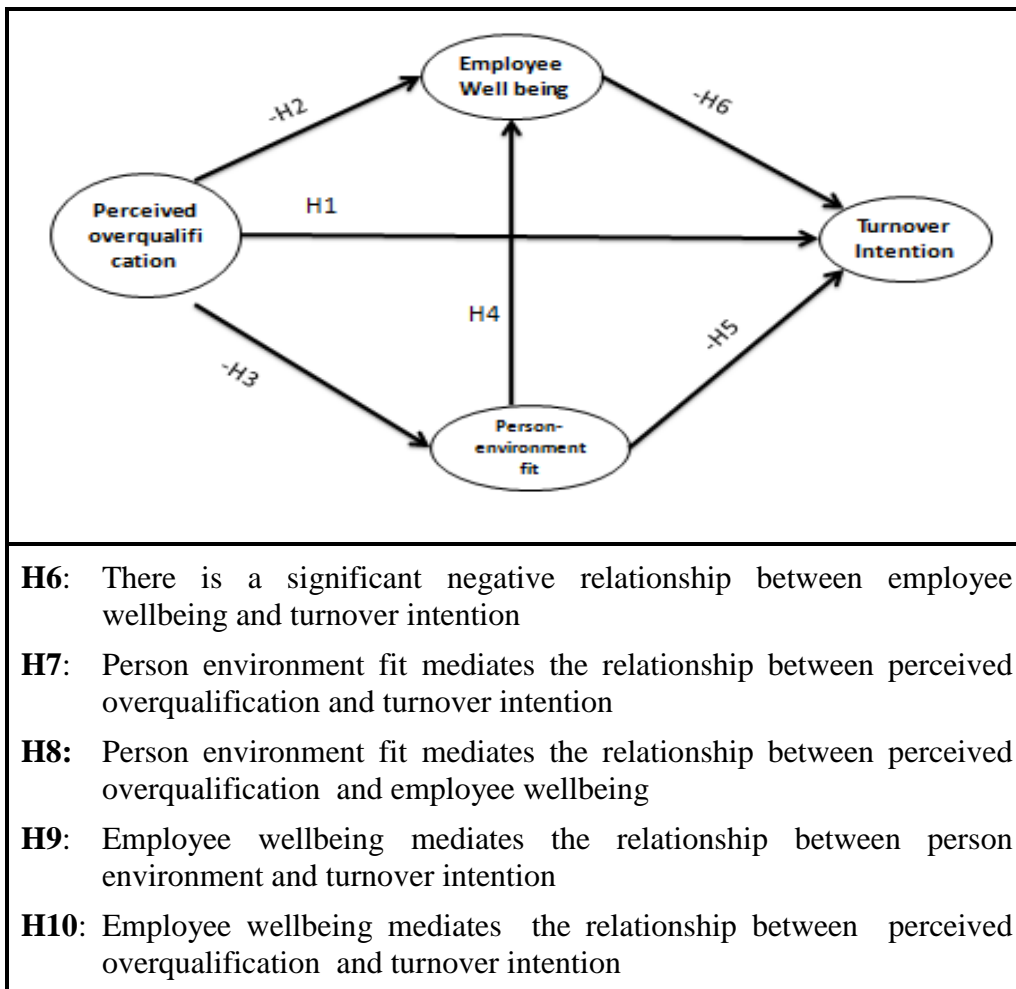


Fig.3.1 Conceptual Model

3.6 Conceptual Focus

This section describes the conceptual and operational definitions of the major constructs, in order to help understand meaningfully the concepts employed in the present study.

3.6.1 Overqualification

Overqualification is generally defined as having surplus education, knowledge, skills, or abilities relative to what job requires (Maynard, Joseph & Maynard, 2006). It is also termed as overeducation, surplus schooling (Rumberger, 1987), underutilization of skills, underemployment (Scurry & Blekinsopp, 2011) and overskilling (McGuinness & Wooden, 2007). Overqualification is understood under two main perspectives – objective and subjective (Khan & Marrow, 1991).

The term overqualification generally implies objective overqualification. Objective overqualification use accepted standards to determine whether an employee is overqualified or not. Thus overqualification refers to the possession by the worker of educational attainment in excess of the educational requirements of a job. Overqualification, is a situation where individuals have qualifications such as education and skills that exceed job requirements (Khan & Morrow, 1991).

Overqualification is recognised to be one of the dimensions of underemployment. The operational definition of overqualification is taken from the definition of underemployment given by Feldman (1996). According to him underemployment consists of five dimensions. They are possession of: (a) more education by employees than required by the job, (b) more skills or experience by employees than required by the job, (c) involuntary employment in a field outside the area of education, (d) involuntary employment in part-time,

temporary, or intermittent work, and (e) low pay, relative to either a previous job or to other with similar educational backgrounds. Overqualification is defined as the first three dimensions of underemployment by (Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard, 2006) and it is this definition that is considered for the study.

Operational definition

In this study overqualification has been operationally defined as a situation where a worker possess (a) more education than required by the job, (b) more skills and experience than required by the job, and is (c) involuntary employed in a field outside the area of education.

3.6.2 Perceived overqualification

Perceived overqualification is the subjective aspect of overqualification and explores the individual's interpretations of their employment situations, focusing on their perceptions regarding use of their skills and abilities (Khan & Marrow, 1991; Jones Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

Perceived overqualification occurs when an individual believes that his or her skill set exceeds the requirements of the job (Johnson and Johnson, 2001). Perceived overqualification is said to exist when individuals perceive that they possess education, experience and skills that exceed the required job requirements. It may stem from a lack of promotional opportunities associated with the job, which lead to dead ends (Green, Intosh & Vignoles, 1999).

Operational Definition

In this study perceived overqualification has been defined as the extent to which an employed individual perceives that he or she possesses surplus job qualifications, surplus skills and experience than required by the job.

3.6.3 Person environment fit

From a broader perspective person environment fit has been defined as the compatibility between the individual and work environment that occurs when their characteristics are well matched (Kristof Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson, 2005). Person environment fit reflects the comfort level experienced by an individual in various work environments, locales, or situations (Kristof, 1996). The concept of person environment fit is defined as the degree of congruence or match between a person and environment (Holland, 1997; Kristof 1996; Pervin, 1968; Schneider 1987). A good person environment match is achieved when an individual works in an environment commensurate with his or her preferences. Within the person environment fit frame work, researchers have found that an individual may achieve congruence with the work environment on one or more levels like the job, the work group, the organization and the broader vocation (Vogel and Feldman, 2009).

Operational Definition

In this study person environment fit has been operationally defined as the perception of an employee regarding the degree of match or congruence and the comfort level between the person and the work environment on one or more levels like the goals, values, job demands, environment supplies, co-workers and vocation. Thus the term person-environment fit in the current study connotes perceived person environment fit.

Person environment fit encompasses several specific types of fit namely persons values fit, person goals fit, demand abilities fit, needs supplies fit, person co-workers fit and person-vocation fit. The review of literature has brought into light several types of fit as affecting the work attitudes. Apart from the fit concepts mentioned above, another conceptualization of fit is

person group fit which is applicable in project organisations. Since in banks it has no relevance that fit dimension is not used in this study. Similarly literature in the area of person environment mention about supplementary and complementary fit. Several authors presented different types of fit as elements of either of these two fits. Since no clear demarcation has been made these fits were also not used to explain person environment fit.

a) Person Values Fit

Person values fit is the compatibility between the personal values and organisational values. Personal values are considered to be an important determinant of human behavior and form the basis for individual opinions and decisions. Values also form the basis for an individual's judgment, preferences and choices.

Thomas (2013) has explained about personal values and organizational values. Personal values often serve as a guiding principle in the lives of people. Organisational values are the "beliefs and ideas about standards of behavior that organizational members should exhibit in the endeavor to achieve organisational goals within organizational community". Organisational values develop organisational norms, guidelines or expectations that specify appropriate kinds of behavior by employees in particular situations and direct the behavior of organizational members towards one another. It serves as a measurement of organization's culture which implies how things ought to be, and how members of the organizations are expected to behave (Mcdoanld & Gandz, 1991;). Numerous empirical studies pointed out that value congruence exert an influence on personal and organizational effectiveness and is reflective of person organization fit (Chatman, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Cable & DeRue, 2002).

Operational Definition

Here person values fit has been operationally defined as the perception of an individual regarding extent of match between personal values and those of the organisation's values.

b) Person Goals Fit

The goal congruence can be understood as a phenomenon where employees' goals are consistent with the goals of the entire organization. It implies that the actions people are led to take in accordance with their perceived self interest are also in the best interest of the organization (Gustafasson & Kornberg, 2012). Thus an important aspect of fit between individuals and their organizations is the convergence of individual and organisationa goals (Supeli & Creed, 2013). It requires that employees are aware of, and understands fully the goals of their organization. The goals of an organization are conveyed through the planning process like budgets, standards and similar performance measures. The personal goals may range from monetary rewards to non monetary rewards like power, security, autonomy and survival. The match between the personal goals and organization goals is thus a crucial factor in achieving the objectives of an organization at the same time to ensure coordination and motivation of all employees concerned (Gustafasson & Kornberg, 2012). The premise of this perspective is that similar types of individuals are attracted to and selected by organizations whose goals are similar to their own or will enable them to achieve their goals (Kristof, 1996).

Along with the value congruence, drawing from the attraction-selection-attrition theory of Schneider (1987), congruence between Individual's goals

with that of organisational leaders and peers are indicative of person organisation fit (Vancouver and Schmitt, 1991; Wright, 2000).

Operational Definition

Here person goals fit is operationally defined as the perception of employees regarding the extent of congruence between their personal goals and the goals of the organisation.

c) Demand Abilities Fit (Job Demands Worker Abilities Fit)

Demand abilities fit refers to the match between environmental demands and personal abilities (Edwards, 1996). If an employee's ability is too low it may affect the work quality and will become less committed to their occupation and if an employee is highly able he or she become complacent and uninterested and feel underutilized and get detached from the occupation (Cable and DeRue 2002). The abilities include the skills, knowledge, time, and energy the person draws to meet the environmental demands (Edwards, 1996).

A poor demand ability fit has been conceptualized as a lack of worker ability, relative to job demands (O'Brain, 1986). Overqualified employees who possess more education, experience, knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) also suffer from lack of demand abilities fit (Maynard, Joseph, Maynard, 2006). This fit can be explained from the perspective of job demands that are required in order to carry out tasks of the job and the abilities that the individual has that can be used to meet the job requirement. The demands of a job basically includes the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) required to perform at the acceptable level in the job (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990). Abilities include education, experience, and employee aptitudes or knowledge, skills, and abilities (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990; French, Caplan, & Harrison, 1982; Sekiguchi, 2003)

Operational Definition

In this study demand abilities fit is operationally defined as the perceived congruence by employees regarding the degree of match between the demands of a job and their education, experience, aptitudes, knowledge, skills, and abilities.

d) Needs Supplies Fit

Needs supplies fit is said to occur when the employee's needs, desires or preferences are supplied by the jobs they perform. According to Cable and DeRue (2002), needs-supplies fit is the perceived congruence between job rewards and the services provided by the employee. It refers to the comparison between the individual's psychological needs and desires of the person and the environmental supplies that serve as rewards for needs (Kristof 1996).

Needs supplies fit examine both organizational needs and individual needs (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Individual needs encompass pay, compensation, rewards, and interpersonal relations. Organizational needs include task fulfillment, business functions, consultation services, and general manpower. Needs supplies fit integrates various types of individual needs with those of the organization and vice versa (Kristof, 1996). Typically, types of needs differ between the two parties. Individual needs are concrete and intangible. Concrete needs consist of biological needs e.g., food and shelter (Cable & Edwards, 2004). These needs are met by organizations through the provision of salaries, benefits, time off, and rewards (Cable & DeRue, 2002). Intangible needs tend to be more psychological in nature, encompassing security, socialization, interpersonal relations, as well as personal and professional growth. Organizational systems and structures attempt to meet individual needs, desires, or preferences through extrinsic and intrinsic means by offering opportunities for rewards, bonuses, social interaction, training and

development, and promotions (Cable & Edwards, 2004). Task fulfillment, business functions, consultation services, and general manpower are needs that can be met through employee job performance. Needs-supplies fit is achieved when each entity mutually satisfies the needs and expectations of the other. According to Cable and DeRue (2002) need supplies is most important from the perspective of employee and forms a necessary aspect of job satisfaction reflecting the primary reason for employees to enter the work force.

Both needs supplies fit and job demands fit together are reflective of person job fit. Person job fit is conceptualized as the match between individual knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) and demands of the job or the needs/desires of an individual and what is provided by the job (Edwards, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

Operational Definition

In this study needs supplies fit has been operationally defined as the perceived congruence by employees regarding the degree of match between the individual's psychological needs and desires of the person and the environmental supplies that serve as rewards for the needs. Job supplies include pay or other job attributes and general characteristics of an occupation.

e) Person Co-workers Fit

Person co-workers fit has been defined as the compatibility between the individuals and their co-workers. Person co-workers fit exists when there is interpersonal congruence between the individual and other members of the immediate work group (Judge & Ferris, 1992; Kristof, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Werbel & Gilliland, 1999). The construct has been operationalised in several different ways. Most often, individuals are compared to their coworkers in terms of goals (Kristof & Stevens, 2001), values (Adkins, Ravlin & Meglino,

1996), or personality traits (Kristof, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). The decision of which characteristics to emphasize is often determined by the research question (Kristof, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

Individuals possessing strong relationships with coworkers are more likely to give and receive valuable resources from them. In the present study the researcher give a holistic approach to the concept and attempted to study the perception of employees regarding their person co-workers fit combining all the aspects mentioned above.

Operational Definition

In this study person coworkers fit have been operationally defined as the perceived congruence between the individual and his co-workers.

f) Person Vocation Fit

Person vocation fit refers to the congruence between individuals' interests and abilities and the characteristics and requirements of their vocation (Holland, 1985). Person vocation fit refers to the congruence of skills and needs at the level of the occupation. Research studies suggested that individuals would attain more satisfactory work outcomes if their interests matched the attributes of their vocations (Tranberg, Slane, & Ekeberg, 1993). According to (Ng Thomas, Sorenson, Lillian, & Feldman, 2007), individuals who do not have the skills, values, and interests in their vocation will be less successful in their careers regardless of where they specifically work.

Operational Definition

Here person vocation fit is operationally defined as the perceived congruence between individuals' interests and abilities with the characteristics and requirements of their vocation.

3.6.4 Employee Wellbeing

Warr (2002) explained job related wellbeing as people's satisfaction with their jobs in terms of facets like pay, colleagues, supervisors, working conditions, job security, training opportunities, involvement, team working and the nature of work undertaken. Baptiste (2008) suggest wellbeing at work as a concern of overall sense of happiness, physical and mental health of the workforce. Currie (2003) defines employee well-being as the physical and mental health of the workforce. Keyes' defined mental health as the possession of positive feelings and positive functioning by individuals. Mental well-being refers to an individual's ability to develop his or her potential, to work productively and innovatively, to build interpersonal relationships and to contribute to the economy (Cooper, Field, Goswami, Jenkins, & Sahakian, 2010). Cartwright and Cooper (2008) include a third dimension of employee well-being, namely emotional well-being, and their definition also assumes that a positive evaluation of one's work experience is conducive to one's well-being.

Affective wellbeing (Warr 1990) refers to feelings about life in general irrespective of any context, or affect in relation to a specific domain ('job-related' or 'facet specific'). In relation to affective wellbeing, the term 'job' refers to the specific tasks undertaken by individuals in a particular setting (Hosie & Sevastos, 2010).

Operational Definition

Employee affective wellbeing has been operationally defined as the affect at work reflecting the positive and negative emotional experiences of employees aroused in response to the job.

Employee wellbeing is conceptualized as the positive or negative affect experienced in the work place. Employee's sense of wellbeing is heightened

when he or she experiences more positive than negative affect regularly at work. Affective dispositions of employee are more related to job satisfaction than personality characteristics (Kaplan, Warren & Barsky, 2009).

Employee wellbeing involves the amount of positive and negative affect experienced in the work place. The positive and negative affect are believed to be the best indicators to define affect experience since most of the emotions can be grouped under the two factors. All the above mentioned conceptualizations ultimately result in the positive or negative affectivity among employees. Hence this concept is used to define employee wellbeing in the present context.

a) Positive Affectivity

Positive affect increases resources, energy, attention, optimism and active engagement with the environment whereas negative affect may either activate employees to behave proactively, make employees passive, or make them withdraw from work. Positive affectivity reflects a general positive outlook on life. Those who are high in positive affectivity exhibit optimism in how they appraise work events. Individuals possessing high positive affectivity report positive emotions in response to work (Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002).

Operational Definition

Positive Affectivity has been operationally defined as a positive outlook to the job by an employee leading to an experience of positive emotions in response to the job across situations and time.

b) Negative Affectivity

Negative affectivity is the dispositional tendency to experience negative emotions across situations and time. It is defined as having a negative outlook on life and leads to stress (Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002).

Operational Definition

Negative affectivity has been operationally defined as a negative outlook to the job by an employee leading to a tendency to experience negative emotions in response to job across situations and time.

3.6.5 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is defined as a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization, it is often described as the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognition, a set to which thoughts of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment also belong (Mobley, Homer, & Hollingsworth, 1978; Chia & Hsu, 2002). This perceived desirability of termination of employee-employer relation is known as turnover intention. Intention to turnover is defined as the person's own anticipated probability (subjective) that he or she is permanently quitting the business at some specific upcoming time. Researchers have testified that the turnover intention comprises of a sequence of process starting from, thinking of quitting, intentions to search for alternate job, and intention to quit (Mobley 1982; Mobley et al., 1978; Jha, 2009). Turnover intention happens while the worker looks for another employment.

Operational Definition

Turnover intention has been operationally defined as the extent to which an employee plans to discontinue working for their current employer.

3.7 Scope of the study

The study is limited to banking sector in the State of Kerala. To get a more representative data the study intended to collect data from employees working in two different working environments but doing the same type of jobs. As such a sector needed to be selected where both public and private sector organizations mutually coexists. Indian banking sector is made up of both private and public sector banks.

Several industries were considered for the purpose, but in many cases either a government equivalent or a private equivalent ceases to exist. In existing cases employee accessibility was denied. For example, call centers were the first choice as a plenty of professionally qualified graduates were working in. But all the call centers that existed in Kerala were private organizations and a government equivalent does not exist. Moreover since many studies have empirically proved that the rate of employee turnover is high in call centers the results are also likely to give skewed results. And hence banking sector has been selected to study the relationships as explained by the conceptual model.

3.7.1 Time Period

The period of data collection was from November 2014 to April 2015.

3.7.2 Sources of data

The data is collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data was collected from the bank employees working in nationalized and new generation private banks as explained in section 3.7. Secondary resources were resorted to the bank manuals and publications related to the emoluments and other details of the bank employees, publications of Reserve bank of India and literature associated with the area of study.

3.8 Profile of Banking Sector in Kerala

Banking in India is dominated by nationalised banks since 1969 when all major banks were nationalised by the Indian government. The shares of all nationalised banks are listed on stock exchanges. There are a total of 27 nationalised banks in India comprising 21 nationalised and 6 State bank group (SBI and its 5 associates) (this data pertains to the year 2014-15). The “private-sector” banks are those where a greater share of equity are held by the private shareholders. The private sector banks in India are split into two groups by financial regulators after the economic reforms in 1990. The old private sector banks existed prior to the nationalization of banks in 1969 and kept their independence because they were either too small or specialised to be included in nationalisation. The old private sector banks are excluded from the purview of the study as the job attributes and work culture in these banks stand similar to that of the nationalized banks and hence could not facilitate any comparisons. The new generation private sector banks are those that have gained their banking license since the liberalisation in 1990s and are incorporated as per the revised guidelines issued by the RBI regarding the entry of private sector banks in 1993. The job attributes and work culture in these banks are extremely different from that of public sector banks. While nationalised banks and old private sector banks provide job security to its employees, new generation private banks do not offer job security. In new generation private banks the rewards are purely based on merit. In nationalized and old generation private banks once an individual become the employee, he/she is guaranteed with various employee benefits, emoluments and job security. The employees in the public sector banks are placed through the IBPS examinations while some of them belong to ex-servicemen category. A part of the employees in the private sector are placed through campus recruitment.

3.9 Population

The first activity in any sampling process is to identify the population that is matching with the theoretical profile and is accessible for data collection. The study intended to analyse the turnover intention of overeducated employees working in different working environments. This was done in order to study the influence of job characteristics and work environment on the turnover intention among them. After a comprehensive enquiry and discussions with experts, banking sector in Kerala was chosen to confirm the population. Thus the population of present study is defined as “Employees working in public sector banks and private banks in Kerala”.

3.9.1 Operational Definition of nationalised Banks

Nationalised banks are those banks where a majority stake (more than 50%) is held by the government. The shares of these banks are listed on stock exchanges.

3.9.2 Operational Definition of Private Banks

Private banks are operationally defined as new generation private sector banks who gained their banking license since the liberalisation in 1990s and are incorporated as per the revised guidelines issued by the Reserve Bank of India, regarding the entry of private sector banks in 1993. Hence forth these banks will be addressed as private banks.

3.10 Research Design

This study is descriptive in nature. A descriptive study is one in which information is collected without changing the environment. In human research, a descriptive study can provide information about the naturally occurring health status, behavior, attitudes or other characteristics of a particular group. Descriptive studies are also conducted to demonstrate associations or

relationships. The present study is descriptive in nature as it explains the relationship between over qualification, person environment fit, employee affective wellbeing and turnover intention.

3.10.1 Sampling Method

The method of sampling adopted was stratified proportionate sampling. Proportionate stratification is “often done to ensure representation of groups that have importance to the research” (Latham, 2007). Since the research seeks to collect data from two type of organizations, with different working environments, a stratified proportionate sampling had been adopted. The two strata are the two types of organisations involved in the study namely nationalised banks and new generation private banks.

3.10.2 Inclusion Criteria

The data has been controlled for age and job designations. This is done because for aged employees overqualification might not be a significant determinant of turnover intention. As such employees above 50 years of age were not considered for the data collection purposes Along with the age group job designations were also controlled. This is done to survey employees doing the same nature of job in both the organization types. For serving this purpose only those employees who were working in the clerical and officer posts were interviewed.

In nationalised banks the employees working in the entry level in the posts of clerical and officer cadre and in private banks employees working in the operational level were contacted for collecting data. In private banks, the name of job designations were entirely different from that of public sector banks and different names were given for the entry level operational staff in different banks. For example in HDFC banks the operational posts were given the names – personal banker in ICICI bank the same post is named as privilege

banker, in Kotak Mahindra - service delivery officers, service authorizers etc. In fact the work they were attending into was same in all the private banks but the name of their job designations differ. As such from the private banks data was collected from the employees working in those posts where degree is asked as the required qualification. To be precise employees working in front office were contacted for the data collection purposes in private banks.

The promotions in private banks are done purely on the basis of employee performance. The researcher observed that as the tenure of the employees is more they tend to remain within the bank and at a later stage got promoted to higher levels. Turnover intention is less at the managerial level and their pay packages are entirely different from the operations staff. So in order to simplify the study and to control the heterogeneity among the sample, managerial staff has been avoided from the purview of the study. Hence data has been collected from employees doing the same nature of job and age group.

3.10.3 Sampling Frame

The study makes use of a finite but unknown population because the exact number of employees working in both organization types in each district were unavailable. However the number of branches in each district was available from the respective lead bank offices of each district. Hence for the purpose of the sampling the lists of bank branches were sourced from the respective lead banks of the sampled districts. Lead bank offices collect the details regarding banks and banking business in each district and maintain the banking statistics of the respective district. The lead banks in the selected districts were Union Bank in Ernakulam, Canara bank in Calicut and Indian overseas bank in Trivandrum. The bank branches to be visited were then randomly selected and the employees working in these selected branches were

surveyed. Separate and exhaustive sampling frames were drawn separately for the two types of banks for serving the purpose.

3.10.4 Sampling Procedure

For serving the sampling purpose the State of Kerala was geographically divided into three zones namely north, south and middle. Three districts were selected from each zone based on discussion with experts and judgment of the researcher. The selected districts were Kozhikode from the north zone, Ernakulam from the middle zone, and Thiruvananthapuram from south zone. From each district the source list of public sector and private banks were collected (table 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3). From these lists the proportion of nationalised bank branches and private bank branches in each district were determined. The proportion of employees to be surveyed from nationalised banks and private banks were then determined based on this proportion. The basis used for the estimation of proportion of employees is given in table.

The objective behind collecting the source list of bank branches was to determine the number of employees to be surveyed. As explained in the previous section since the population of bank employees is finite but unknown, the known data of bank branches were first collected. After the estimation of proportion of nationalized and private bank branches in each district, simple random sampling method was adopted to select bank branches from each organization types. The selected branches were visited and the employees satisfying the inclusion criteria in those branches were interviewed. The number of branches randomly selected and visited continued till the selected number of employees satisfied the estimated proportion.

In order to select the final sample bank branches lottery procedure was adopted to ensure equal probability to all the sample elements. Sample branches identified were contacted as far as possible. Those sample branches

and the employees working there in, where access was denied were replaced by the next lot.

Table.3.1 List of Nationalised Bank Branches in Ernakulam, Calicut and Trivandrum

SI No	Public sector Banks	Ernakulam	Trivandrum	Calicut
1	State Bank of India	88	58	37
2	State Bank of Bikaner and Jaipur	1	0	0
3	State Bank of Hyderabad	4	1	1
4	State Bank of Mysore	2	1	1
5	State Bank of Patiala	1	0	0
6	State Bank of Travancore	93	119	37
7	Allahabad Bank	4	2	1
8	Andhra Bank	6	4	3
9	Bank of Baroda	19	12	8
10	Bank of India	33	17	5
11	Bank of Maharashtra	1	2	1
12	Canara Bank	40	53	37
13	Central Bank of India	12	22	4
14	Corporation Bank	19	14	7
15	Dena Bank	6	1	1
16	IDBI Bank Limited	9	5	2
17	Indian Bank	16	24	5
18	Indian Overseas Bank	18	47	9
19	Oriental Bank of Commerce	4	2	1
20	Punjab And Sind Bank	1	1	1
21	Punjab National Bank	22	8	27
22	Syndicate Bank	25	33	13
23	UCO Bank	14	6	2
24	Union Bank of India	73	30	13
25	United Bank of India	5	2	1
26	Vijaya Bank	18	10	8
27	Bharatiya Mahila Bank	1	4	1
	Total	535	478	226

Source: Data from lead Bank offices in Ernakulam, Calicut and Trivandrum for the year 2014-15.

Table.3.1 and 3.2 shows the total number of nationalized and private banks made available from the lead bank offices of each districts. From these tables the total number of nationalised and private banks in each district was worked out and presented in table.3.3.

Table.3.2 List of Private Banks in Ernakulam, Calicut and Trivandrum

Private sector banks	Ernakulam	Trivandrum	Calicut
Axis Bank	18	11	6
HDFC Bank	34	15	7
ICICI Bank	32	23	8
IndusInd Bank	7	4	1
INGVyshya Bank	4	1	1
Kotak Mahindra Bank	2	1	1
Yes Bank	4	1	1
Centurian Bank	3	1	1
	104	57	26

Source: Lead Bank offices in Ernakulam, Calicut and Trivandrum

Table.3.3 Total number of Nationalised and Private Banks in Sample Districts

	Public sector Banks	New generation Private banks
Ernakulam	535	104
Trivandrum	478	57
Calicut	226	26
Total	1239	187

Source: Lead bank data

3.11 Tools for Data Collection

The survey was conducted with a structured questionnaire which has been developed with the help of an extensive literature survey, discussion with experts and the insights obtained from the preliminary study. Standardised scales authored by well known researchers were adopted to gather information on designated variables. The scales were adapted to the context of the study by making necessary changes in the wordings and structure of the questions with the help of the information collected through the preliminary study. The Questionnaire had two sections. First section intended to measure the

designated variables and the second section intended to measure the socio demographic details of the respondents.

3.11.1 Overqualification

An employee is considered overeducated if his educational level exceeds the required education level prescribed by the employers. The required education level is determined using worker Indirect Self-Assessment (ISA) method, asking the respondents the required level to get the job (Duncan and Hoffman; 1981). Overqualification was then measured by comparing this level with the actual education level possessed by the employees.

3.11.2 Perceived Overqualification

Perceived overqualification is described as the workers perception about the mismatch and their feelings associated with it. Several studies have explained that the consequence of overqualification is severe when the subjective overqualification is high. Over qualification refer to a situation of being overeducated, over-skilled, over-experienced or over-intelligent among many others (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). As this is the case the scales developed so far intended to measure the perceptions of employees with respect to utilization of their education, skills, experience knowledge etc. From literature review three scales were found to be developed so far to measure the variable. One of these scales is unidimensional, one is two dimensional and the third is multidimensional. The researcher made an analysis of these scales with respect to the relevance of the current study.

Details of the existing measures of perceived overqualification are as follows. One is the POQ scale developed by Johnson and Johnson (1996). It is a 10-item scale incorporating 8 items developed by Khan and Marrow (1991) and two additional items developed by Johnson and Johnson (1996). The 10

items of the scale were grouped into two subscales namely “Mismatch” and “No growth”. The mismatch scale points towards the dimensions of excess education or excess skills and no growth subscale measures perceptions of employees regarding the growth and learning opportunities provided by the job. The limitation of this scale was that two dimensions of POQ namely excess education and excess skills and work experience were combined to form a single “mismatch” scale. A study conducted by Poon (2007) regarding the dimensions and measures of perceived overqualification has made an analysis of various scales in existence for measuring the construct. In his study he suggested for a further research to test whether this conceptual separation of dimensions could be empirically supported. Another limitation of the scale was the uncertainty regarding whether the “no growth” subscale constituted to the construct of perceived overqualification. Moreover a lower internal consistency was reported for the scale by several studies.

Keeping in view of the limitations of POQ scale Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard, (2006) developed the scale of perceived overqualification (SPOQ) comprising of nine items. It is developed to measure the respondents’ perceptions about their KSAs (knowledge, skills and abilities). It is developed as a unidimensional scale combining the dimensions of excess education, excess skills and work experience. Comparing with POQ scale, SPOQ provides higher internal consistency (Poon, 2007) and encourages respondents to use job requirement as a referent for their comparison. In case of POQ scale the referent is not provided and the respondents are free to use their own referents. This may provide a discrepancy in measuring whether the respondents addressed their response with reference to their colleagues or job requirement or used any other referent. The researcher used the two scales in two different pilot studies and got higher internal consistency for SPOQ

(0.84). Hence it was decided to use SPOQ scale to measure perceived overqualification.

Another scale known as multidimensional perceived overqualification (MDPOQ) was developed by (Poon, 2007) consisting of 21 items with five factors. Since there is no clarity regarding the five factors under this scale and since it is hardly used in any studies to measure perceived overqualification, this scale therefore was not used.

SPOQ scale was developed as a unidimensional scale measured in a five point scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. SPOQ contains nine items which measure respondents' perception regarding his or her surplus education, work experience, knowledge, skills and ability (KSA) (Poon, 2007). However along with these nine items the researcher also added two more statements from the POQ scale developed by Khan and Marrow (1991) to bring out exactly the perception of employees regarding their overqualification. Those statements were “My formal education overqualifies me for my present job” and “Frankly I am overqualified for the job I hold”.

3.11.3 Person Environment Fit

Person environment fit is operationalised as consisting of six sub dimensions namely person goals fit, person values fit, needs supplies fit, demands abilities fit, person – coworkers fit and person vocation fit. Since studies assessing the combined effect of all these variables were not existent the researcher made use of the scales used by Vogel and Feldman (2009). They made use of internationally validated scales to measure each sub dimensions. They used the items developed by Cable and DeRue (2002) to measure person goals fit, person values fit, needs supplies fit and demands abilities fit. Each of these items is measured using three items. Person

coworkers fit is measured using five items and person vocation fit is measured using three items developed by Vogel and Feldman (2009). All 20 items were measured in a five point scale ranging from “not at all”, “some what”, “neutral”, and “mostly” to “completely”.

3.11.4 Employee well being

Employee wellbeing is operationalised in this study as comprising of positive affectivity and negative affectivity. It is measured using the Job-related Affective Wellbeing Scale, the JAWS Scale (Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway, 2000). The JAWS scale includes a wide variety of emotional experiences, both negative and positive. Since the items in the JAWS scale measures the negative and positive emotions of the employees, it is reflective of the positive and negative affectivity of the employees. It is principally a 30 item scale describing the emotional reactions of respondents to their job. However short scale versions of JAWS scale are also found to be used in different studies depending upon the context and requirement of the study concerned. The present study used the short version of 20 item JAWS scale with ten positive and ten negative emotions. In the application of the scale, respondents were asked how often they had experienced different emotions at work over the prior 30 days. In the application of this scale, respondents were asked how often they had experienced different emotions at work over the prior 30 days. Responses were made within a five-point scale with anchors “never”, “rarely”, “sometimes”, “quite often”, “extremely often”.

3.11.5 Turnover Intention

Turnover Intention is measured using Intention to leave scale used by Rosin & Korabik, (1991). The scale consists of seven items which include those borrowed from Camman et al, as cited in Cook et al, Mitchell, (1981)

and items added by Rosin and Korabik, (1991). The scale is intended to measure the important precursors of turnover such as thinking of quitting, wishing to quit, intending to quit and active search behaviour. The response categories ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

3.11.6 Demographic and Organisational variables under study

Besides the variables explained above the demographic variables included in this study were gender, age, marital status, educational qualification of the employees. The organizational variables considered for the study were the type of organization in which an employee works, job designations and tenure in the organization.

3.12 Pilot Study

After determining the scales the survey questionnaire has been developed including all the scales. The pilot study has been conducted in order to check the comprehensibility, ease of understanding, layout of the survey questionnaire and to pretest and validate the questionnaire. The respondents were also asked to report those questions or question wordings which they find difficult to capture.

The data for pilot study has been collected from full time regular employees working in both public sector and private sector banks in the city of Kochi. The sample size was 100 comprising of 52 employees from nationalised banks and 48 employees from private sector banks ranging between the ages of 21 and 40 years. Two pilot studies were conducted in order to finalise the scale of perceived overqualification. The first pilot study used the scale developed by Johnson and Johnson (1996) to measure the perceived overqualification (POQ). The 10 items of the scale were grouped into two subscales namely “mismatch” and “No growth”.

The results of the first pilot study gave a lower internal consistency for the POQ scale developed by Johnson and Johnson (1996) between the two sub dimensions “mismatch” and “no growth”. This was supported by the results obtained by Poon, (2007) that a lower internal consistency was reported for the scale by several studies. Hence the questionnaire was reframed with the scale developed by (Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard, 2006) with two additional items from the POQ scale of Johnson and Johnson (1996). A second pilot study was conducted using the reframed questionnaire with a sample of 100 respondents and a higher internal consistency for perceived overqualification was obtained (table 3.6). The collected data were studied in detail and variances in the response were noted.

As a part of the pilot study the researcher already obtained permission from the respective organizations for collecting data from the employees and test their views on the feasibility of the study. The result of the pilot study offered enough directions to the researcher regarding the nature of the possible population elements, their characteristics that proved helpful in deciding the final population and the sample. Based on the findings of pilot survey and feedback from the respondents, required amendments were made in the questionnaire, and finalized the design and scales proposed to be employed in the main study.

3.12.1 Sample size estimation

The sample size was estimated based on the mean and standard deviations of key variables in the pilot study. The variance in the key variables like perceived overqualification, person-environment fit, employee well being and turnover intention were studied in detail using the data of pilot study. Based on the sample size estimations of these variables in the pilot study the maximum

variance was observed for turnover intention (table 3.4). Hence 558 samples were required to address this. The sample size was estimated using the formula for calculating the Z score. The basic Z score formula for a sample is:

$$z = (x - \mu) / (\sigma / \sqrt{n})$$

Where x is the population mean, μ is the sample mean, σ is the standard deviation and n is the number of sample. With 95% confidence interval, the value of Z-score is 1.96 and since the population mean is not known 'x' is ignored. Hence if 'n' is the sample size, then n with 95% confidence level is derived from the above equation as:

$$\text{Sample size } n \text{ (95\% confidence level)} = \frac{3.84 \text{ (pilot standard deviation square)}^2}{(0.025 * \text{pilot mean})^2}$$

Table.3.4 Estimation of sample size

	POQ	PEFIT	TON	EAWB
Mean	33.8	69.03	16.6	75.8
N	100	100	100	100
Std. Deviation	4.21	10.88	5	10.09
Estimate of Sample size	95.85	152.73	558.13	108.89

Source: Pilot data

3.12.2 Estimation of Proportion of Sample Bank Branches to be visited in each District

From the data of bank branches the proportion of employees to be surveyed was determined. This was done using the formulae:

$$\frac{\text{Total number of bank branches in each district}}{\text{Total number of bank branches in all the three districts}} * \text{Sample size}$$

The total number of sample employees is thus calculated and is presented in the table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Proportion of employees to be surveyed in each District

Districts	No:of Nationalised Banks in each district (a)	Private banks in each district (b)	Total no:of banks in each district (a)+ (b)	No:of employees to be surveyed in nationalised banks (rounded figure) (c)=(a)/1426*558	No: of employees to be surveyed in private banks (rounded figure) (d)=(b)/1426*558	Total no: of employees to be surveyed from each district (c)+(d)
Ernakulam	535	104	639	209	41	250
Trivandrum	478	57	535	187	22	209
Calicut	226	26	252	88	10	99
Total	1239	187	1426	485	73	558

Source: Estimated data from lead banks of respective Districts

Accordingly from Ernakulam 250 employees comprising 209 from nationalised banks and 41 from private banks had to be surveyed. From Trivandrum 209 employees comprising 187 from public sector banks and 22 from new generation private banks. From Calicut, 99 employees comprising 88 from public sector banks and 10 from new generation private banks were finalised to be visited.

3.13 Reliability and Validity Analysis

Reliability concerns to the extent to which measurement of a construct provides stable and consistent results (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). A scale is said to be reliable if the measurements used gives the same results when used repeatedly. The data obtained from the pilot study has first undergone a reliability analysis using the classical cronbach alpha approach. Reliability analysis has been attempted on items measuring person-environment fit, perceived overqualification, turnover intention and employee well being. The details of the analysis are provided in the table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Reliability Analysis of major variables in pilot study

Reliability Statistics of pilot study		
Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	No:of items
Perceived overqualification	0.843	11
Person Environment fit	0.842	20
Employee wellbeing	0.815	20
Turnover Intention	0.812	7

Source: Survey data.

3.13.1 Validity Analysis

Validity is a measure of the extent to which an instrument is capable to measure what it is intended to measure (Frankfurt & Nachmias, 1992). The validity is tested in order to use the instruments for a significant analysis. The initial validity tests, namely content validity and face validity were performed for the draft questionnaire developed for the study.

3.13.2 Content Validity

Content validity of an instrument refers to the degree to which it provides an adequate depiction of the conceptual domain that it is designed to cover (Hair, Anderson, & Black, 1998). Content related evidence classically involves subject matter experts evaluating test items against the test specifications. A test has content validity built into it by careful selection of which items to include (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). Items are chosen in such a way so as to comply with the test specification which is drawn up through a thorough examination of the subject domain.

The practice of appointing a panel of experts to review the test specifications and the selection of items, can improve the content validity (Foxcroft, Paterson, Le Roux, & Herbst, 2004). The researcher approached several subject experts to consult regarding the content validity of the

questionnaire developed. The experts reviewed the items and comment on whether the items cover a representative sample of the conceptual domain. The questionnaire was finalized after incorporating the suggestions of the experts and a final ratification by the expert panel. The expert panel consisted of academicians, one statistician, and two HR managers.

3.13.3 Face validity

Generally, an instrument is considered to have ‘face validity’ if the items are reasonably related to the perceived purpose of the measure (Kaplan & Scauzzo, 1993). Face validity is the subjective assessment of the correspondents between the individual items and the concept through rating by expert judges (Hair, Anderson, & Black, 1998). Face validity is a subjective and logical measure, similar to content validity.

The drafted questionnaire was given to two academicians working as professors in Human Resource Management, a statistician and two HR managers working in manufacturing and service companies. These experts were briefed about the objectives of the study and its scope. They were requested to critically examine the questionnaire and the items there in for its appropriateness and relevance in measuring the constructs under study and to provide their suggestions in improving the measure. They were requested to give an objective feedback with regard to the comprehensiveness, redundancy level, consistency and number of items used to measure each variable. Accordingly constructive feedback was obtained and the questionnaire was modified by rewording, removing, replacing and supplementing the items.

3.13.4 Construct validity

Two type of validities were used to explain construct validity - convergent and dicriminant validity. Convergent validity refers to “the extent

to which a measure correlates positively with other measures of the same construct” and “discriminant validity is the extent to which a measure does not correlate with other constructs from which it is supposed to differ” (Malhotra & Dash, 2002). As both convergent and discriminant coefficients were used to explain construct validity, these were assessed and discussed.

3.14 Statistical Methods and Analysis

The data was edited coded and analysed using SPSS 21. Factor analysis with rotation was used to explore the underlying patterns in the relationships between variables. ANOVA and T-tests were performed to ensure the variations across demographic variables. Structural equation modeling using AMOS software, version 21 has been used for testing the conceptual model.

3.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter explains the methodology followed to carry out the study. The chapter presented the proposed model developed based on literature review. It outlined the research problem, objectives, hypothesis, and principles underlying the design of the study. The chapter also presents the major variables and their operational definitions. It also explains the sampling methods, scales used to measure each variable, detail of the validity tests and the statistical tools used. This chapter shows that the study endeavors to adhere to the scientific principles of research.

PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS**Contents**

4.1 Sample Profile
4.2 Organisational Profile
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4.5 Comparison of Actual Qualification among Gender
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4.7 Data Screening and Descriptive Analysis of Major Variables.
4.8 Comparison of Major Variables.
4.9 Conclusion

4.1 Sample Profile

This chapter depicts the profile of the sample, organizational profile, descriptive statistics of univariate and bivariate data, chi-square analysis. The results of the analysis are provided in tabular forms and the findings are also interpreted.

This research aims to study the effect of perceived overqualification on turnover intention and examines the role of person environment fit and employee wellbeing on the relationship. The data is collected from full time regular employees working in nationalised banks and private banks (new generation private banks). For the purpose of data collection a total of 700 questionnaires were distributed for the survey among the bank employees and 569 were returned. After examining for the omissions and errors and

incompleteness of the filled in forms, 8 questionnaires were rejected and the remaining 561 sample were made available for the analysis. A preliminary analysis of the entire data has been done. The respondents were classified on the basis of age, gender, marital status, educational qualification, overqualified or adequately qualified and experience. The response rate from nationalised banks was very less due to the reason that in many small branches visited there might be only one clerical or an officer suiting the criteria proposed for selecting the sample. The details of the preliminary analysis are provided in the following section.

4.1.1 Classification on the basis of Age and Gender

The sample consists of 315 males and 246 females comprising 56% and 44% respectively (Table 4.1). The age distribution of the respondents shows that majority belong to the age group 26-30(46%), followed by 20-25 (24.4%), 31-35 (21.2%), 36-40 (4.1%) and 41-45 (2.5%), 46-50 (2.3%) respectively.

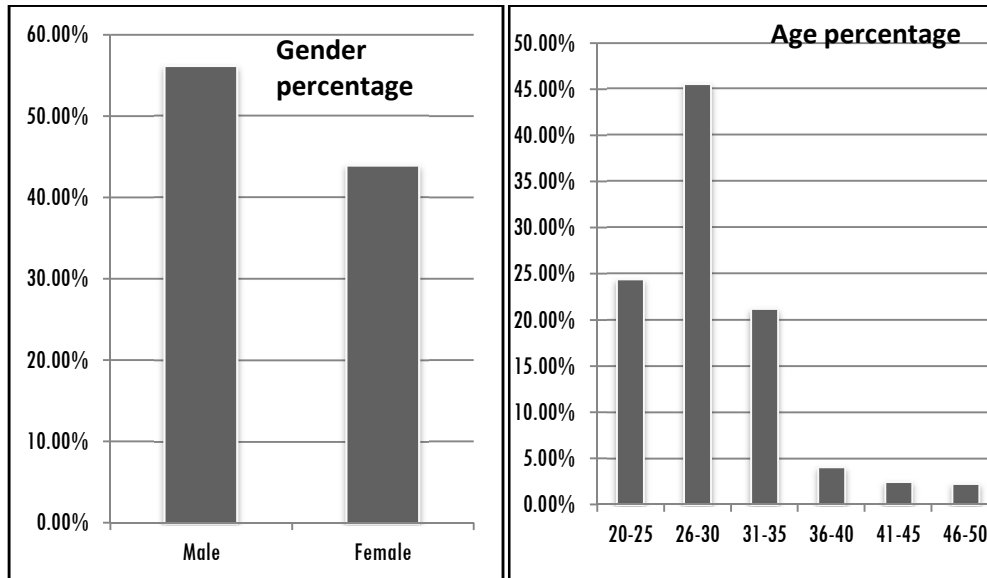
4.1.2 Frequency Distribution of Marital Status

Marital status is an important variable influencing the career choices of an individual and hence considered for the study. Around 57% of the respondents were married and 42% were unmarried (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Demographic composition of the sample

Variable Name	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Gender		
Male	315	56.1
Female	246	43.9
Total	561	100
Age		
20-25	137	24.4
26-30	255	45.5
31-35	119	21.2
36-40	23	4.1
41-45	14	2.5
46-50	13	2.3
Total	561	
Marital Status		
Married	323	57.6
Single	238	42.4
Total	561	100

Source: Survey data

**Fig. 4.1** Gender and Age percentage

4.2 Organisational Profile

4.2.1 Frequency Distribution of Organization types

From table 4.2 it can be observed that 51% of the employees were from private banks and 49% from nationalised banks. The proportion of employees from both type of organizations were almost equal. In many nationalised bank branches aged people were more compared to younger people. Where as in private bank branches, majority employees belong to lower age groups and hence the researcher was able to survey more number of employees in each private branch visited.

Table 4.2 Profile of Organizational Variables

Variable Name	Frequency	Valid percentage
Organization type		
Nationalised banks	277	49.38
Private Banks	284	50.62
Total	561	
Job Designation		
Clerks	148	26.38
Officers	413	73.62
Total	561	
Actual Qualification		
Plus two	5	0.89
Graduate degree	182	32.44
Professional degree	93	16.57
Post Graduation	94	16.75
Professional post graduation	182	32.44
Others	5	0.89
Total	561	

Source: Survey data

4.2.2 Frequency Distribution of employees in different Job Designations

Among the three categories of employees surveyed, table 4.2 shows that, ‘officers’ constituted 73.62% and clerks 26%.38%. The proportion of officers is more due to the fact that all employees surveyed under private banks belong to the category ‘officers’. There is no distinction between clerical and officer cadres in private banks. The category of clerical officers as seen in a nationalised bank can be seen under the designation ‘operations staff’ in private banks and are given the name ‘officers’. The minimum educational criteria specified for the post of officers in private banks is ‘a graduate degree’.

4.2.3 Required Qualification

Table 4.3 Required qualification for each job designation

Job Designation	Required Qualification
Clerical officers	Formerly Plus two Now any graduate degree
Officers	Any graduate degree

Source: survey data

Table 4.3 explains the educational qualifications specified by the banks as the required criterion for being eligible to work in different posts at the time of entry. The required qualification asked for the post of clerical staff and officers in nationalised banks is ‘any graduate degree’. Formerly the required minimum qualification in certain nationalised banks was a mere Plus Two level qualification. For example, in SBI, the minimum qualification was plus two until two years before the period of data collection but later it was changed to ‘any degree’. Henceforth, all nationalised banks declare degree as the minimum qualification for the post of clerk and officers. In case of private

banks the minimum qualification prescribed for the same posts is ‘a graduate degree’.

4.2.4 Frequency Distribution of Educational Qualification

Table 4.2 illustrates educational qualifications attained by employees. To avoid complexity, the actual qualification of the employees were divided into six groups namely plus two, graduation, professional graduation, post graduation, professional post graduation and others. The category ‘others’ comprises employees who pursued diploma courses after their graduation. The group plus two contains those employees who were working as clerks in nationalised banks. This is because in nationalised banks the minimum qualification for the post of clerical officers was plus two formerly which had later been upgraded to degree in the recent years. As such employees possessing plus two qualifications also happened to become a part of the survey. The group graduation includes all those employees who completed graduate degrees like BA, Bsc, Bcom and similar degrees. The group professional degree includes employees with graduation in technical or a professional qualification like BTech, LLB, and BHMS and similar degrees. The group post graduation includes those employees who have completed post graduation like MA, Msc, Mcom and similar degrees. The group professional post graduation includes those employees who pursued professional post graduation like MBA, MTech, MCA and similar degrees. Employees were categorized on the basis of their latest acquired degrees. It was observed that many employees possess dual degrees like double post graduations, post graduation with a diploma course or a post graduation along with a non professional post graduation. For making the analysis simple, those employees were classified according to their latest acquired qualification. For example

employees who have taken BTech and MBA were grouped under professional post graduation considering their last acquired qualification.

It was found that 32.44% each of employees possess a professional post graduation, and a graduate degree, 16.75% possess a post graduate degree, 16.57% possess a professional degree. Employees possessing plus two qualifications and the category 'others' constituted 0.89% each. This shows that employees with a graduate degree and professional post graduation constituted the highest proportion and those with a qualification lower than graduation constitutes a negligible proportion.

4.3 Comparison of Actual Qualification with Required Qualification

Table 4.4 shows the results of chi-square tests performed to compare the actual qualification of employees with that of their required qualification specified for their jobs.

Table.4.4 Comparison of Actual Qualification with Required Qualification

		Actual Qualification						Total
		Plus two	Graduate degree	Professional graduation	PG	Profession al PG	Others	
Required Qualification (Graduate degree)	Count	5	182	93	94	182	5	561
	% within Required Qualification	0.9%	32.4%	16.6%	16.8%	32.4%	0.9%	100%
	Count	5	182	93	94	182	5	561
Total	% within Required Qualification	0.9%	32.4%	16.6%	16.8%	32.4%	0.9%	100%

Abbreviations used: PG-post graduation

Source: Survey Data

Since the required qualification is a graduate degree, only 33.3% of employees were found to be adequately matched and the rest 66.67% were overqualified. Among the overqualified employees 32.4% were professional post graduates, 16.8% were post graduates, 16.6% were professional graduates

and 0.9% constituted others. These results show that employees with lower levels of education constitute a minute proportion. This shows that individuals acquire more educational qualifications in order to find greener pastures. The results of chi-square tests in table 4.6 show that the difference is significant and the chi-square value is 60.54 with degrees of freedom 5.

Table.4.5 Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	60.544 ^a	5	.000
Likelihood Ratio	52.366	5	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.196	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	561		

Source: Survey Data

The table 4.4 has been consolidated and presented in table 4.6 were the entire figures has been summarized and presented. This is done to assess the total number of overqualified employees in the sample.

4.4 Objective Overqualification

To measure objective overqualification, the actual qualification of employees is compared with the required qualification specified for the jobs. From table 4.4, it was observed that out of 561 employees surveyed, 32.44 % of employees possess a professional post graduation, 16.8% of them possess a post graduation and 16.6% possess a professional graduation. Employees who possess an educational qualification above degree are considered overqualified for the purpose of current study. This is because the required qualification for all the posts considered for the study is a graduate degree. Thus out of 561 employees sampled 374 employees were overqualified constituting 66.67% of the entire sample (table 4.6). It was observed that the graduate degrees

acquired by employees included Bachelor of Science in Biotechnology, Bachelor of Science in Electronics, professional graduate degrees acquired comprised of Bachelor of Technology (BTech), Bachelor of Legislative Law (LLB) and professional post graduate degrees acquired comprised Master of Business Administration (MBA) graduates.

Table 4.6 Consolidated report showing the extent of overqualification

		Actual Qualification		
		Adequately matched employees	Overqualified	Total
Required Qualification (Graduate degree)	% within Required Qualification	33.33%	66.67%	100%
	Total	33.33%	66.67%	100%

Source: Survey Data

4.4.1 Overqualification in Nationalised Banks

From the table 4.7 it can be observed that in nationalised banks 29.2 % of the employees were adequately qualified whereas 70.7% were overqualified. Among the overqualified employees, professional graduates constituted the highest proportion (26.7%) followed by professional post graduates (22%) and post graduate (20.6%).

Table 4.7 Comparison of Actual Qualification with Required Qualification in Nationalised Banks

		Actual Qualification						Total
Organisation Type		Plus two	Graduate degree	Professional graduation	PG	Professional PG	Others	
Required Qualification (Graduate Degree)	Count	5	76	74	57	61	4	277
	% within Required Qualification	1.8%	27.4%	26.7%	20.6%	22%	1.4%	100%
Total	Count	5	76	74	57	61	4	277
	% within Required Qualification	1.8%	27.4%	26.7%	20.6%	22%	1.4%	100%

Abbreviations used: PG-post graduation

Source: Survey Data

The result of chi-square test shown in table. 4.9 show that the difference is significant and the chi-square value is 23.84 with degrees of freedom 5.

4.4.2 Overqualification in Private Banks

Table 4.8 Comparison of Actual Qualification with Required Qualification in Private sector

Organisation Type		Actual Qualification						Total
		Plus two	Graduate degree	Professional graduation	PG	Professional PG	Others	
Required Qualification (Graduate Degree)	Count	0	106	19	37	121	1	284
	% within Required Qualification	0	37.30%	6.70%	13%	42.60%	0.40%	100%
Total	Count	0	106	19	37	121	1	284
	% within Required Qualification	0	37.30%	6.70%	13%	42.60%	0.40%	100

Abbreviations used: PG-post graduation

Source: Survey Data

From the table 4.8 it can be observed that in private banks 37.3% of employees were adequately qualified and the rest 62.67% were overqualified. Among the overqualified employees majority constituted professional post graduates (42.6%) followed by post graduates (13%), professional graduates (6.7%), and 'others' (0.4%). The results of chi-square test in table.4.9 shows that the difference is significant and the chi-square value is 35.32 with degree of freedom 4.

Table 4.9 Results of Chi-Square Tests

Organisation Type 0		Value	df	Sig. (2-sided)
Nationalised Banks	Pearson Chi-Square	23.84	5	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	26.57	5	.000
	N of Valid Cases	277		
Private Sector	Pearson Chi-Square	35.32	4	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	43.98	4	.000
	N of Valid Cases	284		

Abbreviations used: df=degree of freedom

Source: Survey Data

A comparison of actual qualification with required qualification across the organization type revealed that the percentage of overqualification is higher in nationalised banks compared to private banks (Table 4.10, fig 4.1). While 70.7% of the employees were overqualified in nationalised banks, 62.67% were overqualified in private banks.

Table 4.10 Comparison of Overqualification across Organisation Type

Overqualification in nationalised banks				
Organisation Type		Actual Qualification		
		Adequately Qualified	Overqualified	Total
Required Qualification (Graduate degree)	Count	81	196	277
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	29.2%	70.7%	100%
Total	Count	81	196	277
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	29.2%	70.7%	100%
Overqualification in private banks				
Required Qualification (Graduate degree)	Count	106	178	284
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	37.3%	62.67%	100%
Total	Count	106	178	284
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	37.3%	62.67%	100%

Source: Survey Data

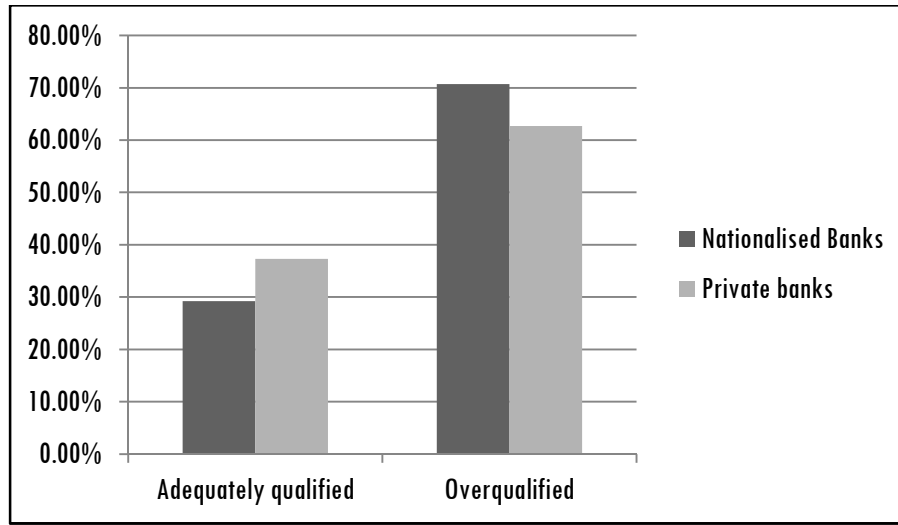


Fig. 4.2 Overqualification across Organisation Types

4.5 Comparison of Actual Qualification among Gender

Table 4.11 Comparison of Education Level across Gender

		Gender			
		Male	Female	Total	
Actual Qualification	Plus two	Count	5	0	5
		% within gender	1.60%	0.00%	0.9%
	Graduate degree	Count	110	72	182
		% within gender	34.9%	29.30%	32.4%
	Professional degree	Count	43	50	93
		% within gender	13.70%	20.33%	16.6%
	Post graduation	Count	36	58	94
		% within gender	11.40%	23.60%	16.8%
	Professional post graduation	Count	116	66	182
		% within gender	36.8%	26.8%	32.4%
	Others	Count	5	0	5
		% within gender	1.60%	0.00%	0.9%
	Total	Count	315	246	561
		% within gender	56.10%	43.90%	100.00%

Source: Survey Data

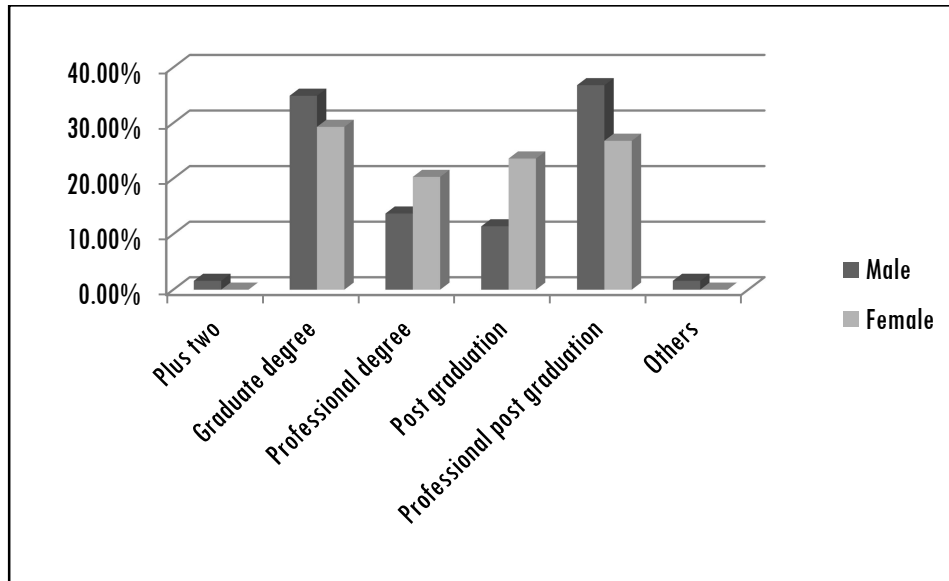


Fig. 4.3 Education Level across Gender

From the table 4.11 it has been observed that males form a majority among graduates (35%) and professional post graduates (37%) while females constitutes the majority among professional graduates (53.80%) and post graduates (23.60%). The chi-square results presented in table 4.12 shows that the actual qualifications across gender were significantly different the chi-square value is 29.303 with degrees of freedom 5.

Table 4.12 Chi-Square Tests- Comparison of Educational Level across Gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	29.303 ^a	5	.000
Likelihood Ratio	32.986	5	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.119	1	.730
N of Valid Cases	561		

Source: Survey Data

4.6 Comparison of Overqualification among Gender

Table 4.13 Comparison of Actual qualification with Overqualification among Gender

		Males		
Gender		Actual Qualification		
		Adequately Qualified	Overqualified	Total
Required Qualification (Graduate degree)	Count	115	200	315
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	36.5%	63.5%	100.00%
Total	Count	115	200	315
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	36.5%	63.5%	100.00%
		Females		
Required Qualification (Graduate degree)	Count	72	174	246
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	29.30%	70.7%	100.00%
Total	Count	72	174	246
	% within Required Qualification for the Job	29.30%	70.7%	100.00%

Source: Survey Data

Table 4.13 shows a comparison of overqualification between genders. It is observed that, 63.5% of males and 70.7% of females were overqualified. The results of chi-square tests presented in table 4.14 shows that the difference between adequately qualified and overqualified employees among males were significant ($p < 0.05$) with degrees of freedom 5. But the same results among females were not significant ($p > 0.05$).

Table 4.14 Chi-Square Tests-Comparison of Overqualification among Gender

	Gender	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	62.453 ^a	5	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	43.474	5	.000
	Linear-by-Linear Association	4.089	1	.043
	N of Valid Cases	315		
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	6.626 ^b	3	.085
	Likelihood Ratio	7.000	3	.072
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.864	1	.091
	N of Valid Cases	246		

Source: Survey Data

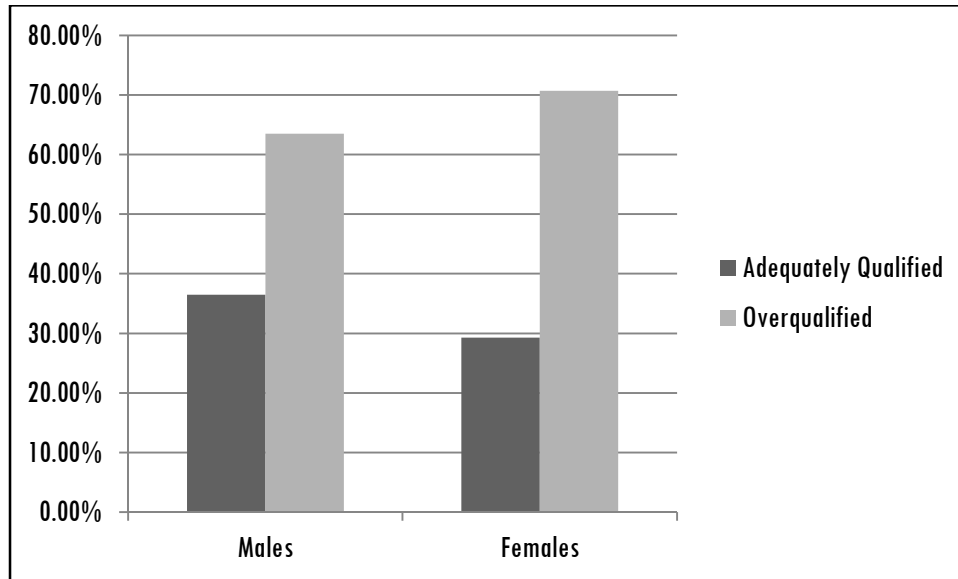


Fig. 4.4 Comparison of overqualification among Gender

4.7 Data Screening and Descriptive Analysis of Major Variables.

This section depicts the descriptive analysis of perceived overqualification, person environment fit, employee wellbeing and turnover intention. The data has been analyzed using various statistical tools in accordance with the formulated hypothesis and the stated objectives. The results of the analysis are provided in tabular forms and the findings are interpreted in the subsequent chapter. The detailed discussion of the analysis performed is provided in the section that follows.

The Independent variable involved in the study is perceived overqualification, the mediating variables are person environment fit and employee wellbeing. The dependent variable is turnover intention. The study aimed to find the relationship between perceived over qualification on turnover intention and the role of employee wellbeing and person environment fit on this relationship. The details of the descriptive statistics of the variables are presented in the following section. Before starting the major analysis, the collected data has

been examined for data entry accuracy, missing data, means and standard deviations and the multivariate assumptions of normality and linearity. Several SPSS programs were undergone to check these stages. Some items identified with data entry errors were eliminated and the final sample considered for the analysis consisted of no missing values in the scales of interest. Out of total 569 data collected 561 responses were retained for further analysis. The data thus screened has been then tested for normality and the presence of outliers.

Once the data collection is complete and before proceeding to data analysis, it becomes essential to check the data for the presence of outlier. One particular reason for the importance of detecting the presence of outliers is that potentially they have strong influence on the estimates of the parameters of a model that is being fitted to the data. This could lead to mistaken conclusions and inaccurate predictions. Out of the several methods adopted, “box plot” is used to detect the outliers in the study. The box plot is a useful graphical display for describing the behavior of the data in the middle as well as at the ends of the distributions.

Figure 4.4 show the box plot of all the major variables. The box plots evidenced the presence of outliers in the major variables under consideration. Since the presence of outliers influence the results it is necessary to manage outliers. One method to deal with outliers is to ignore or delete them and rerun the regression without outliers. Another effective method is data trimming, where the highest and lower extreme values are replaced with non-outlier highest or lowest value Barnet and Lewis (1994). Thus the outliers were adjusted using the data trimming method and the results are shown in subsequent sections explaining the descriptive statistics of each variable. Tests for checking the normal distribution of each variable is also done to check the skewness and kurtosis in the variables under consideration.

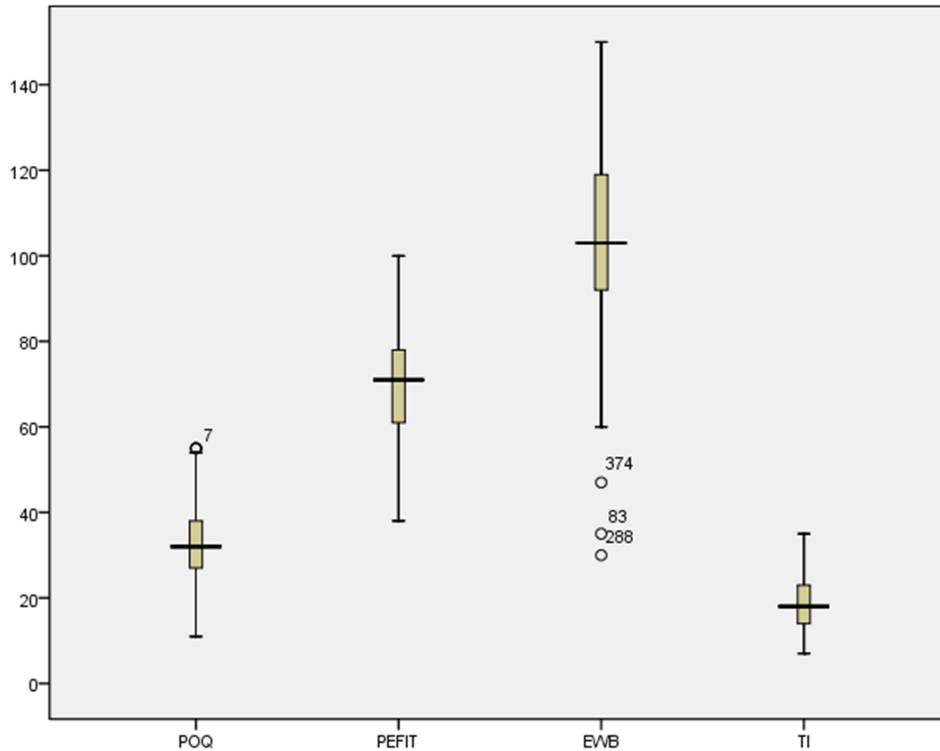


Fig. 4.5 Box plot of major variables

4.7.1 Descriptive Statistics-Perceived Overqualification [POQ]

The reliability measure of perceived overqualification is shown in the table 4.15. For the pilot study the cronbach alpha for POQ was 0.843 which was further improved to 0.905 during the final study. The descriptive statistics of POQ is provided in the table 4.16. The mean value of POQ is 32.1 (SD= 8.55) with a lowest recorded score of 11 and a highest recorded score of 54. The test of normalcy has been performed for perceived overqualification and is illustrated in the figures of Q-Q plots and histogram shown in figure 4.5. The figure shows that the observed values of perceived overqualification lies closer to the diagonal line and hence proves normality. The histogram also shows that the data distribution is normal. This enables the researcher to

perform parametric tests for statistical analysis for the variable. The box plot shows that outliers were well contained and is devoid of any extreme values. Skewness and kurtosis were also found to lounge within the acceptable limits.

Table 4.15 Reliability Analysis of perceived overqualification, person environment fit, employee wellbeing and turnover intention

Variables	Reliability Statistics of pilot study		Reliability Statistics of original data	
	Cronbach's Alpha	No: of items	Cronbach's Alpha	No: of items
Perceived overqualification	0.843	11	0.905	11
Person environment fit	0.842	20	0.901	20
Employee wellbeing	0.815	20	0.894	20
Turnover intention	0.812	7	0.855	7

Source: Survey data

Table 4.16 Descriptive Statistics of Major Variables

	Perceived Overqualification	Person environment fit	Employee well being	Turnover intention
Mean	32.1	69.9	69.74	18.36
Standard Deviation	8.55	11.9	13.31	5.8
Variance	82.49	160.26	177.26	66.88
Range	44	67.48	80	28
Minimum	11	38	20	7
Maximum	54	100	100	35

Source: Survey data

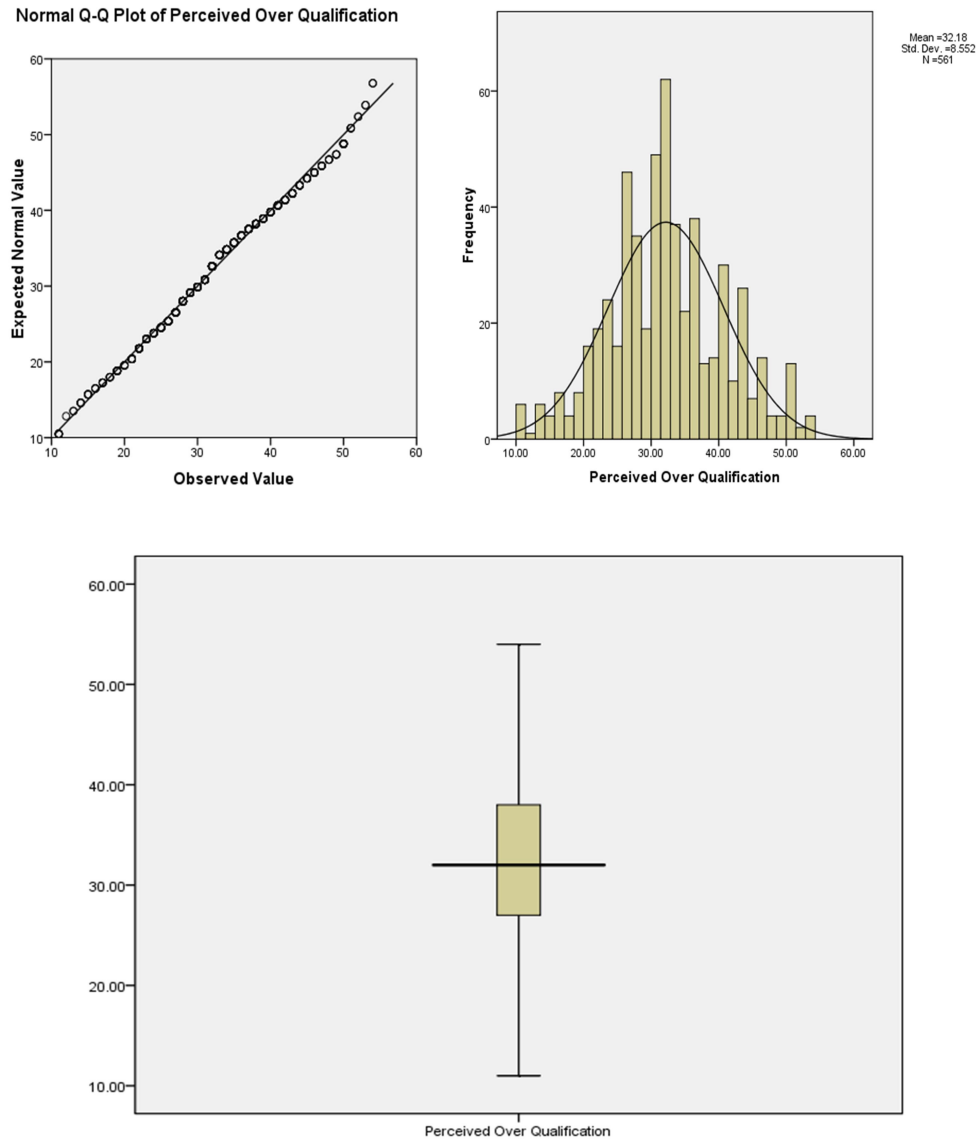


Fig. 4.6 Q-Q plot, histogram and box plot of POQ.

4.7.1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) of Perceived overqualification (POQ)

An exploratory factor analysis has been conducted when 200 samples were collected. POQ was measured using 9 items of SPOQ scale developed by Maynard, Joseph, & Maynard, (2006) and two items of POQ scale

developed by Johnson and Johnson (1996). The items in SPOQ scale are developed to measure the respondents' perceptions about their KSAs (knowledge, skills and abilities). It is developed as a unidimensional scale. Comparing with POQ scale, SPOQ provides higher internal consistency (Poon, 2007) and encourages respondents to use job requirement as a referent for their comparison. In case of POQ scale the referent is not provided and the respondents are free to use their own referents. The researcher used the two scales in two different pilot studies and got higher internal consistency for SPOQ (0.830). Hence SPOQ scale is used to measure perceived overqualification. However along with the nine items of SPOQ two items has been borrowed from the POQ scale to bring out exactly the perception of employees regarding their overqualification. Those statements were "My formal education overqualifies me for my present job" and "Frankly I am overqualified for the job I hold". Hence an exploratory factor analysis has been performed to explore the underlying dimensions of the new scale formed.

4.7.1.2 Factor analysis of Perceived overqualification

Factor analysis is performed to explore the underlying dimensions of the variables. Exploratory factor analysis has been attempted to revalidate and check the dimensionality of the new scale formed with SPOQ scale and the two statements added from POQ scale with all the 11 items.

Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were conducted to test the appropriateness of the available data for conducting factor analysis. Table.4.17 provides the results of the two tests conducted.

From the table it has been observed that the value of KMO is 0.896. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy is a statistic that indicates the

proportion of variance caused by underlying factors called common variance. The values of KMO measure of sampling adequacy varies between 0 and 1 and the values close to 1 are considered better. According to (Kaiser, 1974) a KMO value of 0.5 can be considered as barely accepted, values between 0.7 and 0.8 are acceptable and the values above 0.9 can be considered as excellent. Since the value of KMO measure shown in the table 4.17 is 0.896 it can be concluded that the data is appropriate to apply factor analysis to reach meaningful conclusions.

Table.4.17 KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.896
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2689.17
	df	55
	Sig	.000

Source: AMOS results

Similarly Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is used to test whether the correlation matrix of variables is an identity matrix which shows that all the variables are unrelated. An identity matrix is a matrix where all diagonal terms are 1 and all off diagonal terms are zeroes. From table.4.17 it can be seen that the value of chi-square is 2689.17 significant at 1%. Hence it rejects the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix and concludes that there are underlying relationships between the variables that may yield a pattern in the factor analysis.

After conducting the suitability tests the next procedure was attempted to explain the total variance by extracted dimensions. It was seen that 3 factors were extracted explaining 73% of the variance (table 4.18). The results show that eigen values exceed one in case of three components. Component 1

explains 29.73% of the variance, component 2 explains 51.56% of the variance and component 3 explains 73.17% of the variance.

Table.4.18 Total Variance Explained-POQ

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	Percentage of Variance	Cumulative Percentage	Total	Percentage of Variance	Cumulative Percentage	Total	Percentage of Variance	Cumulative Percentage
1	5.68	51.64	51.64	5.68	51.64	51.64	3.27	29.73	29.73
2	1.22	11.07	62.71	1.22	11.07	62.71	2.40	21.83	51.56
3	1.15	10.46	73.17	1.15	10.46	73.17	2.38	21.62	73.17
4	0.67	6.14	79.31						
5	0.43	3.94	83.25						
6	0.41	3.69	86.94						
7	0.36	3.27	90.20						
8	0.32	2.91	93.12						
9	0.29	2.66	95.78						
10	0.27	2.48	98.26						
11	0.19	1.74	100.00						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: AMOS results

The rotated component matrix presented in table.4.19 show the loadings of the original variables with the new factors extracted. When the factors are orthogonal these factor loadings can be taken as the correlations of the variables with the extracted factors. The correlations of the original variable with the extracted factors are given in the table.4.19. The variables are sorted in the order of decreasing correlations and the correlations less than 0.6 are not shown. The rotated component matrix shown above yields a three-factor solution where most of the variables are found to be correlated with separate factors.

Table 4.19 Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	Excess Education	Excess Training	Excess Skills
Formal education	0.862		
Education level	0.803		
Overqualified	0.820		
Less Education	0.652		
Previous training		0.823	
Less experience		0.838	
Work experience		0.761	
Education			
More abilities			0.813
Job skills			0.847
Knowledge			.0.781

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Source: AMOS results

Factor 1 loaded four items namely: “My formal education overqualifies me for my present job” (0.862),” “My education level is above the education level required to do my job (0.803)”, “Frankly, I am overqualified for the job I hold” (0.820), “Someone with less education than myself could do my job just as well” (0.652).

Factor 2 loaded three items namely: “My previous training is not being fully utilized on this job” (0.823). “Someone with less experience than myself could do my job just as well” (0.838). “The work experience that I have is not necessary to be successful on this job” (0.761).

Factor 3 loaded three items namely: “I have more abilities than I need in order to do my job” (0.813), “I have job skills that are no required for this job” (0.847), “I have a lot of knowledge that I do not need in order to do my job” (0.781).

These factors were named excess education, excess experience, and excess skills respectively. The items having factor loading less than 0.50 shall

be eliminated (Hair, Anderson, & Black.W, 1998). Accordingly the item “My job requires less education than I have” has been eliminated as it showed a factor loading less than 0.5. Respondents might have considered this question as disgracing themselves. Thus ten items were used to measure perceived overqualification.

4.7.1.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Perceived Overqualification (POQ)

A confirmatory factor analysis has been done to test the dimensionality of each variable and is used to confirm the factors underlying each variable. CFA allows the researcher to test the factorial structure of an instrument in order to determine the extent to which the items expected to measure a particular latent construct actually measures it (Byrne, 2010). Thus the CFA validates the link between the observed variable with latent variables under the structure equation modeling framework which is often addressed as measurement model. The measurement model has to be statistically evaluated in order to determine the goodness-of-fit in the sample data.

A confirmatory factor analysis provide information on confirmation of measurement model with dimensions explored by EFA. The measurement model has been subjected to CFA in order to statistically evaluate the goodness-of- fit of the model in the sample data. CFA has been performed using AMOS 21. The Indices used were normed chisquared (CMIN/DF), Goodness of fit index (GFI), Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), Root mean square error of Approximation (RMSEA), Normed fit index (NFI), Comparative fit index (CFI), Incremental fit index (IFI) and Tucker Lewis Index (TLI). The fit of the model was ascertained by the benchmark measures as shown in table 4.20 which was compared with the observed values at a particular level of significance.

Table 4.20 Threshold values of fit indices

Measures	Threshold Values
CMIN/DF	If < 3: Ideal. The values are acceptable between 3 and 5 (Wheaton et al, 1977)
CFI	> 0.95 (Bentler, 1990)
GFI	> 0.90 (Byrne, 2010)
AGFI	> 0.80 (Taylor and Todd,1995)
NFI	>0.9 (Bentler and Bonnet, 1980)
TLI	>0.90
IFI	>0.90
RMSEA	If < 0.05 indicates good fit If 0.05 to 0.10 : moderate fit.

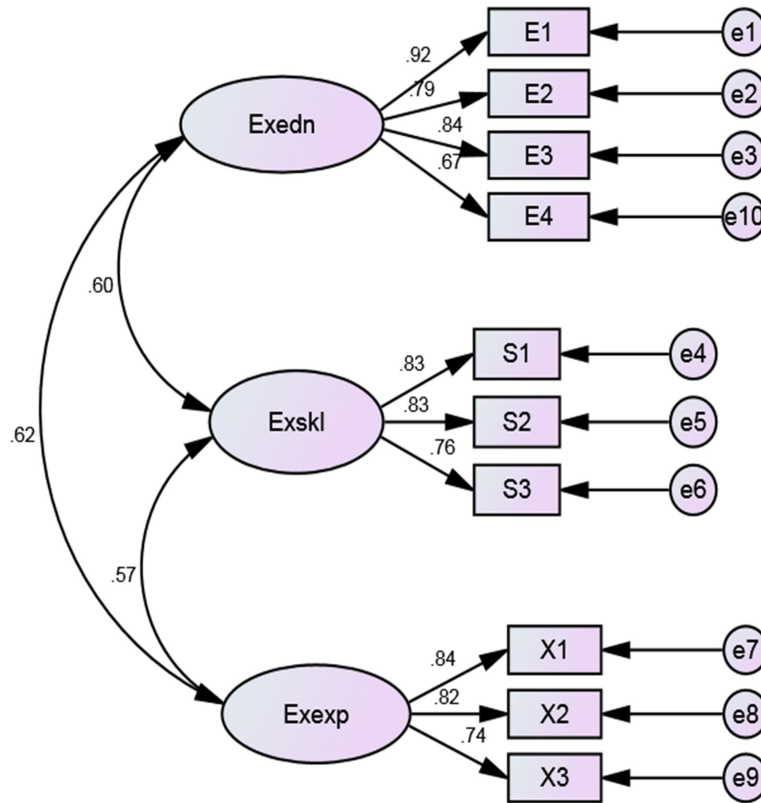


Fig. 4.7 Full measurement model of POQ

Table.4.21 Confirmatory factor analysis of Perceived Overqualification

CMIN/DF	NFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA
3.171	0.968	0.978	0.969	0.978	0.967	0.943	0.052

Abbreviations used: CMIN/DF=normed chi square; NFI= Normed Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; GFI=Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI=Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Source: AMOS results

The fit indices received after doing the CFA suggested that the measurement model obtained is reasonably fit. The model is illustrated in figure 4.6 and the model fit indices are presented in table 4.21. It was found that the three underlying dimensions explored namely excess education, excess skills and excess experience are statistically valid and there are no statistical evidences to reject the model. Examination of the loadings indicated that the standardized regression weights for all the factors are satisfactory.

The model fit indices provided in table 4.21 shows satisfactory results. The CMIN/DF known as the minimum discrepancy or normed square value is less than 5. A normed chi-square of less than 5 indicates a good fit (Wheaton, Muthen, & Summers, 1977). According to Bentler and Bonett, (1980), the base line comparison Index values greater than 0.9 and RMSEA value less than 0.06 indicates a good model fit. The base line comparison index values like CFI, NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI are well above 0.9 and the RMSEA value is 0.06. Therefore with 95 percent confidence it can be inferred that the three factors better reflects the underlying dimensions of perceived overqualification. The factor loadings shown in table 4.22 indicated that the standardized regression weights for all the factors are satisfactory.

Table 4.22 Estimates of Regression Weights of POQ model

			Unstandardised regression Estimates	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardised regression Estimates
E1	<---	Exedn	1				0.917
E2	<---	Exedn	0.937	0.039	24.31	***	0.794
E3	<---	Exedn	0.976	0.036	27.01	***	0.844
E4	<---	Exedn	0.655	0.035	18.67	***	0.674
S1	<---	Exskl	1				0.828
S2	<---	Exskl	1.022	0.051	20.19	***	0.826
S3	<---	Exskl	0.912	0.049	18.71	***	0.761
X1	<---	Exexp	1				0.844
X2	<---	Exexp	0.965	0.047	20.4	***	0.821
X3	<---	Exexp	0.88	0.048	18.41	***	0.741

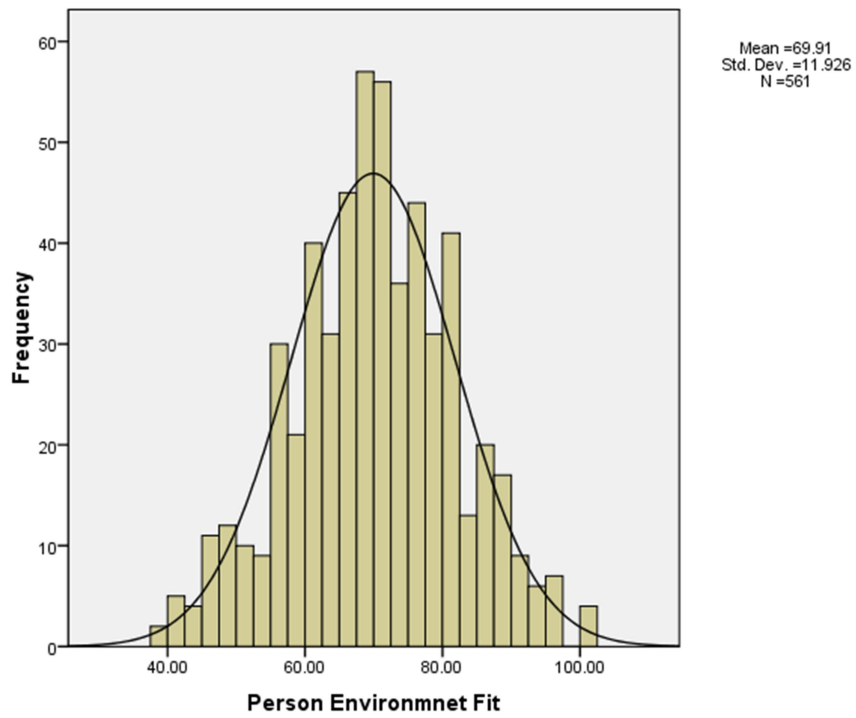
Abbreviations used: POQ=Perceived overqualification; Exedn= Excess education; Exskl = Excess skill; Exexp= Excess experience; ***= significant at 1% '<---' = regression Path; S.E=Standard Error; C.R=Critical Ratio.

Source: AMOS results

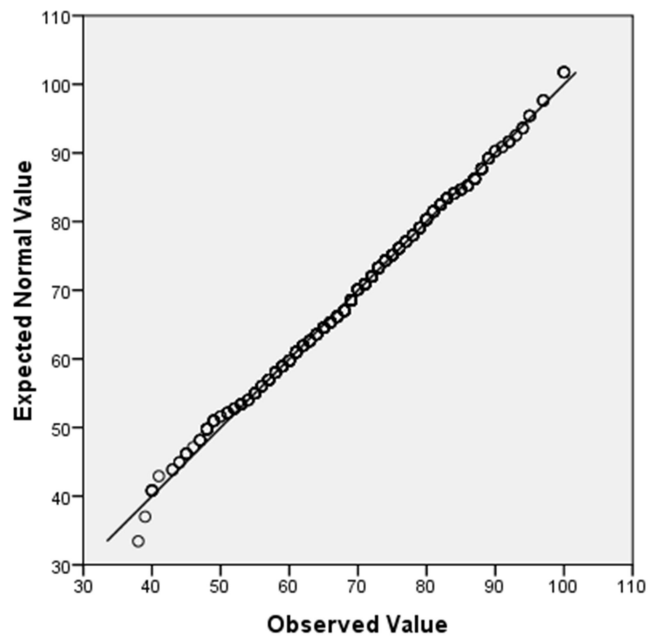
4.7.2 Descriptive Statistics–Person Environment Fit (PE fit)

The reliability measure of person environment fit is shown in the table 4.15, under section 4.7.1. For the pilot study the value of cronbach alpha was 0.842 which was increased to 0.901 during the original data collection. The descriptive statistics of person environment fit is illustrated in the table 4.16. The mean value of PE fit is 69.9 with a standard deviation of 11.9. The range is 67.48, with the minimum recorded value 38 and maximum recorded value 100.

Tests for normalcy has been conducted for person environment fit and the results are shown in figure 4.6. The figures of histogram and Q-Q plots provide evidence for normalcy enabling the researcher to perform parametric tests for this variable. The box plot shows that the outliers identified were well contained and is devoid of any extreme values. Skewness and kurtosis also lounged within the acceptable limits.



Normal Q-Q Plot of Person Environmnet Fit



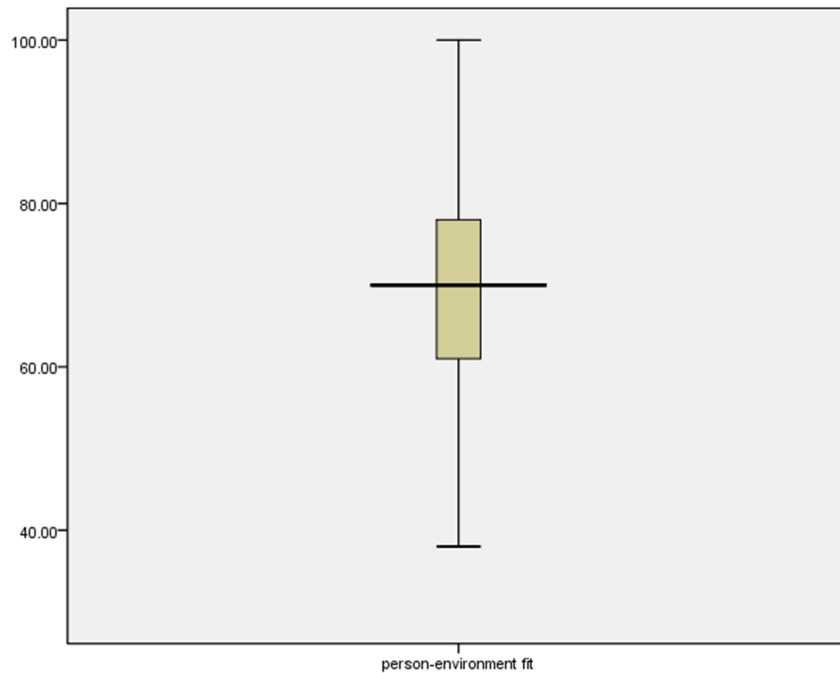


Fig. 4.8 Q-Q plot, histogram and box plot of PE fit.

4.7.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Person Environment Fit

Person environment fit is operationalised as consisting of six sub dimensions namely person goals fit, person values fit, needs supplies fit, demand abilities fit, person coworkers fit and person vocation fit. It is measured using the scales employed by Vogel and Feldman (2009) in their study. A confirmatory factor analysis has been done to validate the factors underlying person environment fit. The fit indices received after doing the CFA suggested that the measurement model obtained is reasonably fit. The model fit indices are presented in table 4.21.

It was found that the six underlying dimensions namely person goals fit, person values fit, job demands worker abilities fit, need supplies fit, person coworkers fit and person vocation fit are statistically valid and there were no statistical evidences to reject the model. The model is illustrated in figure 4.7.

The fit measures obtained after CFA were – CMIN/DF=3; CFI=0.927; GFI=0.896; AGFI=0.867; NFI=0.904; IFI=0.927; TLI=0.916; RMSEA= 0.070. While examining the standardized factor loadings it was observed that one item of person coworkers fit loaded less than 0.5. According to Hair, Black,Babin, Anderson, & Tathem, (2012) the items having factor loadings less than 0.50 shall be eliminated. Therefore the item which loaded less than 0.5 was eliminated. This item was “If I had more free time, I would enjoy spending more time with my co-workers socially”. The factor loading of deleted item was 0.410.

The value of fit indices after item deletion are shown in table 4.23. The normed chi-square was less than 5. The fit indices like CFI, NFI, IFI, TLI are well above 0.9 and the RMSEA value is 0.046. Therefore with 95 percent confidence it can be inferred that all the six factors better reflects the underlying dimensions of person environment fit.

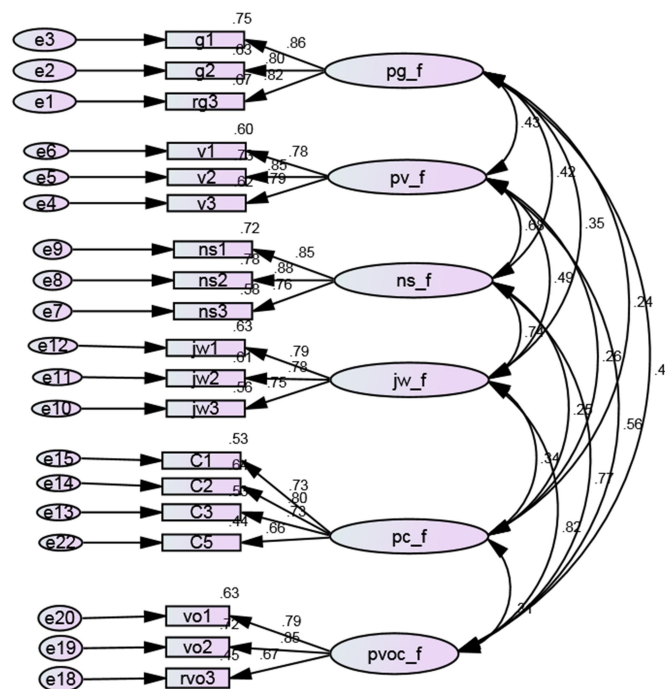


Fig. 4.9 Full measurement model of PE Fit

Table 4.23 Confirmatory factor analysis of Person Environment Fit

CMIN/DF	NFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA
2.174	0.948	0.971	0.964	0.971	0.947	0.926	0.046

Abbreviations used: CMIN/DF=normed chi square; NFI= Normed Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; GFI=Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI=Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Source: AMOS results

The factor loadings shown in table 4.24 indicated that the standardized regression weights for all underlying dimensions are satisfactory.

Table 4.24 Estimates of Regression Weights of PE fit Model

			Unstandardised regression estimates	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardised regression estimates
rg3	<---	pg_f	1.000				.816
g2	<---	pg_f	.887	.045	19.870	***	.795
g1	<---	pg_f	.905	.043	21.095	***	.864
v3	<---	pv_f	1.000				.786
v2	<---	pv_f	1.108	.055	19.991	***	.854
v1	<---	pv_f	1.036	.056	18.484	***	.776
ns3	<---	ns_f	1.000				.763
ns2	<---	ns_f	1.204	.056	21.510	***	.881
ns1	<---	ns_f	1.142	.055	20.759	***	.849
jw3	<---	jw_f	1.000				.748
jw2	<---	jw_f	1.014	.058	17.575	***	.784
jw1	<---	jw_f	1.079	.061	17.794	***	.795
c5	<---	pc_f	.900	.064	14.000	***	.661
c3	<---	pc_f	1.000				.730
c2	<---	pc_f	1.028	.063	16.290	***	.803
c1	<---	pc_f	.903	.059	15.289	***	.730
rvo3	<---	pvoc_f	1.000				.669
vo2	<---	pvoc_f	1.077	.065	16.677	***	.847
vo1	<---	pvoc_f	1.053	.066	15.935	***	.791

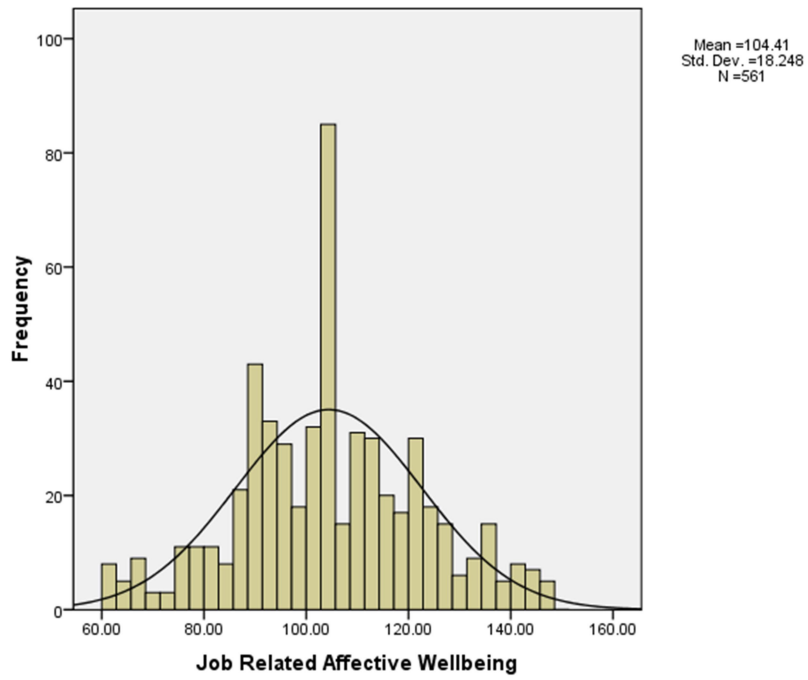
Abbreviations used: PE fit= Person Environment fit, pg_f = person goals fit, pv_f = person values fit, ns_f =need supplies fit, jw_f = job demands worker abilities fit, pc_f = person coworkers fit, pvoc fit= person vocation fit; ***= significant at 1% ; '<---' = Regression Path; S.E=Standard Error; C.R=Critical Ratio

Source: AMOS results

4.7.3 Descriptive Statistics- Employee wellbeing (EWB)

Employee wellbeing is measured using the Job-related Affective Wellbeing Scale (JAWS) developed by Katwyk, Fox, Spector, and Kelloway, (2000). The reliability measure of employee wellbeing measured using JAWS are provided in table 4.15 under section 4.7.1. The cronbach alpha value which was 0.815 during the pilot study has been increased to 0.894 during the original data collection. The descriptive statistics of employee wellbeing is explained in the table 4.16. The mean value of employee wellbeing is 69.74 with a standard deviation of 13.31. The range is 80 with a minimum recorded value of 20 and a maximum value of 60.

As the next step, test for normal distribution has been conducted and the results are shown in figure 4.8. The figures of histogram and Q-Q plots provide evidence for normality enabling the researcher to perform parametric tests for this variable. The box plot shows that the outliers identified were well contained and is devoid of any extreme values. Skewness and kurtosis also lounged within the acceptable limits.



Normal Q-Q Plot of Job Related Affective Wellbeing

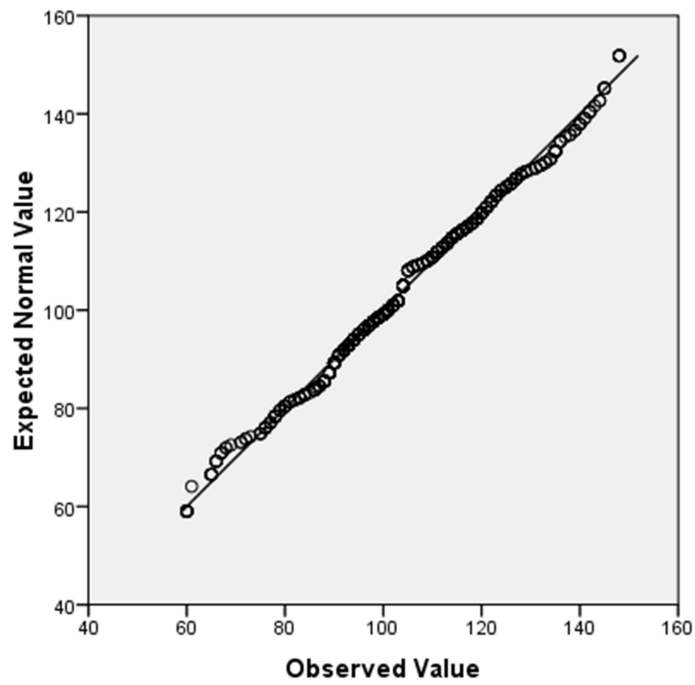




Fig. 4.10 Q-Q plot, Histogram and box plot of EWB.

4.7.3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Employee Wellbeing

The job related affective scale is designed to measure the positive affectivity and negative affectivity of the employees. A confirmatory factor analysis has been done to validate the underlying dimensions of employee wellbeing.

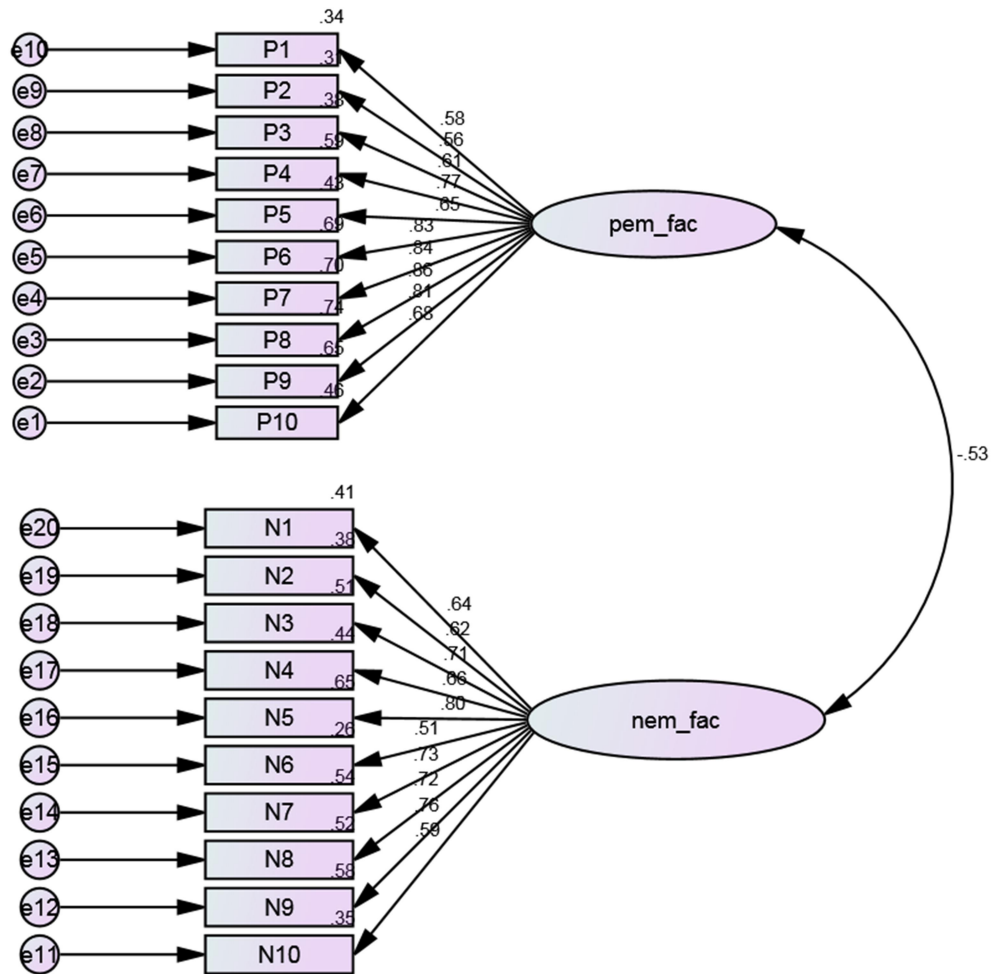


Fig. 4.11 Full measurement model of employee wellbeing

Table 4.25 Confirmatory factor analysis of Employee Wellbeing

CMIN/DF	NFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA
3.719	0.903	0.927	0.916	0.927	0.895	0.867	0.070

Abbreviations used: CMIN/DF=normed chi square; NFI= Normed Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; TLI=Tucker Lewis Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; GFI=Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI=Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Source: AMOS results

The fit indices received after doing the CFA suggested that the measurement model obtained is reasonably fit. The model is illustrated in figure 4.9 and the model fit indices are presented in table 4.25. It was found that the two underlying dimensions of positive affectivity and negative affectivity were statistically valid and there are no statistical evidences to reject the model. . Examination of factor loadings indicated that the standardized regression weights for the underlying dimensions are satisfactory (table 4.26).

Table 4.26 Estimates of Regression Weights of EWB Model

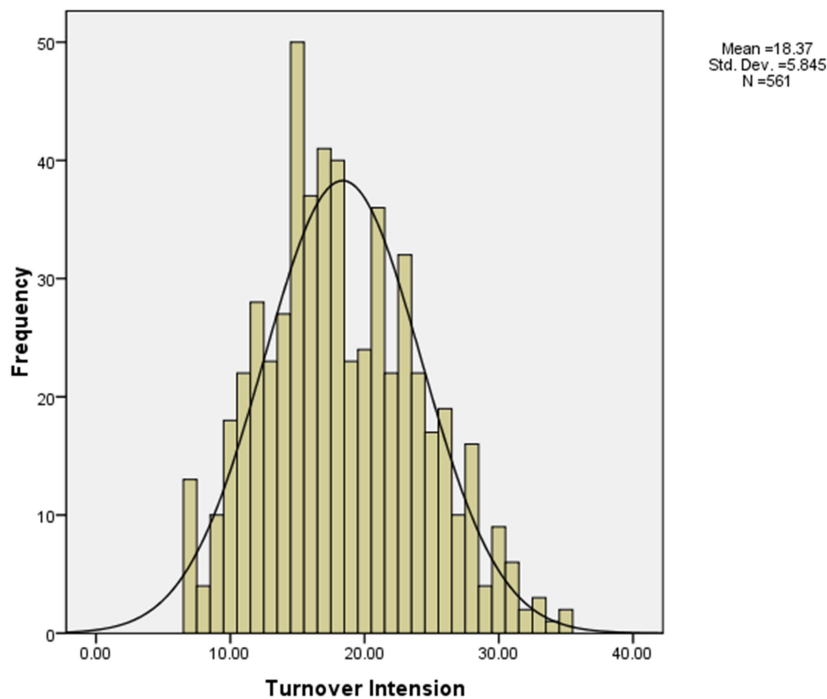
			Unstandardised regression estimates	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardised regression estimates
P10	<---	pem_fac	1.000				.676
P9	<---	pem_fac	1.155	.067	17.348	***	.808
P8	<---	pem_fac	1.227	.067	18.314	***	.861
P7	<---	pem_fac	1.226	.068	17.918	***	.839
P6	<---	pem_fac	1.179	.066	17.814	***	.833
P5	<---	pem_fac	1.019	.071	14.351	***	.654
P4	<---	pem_fac	1.104	.066	16.618	***	.770
P3	<---	pem_fac	.842	.062	13.509	***	.613
P2	<---	pem_fac	.790	.064	12.317	***	.555
P1	<---	pem_fac	.776	.060	12.849	***	.581
N10	<---	nem_fac	1.000				.590
N9	<---	nem_fac	1.181	.085	13.869	***	.763
N8	<---	nem_fac	1.156	.087	13.330	***	.718
N7	<---	nem_fac	1.188	.088	13.532	***	.734
N6	<---	nem_fac	.832	.080	10.355	***	.511
N5	<---	nem_fac	1.216	.085	14.332	***	.804
N4	<---	nem_fac	1.055	.084	12.612	***	.663
N3	<---	nem_fac	1.142	.086	13.288	***	.715
N2	<---	nem_fac	.911	.076	12.022	***	.620
N1	<---	nem_fac	.885	.072	12.343	***	.643

Abbreviations used: EWB= Employee Wellbeing; pem_fac = positive affectivity, nem_fac = negative affectivity; ***= significant at 1% ; '<---' = Regression Path; S.E=Standard Error; C.R=Critical Ratio.

Source: AMOS results

4.7.4 Descriptive Statistics-Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is measured using the intention to leave scale developed by Rosin, Hazel M., & Korabik, Karen. (1991). The results of reliability tests provided in the table 4.15 under section 4.7.1 shows that the value of cronbach alpha was 0.812 during the pilot study and has been increased to 0.855 during the original data collection. The descriptive statistics of turnover intention presented in table 4.16 shows that the mean value is 18.36 with a standard deviation of 5.8. The range is 28 with a maximum recorded score of 35 and a minimum recorded score of 7. Figure 4.10 represents the normality tests conducted for turnover intention. The figures of histogram and Q-Q plots provide evidence for normality enabling the researcher to perform parametric tests. The box plot shows that the outliers are well contained and is devoid of any extreme values. The skewness and kurtosis lounged within the acceptable limits.



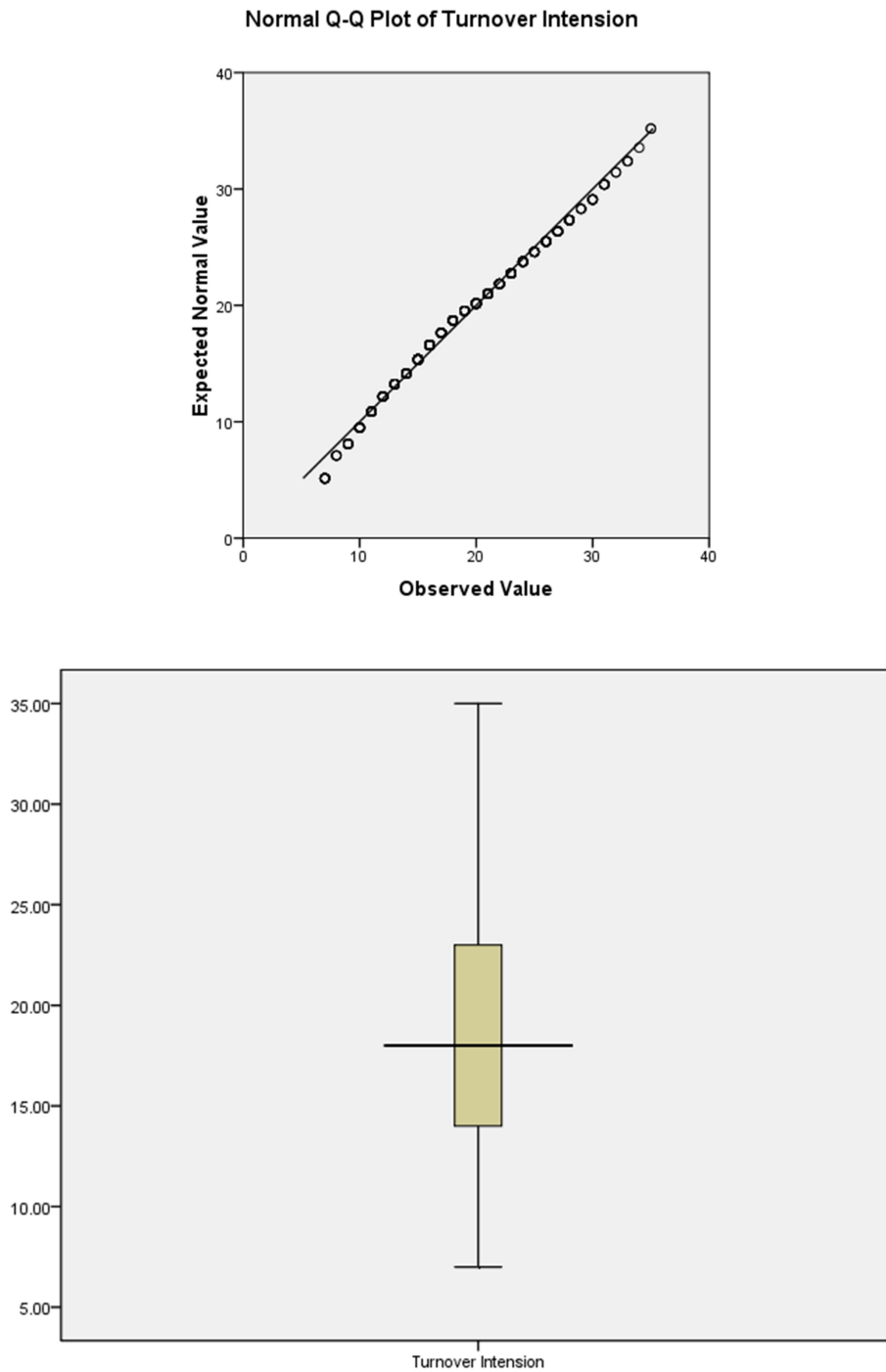


Fig. 4.12 Q_Q plots, Histogram and box plot of turnover intension

4.8 Comparison of Major Variables.

4.8.1 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment fit, Employee Wellbeing and Turnover intention based on Organization type.

Table 4.27 presents the result of Independent sample t-test performed for testing the difference in mean values of variables with respect to organization type. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

It has been observed that the mean values of perceived overqualification ($t = 4.06$), employee wellbeing ($t = 3.81$), and turnover intention ($t = -5.11$) significantly differ ($P < 0.05$) across the type of organisation in which an employee works. However person environment fit does not show a significant difference.

Table 4.27 Results of Independent Sample t-Test for Comparing Mean Values of Variables across Organisation Types

Organisation Type		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	P-value Sig (2-tailed)
PE Fit	Nationalised banks	277	70.08	11.398	0.33	0.738
	Private banks	284	69.74	12.437	0.33	0.738
POQ	Nationalised banks	277	33.65	8.197	4.06	0.000
	Private banks	284	30.76	8.663	4.06	0.000
EWB	Nationalised banks	277	71.95	12.403	3.93	0.000
	Private banks	284	67.56	13.836	3.93	0.000
Turnover Intention	Nationalised banks	277	17.12	5.63	-5.11	0.000
	Private banks	284	19.59	5.81	-5.11	0.000

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, PE fit = Person Environment Fit, EWB = Employee Wellbeing

Source: Survey data

The mean value of perceived overqualification (mean=33.65, $p<0.05$) and employee wellbeing (mean= 71.95, $p<0.05$) was found to be dominant in nationalised banks but the mean value of turnover intention (mean= 19.59, $p<0.05$) was dominant in private banks. This shows that even though perceived overqualification was high among employees in nationalised banks, due to the presence of job security and generous job benefits, employee wellbeing was found to be more among them. Due to this reason they exhibit lesser turnover intention. The insignificant difference in the mean value of person environment fit indicates that it is a subjective aspect and the type of organization has no influence in it.

4.8.2 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment Fit, Employee Wellbeing and Turnover Intention with respect to gender.

Table 4.28 shows the result of Independent sample t test conducted to test the difference of variables across gender. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

Table 4.28 Independent sample t- test for comparing mean values of selected variables between gender

Group Statistics	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
POQ	Male	315	31.77	8.53	-1.16	0.247
	Female	246	32.70	8.53	-1.16	0.247
PE FIT	Male	315	69.49	12.33	-0.84	0.400
	Female	246	70.43	11.42	-0.85	0.396
EWB	Male	315	68.77	13.95	-1.93	0.055
	Female	246	70.97	12.43	-3.41	0.055
Turnover Intention	Male	315	19.10	6.07	-3.46	0.001
	Female	246	17.44	5.39	3.38	0.001

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, PE fit = Person Environment Fit, EWB = Employee Wellbeing

Source: Survey data

The table shows that none of the variables except turnover intention differ significantly across gender. The mean values of person environment fit, perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing though found to be dominant among females is not significant ($p > 0.05$). However the mean value of turnover intention (mean= 19.10, $p < 0.05$) is found to be significantly dominant among males. The reason can be ascribed to the cultural norms prevailing in Kerala. Males prefer a job that is stable and secure to maintain their family and hence their aspirations also will be high. As far as females are concerned whether married or single, they have a supporting role in their family and hence may not be anxious about a job gratifying their educational qualification. “On an average, work is a less identity-salient role for women than it is for men” (Vaisey, 2006).

4.8.3 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment Fit, Employee Wellbeing and Turnover Intention among Overqualified and Adequately Qualified Employees.

Table 4.29 presents the result of Independent sample t-test performed for testing the difference in mean values of variables with respect to overqualified and adequately qualified employees. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

Table 4.29 Results of Independent sample t-test for comparing mean values of variables between overqualified and adequately qualified Employees

	overqualified/ adequately qualified	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (2- tailed)
POQ	adequately qualified	187	28.69	8.32	-7.12	0.00
	overqualified	374	33.93	8.09	-7.06	0.00
PE FIT	adequately qualified	187	71.07	12.91	1.59	0.11
	overqualified	374	69.37	11.28	1.52	0.13
EWB	adequately qualified	187	70.54	13.91	1.06	0.29
	overqualified	374	69.26	12.98	1.04	0.30
Turnover Intention	adequately qualified	187	18.35	5.77	-0.106	0.92
	overqualified	374	18.41	5.88	-0.107	0.92

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, PE fit = Person Environment Fit, EWB = Employee Wellbeing

Source: Survey data

The mean value of perceived overqualification (mean=33.93, $p < 0.05$) is significantly found to be more among overqualified employees but no significant difference is observed in the mean values of person environment fit, employee wellbeing and turnover intention between these groups. Higher perceived overqualification among overqualified employees was expected because overqualified employees are those who possess a higher qualification than what their job demands. Hence they may have an internal discontentment developed within in them. However a significant finding from table 4.29 is that employee wellbeing and turnover intention does not differ significantly ($p > 0.05$) among adequately and overqualified employees. This shows that overqualification does not form a single reason in influencing the wellbeing and turnover intention of employees. The internal discontentment of overqualified employees may perhaps get reduced due to the presence of other favorable environmental factors. "People's preference for a particular organisation is based upon an implicit estimate of the congruence of their own

personal characteristics and the attributes of potential work organizations” (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995).

4.8.4 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment Fit, Employee Wellbeing and Turnover Intention among Employees possessing different Educational Qualifications.

Table 4.30 presents the results of one way ANOVA performed to test the difference in mean values of perceived overqualification, person environment fit, employee wellbeing and turnover intention with respect to educational qualifications of employees. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

The mean values of all the variables were found to significantly differ across educational qualifications. The mean value of perceived overqualification was significantly high among professional graduates (mean=34.86, $p<0.05$), followed by professional post graduates (mean=34.23, $p<0.05$), and post graduates (mean=33, $p<0.05$).

It was also observed that employee wellbeing does differ among different educational qualifications and is found to be more among employees possessing plus two (mean=73.33, $p<0.05$) and degree level qualification (mean=72.09, $p<0.05$). It can be interpreted that employees with lesser qualifications are adequately matched with requirements of the job and hence exhibit higher wellbeing compared to highly qualified employees.

Table 4.30 ANOVA Results for comparing mean values of variables between Educational Qualifications

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
POQ	Plus two	5	32.83	10.01	12.53	0.000
	degree	182	28.36	7.57		
	proff degree	93	34.86	8.38		
	PG	94	33.00	7.93		
	proff PG	182	34.23	8.55		
	others	5	30.40	10.33		
	Total	561	32.18	8.55		
EWB	Plus two	5	73.33	12.53	2.92	0.013
	degree	182	72.09	13.20		
	proff degree	93	68.12	14.43		
	PG	94	71.20	12.03		
	proff PG	182	67.34	13.02		
	others	5	69.20	17.68		
	Total	561	69.74	13.31		
PE FIT	Plus two	5	74.00	18.13	2.87	0.014
	degree	182	72.04	12.31		
	proff degree	93	67.40	12.65		
	PG	94	70.74	11.38		
	proff PG	182	68.65	10.65		
	others	5	64.60	18.80		
	Total	561	69.91	11.93		
Turnover Intention	Plus two	5	15.50	6.66	2.92	0.013
	degree	182	17.65	5.62		
	proff degree	93	18.46	6.34		
	PG	94	17.67	5.74		
	proff PG	182	19.57	5.67		
	others	5	15.60	6.47		
	Total	561	18.37	5.85		

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification; PE fit = Person Environment Fit; EWB = Employee Wellbeing; PG=Post Graduation

Source: Survey data

Person environment fit is significantly found to be dominant among employees possessing plus two qualification (mean = 74.00, $p < 0.05$) followed by degree (mean=72, $p < 0.05$). This shows that employees with Plus two and degree qualification is likely to enjoy an adequately matched job and hence perceives more fit with their working environment.

Turnover over intention was found to be significantly dominant among professional post graduates (mean=19.57, $p < 0.05$), followed by professional graduates (mean=18.46, $p < 0.05$) and is found to be least among plus two qualified employees (mean=15.50, $p < 0.05$). This result was expected as professionally qualified employees normally aspire for a rewarding career in their professional area and hence will have turnover intention when working in a less demanding job.

4.8.5 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment Fit, Employee Wellbeing and Turnover Intention with respect to Marital Status.

Table 4.31 presents the result of Independent sample t-test performed for testing the difference in mean values of variables with respect to marital status. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

Table 4.31 Results of Independent sample t-test for comparing mean values of variables with respect to marital status

	Marital Status	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
POQ	Married	323	31.95	8.75	-0.74	0.458
	Single	238	32.50	8.29	-0.75	0.455
PE FIT	Married	323	70.45	12.06	1.26	0.209
	Single	238	69.17	11.72	1.26	0.207
EWB	Married	323	71.08	13.28	2.785	0.006
	Single	238	67.91	13.16	2.789	0.005
Turnover Intention	Married	323	17.71	5.90	-3.15	0.002
	Single	238	19.26	5.67	-3.17	0.002

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification; PE fit = Person Environment Fit; EWB = Employee Wellbeing.

Source: Survey data

The mean values of perceived overqualification and person environment fit were not found to differ significantly ($p>0.05$) across marital status. But employee wellbeing and turnover intention differ significantly. Wellbeing is found to be foremost among married employees (mean= 71, $p<0.05$) whereas turnover intention is found to be foremost among single employees (mean=19.26, $p<0.05$).

More wellbeing and less turnover intention among married employees indicate the difference in their job choice decisions relative to single employees. Both married males and females have to gratify their family requirements. As far as married males are concerned they are perchance disposed to remain in their current job to have a stable earning albeit their overqualification. Regarding married females they try to compromise with a job which helps them to mutually satisfy their family requirements. But single employees are likely to search for alternate jobs till they get an adequately matched one and hence remain displeased with the job on hand.

4.8.6 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment Fit, Employee wellbeing and Turnover Intention with respect to Age.

Table 4.32 presents the results of ANOVA test performed for testing the difference in mean values of variables with respect to age. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

Table 4.32 Group statistics and ANOVA results for testing the difference in the mean values across age

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
POQ	20-25	136	32.32	8.48	1.54	0.18
	26-30	254	32.94	8.77		
	31-35	118	30.32	6.93		
	36-40	22	32.23	9.89		
	41-45	13	32.31	11.56		
	46-50	13	32.46	11.48		
	Total	556	32.18	8.55		
PE FIT	20-25	136	68.85	12.78	1.05	0.39
	26-30	254	70.04	11.54		
	31-35	118	71.29	11.61		
	36-40	22	66.95	14.31		
	41-45	13	70.00	9.97		
	46-50	13	73.62	11.27		
	Total	556	69.98	11.95		
EWB	20-25	132	68.22	13.66	3.63	0.01
	26-30	253	69.75	12.83		
	31-35	116	70.12	16.61		
	36-40	21	71.77	10.35		
	41-45	13	76.34	11.15		
	46-50	13	80.46	10.03		
	Total	548	69.76	13.35		
Turnover Intention	20-25	136	19.76	5.74	3.40	0.00
	26-30	254	18.19	5.91		
	31-35	118	18.10	5.22		
	36-40	22	17.18	6.91		
	41-45	13	17.46	6.90		
	46-50	13	14.08	5.17		
	Total	556	18.38	5.84		

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, PE fit = Person Environment Fit, EWB = Employee

Source: Survey data

The mean values of employee wellbeing and turnover intention were found to differ significantly across age whereas that of perceived overqualification and person-environment fit does not differ significantly ($p > 0.05$) across age.

Employee wellbeing was found to be foremost among employees who belong to the age group 46-50 (mean= 80.46, $p < 0.05$), followed by the age group 41-45 (mean= 76.34, $p < 0.05$), 36-40 (mean= 71.77, $p < 0.05$), 31-35

(mean=70.12, $p<0.05$), 26-30 (mean= 69.75, $p<0.05$), and 20-25 (mean= 68.22, $p<0.05$). Supporting the above results turnover intention is found to be more among employees belonging to the age group 20-25 (mean= 19.76, $p<0.05$), followed by the age group 26-30 (mean= 18.19, $p<0.05$), 31-35 (mean= 18.10, $p<0.05$), 41-45 (mean= 17.46, $p<0.05$), 36-40 (mean= 17.18, $p<0.05$) and 46-50 (mean= 14.08, $p<0.05$).

Thus wellbeing is found to be more among employees belonging to higher age groups and lesser among those who belong to lower age groups. Turnover intention is found to be foremost among lower age groups and lesser among higher age groups. This shows that those who possess high wellbeing shows lesser turnover intention and those who possess a lesser wellbeing shows a higher turnover intention.

Employees above 45years of age are those who are nearing the retirement age and hence remain more comfortable with their current job. As far as they are concerned their intention is to continue with their current job and enjoy the benefits provided by the bank. Some of these employees took up a bank job after serving the naval, armed and air forces for a specified period. These employees had to experience a hectic schedule of work while working in armed forces. They have a provision to retire after serving a minimum period of 15 years. Many employees who prefer to retire at this stage enter banks through the entry reservation category of ex-service men. As far as these employees are concerned bank jobs are less stressed and secure and the nature of work is in-house. On the other hand younger employees aspire to build up a career that harmonise with their educational qualification. The throb of overqualification will be higher among them and hence get displeased with their current job which is reflected through their low wellbeing.

4.8.7 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment Fit, Employee Wellbeing and Turnover Intention with respect to Tenure in the current job.

Table 4.33 presents the results of ANOVA test performed for testing the difference in mean values of variables with respect to the tenure of an employee. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

Table 4.33 Group Statistics and ANOVA Results for testing the difference in the mean values with respect to tenure

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
POQ	0-2	263	32.92	8.44	2.74	0.042
	2-4	119	32.23	8.68		
	4-6	90	32.19	9.30		
	Above 6yrs	89	29.93	7.63		
	Total	561	32.18	8.55		
PE Fit	0-2	263	68.98	12.14	1.323	0.266
	2-4	119	69.88	10.68		
	4-6	90	71.28	12.29		
	Above 6yrs	89	71.29	12.40		
	Total	561	69.91	11.93		
EWB	0-2	260	69.31	13.4	0.613	0.078
	2-4	118	69.95	13.28		
	4-6	87	71.21	13.85		
	Above 6yrs	88	72.36	13.42		
	Total	553	69.838	13.37		
Turnover Intention	0-2	263	18.94	5.83	2.90	0.034
	2-4	119	18.66	5.78		
	4-6	90	17.49	5.56		
	Above 6yrs	89	17.17	6.08		
	Total	561	18.37	5.85		

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived Overqualification, PE fit = Person Environment Fit, EWB = Employee Wellbeing

Source: Survey data

It has been found that the mean values of perceived overqualification and turnover intention differ significantly ($p < 0.05$) whereas person environment fit and employee wellbeing does not show a significant difference with respect to tenure.

Perceived overqualification was found to be more among employees with less than two years of tenure (mean= 32.92, $p < 0.05$), followed by those with 2-4 years of experience (mean=32.23, $p < 0.05$), 4-6 (mean= 32.19, $p < 0.05$) and least among those who have more than six years of experience (mean=29.93, $p < 0.05$). Turnover intention was also found to be more among employees with less than two years of experience (mean= 18.94, $p < 0.05$), followed by those with 2-4 years of experience (mean=18.66, $p < 0.05$), 4-6 (mean= 17.49, $p < 0.05$) and least among those who have more than six years of experience (mean=17.17, $p < 0.05$).

Thus it has been observed that perceived overqualification and turnover intention is more among employees with lesser tenure. The basis for this trend can be attributed to the reason that as an employee gains more and more experience the intensity of his perceived overqualification declines and hence the turnover intention.

4.8.8 Comparison of Perceived Overqualification, Person Environment Fit, Employee Wellbeing and Turnover Intention with respect to Job designation.

Table 4.34 presents the results of ANOVA test performed for testing the difference in mean values of variables with respect to job designation of employees. The respective group sizes, means and standard deviations are provided in the table.

It has been found that perceived overqualification, turnover intention and employee wellbeing differ significantly ($p < 0.05$) whereas person-environment fit (PE fit) does not show a significant difference ($p > 0.05$) with respect to job designation of employees surveyed.

The mean value of perceived overqualification (mean= 34.14, $p < 0.05$) and employee wellbeing (mean= 74.81, $p < 0.05$) was found to be more among clerks. But the mean value of turnover intention was found to be more among officers (mean= 19.30, $p < 0.05$).

Table 4.34 Group Statistics and ANOVA Results for testing the difference in the Mean Values with respect to job designation

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
POQ	clerks	148	34.14	8.50	10.726	0.001
	officers	413	31.48	8.46		
	Total	561	32.18	8.55		
PE Fit	clerks	148	70.53	11.47	0.551	0.458
	officers	413	69.91	12.08		
	Total	561	69.91	11.93		
EWB	clerks	148	74.81	13.39	30.854	0.000
	officers	413	67.89	12.81		
	Total	561	69.74	13.31		
Turnover Intention	clerks	148	16.01	5.58	34.762	0.000
	officers	413	19.21	5.71		
	Total	561	18.37	5.845		

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, PE fit = Person Environment Fit, EWB = Employee Wellbeing

Source: Survey data

To sum up it has been observed that even though perceived overqualification was found to be higher among clerks, employee wellbeing was more among them and turnover intention is found to be least. During the survey it has been observed that compared to officers, clerks have lesser

workloads and are able to leave home on time. In case of officers in both nationalised and private banks the work loads are hectic, have to take up diverse responsibilities and hence are not able leave on time. This could be the basis for higher turnover intention among them.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter depicted the preliminary analysis and data screening of major variables. Tests for checking outliers, normality, linearity have been carried out and reported. The descriptive statistics, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis have also been presented for the concerned variables. The chapter also examined the effect of demographic variables on major variables by conducting ANOVA and t-tests.

VALIDATION OF CONCEPTUAL MODEL**• Contents •**

- 5.1 Structural Equation Modeling
- 5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Measurement Model
- 5.3 Testing of Structural Model
- 5.4 Maximum Likelihood Estimates of Regression Weights.
- 5.5 Hypothesis Testing of Indirect Relationship between Variables
- 5.6 Summary of Hypothesis
- 5.7 Test of Variation of conceptual Model across Organisation Type
- 5.8 Conclusion

This chapter presents the statistical validation of the conceptual model that explains the hypothesized relationship between perceived overqualification, person environment fit; employee well being and turnover intention. The model has been tested by employing structural equation modeling using AMOS software, version 21. The model explains the relationship between perceived overqualification on turnover intention and the mediating role of person environment fit and employee wellbeing on the relationship. Little research has been conducted in giving emphasis to exploring the factors that reduce the negative work attitudes of overqualification. Hardly any research has been conducted in India that builds and validates a theoretical model explaining the role of intervening variables in the relationship between overqualification and turnover intention.

5.1 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a multivariate technique that enables the researcher to examine a series of dependence relationship

simultaneously. Its key measurement property is to test theories that contain multiple equations in which a dependent variable in one equation might be an independent variable in other equation. SEM is thought of as a unique combination of interdependence and dependence techniques that helps to define and validate a model that explains complex relationships. It enables to measure both the measurement properties and validate the key relationships under one technique (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2012).

SEM analysis utilizes unobserved (latent) indicators measured by many observed indicators. Latent variables are unobserved hypothesized concepts which are measured using manifest variables or indicators. Indicators are observed values used as a measure of latent constructs that cannot be measured directly. Indicators are collected using various data collection methods like surveys, observation methods etc.

After collecting the data with the measurement model being specified, the next step is to test whether the measurement model is valid. In order to test the validity of a model several fit indices has been specified and used in SEM analysis. The major indices used include Chi-square (χ^2), normed chi-square (CMIN/DF), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Squared Residual (RMSR), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Indices (AGFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI). The fit of the model is ascertained by the benchmark measures as explained below which can be compared with the observed values at a particular level of significance.

Chi-square statistic (χ^2) tests the null hypothesis that the estimated variance - covariance matrix of indicator reproduces the observed or sample variance covariance matrix. It is expected to have an insignificant value for

implying a good fit in SEM. Since the value of χ^2 is sensitive to sample size, another measure known as normed chi-square is also used. It is measured by dividing χ^2 by the degree of freedom (CMIN/DF). A normed chi-square value of less than 5 indicates a good fit (Wheaton, 1987).

GFI is one of the most common reported measures of model fit. The value of GFI varies between 0 (poor fit) to 1 (perfect fit). A higher value of GFI indicates a better model fit. Even though there is no classic value that indicates a good model fit a GFI value of above 0.9 is usually considered favorable to accept a model (Byrne 2010).

AGFI is an extended form of GFI which takes into account the sample size. It is adjusted by the ratio of degrees of freedom for the proposed model to the degrees of freedom for the null (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2012). An AGFI value of 0.80 or greater is considered to be a good model fit (Taylor & Todd, 1995). In some studies (Smith, 1996) a value of 0.70 is also considered acceptable.

CFI uses chi-square distribution to address the overall goodness of fit and produces a value between 0 and 1. Higher the value better is the model fit. Normally a value of 0.90 or more is considered to be a better measure (Bentler, 1990). Some authors support lower values of CFI (Thomas, 2008).

NFI and **TLI** are good indicators of convergent validity. A value of 0.90 or above shows a strong convergent validity (Bentler & Bonnet, 1980). NFI point towards the variation in the data. NFI and CFI compare the hypothesised model with an independence (null) model.

IFI differ from absolute fit indices in that they assess how well a specified model fits relative to some alternative baseline model. The most common base line model is referred to as a null model, one that assumes all

observed variables are uncorrelated. A value above 0.9 is considered to exhibit a good fit.

RMSEA tries to measure the average amount of misfit for a model per degree of freedom. A lower value less than 0.06 shows a better fit.

5.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Measurement Model

SEM basically involves developing a model based on theory and then testing it with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). CFA is a technique which tests the measurement model based on covariance between all measured items. A confirmatory factor analysis has been done to test the dimensionality of each variable and is used to confirm the factors underlying each variable. CFA allows the researcher to test the factorial structure of an instrument in order to determine the extent to which the items expected to measure a particular latent construct actually measures it (Byrne, 2010). Thus the CFA validates the link between the observed variable with latent variables under the structure equation modeling framework which is often addressed as measurement model. The measurement model has to be statistically evaluated in order to determine the goodness-of-fit in the sample data.

The first stage of SEM analysis is the validation of the measurement model showing the relationship between latent variables and observed variables. The measurement model includes the items measuring the four constructs that frames the conceptual model. The measurement model indicated the relationship between perceived overqualification (POQ), person environment fit (PE fit), employee wellbeing (EWB) and turnover intention (TI). The measuring instrument of PE fit includes 20 items, of which three items each measures five of its dimensions namely person goals fit (pg fit), person values fit (pv fit), job demands worker abilities fit (jd fit), needs

supplies fit (ns fit), person vocation fit (pvoc fit) and four items measures person-coworkers fit (pc fit). The measurement of POQ involves 11 items of which three items measures excess skills, excess experience and four items measures excess education. Measurement of EWB involves 20 items of which ten items each measuring positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA). Turnover intention is a unidimensional concept and is measured using seven items.

The measurement model has been subjected to CFA in order to statistically evaluate the goodness-of-fit of the model in the sample data. Indices used were chisquared, normed chisquared (CMIN/DF), GFI, AGFI, RMSEA, NFI, CFI, IFI and TLI. Further tools used for comparison of models like AIC, CAIC, BIC, BCC and Hoelter index are also reported.

5.2.1 Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The fit measures obtained after CFA of the measurement model obtained were - chi squared with 1418 degrees of freedom, $\chi^2(1418)=2688.937$, $p<0.01$; CMIN/DF=1.931; Comparative fit index (CFI)=0.929; Goodness of fit index (GFI)= 0.853; Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)= 0.835; Normed fit index (NFI) = 0.862, Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.930; TLI=0.923; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)=0.040 (90% confidence interval for RMSEA lies between 0.037 and 0.042).

The Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), Browne-Cudek Criterion (BCC), Bye's Information Criterion (BIC) and consistent version of the AIC (CAIC) value for the hypothesized model, saturated model and independence model are reported in table 5.1. These values are expected to be smallest for the hypothesized model or at least closer to the saturated model (Byrne 2010). All the values obtained for the hypothesized model satisfied the above criteria.

Table 5.1 Model comparison indices: Before re-specification

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	3044.937	3085.279	3815.627	3993.627
Saturated model	3192.000	3553.718	10102.235	11698.235
Independence model	19632.907	19645.599	19875.371	19931.371

Source: AMOS results

Hoelter's index 0.05 and 0.01 critical N values were 314 and 322. If the Hoelter's critical N values are greater than 200 it shows that the sample size of the study is satisfactory for the model (Byrne 2010).

While examining the standardised factor loadings it was observed that two items of turnover intention loads less than 0.5. According to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, (2012) the items having factor loading less than 0.50 shall be eliminated. Hence these items were deleted. The factor loadings of the deleted items were 0.165 and 0.237. These items were the reverse coded items of turnover intention namely: "I would not accept a job offer if it came in tomorrow" and "I plan to be with my company for quite a while".

This has improved the, chi-square χ^2 (1311) to 2531, $P < 0.01$; and the change in chi-square was significant. The values of fit indices were CMIN/DF=1.896; Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.932; Goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0.856; Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = 0.837; Normed fit index (NFI) = 0.869, Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.932; TLI=0.926; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) =0.037 (90% confidence interval for RMSEA lies between 0.035 and 0.040).

While examining the modification indices it was found that the error covariance for the two items e70 and e71 were found to be 61.5. Since they were found to be closely related they were freed to estimate. This procedure

was done for 1) e72 and e75 (error covariance 55.365) 2) e 64 and e 65 (error covariance 43.581) 3) e 61 and e 64 (error covariance 37.585) adding each error covariance one at a time.

According to Byrne (2010), error covariance indicates the overlapping of content in items that measure a construct. The error covariances of e70 and e71; e72 and e75 were among items of negative affectivity (NA). These items were “My job made me feel disgusted” and “My job made me feel discouraged” ; “My job made me feel fatigued” and “My job made me feel gloomy”. The error covariances of e61 and e64; e64 and e65 were among items of positive affectivity (PA). These items were “My job made me feel clam” and “relaxed”; “My job made me feel relaxed” and “satisfied”.

The fit measures obtained after error coveriances were chi squared with 1307 degrees of freedom, $\chi^2(1307)= 2318.167$, $p<0.01$. The other fit measures are shown in table 5.2.

Table 5.2 CFA Values of Measurement Model

CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	IFI	TLI	NFI	CFI	RMSEA	HOELTER INDEX	
								0.05	0.01
1.774	0.868	0.850	0.944	0.938	0.880	0.945	0.035	337	346

Abbreviations used: CMIN/DF=normed chi square; GFI=Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI=Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; NFI= Normed Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Source: SEM output results

The Akaike’s Information Criterion (AIC), Browne-Cudek Criterion (BCC), Bye’s Information Criterion (BIC) and consistent version of the AIC (CAIC) value for the hypothesized model, saturated model and independence model are reported in table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Model comparison indices: After re-specification and item deletion

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	2675.885	2714.657	3446.575	3624.575
Saturated model	2970.000	3293.465	9399.636	10884.636
Independence model	19427.514	19439.276	19661.319	19715.319

Abbreviations used : AIC= Akaike's Information Criterion; BCC= Browne-Cudek Criterion; BIC= Bye's Information Criterion; CAIC=consistent version of the AIC

Source: SEM output results

Thus the fit measures obtained through CFA of measurement model after item deletion and respecification shows an acceptable level of goodness of fit. Hoelter's index 0.05 and 0.01 critical N values are 337 and 346. Considering the statistical significance of all parameter estimates the present CFA model has been accepted. Hence it is concluded that the measurement model provides a sufficient description of the four constructs involved in the study. The standardized factor loadings of each item corresponding to each item is shown in the table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Standardised Factor Loadings after CFA of the Measurement Model

			Unstandardised Regression Estimates	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardised Regression Estimates
S1	<---	SKL	1.000				.825
S2	<---	SKL	1.032	.050	20.436	***	.831
S3	<---	SKL	.914	.049	18.742	***	.759
X1	<---	EXP	1.000				.840
X2	<---	EXP	.971	.047	20.456	***	.823
X3	<---	EXP	.887	.048	18.485	***	.744
E4	<---	EDN	.672	.038	17.688	***	.675
E3	<---	EDN	1.000				.844
E2	<---	EDN	.962	.043	22.356	***	.797
E1	<---	EDN	1.021	.038	27.042	***	.914
t1	<---	ti_f	1.000				.888
t2	<---	ti_f	1.018	.034	29.820	***	.885
t3	<---	ti_f	.997	.037	27.150	***	.844

t4	<---	ti_f	.715	.040	17.943	***	.656
t5	<---	ti_f	.881	.034	25.893	***	.823
voc3	<---	pvoc_f	1.000				.683
voc2	<---	pvoc_f	1.048	.061	17.149	***	.840
voc1	<---	pvoc_f	1.028	.063	16.342	***	.788
c5	<---	pc_f	.895	.064	14.027	***	0.659
c3	<---	pc_f	1.000				.732
c2	<---	pc_f	1.024	.062	16.391	***	.801
c1	<---	pc_f	.901	.059	15.382	***	.731
jd3	<---	jd_f	1.000				.750
jd2	<---	jd_f	1.013	.057	17.631	***	.784
jd1	<---	jd_f	1.075	.060	17.812	***	.793
ns3	<---	ns_f	1.000				.769
ns2	<---	ns_f	1.192	.054	21.915	***	.880
ns1	<---	ns_f	1.129	.054	21.043	***	.846
v3	<---	pv_f	1.000				.782
v2	<---	pv_f	1.120	.056	19.994	***	.858
v1	<---	pv_f	1.043	.057	18.449	***	.777
g3	<---	pg_f	1.112	.053	21.164	***	.795
g2	<---	pg_f	.982	.048	20.594	***	.862
g1	<---	pg_f	1.000				.818
p1	<---	pa_f	1.000				.576
p2	<---	pa_f	1.589	.108	14.782	***	.858
p3	<---	pa_f	1.542	.106	14.588	***	.838
p4	<---	pa_f	1.516	.106	14.360	***	.816
p5	<---	pa_f	1.596	.109	14.606	***	.840
p6	<---	pa_f	1.003	.092	10.861	***	.542
p7	<---	pa_f	1.094	.092	11.895	***	.612
p8	<---	pa_f	1.310	.102	12.819	***	.682
p9	<---	pa_f	1.265	.105	12.058	***	.625
p10	<---	pa_f	1.428	.103	13.821	***	.766
n1	<---	na_f	1.000				.660
n2	<---	na_f	1.024	.077	13.317	***	.633
n3	<---	na_f	.935	.083	11.207	***	.522
n4	<---	na_f	1.315	.087	15.182	***	.738
n5	<---	na_f	1.237	.086	14.456	***	.698
n6	<---	na_f	1.217	.085	14.362	***	.693
n7	<---	na_f	1.045	.088	11.879	***	.560
n8	<---	na_f	1.145	.084	13.591	***	.648
n9	<---	na_f	1.338	.082	16.236	***	.802
n10	<---	na_f	1.266	.083	15.250	***	.743

Abbreviations used: CFA=Confirmatory Factor Analysis; EDN= Excess education; SKL= Excess skill; EXP= Excess experience; pg_f = person goals fit, pv_f = person values fit, ns_f = need supplies fit, jd_f = job demands worker abilities fit, pc_f = person coworkers fit, pvoc fit= person vocation fit; ti_f= turnover intention; pa_f= positive affectivity; na_f = negative affectivity; ***= significant at 1% '<---' = regression Path

Source: CFA results of survey data

5.2.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which measures of the same construct are correlated. In other words it provides empirical evidence that items that are indicators of specific constructs converge or share high proportion of variance in common. Convergent validity can be measured by examining the standardised factor loadings, composite reliability (CR) and estimating the average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tetham, 2012).

In order to have sufficient convergent validity the standardised factor loadings are required to be greater than 0.5 and ideally greater than 0.7. The standardised factor loadings after CFA shown in table 5.4 illustrates that all values were well above 0.5.

Average variance extracted is calculated as the sum of squared factor loadings divided by number of items for each latent variable (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In order to have sufficient convergent validity the AVE values should exceed 0.5 for each latent construct. The AVE values of all latent constructs presented in table 5.5 shows that convergent validity is satisfactory.

The standardized factor loadings and AVE values indicates that all the measurement items corresponding to the latent constructs can be retained and provide sufficient convergent validity.

5.2.3 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which the constructs are distinct. It provides the empirical evidence that a construct is unique and captures some phenomena that the other constructs do not. In order to prove discriminant validity the mean squared variance (MSV) of each construct

should be less than AVE. MSV is the square of intercorrelations between two constructs. Table 5.5 shows that MSV for all latent constructs are less than the corresponding AVE values. Therefore it can be concluded that the constructs have sufficient discriminant validity.

Table 5.5 Convergent and Discriminant Validity of constructs

	CR	AVE	MSV
p_g fit	0.865	0.681	0.185
p_v fit	0.848	0.650	0.460
n_s fit	0.871	0.694	0.589
j_d fit	0.819	0.602	0.583
p_c fit	0.822	0.537	0.118
p_voc fit	0.816	0.598	0.270
skl	0.653	0.649	0.365
edn	0.885	0.660	0.388
exp	0.845	0.645	0.388
pa	0.915	0.525	0.391
na	0.892	0.455	0.389
ti	0.913	0.678	0.242

Abbreviations used: CR=Composite Reliability; AVE= Average Variance Extracted, MSV= Mean squared Variance

Source: AMOS output results

5.3 Testing of structural model

The second stage in SEM analysis is the validation of the measurement model that shows the relationship between latent variables. With the accepted measurement model in the previous section the conceptual model has been tested. The model was tested using 561 samples and achieved a chi-square value of 2644.103 and degrees of freedom 1357.

The test output result of the model is depicted in figure 5.1. The figure provides the strength of relationship among the antecedent variables and dependent variables. All the measures were found to be satisfactory. The

CMIN/DF showing the minimum discrepancy is obtained as 1.948. The model can be considered as reasonably fit if the minimum discrepancy is less than 5 (Wheaton, 1987). All other fit indices explained in section 5.1 and shown in table 5.6 were found to be satisfactory.

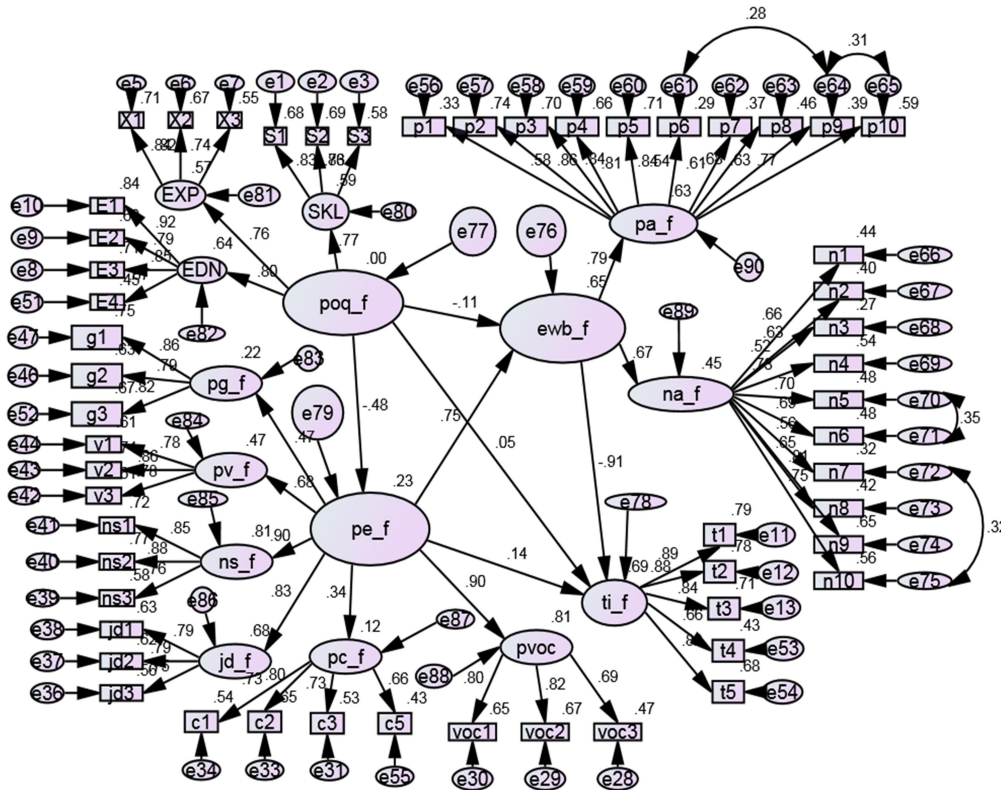


Fig. 5.1 Measurement Model

Table 5.6 Fit indices of measurement model

CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	HOELTER	
							.05	.01
1.948	.851	.836	.928	.924	.928	0.041	306	314

Abbreviations used: CMIN/DF=normed chi square; GFI=Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI=Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; NFI= Normed Fit Index; IFI=Incremental Fit Index; CFI= Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA=Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

Source: SEM out put results.

The Hoelter's value was greater than 200 and shows that the sample size of the study is satisfactory for the model (Byrne 2010). The Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), Browne- Cudek Criterion (BCC), Bye's Information Criterion (BIC) and consistent version of the AIC (CAIC) value for the hypothesized model, saturated model and independence model are reported in table 5.7. These values are expected to be smallest for the hypothesized model or at least closer to the saturated model (Byrne 2010). All the values obtained for the hypothesized model satisfied the above criteria. This showed that the conceptual model is better than both saturated and independence model.

Table 5.7 Model Comparison indices of hypothesized model

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	2745.065	2773.164	3303.599	3432.599
Saturated model	2970.000	3293.465	9399.636	10884.636
Independence model	19427.514	19439.276	19661.319	19715.319

Abbreviations used : AIC= Akaike's Information Criterion; BCC= Browne-Cudek Criterion; BIC= Bye's Information Criterion; CAIC=consistent version of the AIC

Source: SEM output results.

5.4 Maximum Likelihood Estimates of Regression Weights

The standardized regression weights, standard error and their p values are shown in table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Regression path coefficients and significance

			Estimate	S.E.	P
pe_f	<---	poq_f	-.481	.037	P<0.001
ewb_f	<---	poq_f	-.110	.035	P<0.001
ewb_f	<---	pe_f	.745	.119	P<0.001
ti_f	<---	pe_f	.136	.101	NS
ti_f	<---	ewb_f	-.914	.124	P<0.001
ti_f	<---	poq_f	.050	.082	NS

Abbreviations used: pe_f = person environment Fit, poq_f = perceived overqualification, ewb_f = employee wellbeing, ti_f = turnover intention; SE=Standard Error; NS= not Significant (P>0.05); '<---' = regression Path

Source: SEM output results

From the table it has been observed that all the hypothesized relationships were valid at 5% significance level except for the relationship linking a) perceived overqualification and turnover intention b) person environment fit and turnover intention. The standardized regression coefficients, standard error and p values between constructs and its sub dimensions are shown in table 5.9.

Table 5.9 shows that all the standardized regression weights were significant between the constructs and the respective sub dimensions.

Table 5.9 Standard Regression weights between constructs and its subdimensions

			Standardised estimates	S.E.	C.R.	P	Non standardised estimates
pg_f	<---	pe_f	.474				1.000
pv_f	<---	pe_f	.684	.095	17.063	***	1.621
ns_f	<---	pe_f	.902	.107	19.40	***	2.076
jd_f	<---	pe_f	0.828	.099	18.545	***	1.836
pc_f	<---	pe_f	0.339	.058	11.327	***	.657
pvoc	<---	pe_f	0.900	.106	20.43	***	2.166
EXP	<---	poq_f	0.755				1.002
SKL	<---	poq_f	0.771	.084	11.839	***	1.000
EDN	<---	poq_f	0.797	.093	12.513	***	1.146
pa_f	<---	ewb_f	0.793				1.000
na_f	<---	ewb_f	0.672	.096	9.604	***	0.922

Abbreviations used: pe_f = person environment Fit, pg_f = person goals fit, pv_f = person values fit, ns_f =need supplies fit, jd_f = job demands worker abilities fit, pc_f = person coworkers fit, pvoc fit= person vocation fit, poq_f = perceived overqualification, EXP = excess experience, SKL= excess skill, ewb_f = employee wellbeing, pa_f = positive affectivity, na_f = negative affectivity; ***= significant at 1% ; '<---' = Regression Path

Source: SEM output results of survey data

Figure 5.2 shows the simplified diagram of tested conceptual model in which two paths were identified to be insignificant (table 5.8). The next procedure is to test the indirect effect of mediators in the relationship between the constructs.

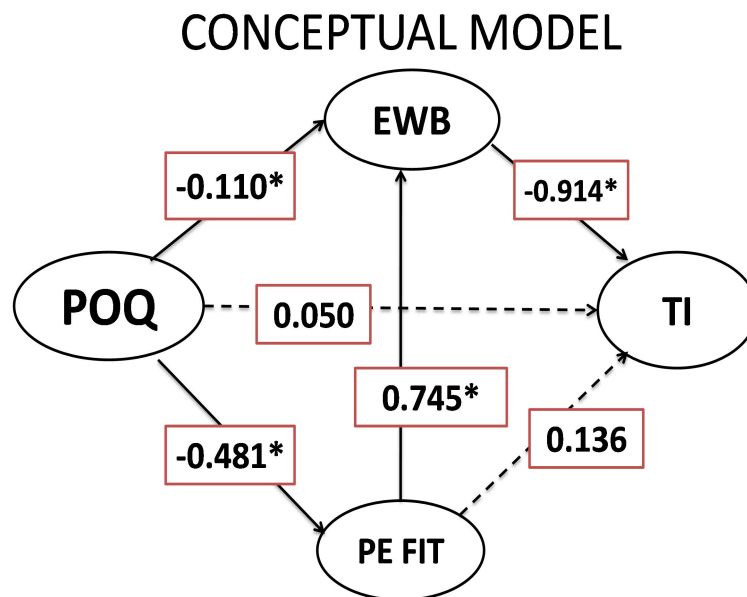


Fig. 5.2 Standardised regression coefficients: Conceptual model

Note: path coefficient represents standardised regression coefficients, * denotes $p < 0.001$; dotted line represent insignificant path.

5.5 Hypothesis Testing of Indirect Relationship between Variables

The indirect hypothesized relationships were tested using mediation principles by applying bootstrap technique in AMOS software, version 21. A bootstrap sample of 2000 with bias-corrected confidence interval level at 95% was employed for testing all indirect effects.

Mediating relationships occur when a third variable plays an important role in governing the relationship between an independent and dependent variables. Thus, the mediator variable, serves to clarify the nature of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. In a sense, the intervening variable acts as a dependent variable with respect to independent variable and acts as an independent variable toward the dependent. Thus mediation is one way that a researcher can explain the process or mechanism by which one variable affects another.

The effect of mediation was tested by comparing the direct and indirect effect of independent variable on the designated dependent variable. The direct effect is determined by allowing the only independent and dependent variable on the path diagram and the standard regression values are estimated without mediator. The indirect effect is determined by adding the path of mediator variable in the model and performing bootstrap in AMOS. The path coefficients and the level of significance (bias corrected p values- two tailed test) are evaluated. If the effect of the independent variable shrinks upon the addition of mediator and if both direct and indirect effects are found to be significant then it is found to be a situation of partial mediation. If the effect of the independent variable shrinks upon the addition of mediator and if the direct effect become insignificant and indirect effect is significant then it is found to be a situation of full mediation.

5.5.1 Test of Mediation

Table 5.10 presents the results of mediation tests performed using boot strap technique in AMOS software.

Table 5.10 Mediation Effects found

Hypothesis	Total effects(c)	Direct Effects(c')	Indirect Effects(ab)	Results
Mediating Effect of PE fit on the relationship between POQ and EWB	-0.471*	-0.110*	-0.361***	Partial Mediation
Mediating Effect of EWB on the relationship between POQ and TI	0.415*	0.050(ns)	0.365***	Full Mediation
Mediating Effect of EWB on the relationship between PE fit and TI	-0.545*	0.136(ns)	-0.681***	Full Mediation
Mediating Effect of PE fit on the relationship between POQ and TI	Since the direct path between PE fit and TI was insignificant this hypothesis was rejected.			

* = $p < 0.05$, ns=not significant, *** = $p < 0.001$; Total effects= Direct Effects + Indirect Effects ($c=c'+ab$).

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, EWB = Employee Wellbeing, TI = Turnover Intention, PE fit = Person Environment fit

Source: Boot strap results of survey data

Of the ten hypotheses tested H7 to H10 deals with mediation, the results of which are explained below.

H7: Person environment fit has a significant mediating relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention.

From table 5.10 it has been found that the direct effect from person environment fit (mediator) to turnover intention is insignificant. Hence person environment fit does not mediate the relationship between perceived overqualification (POQ) and TI. Hence hypothesis H7 is rejected.

H8: Person environment fit has a significant mediating effect on the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing

From table 5.10 it can be observed that on the introduction of mediator the direct effect has been reduced to -0.110 and both direct and indirect effects are significant proving partial mediation. Thus it can be established that person environment fit partially mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing. Hence Hypothesis H8 stands accepted.

H9: Employee wellbeing has a significant mediating relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention.

From table 5.10 it has been observed that the direct effect between perceived overqualification and turnover intention has been reduced to 0.050 and become insignificant when the mediator was introduced, while the indirect effect stands significant proving full mediation. Thus it can be established that employee wellbeing fully mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention. Hence hypothesis H9 stands accepted.

H10: EWB has a significant mediating relationship between PE fit and TI

From table 5.10 it has been observed that the direct effect between PE fit and TI has been reduced to 0.136 and become insignificant when the mediator (EWB) was introduced, while the indirect effect stands significant

proving full mediation. Thus it can be established that EWB fully mediates the relationship between PE fit and TI. Hence hypothesis H10 has been accepted.

5.6 Summary of Hypothesis

Table 5.11 shows the summary of hypothesized relationships obtained for direct and indirect relationship between constructs.

Table 5.11 Summary hypothesis framed for the conceptual model

	Hypothesis	Accepted/Rejected
H1	There is a significant positive relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention.	Rejected
H2	There is a significant negative relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing.	Accepted
H3	There is a significant negative relationship between perceived overqualification and person environment fit	Accepted
H4	There is a significant positive relationship between and person environment fit and employee wellbeing.	Accepted
H5	There is a significant negative relation between person environment fit and turnover intention	Rejected
H6	There is a significant negative relationship between employee wellbeing and turnover intention	Accepted
H7	Person environment fit mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention	Rejected
H8	Person environment fit mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing	Accepted
H9	Employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between person environment and turnover intention	Accepted
H10	Employee wellbeing mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention	Accepted

5.7 Test of variation of conceptual Model across Organisation Type

A large number of studies have reported the influence of job characteristics in influencing the employee well being. Wilson, Dejoy & Vandenberg, (2004) has found that employee's perception of their organization affect their perception of the climate, which impacts the way

people relate to their job and see their future in the organization, ultimately impacting their work adjustment, health and well being. Empirical studies have repeatedly found job insecurity to associate with impaired employee well-being (Witte, Cuyper, Handaja & Hellgren, 2010; Witte, 1999; Banchflower, David & Oswald, 1999). Out of the various extrinsic job attributes job insecurity is explained to have an impact not only on the wellbeing of individual, but also on their work attitudes and behavior. Hence it is assumed in the present study that the influence of different types of organization and their working environment might have an influence on the hypothesized relationships stated above. The two types of organisations involved in this study are nationalized banks and private banks. These two organisations are entirely different in terms of their work culture, job security and work emoluments. Nationalized bank jobs are characterized by job security and generous employee benefits where as private banks do not offer any benefits or job security.

In order to test whether any of the stated relationships differ across organisation types, a multi group analysis has been performed. It is also known as multi group invariance test. All tests for equivalence (invariance) begin with a global test of the equality of covariance structures across the groups of interest (Joreskog, 1971). If the covariance structures are found to be equivalent then further test of invariance is not required. If the covariance structures argue for non equivalence of the groups, then the source of such non equivalence has to be identified.

5.7.1 CFA Results of Public Sector and Private Banks

Table 5.12 Fit measures of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Group	χ^2	CMIN/DF	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
Private Banks	1983.099*	1.581	.923	.914	.921	.044	.811	.785
Nationalized banks	2372.313*	1.815	0.884	0.871	0.882	0.052	0.786	0.757

Abbreviations used: χ^2 = Chi square, *= $p < 0.001$, CMIN/DF= χ^2 /d.f, IFI= Incremental Fit Index, TLI=, CFI= Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, GFI = Goodness of Fit Index, AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index.

Note: degrees of freedom (d.f) for private banks is 1254 and for nationalized banks is 1307

Source: SEM output results of survey data

During the test of invariance, the measurement model is tested simultaneously across the two organization types. The values of fit indices obtained for two groups were found satisfactory and is presented in table 5.12.

5.7.2 Invariance of Structural Regression Model

Table 5.13 Fit measures of Invariance test of structural Model

Group	χ^2	CMIN/DF	IFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI
Private Banks	2097.759	1.610	0.915	0.909	0.914	0.045	0.801	0.782
Nationalized banks	2511.553	1.852	0.873	0.865	0.872	0.053	0.773	0.752

Abbreviations used: χ^2 = Chi square, *= $p < 0.001$, CMIN/DF= χ^2 /d.f, IFI= Incremental Fit Index, TLI=, CFI= Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, GFI = Goodness of Fit Index, AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index.

Note: degrees of freedom (d.f) for each group is 1303 for private banks and 1356 for nationalized banks

Source: SEM output results of survey data

The values of fit indices obtained after testing the invariance of structural model is provided in table 5.13. From table 5.14, it was observed that all path coefficients in the conceptual model vary according to the type of organization in which an employee works.

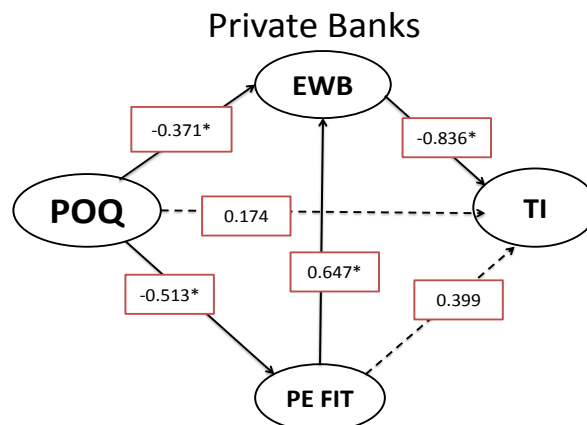
Table 5.14 Regression path coefficients and significance

Regression Path			Private Banks		Nationalized banks	
To	<---	From	b-value	probability	b-value	probability
pe_f	<---	poq_f	-0.513	P<0.001	-0.462	P<0.001
ewb_f	<---	poq_f	-0.371	P<0.001	-0.019	NS
ewb_f	<---	pe_f	0.647	P<0.001	0.773	P<0.001
ti_f	<---	pe_f	0.399	NS	-.011	NS
ti_f	<---	ewb_f	-0.836	P<0.001	-.734	P<0.001
ti_f	<---	poq_f	0.174	NS	.126	NS

Abbreviations used: b-value= standardized regression coefficients, NS=Not Significant (P>0.05), pe_f = person environment Fit, ewb_f = employee wellbeing, poq_f = perceived overqualification, ti_f = turnover intention

Source: SEM output results.

The values shown in the figure are standardized regression coefficients. Based on the regression coefficients and its significance, the following observations have been made. For both public and private banks, the two regression paths linking *perceived overqualification and turnover intention*; *person environment fit and turnover intention* were found to be insignificant. However for nationalized banks one additional path linking *perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing* was found to be insignificant. This is illustrated in figure 5.3 and 5.4.

**Fig. 5.3** Conceptual model for private Banks

Note: path coefficient represents standardised regression coefficients, * denotes $p < 0.001$; dotted line represent insignificant path.

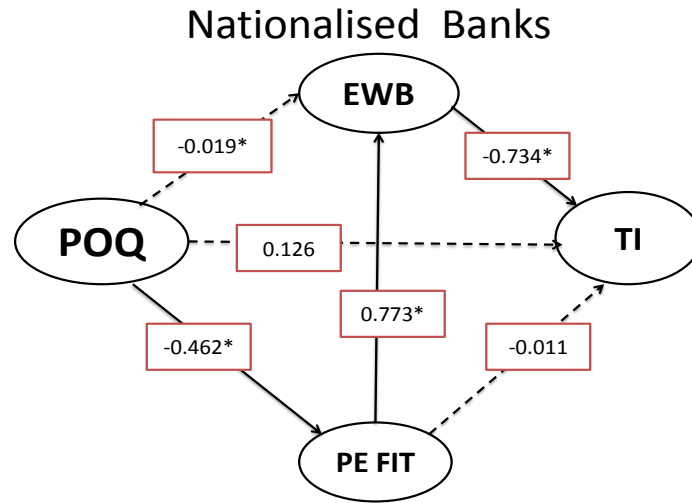


Fig. 5.4 Conceptual model for nationalised banks

Note: path coefficient represents standardised regression coefficients, * denotes $p < 0.001$; dotted line represent insignificant path.

The direct and indirect effects of the both the models has been investigated in detail. Table 5.15 illustrates the results of mediation effects found in the conceptual model representing nationalised banks.

Table 5.15 Mediation Effects found for Nationalised Banks

Hypothesis	Total effects(c)	Direct Effects(c')	Indirect Effects(ab)	Results
Mediating Effect of PE fit on the relationship between POQ and EWB	-0.377*	-0.019(ns)	-0.358***	Full Mediation
Mediating Effect of EWB on the relationship between PE fit and TI	-0.579*	-0.011(ns)	-0.568***	Full Mediation

* = $p < 0.05$, ns=not significant, *** = $p < 0.001$; Total Effects= Direct Effect + Indirect Effect ($c=c'+ab$).

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, EWB = Employee Wellbeing, TI = Turnover Intention, PE fit = Person Environment fit.

Source: SEM output results

From table 5.15 it can be observed there were two mediation effects. These mediation effects found were: 1) the mediating effect of person environment fit in the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee well being and 2) the mediating effect of employee wellbeing in the relationship between person environment fit and turnover intention.

From the table (5.15) it can be observed that the on the introduction of person environment fit which serves as the mediator, the direct effect has been reduced to -0.019 and become insignificant while the indirect effect (-0.358) is found to be significant proving full mediation. Thus it can be established that person environment fit fully mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing. This shows that POQ does not have a direct influence in determining the wellbeing of employees in nationalized banks. It emphasizes the significant role of person environment fit in enhancing or reducing the employee wellbeing.

From the table 5.15, it can also be observed that the on the introduction of employee wellbeing which serves as the mediator, the direct effect has been reduced to -0.011 and become insignificant while the indirect effect (-0.568) is found to be significant proving full mediation. Thus it can be established that employee wellbeing fully mediates the relationship between person environment fit and turnover intention. This shows that person environment fit does not have a direct influence in turnover intention rather it influences indirectly through employee wellbeing.

Table 5.16 Mediation Effects found for Private Banks

Hypothesis	Total effects(c)	Direct Effects(c')	Indirect Effects(ab)	Results
Mediating Effect of PE fit on the relationship between POQ and EWB	-0.703*	-0.371*	-0.332***	Partial Mediation
Mediating Effect of EWB on the relationship between POQ and TI	-0.551*	0.174(ns)	-0.725***	Full Mediation
Mediating Effect of EWB on the relationship between PE fit and TI	-0.256*	0.399(ns)	-0.655***	Full Mediation

* = $p < 0.05$, ns=not significant, *** = $p < 0.00$; c = total direct effect between independent variable and dependent variable in the absence of mediator, c' = direct effect in the presence of mediator, ab= indirect effect; Total effects= Direct effects + Indirect Effects (c= c'+ab).

Abbreviations used: POQ= Perceived overqualification, EWB = Employee Wellbeing, TI = Turnover Intention, PE fit = Person Environment fit.

Source: SEM output results of survey data

Table 5.16 explains the mediation effects found in the conceptual model for private banks. From the table it can be observed there were three mediation effects. These mediation effects were as follows: 1) The mediation effect of person environment fit on the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing, 2) the mediation effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention 3) The mediation effect of employee wellbeing on the relationship between person environment fit and turnover intention.

From table 5.16 it can be observed that on the introduction of person environment fit which serves as the mediator, the direct effect of perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing has been reduced to -0.371 and both the direct and indirect effect (-0.332) is found to be significant proving partial mediation. Thus it can be established that person environment fit partially mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing.

Similarly on the introduction of employee wellbeing which serves as the mediator, the direct effect between perceived overqualification and turnover intention has been reduced to 0.174 and became insignificant whereas the indirect effect (-0.725) is found to be significant proving full mediation. Thus it can be established that employee wellbeing fully mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention. This shows that perceived overqualification does not have a direct influence on turnover intention rather it influences indirectly through employee wellbeing.

Similarly on the introduction of employee wellbeing which serves as the mediator, the direct effect between person environment fit and turnover intention has been reduced to 0.399 and became insignificant whereas the

indirect effect (-0.655) is found to be significant proving full mediation. Thus it can be established that employee wellbeing fully mediates the relationship between person environment fit and turnover intention. This shows that person environment fit does not have a direct influence in turnover intention rather it influences indirectly through employee wellbeing.

The test of multi group invariance has shown that in nationalized banks an additional path linking *perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing* was found to be insignificant. This difference can be attributed to the reason that nationalized banks offer job security when compared with private banks. More over employee welfare policies are clearly defined, legally enforced and effectively executed in nationalized banks (Bajpai 2004). This might serve as a compensating factor for their overqualification and hence does not affect the wellbeing of nationalized banks employees.

5.8 Conclusion

The structural model has been tested using 561 samples and it has been found that all the hypothesized relationship except three stands accepted. The rejected relationships were those between 1) *perceived overqualification and turnover intention* 2) *person environment fit and turnover intention* and 3) the hypothesis that *person environment fit mediates the relationship between perceived oevrqualification and turnover intention*. Employee wellbeing is found to be an effective mediator in the relationship between 1) perceived overqualification and turnover intention; 2) person environment fit and turnover intention. Person environment is judged to be an effective mediator between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing.

The test of multigroup invariance has shown that in nationalized banks an additional relationship between *perceived overqualification and employee*

wellbeing was found to be insignificant. This difference can be attributed to the reason that nationalized banks offer job security and generous employee benefits when compared with private banks. This might serve as compensation for their overqualification. Hence perceived overqualification does not found to have a direct impact on the employee wellbeing of nationalized bank employees. Thus it can be concluded that perceived overqualification has a little significance in determining employee wellbeing and turnover intention. It affects adversely only if it impairs the person environment fit and employee wellbeing. Therefore organisations can employ measures to enhance the person environment fit and employee wellbeing so that the turnover intention observed among overqualified employees can be reduced.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSIONS

	6.1 Sample Profile
	6.2 Nationalised and Private Banks
	6.3 Gender
	6.4 Comparison of Major Variables
● Contents ●	6.5 Findings with respect to Relationship among Variables in the Conceptual Model.
	6.6 Findings with respect to Multigroup Invariance Test.
	6.7 Managerial Implications
	6.8 Strategies to Manage Overqualified Employees
	6.9 Contribution of the Study
	6.10 Limitations and scope for further research
	6.11 Conclusion

6.1 Sample Profile

- The sample consisted of 315 males and 246 females comprising 56% and 44% respectively.
- The age distribution of the respondents shows that majority belong to the age group 26-30(45.5%), followed by 20-25 (24.4%), 31-35 (21.2%), 36-40 (4.1%), 41-45(2.5%) and 46-50 (2.3%).
- Around 58% of the respondents were married and 42% were unmarried.
- 51% of the employees were from private banks and 49% of the employees were from nationalised banks.

- Among the two categories of employees surveyed ‘officers’ constituted 73.62% and clerks 26.38%.
- The employees with professional graduation (32.44%) and professional post graduation (32.44%) constituted the highest proportion followed by post graduation (16.8%), professional graduation (16.57), plus two (0.9%) and ‘others’ (0.9% each).
- Out of 561 employees sampled 66.67% of employees were overqualified.

6.2 Nationalised and Private Banks

- The percentage of overqualification was higher in nationalised banks (70.7%) compared to private banks (62.67%).

The reason for higher proportion of overqualification in nationalised banks can be attributed to the difference in the job characteristics of nationalised and private banks (new generation private banks). In nationalised banks the welfare policies of employees are clearly defined and legally enforced and are effectively executed (Bajpai, 2004) and also provides job security. In contrast private bank jobs were characterized by job insecurity and a competitive work environment. In private banks employees were found to remain in jobs if they are intrinsically satisfied with their jobs and leave their jobs at any time if they are unwilling to continue. However in those positions where degree is the required qualification, graduates with a higher qualification were also appointed. The promotions in private banks are wholly based on merit. Hence these employees are promoted to higher positions on the basis of merit might turn adequately qualified in higher positions. Whereas promotions in nationalized banks are time bound and seniority based. And hence an employee remains overqualified in higher positions as well.

This reason stands behind the higher fraction of overqualification in nationalised banks.

6.3 Gender

- 63.5% among males and 70.7% among females were overqualified.
- Males form a majority among graduates (60%) and professional post graduates (64%) while females constitutes the majority among professional graduates (53.80%) and post graduates (23.60%).

This result is an indicator towards the outlook of women towards education. Females are predisposed to acquire more education till they get a job or get married. But as far as males are concerned their definitive endeavor is to earn an income within the earliest possible time and hence their focal point is to attain a job.

Since a graduate degree serve as the minimum required qualification for most entry level private and government jobs, males are largely inclined to acquire this minimum qualification. More over males also show a higher proportion among professional post graduates. The reason that can be attributed to this trend is that a professional degree warrants a good career prospect. Since males are considered to the bread earners of a family they are more disposed to choose an education stream that helps them to end up in a profession at the earliest possible time.

6.4 Comparison of Major Variables

6.4.1 Based on organisation type

- The mean value of perceived overqualification (33.65) and employee wellbeing (71.95) was found to be dominant in public sector and that of

turnover intention (19.59) was dominant in the private sector while person environment fit does not show a significant difference.

The above results show that even though perceived overqualification is high in nationalized banks due to the presence of job security and other job benefits provided by these banks, employee wellbeing is found to be more among them and hence they exhibit lesser turnover intention. The insignificant difference in the mean value of person environment fit shows that it is purely subjective and the type of organization has no influence in it. The intensity of perceived misfit of the public sector bank employees might get reduced due to the reason specified above and serves as a compensation for their overqualification. Thus gradually the employees might get contented with their current job and work environment.

6.4.2 Based on Gender

- None of the variables except the mean value of turnover intention was found to be significantly dominant (19.10) among males.

The reason can be ascribed to the cultural norms prevailing in Kerala. Males prefer a job that is stable and secure to maintain their family. So they might continue searching for a job gratifying their educational qualifications and hence have more turnover intention. As far as females are concerned whether married or single, they have a supporting role in their family and hence may not be that apprehensive about a job matching their educational qualification. Married females typically consider their career as secondary relative to nurturing their kids and family and will be indifferent to accept any job that come on their way. As far as single females are concerned, they might work till their marriage or obtain a transfer in backdrop of their husband's job.

6.4.3 Based on overqualified and adequately qualified employees.

- Perceived overqualification was significantly ($p < 0.01$) found to be more (mean = 33.93) among overqualified employees but no significant difference was observed in person environment fit, employee wellbeing and turnover intention between these groups.

Overqualified employees are those who possess a higher qualification than what their job demands and hence an internal discontentment may develop within them. So naturally a highly qualified employee will possess a higher perceived over qualification when compared with others. Moreover the insignificant difference in person environment fit, employee wellbeing and turnover intention ($p > 0.01$) shows that overqualification does not form a single reason in influencing the wellbeing and turnover intention of employees. . “People’s preferences for a particular organisation are based on an implicit estimate of the congruence of their own personal characteristics and the attributes of potential work organizations” (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995).

6.4.4 Based on Educational Qualifications

- Perceived overqualification is found to be significantly high among professional graduates (mean=34.86, $p < 0.05$), followed by professional post graduates (mean=34.23, $p < 0.05$), and post graduates (mean=33, $p < 0.05$).
- Turnover over intention was found to be significantly dominant among professional post graduates (mean=19.57, $p < 0.05$), followed by professional graduates (mean=18.46, $p < 0.05$) and is found to be least among plus two qualified employees (mean=15.50, $p < 0.05$).

This result shows that professionally qualified employees on the whole aspire for a worthwhile vocation in their professional area. Hence in general perceived overqualification and turnover intention will be higher among them when employed in a field outside their area of education.

- Employee wellbeing was found to be more among employees possessing plus two (mean=73.33, $p<0.05$) and degree level qualification (mean=72.09, $p<0.05$).
- Person environment fit was significantly found to be more among employees possessing plus two qualification (mean = 74.00, $p<0.05$) and degree holders (mean=72, $p<0.05$).

Above results show that, employees with plus two and degree qualification is likely to enjoy an adequately matched job. So they perceive more fit with their working environment and hence perceive high wellbeing.

6.4.5 Based on Marital Status

- Employee wellbeing and turnover intention differed significantly ($p<0.05$) across marital status. Employee wellbeing was found to be foremost among married employees (mean= 71, $p<0.05$) and turnover intention to be foremost among single employees (mean=19.26, $p<0.05$).

More wellbeing and less turnover intention among married employees indicate the difference in the job choice decisions between the two groups. Both married males and females have to gratify their family requirements. As far as married males are concerned they are perhaps inclined to remain in their current job to have a stable earning even though they are overqualified. Regarding married females they try to compromise with a job which helps them to equally satisfy their family requirements. But single employees are likely to search for

alternate jobs till they get an adequately matched one and hence remain unfulfilled with the job on hand.

6.4.6 Based on Age

- Employee wellbeing and turnover intention was found to differ significantly across age.
- Employee wellbeing was found to be foremost among employees who belong to the age group 46-50 (mean= 80.46, $p<0.05$), followed by the age group 41-45 (mean= 76.34, $p<0.05$), 36-40 (mean= 71.77, $p<0.05$), 31-35 (mean=70.12, $p<0.05$), 26-30 (mean= 69.75, $p<0.05$), and 20-25 (mean= 68.22, $p<0.05$).
- Supporting the above results turnover intention was found to be more among employees belonging to the age group 20-25 (mean= 19.76, $p<0.05$), followed by the age group 26-30 (mean= 18.19, $p<0.05$), 31-35 (mean= 18.10, $p<0.05$), 41-45 (mean= 17.46, $p<0.05$), 36-40 (mean= 17.18, $p<0.05$) and 46-50 (mean= 14.08, $p<0.05$).

To sum up employee wellbeing is found to be more among employees belonging to higher age groups and hence turnover intention is found to be lesser among them. On the other hand employee wellbeing was lesser among lower age groups while turnover intention was higher among them. This shows that those who possess high wellbeing shows lesser turnover intention and those who possess a lesser wellbeing shows a higher turnover intention. Employees above 45years of age are those who are nearing the retirement age and hence remain more comfortable may not bother their overqualification. On the other hand younger employees aspire to build up a worthwhile career that harmonizes with their educational qualification. The throb of overqualification will be higher

among them and hence get discontented with their current job which is reflected through their low wellbeing.

6.4.7 Based on Tenure.

- Perceived overqualification and turnover intention differed significantly ($p < 0.05$) with respect to tenure.
- Perceived overqualification was found to be more among employees with less than two years of tenure (mean= 32.92, $p < 0.05$), followed by those with 2-4 years of experience (mean=32.23, $p < 0.05$), 4-6 (mean= 32.19, $p < 0.05$) and least among those who have more than six years of experience (mean=29.93, $p < 0.05$).
- Turnover intention was also found to be more among employees with less than two years of experience (mean= 18.94, $p < 0.05$), followed by those with 2-4 years of experience (mean=18.66, $p < 0.05$), 4-6 (mean= 17.49, $p < 0.05$) and least among those who have more than six years of experience (mean=17.17, $p < 0.05$).

Thus it has been observed that perceived overqualification and turnover intention were more among employees with lesser tenure. The basis for this trend is that as an employee gains more and more experience, the intensity of perceived overqualification declines and hence lesser turnover intention.

6.4.8 Based on Job Designation

- Perceived overqualification, turnover intention and employee wellbeing was found to differ significantly ($p < 0.05$) based on job designation.
- Perceived overqualification was found to be more among clerks (mean= 34.39, $p < 0.05$), followed by officers (mean= 31.81, $p < 0.05$) and sales officers (mean=31.10, $p < 0.05$).

- Employee wellbeing was also found to be more among clerks (mean=74.81, $p<0.05$), than officers (mean=67.89).
- But turnover intention was found to be more among officers (mean=19.21, $p<0.05$), and least among clerks (mean = 16.01).

Albeit higher POQ, clerks were found to possess a higher wellbeing and lesser turnover intention. Lesser workloads of clerks relative to officers could be one reason behind higher wellbeing among them. Since the clerical works are repetitive in nature they might experience a higher perceived overqualification. But they are able to leave home on time compared to officers in nationalized banks. In case of officers in both nationalised and private banks the work loads are hectic and have to take up diverse responsibilities. Hence they have to work late and not able to leave home on time. This could be the basis for higher turnover intention among them.

6.5 Findings with respect to Relationship among Variables in the Conceptual Model.

The conceptual model has been tested using structural equation modeling and it has been found that all the hypothesized relationships except two stands accepted. The rejected relationships were those between 1) *perceived overqualification and turnover intention* 2) *person environment fit and turnover intention* and 3) the hypothesis that *person environment fit mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intention*. Employee wellbeing was found to be an effective mediator in the relationship between 1) *perceived overqualification and turnover intention* 2) *person environment fit and turnover intention*. Person environment is judged to be an effective mediator between perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing.

The primary objective of this research was to explore the impact of perceived overqualification on turnover intention. The empirical evidences found in this study has shown that perceived overqualification does not have a direct effect but an indirect effect through employee wellbeing. This shows that employees do not have turnover intention merely because they are overqualified. Employee wellbeing is found to have more impact on turnover intention than perceived overqualification. Thus it can be interpreted that perceived overqualification leads to turnover intention only if it impairs their employee wellbeing. Perceived overqualification when coupled with other personal or organizational factors may adversely affect their employee wellbeing

Similarly the insignificant path between person environment fit and turnover intention and the mediating effect of employee wellbeing on this relationship is indicative of the fact that a poor person environment fit could lead to turnover intention only if it impairs their employee wellbeing. Even though many empirical studies have substantiated the association of person environment fit with that of turnover intention. The meta analytic study conducted by Kristof Brown (2005) described that person organization fit and person job fit showed a weaker negative correlation with intention to leave. They suggested that although employees experience poor person organization fit or person job fit, they will not necessarily be inclined to quit the organisation. Supporting this finding Wheeler, Buckley, Halbeslen, Brouer, & Ferris (2007) suggested that in the event of job immobility the poor person organization fit and the associated dissatisfaction make the employees less inclined towards intention to leave. Person organization fit (person values fit and person goals fit) and person job fit (needs supplies fit and demands abilities fit) are two major components of person environment fit. So it can be interpreted that a poor

person environment fit may not lead to turnover intention unless it impairs the employee wellbeing.

In the words of Redelinguys, (2015) that, even though a person is objectively misfit with a particular environment, subjectively he may be satisfied with his work due to many personal reasons. An overqualified employee might perceive a better fit with his working environment resulting in enhancing his wellbeing and thereby reducing his turnover intention. Sometimes paucity of alternate jobs in their area of study might prevent the employees from giving up their current jobs. Another reason could be, employees might perceive a fit from misfit gradually through the organizational socialization process. Moreover when majority of employees around them are seemed to be overqualified, they might experience merely a smidgen of negative feelings associated with overqualification.

6.6 Findings with respect to Multigroup Invariance Test.

The test of multi group invariance has shown that in case of nationalised banks an additional relationship was found to be insignificant. This was the one which existed between *perceived overqualification and employee wellbeing*.

This implies that as far as nationalised bank employees are concerned perceived overqualification have no significant relationship with employee wellbeing. This is due to the difference in the job characteristics of nationalised and private banks. In nationalised banks employee welfare policies are clearly defined, legally enforced and effectively executed (Bajpai 2004) and offers job security. It is observed that preference for a job in commensurate with the educational qualifications is secondary when compared with an alternate job which provides employee benefits and job security. Individuals seem to ignore their higher qualifications in order to avail the benefits of a Government job. In

contrast private bank jobs are characterized by job insecurity and the work culture is entirely different.

Satisfaction is considered to be a reflection of utility derived by the workers from working and depends upon the income, hours of work and a set of worker specific and job-specific characteristics (Wars and Sloane, 2000). So it can be interpreted that despite being highly educated, individuals try to maximize their utility or satisfaction levels from the benefits provided by the on hand jobs. To cite an example, during the survey it was observed that a large number of engineering graduates are working in both public and private banks, where the nature of jobs are totally different from their area of study. They also point towards their similar others who preferred clerical jobs in government sector. The reasons they attributed to such preferences were job insecurity, work pressure, mounting targets and deadlines in the private sector jobs. It was also observed that they are contended with their available jobs because they would have left with low paying frantic jobs in their area of study due to excess supply, if they would have opted otherwise. Their current nationalised bank jobs provide a stable and secure job. It has been reported in a newspaper article (Indian express 2013) that the proportion of professional graduates opting for Kerala public sector lower division clerical jobs has been on an increase which is reflected in the increase in sale of PSC coaching books purchased by the IT professionals.

6.7 Managerial Implications

The unique relationships exhibited by the conceptual model highlights the importance of employee wellbeing and person environment fit over perceived overqualification in affecting turnover intention. Numerous studies have highlighted the fact that the turnover intention is highly correlated with

actual turnover. Turnover can have unfavorable consequences for the organization because the cost of employee turnover impacts the institutional knowledge and organizational reputation. Further turnover increases the workload and demands of the existing employees, which may cause burnout and subsequently even greater turnover (Redelinguys, 2015).

So keeping in view the significance of employee wellbeing, the factors enhancing person environment fit and employee wellbeing should be explored and proactive measures can be adopted to prevent the potential turnover among overqualified employees. The study also creates awareness among managers regarding the issues of concern to employees and the impact of these issues on their wellbeing. The results of mediation helps the managers to understand the process through which managers are able to understand employees' behaviors in an unpredictable work environment.

6.8 Strategies to Manage Overqualified Employees

1. A separate career path through distinct promotional and compensation policies can be devised for overqualified employees based on their performance in the organisation. Factors like differential wages, job autonomy, job security or promotional opportunities may all work as compensators for overqualification and mask the true impact of overqualification (Varshaest & Omey 2009).
2. The intrinsic need of overqualified employees can be adhered to so that they can be intrinsically satisfied.
3. Human resource policies can be carefully designed and implemented with the aim of enhancing employee wellbeing which may reduce the intention to leave and the consequent turnover. Guchait and Cho (2010) identify eight human resource management practices for lowering intention to leave. They

are training, performance appraisal, rewards, benefits, working conditions, equal employment opportunities, and information sharing.

6.9 Contribution of the Study

The study emphasizes the importance of enhancing employee wellbeing of overqualified employees and the significance of hiring overqualified employees. This research devises ways to manage overqualified employees through the investigation of mediating variables in literature of overqualification giving more focus on the factors that can reduce the negative consequences of this phenomenon. Further contrary to the findings of majority of existing studies this study proved that perceived overqualification affects turnover intention indirectly rather than directly.

The study also brings out the mediating effect of employee wellbeing. This construct is extensively found to have studied as a dependent variable. In the present study the mediating role of employee wellbeing has been explored that can significantly affect the work attitudes. Further only individual dimensions of person environment fit has been found to have studied so far. An analysis of person environment fit encompassing most of its dimensions, and its mediation effect on turnover intention is another contribution of this study.

Finally, this study is an eye opener towards the severity of the problem of overqualification in Kerala by taking the example of banking sector. The study points towards the necessity of invigorating the existing manpower policies of the State so as to provide a supply of labor that meets the demand of the Industry.

6.10 Limitations and scope for further research

1. The study was conducted in the banking Industry where all the working facilities are provided to the employees especially in nationalised banks. Even though in new generation banks there are mounted workloads and pressurized targets a banking sector job is considered as a status symbol and thus over qualification may not evolve out as a depressing factor among employees. So the same study could be done in a different sector like call centers or among freelancers where a high proportion of overqualified employees work as stop gap till they get a good job meeting their expectations. Conversely, the study could be expanded to other sectors, organisations and occupations to derive more results.
2. The study has not considered personality dimensions of the employees. So a further study can be conducted by taking personality dimensions as a factor in influencing work attitudes of employees.
3. The study did not consider the skill level of employees. The literature review suggested that the only way to differentiate and determine the skill level of employees is the educational qualification which they possess. The assessment of skill level needed a separate questionnaire to be built and needed to be conducted as a separate study. So the researcher suggests for a further study taking into account the skill difference among equally overqualified employees.
4. The study is based on cross sectional data. The perceptions of employees can undergo a change as they pass through various stages of career life. So future research can make use of a longitudinal data to absorb the difference in the perception of overqualified employees.

6.11 Conclusion

In the present context of Kerala, with a high percent of educated unemployment, the overqualified employees were found to retain their current job. This happens due to either the unavailability or the existence of fewer opportunities that utilizes their excess skills. However, this study opens up a positive aspect of overqualification that, the turnover intention observed among overqualified employees can be lessened if they perceive a high person environment fit and employee wellbeing. Thus proactive measures that can enhance the wellbeing of employees can explored and implemented.

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SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Sir/Madam,

I am a Research Scholar working in Cochin University of Science and Technology. I would like to collect some data with regard to my topic ‘overqualification’. My study pertains to the perceptions of employees those who are overqualified or differentially qualified for their jobs. I humbly request you to help me by providing the required data so as to carry out further with my study. I hereby assure you that the data collected will be used only for academic purpose and will be treated confidentially. Only a summary of the entire responses will be presented.

1. Following are some of the questions regarding your job, education and other demographic details.

1 Name of the Organization where you work

:

2 Your Job Designation

:

3 Department/Division

:

4 Location of Work

:

5 Gender

Male: Female:

- 6 Age :
 20 – 25
 26 - 30
 31- 35
 36 - 40
 41 - 45
 46 – 50
- 7 Your Qualification :
- 8 Required qualification for your current job :
- 10 Your work experience in the current job :
- 11 Religion Hindu
 Christian
 Muslim
- 12 Marital Status Married Single
- 13 Employment Govt Sector
 Private sector

2. You are required to fill in the following questions from *the perspective of your education –job fit*. Tick a number between 1 and 5 for each statement below to indicate how much you agree for following aspects of the Organization you are working for and your current job.

	Not at all 1	Some What 2	Neutral 3	Mostly 4	Completely 5
1 I completely recognize the goals of my organization.					
2 My personal goals and the goals of my organization are very similar.					
3 I don't care about the goals of this organization as much as many of my co-workers do.					
4 The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values.					
5 My personal values match my organization's values and culture.					

6	The culture and values of my organization provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.					
7	There is a good fit between what my job offers me and what I am looking for in a job.					
8	The attributes that I look for in a job are fulfilled very well by my present job.					
9	The job that I currently hold gives me just about everything that I want from a job.					
10	The match is very good between the requirements of my job and my personal skills.					
11	My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job.					
12	My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the requirements of my job.					
13	Working with the other people in my group is one of the best parts of this job.					
14	I get along well with the people I work with on a day-to-day basis.					
15	There is not much conflict among the members of my group.					
16	If I had more free time, I would enjoy spending more time with my co-workers socially.					
17	There are some people I work with , I try to avoid when possible					
18	There is a good fit between my personal interests and the kind of work I perform in my occupation (or profession/trade).					
19	My skills and abilities are well suited for the vocation (profession/trade) that I am currently in.					
20	When I think about my interests, I sometimes wonder I am not in the right occupation (profession/trade) after all					

3. *The following statements are about the qualification you attained and your perceptions about current job. Please indicate, by crossing one box on each line, how strongly you agree or disagree with each. The more you agree, the higher the number of the box you should cross. The more you disagree, the lower the number of the box you should cross.*

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1. My job requires less education than I have					
2. The work experience that I have is not necessary to be successful on this job					
3. I have job skills that are not required for this job					
4. Someone with less education than myself could perform well on my job					
5. My previous training is not being fully utilized on this job					
6. I have a lot of knowledge that I do not need in order to do my job					
7. My education level is above the education level required by my job					
8. Some one with less experience than myself could do my job just as well					
9. I have more abilities than I need in order to do my job					
10. My formal education overqualifies me for my present job					
11. Frankly, I am overqualified for the job I hold					

4. Answer the following questions keeping in view of the match between your educational qualification and your current job. Please take note that no information will be released that might identify any particular individual. Only a summary of the entire responses will be presented .

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1 I often think about quitting my job					
2 I will probably look for a new job shortly					
3 I would want to quit this job if it were possible.					
4 I would not accept a job offer if it came in tomorrow.					
5 I plan to be with my company for quite a while					
6 Sometimes I get so irritated with my company , that I think about changing jobs					
7 I'm planning to quit my job					

5. Below are a number of statements that describe different emotions that a job can make a person feel with respect to their current job. Please indicate the amount to which any part of your job (e.g., the work, coworkers, supervisor, customers, pay, education) has made you feel that emotion in the past 30 days.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Quite Often	Extremely Often
1 My job made me feel at ease/ comfort/ peace					
2 My job made me feel angry					
3 My job made me feel anxious/worried / disturbed					
4 My job made me feel bored					
5 My job made me feel calm					
6 My job made me feel content /happy.					
7 My job made me feel depressed					
8 My job made me feel disgusted /horrified / shock.					
9 My job made me feel discouraged					

10	My job made me feel energetic					
11	My job made me feel excited/thrilled					
12	My job made me feel ecstatic/ joyful					
13	My job made me feel enthusiastic / passionate.					
14	My job made me feel frightened					
15	My job made me feel furious /irritated					
16	My job made me feel gloomy					
17	My job made me feel fatigued /tired/make sleepy					
18	My job made me feel inspired					
19	My job made me feel satisfied					
20	My job made me feel relaxed					

Thank you

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS**Journal Publications**

- Dr.M.Bhasi, Razeena Rasheed (2018), “Exploring the Sub dimensions of Perceived Overqualification”, published in De Paul Journal of Scientific Research, Volume 5 (1), March, ISSN 2394-4412.
- Razeena Rasheed, Dr.P.R.Wilson (2014), “Overeducation and Influence of Job Attributes: A Study conducted in the city of Kochi.”, published in Journal of Service Research in Volume 14, Number 2 (October 2014-March 2015) Issue, ISSN 0972-4702.
- Razeena Rasheed, Dr.P.R Wilson (2014) “*Impact of objective and subjective overeducation on Job satisfaction*”: published in Erudition, Albertian Journal of Management vol.8, Issue 2, July 2014, pages 99-105, ISSN 0973-7839.

Conference Paper Presentations

- Razeena Rasheed, Dr.M.Bhasi (2017), Paper titled “ *Intensity of Ovequalification in Kerala: A Case Example of Banking Sector*” on December 15 and 16, 2017 organised by Gulati Institute of Finance and Taxation in collaboration with Center for Development Studies and Kerala University, Trivandrum.
- Razeena Rasheed, Dr.M.Bhasi (2015), “*Oversupply of graduates in Kerala leading to overeducation*” : Paper presented in a two day National Seminar on “*Human Resource Planning in India, Experiences, Experiments and expectations*” organized by Department of Economics, Government College, Kadanchery on December 15 and 16, 2015.

- Razeena Rasheed, Dr.P.R Wilson (2013)“ *Overeducation and Employee Well Being*”: been made the part of an edited volume of book titled: “Trends and Challenges in Global Business Management” bearing ISBN No:978-93-82338840, co-sponsored by Bonfring Journals issued by Dept of Management Studies, Sree Narayana Gurukulam College of Engineering, Kadayirippu.

BIODATA

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EDUCATION

BBA, Master of Business Economics (MBE), PGDIM, PGDHRM
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PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

- Working as Assistant professor for life skills and business economics in KMEA Engineering College.
- Have been working as an Assistant professor for the past 10 years and had associated with Al-Ameen College, ICFAI and Meridian College of Management.
- Also served as a parttime time faculty for some period of time with GIIMs, IIPM, London College of Business and Finance, Vidyabharathi group of institutions and West ford Institute of management.

INDUSTRY EXPERIENCE

- Served as customer care officer in Reliance Infocomm
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