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A Social Network Perspective of Employee Overqualification to Outcomes Relationships in Workgroups

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A SOCIAL NETWORK PERSPECTIVE OF EMPLOYEE

OVERQUALIFICATION TO OUTCOMES

RELATIONSHIPS IN

WORKGROUPS

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Dedication

I dedicate this to my charming father, my patient mother, and my lovely wife.

A SOCIAL NETWORK PERSPECTIVE OF EMPLOYEE

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by

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Abstract

Integrating overqualification research with the social network perspective, and emphasizing social exchanges among organizational members, I propose to examine how social networks unpack the relationship between perceived overqualification and organizational outcomes. Specifically, I suggest that perceived overqualification (POQ) has implications for employees' centrality in a friendship network and that friendship network centrality (FRDNC) mediates the relationships between perceived overqualification and organizational outcomes (operationalized as organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers [i.e., OCBI] and turnover intentions). Further, adopting a contingency approach to overqualification, I propose to identify contextual variables that determine the strength of perceived overqualification-social network-outcomes relationships. Social comparison theory integrated with social exchange and person-group fit theories provide the conceptual foundations for my predictions. Multi-level modeling using data from 222 employees nested in 40 workgroups showed a negative relationship between POQ and FRDNC with FRDNC mediating the relationship between POQ and OCBI. Moreover, moderation analyses demonstrated a positive relationship between POQ and OCBI in workgroups with high task interdependence and a negative relationship between POQ and OCBI in workgroups with low task interdependence. Finally, the results showed a positive relationship between POQ and turnover intentions, with group overqualification and friendship network density weakening this relationship. Supported by the study results, I assert that viewing employees' overqualification in isolation may represent a partial (or even an erroneous) picture, and accounting for employees' social context of workgroup membership, workgroup attributes, and social networks is imperative in theorizing about and developing effective managerial practices revolving around overqualification.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

At any given time, employees may believe that they are working in a position that neither requires nor utilizes their qualifications such as education, experience, skills, and abilities. According to a research report in 2014 (Rose, 2017), about 25% of US college graduates were overqualified for their jobs. As the portion of overqualified employees in the US labor market is surging (Rose, 2017), more scholarly work is warranted to examine this important phenomenon.

Following the seminal work of Freeman (1976) on overeducation, several conceptual and empirical studies have examined how overqualification (i.e., the situation in which an employee's qualification such as education, experience, abilities, and skills exceed those required by a particular job: Johnson & Johnson, 2000a) affects organizational outcomes. Yet, there remain notable gaps whose systematic investigation can open new directions to overqualification research. One of the important research directions is the investigation of the role of social networks in overqualification-outcome relationships. In fact, our knowledge of how overqualification as a human capital (i.e., knowledge, skill, abilities: Becker, 1994) component interplays with social capital of an employee is limited (Feldman & Maynard, 2011; Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993; Russell, Ferris, Thompson, & Sikora, 2016). Social capital refers to the resources that individuals gain due to their social network relationships (Coleman, 1988). Although it has long been proposed that overqualification may influence employees' social capital, this contention has not been empirically assessed (except for a recent study by Erdogan, Karaeminogullari, Bauer, & Ellis, 2020). By moving beyond an individual, dyadic, or group-level examination of overqualification effects, the social network perspective may unravel how overqualification translates into specific organizational outcomes by investigating the possible effects of overqualification on the nature and strength of on-the-job social ties.

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This study investigates the possible role of a friendship network, as a source of social capital, in carrying the effects of overqualification on organizational outcomes. By doing so, in addition to investigating the process through which overqualification translates into organizational outcomes (as called by Harari, Manapragada, & Viswesvaran, 2017), I examine the role of social relations both as a proximal predictor of organizational outcomes and as a direct outcome of overqualification. This is important because, despite its longstanding status as a primary variable to predict organizational outcomes, social relations have received limited empirical research (Erdogan et al., 2020; Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008). Likewise, the identification of possible predictors of social networks has received little attention from network researchers (Erdogan et al., 2020). Thus, examining the possible implications of overqualification for social capital, and investigating the dynamics of social networks in linking overqualification to organizational outcomes represents theoretically and practically important research opportunities.

Specifically, I am interested in investigating the mediating effect that friendship network centrality (i.e., the number of friendship links that an individual has in a system of social relations: Carpenter, Li, & Jiang, 2012) has in linking perceived overqualification to such organizational outcomes as organizational citizenship behaviors toward coworkers (i.e., discretionary efforts to aid coworkers [OCBI]: Williams & Anderson, 1991) and turnover intentions (i.e., the disinclination to continue as an organizational member: Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). I focus on friendship network for three reasons. First, according to social comparison theory, only people who are similar or have convergent interests are useful comparison points (Ibarra & Andrews, 1993). As such, friendship ties provide appropriate referents for employees on which to base their social comparisons. Second, friendship ties are

characterized by more frequent interaction than other types of social links (Granovetter, 1973), providing greater repetition of information and increasing the opportunity for the transmission of social cues (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and thus more influential on organizational outcomes directed at coworkers (i.e., OCBI). Finally, due to the strength and concomitant pressures for conformity present in friendship links, information obtained from friends may be more credible or relevant, more easily or frequently available, and more persuasive or influential (Brass, 1992).

The simultaneous examination of turnover intentions and OCBI provides the ground for a fine-grained assessment of the role of social networks in the relationships between overqualification and organizational outcomes. This is because while the perceived overqualification-turnover relationship is established, to date, the empirical literature is relatively silent regarding how feelings of overqualification affect employees' behavior directed at colleagues (except for a recent study by Erdogan et al., 2020), and the few studies on outcomes such as proactive behaviors (Zhang, Law, & Lin, 2016), social acceptance, and altruism (Deng et al., 2018) suggest that any positive effect is conditional. As such, this study investigates the possible effects of overqualification via social networks, on both *personally* and *organizationally* directed outcomes (i.e., OCBI and turnover intentions, respectively). Thus, the main research questions of my interest are: what is the implication of perceived overqualification for an employee's friendship ties in on-the-job social networks? What is the role of social networks in explaining perceived overqualification-organizational outcomes relationships? Specifically, whether centrality in friendship network mediates the relationships between POQ and organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers (OCBI), and turnover intentions. Furthermore, this dissertation strives to understand whether and how group characteristics operationalized as group overqualification, and workgroup structural attributes operationalized as

group task interdependence influence the strength of the relationship between perceived overqualification and friendship network centrality; and how the network structural attribute of density can affect the strength of the relationships between friendship network centrality and organizational outcomes. This is important as employees are intrinsically embedded within the larger social context of workgroup and networks. In other words, since employees do not operate in isolation and their reactions are shaped within a broader social context, it is important to take into consideration the employees' social context of workgroup and on-the-job networks in examining the effect of perceived overqualification on organizational outcomes.

In this study, I develop a model proposing that the extent to which employees believe that they are overskilled and underutilized or are overqualified for their current job (i.e., perceived overqualification: POQ) will have an indirect relationship with their voluntarily helping behaviors directed at coworkers (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior directed at coworkers: OCBI), and their intentions to leave the job (i.e., turnover intentions), via centrality in a friendship network. Moreover, I suggest that the strengths of these relationships are contingent on group characteristics (i.e., group overall overqualifications), and structural attributes of workgroups and networks (i.e., group task interdependence and network density, respectively). Specifically, it is predicted that group overqualification (i.e., the overall standing of a group with respect to overqualification) and group task interdependence (i.e., the aggregated extent to which individuals' performance in a group depends on that of others: Wageman & Baker, 1997) will moderate the relationship between overqualification and friendship network centrality, and that network density (i.e., the extent to which an individual's social links are themselves connected to each other: Wasserman & Faust, 1994) will moderate the relationship between friendship network centrality and organizational outcomes. Social comparison (Festinger, 1954), social

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exchange (Blau, 1964), and person-group (P-G) fit (Kristof, 1996) theories provide the theoretical foundations for my predictions. Indeed, I present an integrative view of these theories in examining overqualification, by focusing on the social exchanges that take place among coworkers in the social context of work setting. First, drawing on social comparison theory, I examine how perceptions of overqualification by a focal employee are related to his/her centrality in friendship networks and how work context may determine the strength of this relationship. Specifically, I predict that because coworkers may view overqualified employees as different from themselves and as threats for their career status, they will be less attuned to build a friendship with them, thus reducing the degree of overqualified employees' centrality in friendship networks. Moreover, I contend that when a workgroup stands high on overall overqualification, overqualified employees and their characteristics are less pronounced compared to the situation in which the group is low in its overqualifications. As a result of this lower visibility, the negative feelings of coworkers toward overqualified employees will be lower; thereby, they will be less unwilling to make friendship ties with their overqualified peers. Thus, I propose that group overqualification buffers the negative relationship between perceived overqualification and friendship network centrality. Finally, I suggest that when group members depend highly on each other for fulfilling their individual tasks, or they have high task interdependence, there will exist more readily observable clues on which to base their comparisons, and thereby they will establish more negative feelings toward overqualified employees. Accordingly, I propose that high group task interdependence makes overqualified employees even less attractive prospects for coworkers to build a friendship with, strengthening the negative relationship between POQ and friendship network centrality.

Second, drawing upon social exchange theory, I propose that friendship network centrality will be positively related to organizational citizenship behaviors targeting coworkers (OCBI), and that network centrality mediates the relationship between POQ and OCBI. Employees who are central in friendship networks feel obligated to return the favor and trust of coworkers who have established friendship relationships with them, and thus tend to reciprocate their positive treatment by helping or providing them with support. Additionally, I suggest that friendship network density will intensify this relationship since more established personal relationships characterizing dense networks are likely to make central employees more dedicated to returning their coworkers' favorable treatment.

Third, building on P-G fit theory and emphasizing social exchanges among coworkers, I contend that friendship network centrality will be negatively associated with turnover intentions, and that network centrality mediates the positive relationship between POQ and turnover intentions. Because central employees in friendship networks find themselves better matched with the workgroup as a result of favorable friendship links that coworkers have developed with them, they will be less likely to quit their job. This is aligned with the overqualification literature that has regarded perceived overqualification as a type of person-environment mismatch that can lead to withdrawal behavior (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Maynard, Joseph, Maynard, 2006; Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013). I further propose that friendship network density moderates the relationship between friendship network centrality and turnover intentions such that when a friendship network proves to be dense, the negative relationship between network centrality and turnover intentions will be stronger. This is because dense networks depict more established direct personal relationships (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008), with the potential to increase the

feelings of the match by central employees, thus strengthening the negative effect of friendship network centrality on employees' intentions to leave.

I strive to make important contributions to the literature in multiple ways. First, I examine perceived overqualification from the perspective of social networks. By introducing social networks to overqualification research, this study advances the literature in going beyond individual, dyadic, or group-level investigations of overqualification effects and in examining its influence on network interplays. Particularly, by investigating the role of social exchanges among organizational members, this study unpacks the social network mechanism through which overqualification translates into organizational outcomes. Likewise, by integrating the overqualification and social network literatures, I respond to the call made by several scholars who have emphasized the importance of incorporating social networks into the studies of overqualification (e.g., Feldman & Maynard, 2011; Russell et al., 2016).

Second, I advance the literature by introducing group level variables to overqualification research as called for by several scholars (Deng et al., 2018; Erdogan, Bauer, Peiró, & Truxillo, 2011a; Hu et al., 2015; Sierra, 2011). In fact, by examining the moderating roles of group characteristics along with workgroup and network structural attributes in overqualification-friendship network centrality-outcome relationships, this study identifies the boundary conditions under which overqualification influences on-the-job social networks and further organizational outcomes (as called for by Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). In doing so, this study adds to the body of research adopting a contingency perspective to overqualification and thus, presents a fine-grained assessment of overqualification effects.

Finally, I contribute to the social network literature by identifying an important predictor of friendship network centrality. Indeed, while the extant literature has typically examined the

outcomes of social networks, the examination of antecedents of such networks has been relatively overlooked (Erdogan et al., 2020; Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008). This study underscores an important direction by investigating the mediating role of friendship network centrality in linking perceived overqualification to organizational outcomes. Accordingly, in addition to identifying the mechanism through which overqualification translates into organizational outcomes, it introduces an important predictor of friendship network centrality.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

First, an integrative review of the overqualification literature will be presented and then, I proceed with a brief review of the social network literature and its applications in organizational studies. Subsequently, the importance of adopting an integrative approach combining the overqualification and social network literatures is discussed.

2.1   Perceived Overqualification

Overqualification refers to the situation in which an employee's education, experience, abilities, and/or skills exceed those required by a certain job (Johnson & Johnson, 2000a). Following the seminal work of Freeman (1976) on overeducation, several conceptual and empirical studies have examined how overqualification affects organizational outcomes. Overqualification has been conceptualized as both objective and perceptual: perceived overqualification (POQ) is referred to as the extent to which employees *consider* themselves having more education, talent, experience, and/or skills than what is required by a certain job (Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Morrow, & Johnson, 2002); whereas, objective overqualification is the *actual* difference between individual qualifications and job requirements (Hu et al., 2015; Maltarich, Reilly, & Nyberg, 2011). Although perceived overqualification is moderately correlated with objective overqualification ($\rho = .40$: Harari et al., 2017), it is distinct from objective overqualification as researchers have identified differential nomological networks for them (Erdogan et al., 2011b). Notably, the bulk of extant organizational behavior literature is comprised of *perceived* overqualification (Liu & Wang, 2012) perhaps because POQ is more appropriate for investigating employees' psychological responses to overqualification (Maltarich et al., 2011; Maynard et al., 2006), making it a more proximal determinant of relevant outcomes compared to objective overqualification (Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013). Additionally, as

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suggested by Malatrich and colleagues, even jobs with the same titles vary so much in their content that dimensions of objective overqualification cannot adequately capture such differences, thereby making it less attractive for scholarly works (Maltarich et al., 2011). As such, in accordance with the dominant overqualification literature, I focus on perceived overqualification rather than objective overqualification in this study. Below, the primary theoretical frameworks used in previous research to explain the possible effects of overqualification on organizational outcomes are discussed.

2.1.1 Theoretical Frameworks

Although several theoretical frameworks have been applied to examine overqualification and explain its correlates, four primary frameworks dominate the overqualification literature: human capital and person-job fit theory (e.g., Liu, Luksyte, Zhou, Shi, & Wang, 2015), relative deprivation theory (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009), equity theory (e.g., Liu & Wang, 2012), and theories of differential overqualification and career mobility (e.g., Lobene, Meade, & Pond, 2015).

2.1.1.1 Human capital and person-job fit theory

Human capital speaks to the notion that employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities (i.e., KSAs) determine their potency and competence to handle work responsibilities (Becker, 1994). In order for employees to remain motivated in their jobs, there should exist an adequate degree of alignment between employees' human capital and the challenges posed by the job. In other words, if employees believe that their KSAs are underutilized in their current positions, they will be less satisfied and more willing to leave their job (Lobene et al., 2015). Likewise, person-job fit (P-J fit, also called match/mismatch) theory is primarily concerned with the compatibility between individuals' abilities and task requirements. As a derivative of person-environment fit

theory, person-job fit theory suggests that favorable psychological responses result when there is a match between employees' (a) KSAs and job requirements (i.e., demands-abilities fit) and (b) needs or preferences and their jobs (i.e., needs-supplies fit: Edwards, 1991). Poor demands-abilities fit occurs as a result of overqualification and can lead to negative attitudinal outcomes such as job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions (Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013; Maynard et al., 2006). It is noteworthy that, due to its primary focus on employees' psychological responses, P-J fit theory has been mostly applied to explain attitudinal outcomes of overqualification (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, negative attitude: Fine, 2007; Fine & Nevo, 2008; Khan & Morrow, 1991). Moreover, in social psychology research, P-J fit theory has served as the primary theory to explain overqualification outcomes on health issues (e.g., psychological well-being, distress, depression: Chen, Smith, & Mustard, 2010; Johnson & Johnson 1996, 1997, 1999; Johnson et al., 2002).

2.1.1.2 Relative deprivation theory

Relative deprivation theory (Crosby, 1976; 1984) postulates that in contexts where information about referents are available, individuals tend to consider comparisons with their referents in reacting to their own circumstances. Based on relative deprivation theory, employees in work setting do not respond to their circumstances in isolation; instead, their reactions are affected by the social comparisons that they make where what they have "is pitted against what they believe they should have had" (Vidyarthi, Erdogan, Anand, Liden, & Chaudhry, 2014, p. 469). When overqualified employees compare their qualifications and status with those required by the job and/or those held by their coworkers, they may experience resentment and frustration because they feel deprived of the job that they believe they should have held, that in turn may lead to negative outcomes. Furthermore, individuals gain knowledge and expertise with the

hopes of utilizing them in their prospective career life. Overqualified employees who for example spent some time in college with the hope of finding a future job that utilizes their knowledge and expertise may feel deprived and resentful when they do not hold such a position and when they see that their expectations have not been met. These dysfunctional feelings may, in turn, lead to negative attitudinal and behavioral outcomes such as lower job satisfaction, higher turnover, and poor job performance (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Erdogan, Tomás, Valls, & Gracia, 2018; Johnson & Johnson, 2000a, 2000b; Maynard, Brondolo, Connelly, & Sauer, 2015; Maynard et al., 2006).

2.1.1.3 Equity theory

Equity theory suggests that employees perceive that that they have been a victim of organizational injustice when they believe that there exists a discrepancy between the ratio of their outputs (e.g., promotion) to inputs (e.g., effort) and that of others (Adams, 1965). Equity theory further suggests that employees in such a situation are motivated to take action to restore the imbalance. Since overqualified employees are overskilled and underutilized with regards to their education and experience, they tend to believe that the output they receive from the organization is not proportionate to the input that they bring to the job. Accordingly, these employees may perceive that they are treated unfairly and, consequently, hold negative job attitudes (Thompson, 2009) and may even engage in counterproductive work behavior in an attempt to restore the imbalance (Liu & Wang, 2012; Liu et al., 2015).

2.1.1.4 Theories of differential overqualification and career mobility

The theory of differential overqualification (Frank, 1978) primarily concerns gender differences and marital status in explaining why employees hold jobs for which they are overqualified. For instance, it is suggested that married women may be more willing to work in

not such challenging positions in order to save their resources for home-making responsibilities (Lobene et al., 2015). In other words, theory of differential overqualification states that married women are more likely to be overqualified because they are tied leavers or tied stayers. It is used to explain why women may have lower job status and are paid less than men. Similarly, the career mobility perspective contends that in the initial stages of career life, individuals are expected to possess positions that underutilize their abilities and skills (Wald, 2005; Yang, Guan, Lai, She, & Lockwood, 2015). In other words, career mobility theory suggests that employees first arrive at a certain carrier stage beyond which they expect an appropriate utilization of their abilities. Thus, it is less likely for those employees who are in their initial stages of career life to unfavorably react to perceived overqualification as long as there exist promotion opportunities for them (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009).

In addition to the previously discussed theories, multiple other frameworks have been applied to explain the effects of overqualification on individual and organizational outcomes. These theories range from image theory and the theory of work adjustment (e.g., Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013), to social influence, social exchange theories and the norm of reciprocity (e.g., Deng et al., 2018), self-determination and affective events theory (e.g., Lobene & Meade, 2010), job design theory (e.g., Wu, Luksyte, & Parker, 2015), social cognition theory of self-regulation (e.g., Zhang et al., 2016), career construction theory (e.g., Yang et al., 2015), and the theory of planned behavior (e.g., Guerrero & Hatala, 2015). Yet, according to Liu et al. (2015), the overqualification literature "lacks an integrated conceptual framework that explains the unique psychological nature of perceived overqualification" (p. 251). Introducing social context of the workplace and social network theory to overqualification research may open new directions to facilitate the examination of overqualification dynamics and direct researchers

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toward an integrated framework by emphasizing the role of social links in resource (e.g., information, knowledge, advice, social support) exchanges among organizational actors. In other words, such an integration may result when overqualification is investigated in the social context of a workplace setting with the emphasis on the social exchanges that have taken place among social network actors. In fact, such a social exchange perspective shapes the common factor among the aforementioned primary theories applied in the overqualification research, in the sense that it can capture both the social comparison processes (triggering feelings of relative deprivation, inequity, and individual differences), and the feelings of fit/misfit with the environment. Similarly, the underlying premise of social network theory is that individuals and their dyadic links are not isolated and that resources are exchanged through ties that are themselves embedded in a broader social community (Burt, 1992; Granovetter, 1973; 1985). In light of this, social network perspective incorporating relevant overqualification theories (such as relative deprivation, equity, or person-job fit) can provide a more comprehensive explanation of POQ-outcomes relationships by emphasizing the potential effects of overqualification on intra-organizational ties. For instance, how overqualification affects the dynamics of employees' resource exchanges (e.g., knowledge) via information ties may explain such outcomes as performance and creativity (Bowler & Brass, 2006; Zhou, Shin, Brass, Choi, & Zhang, 2009).

In summary, the primary theories applied to explain overqualification and its outcomes share a common attribute which is aligned with the foundational premise of the social network perspective: the emphasis on social exchanges beyond mere transactional exchanges that take place among organizational members. In light of this, introducing the social network perspective to overqualification research and focusing on the social exchanges taking place among network

players can provide a fine-grained assessment, while also offering a more comprehensive and realistic view of overqualification and its outcomes.

2.1.2 Antecedents and Consequences of Overqualification

Compared to the research on outcomes and/or moderators of overqualification, the research examining possible predictors of overqualification has been limited. This is probably because overqualification pertains mainly to knowledge, education, and experience which stem from individual differences that cannot be meaningfully manipulated. Accordingly, overqualification has been typically treated as a predictor of organizational outcomes although a number of studies have attempted to identify its antecedents. Table 2.1 represents a list of various overqualification predictors and outcomes (both attitudinal and behavioral) along with some outstanding scholarly works on each. Note that this list does not aim to be comprehensive, rather it highlights some of the most established relationships in the literature. Below, I discuss some relevant and critical studies on the list.

Insert Table 2.1 about here

2.1.2.1 Overqualification antecedents

Individual differences and personal characteristics such as mental ability and personality have been suggested as antecedents of overqualification. Specifically, Fine (2007) showed that general mental ability and openness to experience are positively related to perceived overqualification. Moreover, it has been shown that narcissism and career adaptability predict perceived overqualification (Lobene et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2015). Gender has also been suggested as a predictor of overqualification (Frank, 1978). In fact, Luksyte and Spitzmueller

(2011) asserted that the notion that married women are more exposed to overqualification than married men is as applicable today as it was when Frank's differential theory of overqualification was developed. Furthermore, Guerrero and Hatala (2015) suggested that through a complex mechanism, job search behavior predicts perceived overqualification. Maynard and Parfyonova (2013) also showed that overqualification is related to job search behavior, although suggesting that perceived overqualification *predicts* job search behavior.

In addition to individual differences and external economic factors (e.g., recession: Mckee-Ryan & Harvey, 2011), job characteristics have been suggested to predict overqualification. Specifically, Lobene et al. (2015) showed that task repetitiveness is positively associated with overqualification, while pay is negatively related to it. Additionally, Alfes and colleagues suggested that leader-member exchange (LMX) negatively predicts perceived overqualification (Alfes, Shantz, & Baalen, 2016), whereas Erdogan et al. (2011a) had contended that leader-member exchange might be *affected* by member's overqualification.

2.1.2.2 Overqualification consequences

Probably, the bulk of overqualification research has dealt with overqualification outcomes. For clarity, I differentiate between psychological/attitudinal outcomes and behavioral outcomes of overqualification and categorize them accordingly. Psychological/attitudinal outcomes include health and well-being, feelings of relative deprivation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions, whereas job performance, proactive behavior, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), job search behavior, withdrawal and counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) are among the behavioral outcomes of overqualification. As discussed before, in investigating the possible effects of overqualification, the social psychology literature has been mainly concerned with the overqualified employees'

psychological responses, and almost unanimously suggested dysfunctional outcomes for overqualification. For instance, Johnson and Johnson (1996) showed that perceived overqualification is positively related to distress and negatively related to psychological well-being. Likewise, Chen et al. (2010) demonstrated that overqualification negatively affects mental health through dissatisfaction and negative perceptions of the employment situation.

In regards to attitudinal outcomes of overqualification, the literature has documented consistent findings on the overqualification relationship with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Johnson et al., 2002; Khan & Morrow, 1991; Kulkarni, Lengnick-Hall, & Martinez, 2015; Lobene et al., 2015; Maynard et al., 2006). Job satisfaction is perhaps the most studied outcome of overqualification. Researchers have consistently shown that overqualification is negatively related to job satisfaction. For instance, Erdogan and Bauer (2009) suggested and showed that when employees' status does not meet their expectations, they experience feelings of relative deprivation making them less satisfied with their jobs. Organizational commitment has also yielded a consistent relationship with overqualification (Johnson et al., 2002; Maynard et al., 2006). In fact, a recent meta-analytic review has demonstrated that POQ is negatively associated with both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Harari et al., 2017). Furthermore, previous research has shown that overqualification is positively associated with turnover intentions (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Meynard et al., 2006). Meta-analytic findings have also confirmed this positive relationship (Harari et al., 2017). Finally, Erdogan et al. (2018) demonstrated a positive relationship between perceived overqualification and the feelings of relative deprivation.

With respect to overqualification behavioral outcomes, it has been shown that perceived overqualification positively and indirectly affects CWBs (Fine & Edward, 2017; Liu et al., 2015;

Luksyte, Spitzmueller, & Maynard, 2011), OCBs (Hu et al., 2015), interpersonal altruism (Deng et al., 2018), and proactive behavior (Zhang et al., 2016). Moreover, a positive relationship between POQ and employees' job search behavior and an interactive effect of POQ on employees' withdrawal behavior have been suggested (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Wald, 2005). Finally, Deng et al. (2018) demonstrated that POQ positively affects in-role job performance through a mediated-moderation path. Consistent findings were uncovered by Hu et al. (2015). Erdogan and Bauer (2009) also demonstrated a positive relationship between POQ and *objective* task performance. However, meta-analytic findings suggested that while associated with CWBs and OCBs, POQ is not related to either task, creative, or innovative dimension of performance (Harari et al., 2017).

2.1.2.3 Mechanisms and boundary conditions

Following the notion that overqualification outcomes vary widely across individuals (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Erdogan et al., 2011b), researchers have attempted to identify the boundary conditions under which overqualification translates into organizational outcomes. For instance, the literature has documented some evidence for the moderating roles of empowerment (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009), interpersonal influence (Deng et al., 2018), peer overqualification (Hu et al., 2015), justice sensitivity (Liu et al., 2015), competence and growth work value (Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013), and autonomy and culture (Wu et al., 2015; Wu, Tian, Luksyte, & Spitzmueller, 2017) in predicting overqualification outcomes. Additionally, meta-analytic findings have demonstrated the moderating role of power distance in overqualification-organizational outcome relationships (Harari et al., 2017). Furthermore, with the advancement of the overqualification literature, scholars have begun to examine the possible processes through which overqualification influences organizational outcomes. Specifically, research has shown

that social acceptance mediates the relationship between overqualification and in-role job performance, and between overqualification and OCB (Deng et al., 2018), that task significance and person-group fit mediate the overqualification-performance and overqualification-OCB relationships (Hu et al., 2015), that organization-based self-esteem and anger toward employment mediate overqualification-CWB relationship (Liu et al., 2015), that job satisfaction and affective commitment mediate overqualification-employee job search behavior relationship (Maynard & Parfyonova, 2013), and that role-breadth self-efficacy mediates the overqualification-proactive behavior relationship. Additionally, Erdogan et al. (2020) showed that the joint effects of perceived overqualification (POQ) and person-organization (P-O) fit impact employees' extra-role behavior of voice and that extra-role behavior of interpersonal citizenship (OCBI) mediates the conditional indirect effect of POQ on advice network centrality. Yet, I contend that the social network perspective can identify differential while more comprehensive mechanisms through which overqualification affects organizational outcomes by highlighting the dynamics of social exchanges taking place among organizational members. Furthermore, examining the contextual variables of workgroup characteristics and structure of social networks may inform researchers of how overqualification relationships are affected by the work context. Since the social network perspective is salient to this study, I briefly discuss social network theory and its applications in organizational studies before proceeding to the theory and hypotheses development section.

2.2 Social Networks

Generally, two main streams of social network literature exist: one speaks to the philosophy of social relations and to how social network theoretical frameworks have developed, and the other pertains to the applications of social networks in various disciplines. In fulfilling

the purpose of this study, I first provide a brief review of seminal works in developing social network theory and then describe some of the applications of the social network perspective in organizational studies.

2.2.1 Social Network Theory

In an attempt to make a balance between the 'undersocialized' explanation of economic action (i.e., that individual actors have perfect knowledge to make rational decisions and that their behavior is controlled by the competitive market) provided by the classical/neoclassical economic view and the 'oversocialized' explanation (i.e., that individual actors make such decisions that conform to social relations) suggested by the revisionists/sociological view, Granovetter (1985) introduced the concept of 'social embeddedness' which postulated that institutions and human behaviors are constrained by ongoing social relations. In an analogy to the 'substantivist' school of anthropology, he stressed on the role of concrete personal relations and their structures in generating trust and discouraging malfeasance. Previously, Granovetter had suggested that the overlap between two individuals' friendship networks varies directly with the strength of their dyadic ties and had explored the impact of this principle on the diffusion of influence and information, mobility opportunity, and community organization (Granovetter, 1973). Following the seminal works of Granovetter, Coleman (1988) introduced the concept of 'social capital' by incorporating social structure into the rational action paradigm. He identified three forms of social capital: obligations and expectations, information channels, and social norms, and further described the role of network closure in facilitating the first and third forms. Later, Burt (1992) introduced the concept of 'structural holes' and the extent to which a player's network is rich in them (referred to as 'structural autonomy'). Emphasizing the entrepreneurial role of network actors, he argued that "players with networks providing high structural autonomy

enjoy higher rates of return on their investments because they know about, have a hand in, and exercise control over, more rewarding opportunities" (p.83). Burt further suggested that links between individuals are the means by which they exchange resources such as information, advice, social support, or friendship.

Social network analysis can be applied to both the macro and micro levels of organizational studies. The objective of social network analysis is to understand the structure and contents of the interactions that take place within or between social units (Nelson, 1989). The content of social interactions among network players may vary in formality, frequency, and the nature of exchanged resources. Specifically, social interactions can be formal or informal, frequent or infrequent, affect-laden (also called 'tie-type') or purely utilitarian (also called 'transactional content'). Concerning social interaction patterns, several attributes have been suggested as critical structural properties of social networks among which, network density and network centrality are of particular interest to this study. According to Wasserman and Faust (1994), when individuals' social contacts are themselves connected to each other, they have dense social circles, whereas when individuals' social links have few connections among themselves, they have sparse social circles (cf. Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006). Dense social networks also indicate high levels of resource exchange among individuals. Network centrality, on the other hand, refers to the extent that a focal player is engaged with resource exchanges. In particular, degree centrality which can be divided into in-degree and out-degree centrality, is defined as the total number of direct links an individual has with other nodes (Carpenter et al., 2012). Note that in-degree centrality, which refers to the total number of direct linkages from other actors to a focal player, is the focus of this study. In-degree centrality is appropriate for the

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purpose of this study, as I strive to understand how overqualification affects the extent to which *others* are willing to build friendship ties with a particular employee.

2.2.2 Social Network Application

In organizations, network ties are connections between members. Organizational studies using network analysis have suggested that these connections can have a significant influence on information transfer (e.g., Coleman, 1990; Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993), organizational learning (e.g., Fisher & White, 2000), and the execution of organizational activities (e.g., Shah, 2000). In fact, organizational activities may be fulfilled more efficiently when employees working within a company know each other (Bolino, Turnley, & Bloodgood, 2002). In light of this, investigating the effects of social network on organizational processes and outcomes is critical.

Network research at the micro level of organizational studies has followed three primary streams: social capital, social embeddedness, and group processes (Carpenter et al., 2012). While social capital reflects the beneficial consequences of a social network to its actors (e.g., increased influence: Brass & Burkhardt, 1993; effective job career development: Burt, 1997; enhanced performance: Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 2001), embeddedness provides the central mechanism through which networks provide actors with the resources of social capital. Social capital integrates with social embeddedness to explain group processes through which organizational outcomes occur. In explaining organizational outcomes, network theory has been incorporated with various organizational theories such as social exchange (e.g., Bowler & Brass, 2006; Venkataramani, Green, & Schleicher 2010), resource dependence (e.g., Brass, Butterfield, & Skaggs, 1998), and similarity-attraction theory of friendship development (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008).

Conceptual and empirical research has suggested that social capital has implications for unethical behavior (Brass et al., 1998), conflict in organizations (Nelson, 1989), value creation (Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998), creativity (Zhou et al., 2009), and the giving and receiving of OCB (Bowler & Brass, 2006), to mention some. Additionally, leadership research has shown that transformational leadership is positively related to leaders' and their direct subordinates' advice and influence network centrality (Bono & Anderson, 2005), that transformational leadership indirectly affects climate strength via communication network density (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008), and that leader-leader exchange and leader centrality have indirect implications for job satisfaction and turnover intentions through perceived leader status and LMX (Venkataramani et al., 2010). Finally, Morrison (2002) demonstrated the implications of social network ties during the organizational socialization process of a newcomer. The above examples showcase how broadly social network analysis could be applied to organizational research. However, the application of network analysis has been overlooked in empirical overqualification research (Feldman & Maynard, 2011). I believe that introducing social networks to overqualification research can open new directions for future studies examining the effects of overqualification on employees' social capital and on further organizational outcomes, by highlighting the social exchanges (e.g., knowledge, friendship) taking place among employees and the implications that these exchanges have for their relational resources (e.g., social support).

Chapter 3: Theory and Hypotheses

3.1 An Integrative Approach

Overqualification research has demonstrated the double-edged sword nature of overqualification for both employees and organizations, since it provides evidence supporting both constructive (e.g., higher performance, more citizenship behaviors) and destructive (e.g., lower job satisfaction, more counterproductive work behaviors) outcomes of overqualification (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Erdogan et al., 2011a; Maynard, Taylor, & Hakel, 2009). In light of this, there should exist conditions that contextualize the effects of overqualification on different and sometimes contradictory outcomes (e.g., OCBs and CWBs). This may be why the majority of overqualification studies either have not proposed a direct relationship between overqualification and behavioral outcomes or have not found support for the proposed direct relationships (e.g., Deng et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016). Indeed, as highlighted by overqualification scholars (Erdogan et al., 2011a; 2011b; Fine & Nevo, 2011; Liu et al., 2015; Maynard & Feldman, 2011; Thompson, Shea, Sikora, Perrewé, & Ferris, 2013; Zhang et al., 2016), our knowledge of how employees' different views of their overqualification lead to possible outcomes is limited. I contend that the social context of the workplace in which employees are embedded can shed light on our understanding of the boundary conditions under which overqualification translates into specific organizational outcomes. In particular, I suggest that the examination of group characteristics (e.g., group overall overqualification), and structural attributes of workgroups and social networks (e.g., group task interdependence and network density) is critical as these properties can affect the dynamics of social exchanges and consequently, have implications for overqualification relationships (Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001). Indeed, several researchers have noted that social

context of the workplace has been mainly overlooked in the empirical overqualification research and emphasized the need for future studies investigating the contingency effects of group-level variables (e.g., Deng et al., 2018; Erdogan et al., 2011b; Sierra, 2011).

In an attempt to advance overqualification theory by moving beyond an isolated dyadic or a group-level examination of overqualification effects, I investigate the dynamics of social links among organizational players in the job context. In doing so, I respond to Carpenter and colleagues (2012) who have called for future studies seeking to advance the state of network research in organizational contexts, especially social capital research at the interpersonal level. Furthermore, by investigating the interplay between overqualified employees' human and social capital, this study advances our knowledge with regards to the possible implications of overqualification for social networks (Erdogan et al., 2020; Russell et al., 2016). Doing so, I also respond to Feldman and Maynard's (2011) call for future research examining the potential effects of overqualification on employees' social capital.

The primary goal of this study is to understand the role that social interactions play in explaining the relationships between overqualification and organizational outcomes. Particularly, I propose to examine the role of friendship network centrality in the relationships between POQ and organizational citizenship behavior directed at coworkers (OCBI), and between POQ and turnover intentions (TOI). Note that centrality is the appropriate network measure for the purpose of this study as it reflects how a focal employee's overqualification may affect the way others make relational connections with him/her. A simultaneous examination of turnover intentions and OCBI provides the ground for a fine-grained assessment of the role of social networks in overqualification-outcome relationships as the overqualification-turnover intentions relationship has been established in the literature, while the overqualification-OCBI relationship has yielded

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inconsistent findings. In fact, there exists consistent evidence suggesting that perceived overqualification increases the likelihood of turnover intentions (Harari et al., 2017), while inconsistent findings exist with respect to the relationship between overqualification and organizational citizenship behaviors, with some studies showing positive relationships (e.g., Hu et al., 2015) and others providing evidence for a negative relationship (e.g., Deng et al., 2018). Findings are even less consistent on the organizational citizenship behaviors *directed at coworkers*, although the investigation of interpersonal citizenship behaviors has received relatively little attention in overqualification research (Deng et al., 2018). Indeed, previous research suggests that perceived overqualification could result in employees demonstrating higher or lower levels of altruistic behavior toward coworkers, depending on conditional factors (Erdogan et al., 2020). On the other hand, the investigation of the relationship between friendship network centrality and OCBI has been largely ignored in OCB research (Bowler & Brass, 2006) even though it seems intuitive that friends perform altruistic behavior for each other. Likewise, the social network processes through which perceived overqualification may affect citizenship behaviors have not yet been investigated (Feldman & Maynard, 2011; Maynard et al., 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2009). Therefore, examining the perceived overqualification-friendship network centrality-OCBI relationships can advance both organizational citizenship behaviors and overqualification research by underscoring the dynamics of reciprocation between individuals, and by identifying the social process through which POQ translates into organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers.

Furthermore, because it is expected that the relationships between POQ and organizational outcomes will be contingent on the context in which such relationships occur (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Erdogan et al., 2011a), I propose to examine the role of group characteristics and network

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structural attributes in contextualizing the POQ-outcomes relationships. Specifically, the moderating effects of group overqualification and group task interdependence on the perceived overqualification-friendship network centrality relationship, and the moderating role of network density in the friendship network centrality-organizational outcomes relationship will be investigated. These group characteristics and network attributes are critical because they can determine the strength and content of social ties among organizational actors and accordingly, may have implications for identifying the boundary conditions under which certain network relationships occur (Gnyawali & Madhavan, 2001; Gully, Devine, & Whitney, 1995; Sierra, 2011). Specifically, network density can shed light on how the extent of resource exchanges in a particular social network (Balkundi & Kilduff, 2006) influences the strength of network centrality impact on organizational outcomes. In other words, while friendship network centrality determines how the number of friendship ties that a focal employee has affects organizational outcomes, friendship network density contextualizes this effect by reflecting the extent to which network actors have direct personal relationships (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008) among each other and thereby, when coupled with network centrality, gives a fine-grained picture of the social dynamics of a network and its implications for organizational outcomes.

3.2 Perceived Overqualification and Centrality in a Friendship Network

Drawing upon social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954), I contend that employees' overqualification has implications for their friendship network centrality (FRDNC). Social comparison theory postulates that individuals regularly scan their environment seeking information to detect differences and similarities among multiple referents in order to form comparative judgments in reacting to their own circumstances (Festinger, 1954). Individuals' subjective assessments regarding their own standing relative to others, in turn, influence their

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attitudes, aspirations, and behaviors (Wood, 1989). Inherent in such social comparisons is the process of social categorization. The process of social categorization perceptually segments the social world into ingroups and outgroups, that are cognitively represented as prototypes (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). "These prototypes are context specific, multidimensional fuzzy sets of attributes that define and prescribe attitudes, feelings, and behaviors that characterize one group and distinguish it from other groups" (Hogg, 2001, p. 187). Accordingly, employees who are overskilled and underutilized have the potential to be viewed as threats by their coworkers and therefore, tend to be less attractive for the coworkers to build a friendship with as they are categorized as outgroups. In such conditions, coworkers are more likely to disparage overqualified employees and less likely to desire their friendship (Salovey & Rodin, 1984; Silver & Sabini, 1978). Therefore, an unfavorable tendency by coworkers toward building a friendship with overqualified employees results, as coworkers may view overqualified employees as threats, thereby decreasing overqualified employees' centrality in the friendship network.

Another explanation can be provided by the similarity-attraction theory of social relations (Heider, 1958; Wicklund & Frey, 1981; Zajonc, 1960). The similarity-attraction theory of friendship development suggests that individuals build friendship ties with whom they are similar. One factor that individuals consider to identify similarity or dissimilarity pertains to knowledge and skills (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008). Because coworkers may find themselves different from overqualified employees with respect to KSAs and status, they will be less attracted to and consequently less likely to build friendship ties with them, decreasing overqualified employees' centrality in the friendship network.

Hypothesis 1: *Perceived overqualification (POQ) is negatively related to an employee's centrality in the friendship network (FRDNC).*

3.3 The Mediating Role of Centrality in a Friendship Network

Emphasizing the social exchanges that take place among employees, I further propose that a focal employee's centrality in a friendship network mediates the relationships between perceived overqualification and organizational citizenship behavior directed at coworkers (OCBI), and turnover intentions. Social exchange and person-group fit theories provide the conceptual foundations for explaining these relationships as they both highlight the social contexts in which individuals are embedded. In fact, while social exchange theory speaks directly to the notion of *social relations* among individuals, person-group fit theory concerns the match between an individual and the group of people in the social context in which he/she is embedded. Specific to my analysis is the degree of fit with the workgroup that an employee perceives as a result of the *social relations* that he/she has established in the social context of the work setting. In light of this, my conceptual framework captures the overlap between the aforementioned theories. Likewise, social comparison theory which was applied to explain the relationship between perceived overqualification and friendship network centrality highlights the social exchanges that take place among individuals in their social context. Specifically, social comparison theory concerns the judgments that individuals make of their available referents in the social context, based on the information that they gain through *social relations* that they developed with the referents. Accordingly, my focus on social exchanges among employees captures the overlap among social comparison, social exchange, and person-group fit theories and as such, provides a cohesive explanation of the proposed relationships.

OCBI refers to the employees' discretionary efforts to aid other individuals in the workplace (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Helping peers with heavy workloads or mentoring new colleagues are examples of OCBI directed at coworkers. Building on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), I contend that employees with a high degree of friendship network centrality will be more engaged in organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers in an attempt to restore the favor and trust of coworkers who have built friendship ties with them. I focus my theorizing on organizational citizenship behaviors that benefit specific individuals in the organization (i.e., OCBI) as opposed to OCBs that benefit the organization in general (OCBO) for two reasons. First, OCBI is driven more by affect, while OCBO is driven more by cognition (Lee & Allen, 2002). This has important implications for the study of organizational citizenship behaviors through a friendship network lens because OCBI, like friendship relationships, is more likely to be an expression of employees' affect at work (Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015), and thereby more appropriate for the purpose of this study. Second, there should exist an appropriate match between the referents who have social ties with a focal employee and the referents whose treatment is reciprocated by that employee. Because these referents are individuals who form an employee's social circle (i.e., determine the employees' level of centrality in friendship network), examining OCBI is more appropriate.

It is likely that employees who are central in friendship networks feel obligated to return the favor and trust of coworkers who have established friendship links with them, and thus reciprocate colleagues' positive treatment by helping or supporting them (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Accordingly, I propose that friendship network centrality mediates the relationship between employees' perceived overqualification and their organizational citizenship

behaviors directed at coworkers (also called as interpersonal citizenship behavior). My predictions are also consistent with those of numerous studies which have demonstrated the implications of social networks for organizational outcomes (e.g., Bowler & Brass, 2006; Nelson, 1989; Tsai & Ghoshal, 1998; Venkataramani, Green, & Schleicher, 2010; Zhou et al., 2009).

> **Hypothesis 2:** *Perceived overqualification (POQ) is negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers (OCBI).*
>
> **Hypothesis 3:** *Friendship network centrality (FRDNC) mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification (POQ) and organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers (OCBI).*

Turnover intentions (TOI) connotes employees' disinclination to continue as organizational members (Cammann et al., 1983). Person-group fit theory (P-G fit: Kristof, 1996) provides an explanation for the relationship between friendship network centrality and turnover intentions. Based on fit theories, employees who believe that they have an adequate fit with their work environment will be less likely to quit their job (Schneider, 1987). One important factor in assessing the fit with the environment is whether an individual is compatible with the group of people that he/she is working with (Kristof☐Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). As a result of favorable social interactions (i.e., friendship ties), employees with high centrality in friendship networks will be more likely to perceive an adequate fit with the group of people they are working with. Given the negative relationship between person-group fit and intentions to quit (Kristof☐Brown et al., 2005), these employees will be less attuned to experience turnover intentions. Thus, I propose that the effect of perceived overqualification on turnover intentions (Maynard et al., 2006) will be carried via the employee's centrality in the friendship network.

Hypothesis 4: *Perceived overqualification (POQ) is positively related to turnover*

intentions (TOI).

Hypothesis 5: *Friendship network centrality (FRDNC) mediates the relationship between*

perceived overqualification (POQ) and turnover intentions (TOI).

3.4 The Moderating Roles of Group Overqualification and Group Task Interdependence

At the same time, I expect that the context in which these relationships occur determines

their strength. Specifically, I expect that group overqualification (GOQ) or the overall standing

of the group with respect to overqualification buffers the effect of perceived overqualification on

friendship network centrality such that when group overqualification is high, the POQ-FRDNC

relationship will be less negative. This is because, in a workgroup, there may exist several

referents for employees to base their social comparisons on, with some referents carrying more

influence. The visibility of these referents and their characteristics is an essential factor that

determines their influence on others' social comparisons (Wood, 1989). When the workgroup as

a whole is high in overqualification status, individuals who are overskilled and underutilized are

less likely to stand out concerning overqualification, making them less observable referents for

coworkers. Consequently, coworkers will be less likely to view their overqualified peers as

threats and members of outgroup, and thereby, less unwilling to forge friendship ties with them.

Conversely, when the group as a whole is low in overqualification, overqualified employees will

be conspicuous and thus capture the attention of coworkers' social comparison processes.

Consequently, coworkers will be less attuned to develop friendship ties with more conspicuous

overqualified employees whom they view as threats for their career status. Accordingly, I

propose that the negative relationship between perceived overqualification and friendship

network centrality is contingent on the extent to which the workgroup, as a whole, is overqualified.

Hypothesis 6: *Group overqualification (GOQ) weakens the negative relationship between POQ and FRDNC.*

Additionally, an important structural attribute of a group that can contextualize the POQ-FRDNC relationship is the workgroup task interdependence (GTINT). At an individual level, task interdependence refers to "the degree to which an individual's task performance depends upon the efforts or skills of others" (Wageman & Baker, 1997, p. 141). Some tasks such as performing surgery or a military operation require a high level of interactions among group members, while other tasks such as project-line manufacturing or instructing a college course are primarily individualistic tasks that do not require group interactions (Gully et al., 1995). In the team context, the social psychology literature has shown that such outcomes as communication, cooperation, coordination, helping, and information-sharing are more common under interdependent tasks than under individualistic ones (Johnson, 1973; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Shea & Guzzo, 1989; Wageman & Baker, 1997). Accordingly, I contend that in a workgroup design, the coexistence of various tasks with differential levels of interdependence forms a specific structural pattern that can interact with predictors to determine the degree of an employee's network centrality (Gully et al., 1995; Pearce & Gregersen, 1991; Saavedra, Earley, & Van Dyne, 1993). Specifically, I propose that the overall group task interdependence will interact with employees' perceived overqualification to predict their centrality in friendship networks such that the negative relationship between perceived overqualification and friendship network centrality will be stronger when group task interdependence is high. This is because when the structural attributes of a workgroup necessitate high levels of task interdependence

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among group members, it is likely that more frequent and closer communication, helping, and information flow takes place among them. Tighter communication and greater information-sharing in turn, make overqualified employees serve as more accessible referents on which coworkers can base their social comparisons. As a result, coworkers will be more exposed to the potentially negative feelings of threat, and less inclined to make friendship ties with overqualified employees, thus strengthening the negative relationship between perceived overqualification and friendship network centrality. Conversely, when group task interdependence is low, there will exist less observable clues with respect to the capabilities and status of overqualified employees and thereby less negative feelings exhibited by coworkers. Consequently, coworkers will be less unwilling to make friendship ties with overqualified employees, mitigating the negative effect of perceived overqualification on friendship network centrality.

Hypothesis 7: *Group task interdependence (GTINT) strengthens the negative relationship between POQ and FRDNC.*

It is noteworthy that I do not expect that group task interdependence or group overqualification moderates the relationships between centrality in friendship network and organizational outcomes. This is because the characteristics of workgroups come in to play before the introduction of social networks and in an attempt to determine the properties of such networks. Indeed, after the introduction of social networks to the framework, group attributes become irrelevant while network structural attributes find meaning. The reason is that interacting variables need to match the realities to which they refer. That is why I hypothesize the moderating effect of group overqualification and group task interdependence on the POQ-

FRDNC path (i.e., hypotheses 6 & 7), and the moderating effect of network centrality on the FRDNC-outcome paths (i.e., hypotheses 8 & 9).

3.5   The Moderating Role of Network Density

Finally, I propose that network density moderates the relationships between friendship network centrality and organizational outcomes. Density is a structural variable at the group level that identifies social proximity with respect to the number, length, and strength of links connecting actors in a social network (Carter, DeChurch, Braun, & Contractor, 2015; Scott, 2017). Density in friendship network (FRDND: friendship network density) indicates the extent to which actors establish direct personal relationships with high density promoting social contagion and enhancing shared cognitions (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008). I suggest that the proximity in attributes of friendship ties or network density will interact with the degree of network centrality in predicting OCBI directed at coworkers and turnover intentions. When the friendship network is dense, or there exist larger numbers of 'strong ties' (Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008), central employees will be more dedicated to their exchange obligations toward friends because there exist more established personal relationships which make the necessity of reciprocation more salient. Accordingly, I propose that network density enhances the positive relationship between friendship network centrality and OCBI directed at coworkers. Similarly, when the friendship network is dense, increased personal relationships make central employees feel even better matched with the group of people they are working with, and thereby less likely to leave their jobs. Thus, I propose that network density strengthens the negative relationship between friendship network centrality and turnover intentions. The hypothesized research model is visualized in Figure 3.1.

Hypothesis 8: Friendship network density (FRDND) strengthens the positive relationship between FRDNC and OCBI.

Hypothesis 9: Friendship network density (FRDND) strengthens the negative relationship between FRDNC and TOI.

Insert Figure 3.1 about here

Chapter 4: Methods

4.1 Sample and Procedures

Data were collected from 41 restaurants located in the Southwestern U.S. This industry provided an appropriate setting for the purpose of this study due to several reasons. First, because working in a restaurant requires relatively less specialized knowledge and skills, it is more likely to find overqualified employees in this setting and thereby, this industry is well-suited to examine the effects of overqualification. In other words, there likely exists variation with respect to overqualification that facilitates a meaningful analysis. Second, it is common for employees working in a restaurant to engage in social interactions including communication and information exchange. Thus, restaurants provide appropriate settings to examine the dynamics of social networks. Furthermore, it is likely that enough variance exists in terms of task interdependence among restaurant workers since several tasks engaging different workers might be performed before service is delivered. Finally, analyzing distinct workgroups from different restaurants likely provides enough between-group variation in group-level variables (i.e., group overqualification and group task interdependence) allowing for meaningful comparisons between groups. I treated one restaurant as one workgroup because they shared network characteristics as well as the other group level moderator characteristics. This approach also allowed for clear distinction between workgroups.

To reduce the likelihood of common source-common method bias, data were gathered from three different sources: employees, coworkers, and their corresponding supervisors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). I contacted the managers to ask if they were willing to participate in the study. Upon receiving approval from the managers, I also asked them to convey to employees that the study had permission from the management and responses

would not be shared with management. All employees of the workgroup and their supervisors were asked to participate under the assurance of confidentiality (as suggested by Podsakoff et al., 2003). I, supported by an undergraduate student research assistant, visited the restaurants to administer paper-pencil surveys during business hours. Forty-one supervisors and 231 employees embedded in 41 workgroups participated in the survey. Surveys were conducted in both English and Spanish, and translation-back translation procedures (Brislin, Lonner, & Thorndike, 1973) were applied. The employee surveys facilitated obtaining their perceived overqualification and intentions to leave along with the degree of their task interdependence within the workgroup. Perceived overqualification and task interdependence scores then were aggregated to form group overqualification and group task interdependence respectively, by taking the average of individual scores. Employees also determined their friendship ties with their coworkers and accordingly, coworkers' centrality in their friendship network, and friendship network density were calculated (Freeman, 1978). Finally, the supervisor surveys were designed to facilitate obtaining behavioral ratings of participating employees in the corresponding workgroup.

I restricted my analyses to workgroups where the within-group response rate was over 60% (Timmerman, 2005). In this sample, the average within-group response rate was 79.2%. One group was excluded from the analysis because the within-group response rate fell short of the 60% cutoff recommended by Timmerman (2005), reducing the final usable sample to 222 employees (response rate = 80.0%) and 40 supervisors (response rate = 73.6%) nested in 40 workgroups. Workgroups consisted of 3 to 14 employees, and the average group size was 5.60 (SD = 2.79). Of the employees who reported demographics, the average employee age was 25.94 years (SD = 7.99), and the average supervisor age was 30.00 years (SD = 7.40). Employees were 55.4% male, whereas 57.5% of the supervisors were male. Less than half of the employees

(48.7%) had a college education (graduate or student), whereas the majority of supervisors (79.7%) had some college education. Average employee organizational tenure was 1.14 years (SD = 1.14), and average supervisor organizational tenure was 3.79 years (SD = 2.65).

4.2   Measures

Unless otherwise indicated, responses to survey questions were measured on 5-point Likert-type scales ranging from *1 = strongly disagree* to *5 = strongly agree*. For each measure, I took the average of the scores of all included items to create a composite score, with higher scores indicating a higher value for the underlying construct (see Appendix A for a list of survey items).

Perceived overqualification (POQ). Employees rated their overqualification using a nine-item scale developed and validated by Maynard et al. (2006). The validity and reliability of this scale have been further established in the literature (Harari et al., 2017). A sample item was "I have more education than what my job requires" (α = .84).

Group overqualification (GOQ). Because the average level of individual difference constructs captures contextual features, averaging group member scores can determine the characteristic levels of such variables within groups (Yang, Mossholder, & Peng, 2007). Accordingly, I aggregated individual employee ratings of perceive overqualification to form a group-level variable by averaging individually estimated scores within each group (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Yang et al., 2007).

Task interdependence (TINT). The six-item scale developed and validated by Pearce and colleagues was used to measure task interdependence (Pearce, Sommer, Morris, & Frideger, 1992). A sample item was "This task can be performed fairly independently of others" (reverse coded). Although this measure has been validated and used in the literature (Pearce et al., 1992),

the reliability of this scale was not acceptable in this study (i.e., α = .57). To increase the reliability, I dropped two items from the scale: "This task requires frequent coordination with the effort of others," and "Performance on this task is dependent on receiving accurate information from others." The final four-item measure demonstrated acceptable reliability (α = .71).

Group task interdependence (GTINT). I aggregated individual employee ratings of task interdependence to form group-level task interdependence scores by averaging individually estimated scores within each group (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Yang et al., 2007). The values of median rwg = .77, ICC(1) = .13, $p = 0.006$, ICC(2) = .44, showed that there was significant within-group agreement and between-group variation in task interdependence scores justifying the aggregation of data (Bliese, 2000; James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984; Smith-Crowe, Burke, Cohen, & Doveh, 2014).

Friendship network centrality (FRDNC). Coworkers determined the degree of a focal employee's centrality in a friendship network. Using standard network analytic techniques (e.g., Burt, 1992), participants were asked to mark the name of coworkers in the restaurant with whom they are friends (i.e., "mark the name of coworkers with whom you *socialize outside of work*"). Then, the number of friendship links were divided by the maximum number of possible ties that the focal employee could have. In other words, if n was the number of network players, I would standardize in-degree centrality by dividing the number of friendship links by (n - 1). By taking this step, the employees' in-degree centrality scores from different groups were standardized so that they could be meaningfully compared. Note that to be able to successfully operationalize friendship network centrality, it was optimal that any group data included the majority of its members to ensure that sentiments expressed are representative of the group and not just a minority of its membership. In light of this, I collected data from those workgroups wherein

more than 80% of the members agreed to participate during the initial contact. I further removed one workgroup wherein less than 60% of the members actually participated (Timmerman, 2005).

Friendship network density (FRDND). I calculated the degree of friendship network density by dividing the number of direct friendship ties among network players by the maximum number of possible direct links in that network (Burt, 1992). In other words, if n was the number of network players, the maximum number of possible ties would be $n! / (n - 2)!$ Network density scores fell between zero and one, with high values indicating dense networks and low values implying sparse networks.

Turnover intentions (TOI). Using a three-item scale, employees assessed their tendency to discontinue as organization members (Cammann et al., 1983). The validity and reliability of this scale have been established in the literature (e.g., Cammann et al., 1983; Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). A sample item was "At the present time, I am actively searching for another job in a different organization" ($\alpha = .80$).

Organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers (OCBI). Supervisors estimated employees' organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers (OCBI) using the seven-item scale developed and validated by Williams and Anderson (1991). The validity and reliability of this scale have been further established in the literature (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). A sample item was "This employee helps others who have heavy workloads" ($\alpha = .83$).

Control variables. Following theoretical and methodological considerations, I controlled for employees' age, sex, education, organizational tenure, and the number of working hours, along with their group size (Erdogan et al., 2020; Ng & Feldman, 2008; 2009; 2010). Furthermore, to perform a rigorous test of the moderating effects of group overqualification and

group task interdependence, perceived overqualification and individually rated task interdependence were controlled for in the corresponding models. Additionally, I controlled for the employees' centrality in advice networks since it has been shown that advice network centrality is related to OCBI (Erdogan et al., 2020). Consistent with the standard network techniques (e.g., Burt, 1992) and common practice (e.g., Erdogan et al., 2020), I asked coworkers to determine the degree of a focal employee's centrality in an advice network by marking the name of employees in the workgroup from whom they seek advice. It is important to note that the results reported below held when the control variables were removed from the analyses.

4.3 Analyses

Since employees were nested within workgroups and their corresponding supervisors rated their citizenship behaviors, hierarchical linear modeling (HLM: Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992) was used to test the main and interaction effects in the model, as it provides unbiased estimates by capturing the correlations among individual-level observations through an estimation of random effects (Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000). Moreover, to test the mediating effect of friendship network centrality on perceived overqualification-outcomes relationships, I used bootstrapped indirect effects in Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2007) as it provides unbiased estimates of mediation effects while accounting for the data clustering in multi-level models.

Chapter 5: Results

Table 5.1 presents means, standard deviations, construct reliabilities, and correlations among study variables. I calculated the intraclass correlation coefficient, ICC(1), to examine the extent of between-group variation in outcomes of employees' turnover intentions and organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers. The values of ICC(1) = .25, χ^2 (39) = 120.27, p = .000 and ICC(1) = .37, and χ^2 (39) = 154.14, p = .000 suggested that there was significant between-group variation in the outcome variables of turnover intentions and citizenship behaviors, respectively, further justifying that that multilevel analyses were appropriate for hypotheses testing (Bliese, 2000).

Insert Table 5.1 about here

Prior to hypothesis testing, I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to assess the psychometric properties of surveyed study measures: perceived overqualification (POQ), task interdependence (TINT), turnover intentions (TOI), and organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers (OCBI). Each item was constrained to fall under a single factor, and the factors were allowed to correlate. The four-factor model showed fit statistics of χ^2 (224) = 488.64, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .94, TLI = .93. To make comparisons, I ran alternate models with fewer factors such that variables were combined (see Table 5.2). The CFA results showed that the hypothesized four-factor model had a superior fit with the data compared to the three-factor models where POQ and TINT were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 282.42, p = .000), where POQ and TOI were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 322.35, p = .000), where POQ and OCBI were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 546.61, p = .000), where TINT and TOI were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 332.68, p = .000), where

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TINT and OCBI were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 282.54, p = .000), and where TOI and OCBI were

combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (3) = 345.40, p = .000). Likewise, the hypothesized four-factor model showed a

superior fit with the data compared to the two-factor models where POQ, TINT, and TOI were

combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (5) = 480.59, p = .000), where POQ, TINT, and OCBI were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (5) =

704.27, p = .000), where POQ, TOI, and OCBI were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (5) = 401.94, p = .000), and

where TINT, TOI, and OCBI were combined ($\Delta\chi^2$ (5) = 504.49, p = .000). Finally, the four-

factor model demonstrated a superior fit over the one-factor model with all items included ($\Delta\chi^2$

(6) = 903.01, p = .000).

Insert Table 5.2 about here

Table 5.3 presents a summary of the confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) including

means, standard deviations, average variances extracted, and standardized measurement

coefficients. Table 5.4 represents the correlation matrix which includes construct reliabilities,

intercorrelations among latent variables, and shared variances between each pair of latent

variables. The measures included in the analyses were fairly reliable with construct reliability

estimates ranging from .71 to .84. Convergent validity was supported as the average variance

extracted (AVE) for each latent variable exceeded .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; see Table 5.3).

Furthermore, the average variance extracted for each latent factor exceeded the respective

squared correlation between factors, providing evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell &

Larcker 1981; see Table 5.4).

Insert Tables 5.3 and 5.4 about here

To assess the incremental variance explained by POQ beyond that by the control variables, I created a preliminary model consisting of employee age, sex, education, organizational tenure, working hours, and advice network centrality as a base model to be compared with my hypothesized models. Also, in testing the moderating effect of group task interdependence, I controlled for the effect of individually rated task interdependence. The results of hierarchical linear modeling showed that after controlling for the effects of advice network centrality and other control variables, POQ was negatively and significantly related to employee centrality in a friendship network ($\gamma = -0.24$, $p = .000$), providing support for Hypothesis 1 (see Model 2, Table 5.5). Change in Pseudo R-Squared value and Akaike information criterion (AIC) revealed that the main effect of POQ explained incremental variance in outcome variable (ΔPseudo R-Squared $= 0.11$), and significantly improved the model fit (ΔAIC $= 19.49$).

In testing Hypothesis 2, HLM results revealed that after controlling for the effects of advice network centrality and other control variables, POQ was not significantly related to OCBI ($\gamma = -0.05$, $p = .453$), failing to support Hypothesis 2 (see Model 2, Table 5.6).

In testing Hypothesis 3, Mplus results based on 5,000 bootstraps resamples showed that after statistically controlling for the effects of advice network centrality and other control variables, friendship network centrality significantly mediated the effect of POQ on OCBI ($\beta = -0.01$, $p = 0.039$, bias-corrected 95% CI $= [-0.017, -0.001]$), supporting Hypothesis 3. The fit information for the hypothesized mediated model revealed that the model adequately fit the data (AIC $= 1060.24$; χ^2 (7) $= 97.83$, $p = .000$; RMSEA $= .07$).

Insert Tables 5.5 and 5.6 about here

Results of hierarchical linear modeling further showed that after controlling for the effects

of advice network centrality and other control variables, POQ was positively and significantly

related to employee turnover intentions ($\gamma = 0.24$, $p = .002$), providing support for Hypothesis 4

(see Model 2, Table 5.7). Change in Pseudo R-Squared value and Akaike information criterion

(AIC) revealed that the main effect of POQ explained incremental variance in the outcome

variable (ΔPseudo R-Squared = 0.08), and significantly improved the model fit (ΔAIC = 15.14).

In testing Hypothesis 5, Mplus results based on 5,000 bootstraps resamples showed that after

statistically controlling for the effects of advice network centrality and other control variables,

friendship network centrality did not significantly mediate the effect of POQ on TOI ($\beta = -0.01$,

$p = 0.957$, bias-corrected 95% CI = [-0.025, 0.019]), failing to support Hypothesis 5.

Insert Table 5.7 about here

In testing Hypothesis 6, results of moderation analyses revealed that after controlling for

the main effect of group overqualification (GOQ), and the effects of advice network centrality

and other control variables, GOQ did not significantly moderate the POQ-FRDNC relationship (γ

= -0.13, $p = .070$), failing to provide support for Hypothesis 6 (see Model 4, Table 5.5).

However, the moderation analysis showed that after controlling for the main effect of group

overqualification, and the effects of advice network centrality and other control variables, GOQ

moderated the relationship between POQ and TOI ($\gamma = -0.31$, $p = .013$, see Model 4, Table 5.7).

Change in Pseudo R-Squared value and AIC demonstrated that the interaction effect of GOQ

explained incremental variance in the outcome variable (ΔPseudo R-Squared = 0.06), and

significantly improved the model fit (ΔAIC = 7.55). Simple slope analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) with one standard deviation above and below the mean indicated that the nature of the interaction effect was consistent with my expectation (see Figure 5.1), such that when GOQ was low, POQ was more positively related to TOI than when GOQ was high (γ = -0.13, SE = 0.06; t = -2.20, p = .034).

In testing Hypothesis 7, results of hierarchical linear modeling showed that after controlling for the main effect of group task interdependence and the effects of individually rated task interdependence (TINT), advice network centrality, and other control variables, GTINT did not significantly moderate the relationship between POQ and FRDNC (γ = -0.01, p = .970), failing to provide support for Hypothesis 7 (see Model 6, Table 5.5). However, the moderation analysis showed that after controlling for the effects of individually rated task interdependence, advice network centrality, and other control variables as well as the main effect of group task interdependence, GTINT significantly moderated the relationship between POQ and OCBI (γ = -0.61, p = .027, see Model 6, Table 5.6). Change in Pseudo R-Squared value and AIC demonstrated that the interaction effect of GOQ explained incremental variance in the outcome variable (ΔPseudo R-Squared = 0.06), and significantly improved the model fit (ΔAIC = 11.15). Simple slope analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) with one standard deviation above and below mean indicated that the nature of the interaction effect was consistent with my expectation (see Figure 5.2), such that when GTINT was high, POQ was positively related to OCBI (γ = 0.22, SE = 0.09; t = 2.44, p = .039) whereas when GTINT was low, POQ was negatively related to OCBI (γ = -0.20, SE = 0.10; t = -2.08, p = .044). These results suggested that the effect of task interdependence nullified the effect of POQ on OCBI. When task interdependence is high, the high level of interaction, communication, and information sharing makes coworkers closer to

their overqualified peers and lessens their willingness to disparage their friendship. Furthermore, a high level of communication and interaction makes overqualified employees more committed to their social exchanges that in turn increases their engagement in citizenship behaviors. Therefore, when GTINT is high the POQ-OCBI relationship turns out positive.

I also ran a model that included both interaction effects of group overqualification and task interdependence on the POQ-FRDNC relationship (see Model 7, Table 5.5). Results showed that while the main effect of POQ remained significant ($\gamma = -0.24$, $p = .000$), the moderating effects of group overqualification and task interdependence were not significant ($\gamma = -0.03$, $p = .422$, $\gamma = 0.03$, $p = .621$, respectively), further supporting the aforementioned results.

Insert Figures 5.1 and 5.2 about here

Results of hierarchical linear modeling further revealed that after controlling for the effects of POQ, advice network centrality, and other control variables, friendship network density (FRDND) did not significantly moderate the relationship between FRDNC and OCBI ($\gamma = -0.06$, $p = .647$), nor between FRDNC and TOI ($\gamma = -0.02$, $p = .731$), failing to support Hypotheses 8 and 9 (see Model 8, Table 5.6 and Model 10, Table 5.7, respectively). Nonetheless, the moderation analyses showed that after controlling for the effects of POQ, advice network centrality, and other control variables, FRDND significantly moderated the relationship between POQ and TOI ($\gamma = -0.18$, $p = .021$, see Model 8, Table 5.7). Change in Pseudo R-Squared value and AIC demonstrated that the interaction effect of FRDND explained incremental variance in the outcome variable (ΔPseudo R-Squared $= 0.04$), and significantly improved the model fit (ΔPseudo R-Squared $= 0.04$, ΔAIC $= 6.19$). Simple slope analysis (Aiken & West, 1991) with

one standard deviation above and below the mean indicated that the nature of the interaction

effect was consistent with my expectation (see Figure 5.3), such that when FRDND was low,

POQ was more positively related to TOI than when FRDND was high ($\gamma = -0.19$, $SE = 0.09$; $t = -2.17$, $p = .035$). The supported research model is represented in Figure 5.4.

Insert Table 5.6, Figure 5.3, and Figure 5.4 about here

Chapter 6: Discussion

Several overqualification researchers (e.g., Feldman & Maynard, 2011; Russell et al., 2016) have suggested that one of the critical directions for future research is the examination of implications of perceived overqualification as they relate to employees' social networks. In an attempt to advance overqualification theory by moving beyond an isolated dyadic or group-level examination of overqualification effects, I investigated the dynamics of social links among organizational players in the job context and examined the effect of perceived overqualification on social networks and additional organizational outcomes. In doing so, I responded to Carpenter and colleagues (2012) who called for future studies seeking to advance the state of network research in organizational contexts, especially social capital research at the interpersonal level. Furthermore, by investigating the interplay between overqualified employees' human and social capital, this study advanced our knowledge with regards to the possible implications of overqualification for social networks (Erdogan et al., 2020; Feldman & Maynard, 2011; Russell et al., 2016). This is important as despite the notion that perceive overqualification as a component of employees' human capital affects employee's social capital and that this interrelationship affects individual and organizational outcomes, except for a recent study by Erdogan et al. (2020), the literature has mainly overlooked this possibility. Erdogan et al. (2020) focused on the influence of perceived overqualification on employees' advice network centrality whereas this study focused on the relationship between perceived overqualification on employees' friendship network centrality while controlling for the employees' advice network centrality. As such, I built on and extended Erdogan and colleagues' study by taking into consideration the effect of perceived overqualification on employees' advice network and further examining the effect of perceived overqualification on friendship network centrality.

The primary goal of this study was to understand the role that social networks play in explaining the relationships between perceived overqualification and organizational outcomes. Particularly, I examined the role of friendship network centrality in the relationship between perceived overqualification and organizational citizenship behavior directed at coworkers, and between perceived overqualification and turnover intentions. Social comparison theory integrated with social exchange and person-group fit theories provided the conceptual foundation for my predictions. The findings demonstrated that perceived overqualification has implications for the centrality of employees in a friendship network. Specifically, I argued and showed that coworkers avoid friendship ties with their overqualified peers as they view them differently with respect to job qualifications and also as threats to their job status, suggesting a negative relationship between perceived overqualification and friendship network centrality as suggested by social comparison theory. Furthermore, emphasizing social exchanges in the workgroup context, I showed that employees' perceived overqualification indirectly influences their organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers via the centrality in friendship networks. Additionally, I integrated group-fit theory with social comparison theory and showed that perceived overqualification is positively related to turnover intentions, suggesting that employees who believe that they possess job qualifications that exceed the requirements of their jobs are more likely to have intentions to leave their job.

Although researchers have recently identified some functional implications of employee' perceived overqualification (e.g., increased job performance and proactive behavior: Hu et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016), overqualification research has traditionally considered perceived overqualification as dysfunctional for both employees (e.g., decreased psychological well-being: Johnson & Johnson, 1996) and organizations (e.g., decreased job satisfaction and increased

withdrawal behaviors: Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). In light of the mixed findings regarding perceived overqualification behavioral outcomes, investigating the conditions which may explain why perceived overqualification proves differential outcomes is warranted (Erdogan & Bauer, 2009; Harari et al., 2017). Accordingly, taking a contingency approach to overqualification, I attempted to identify the critical conditions under which perceived overqualification translates into the outcomes of friendship network centrality and subsequently, to organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers and turnover intentions. Specifically, the moderating effects of group overqualification, group task interdependence, and friendship network density were examined as these variables affect the nature of social exchanges inherent in workgroup and network interactions. Investigating the role of group overqualification and group task interdependence was important as the group overall status of overqualification, or group overqualification, and the degree of cooperation and information exchange in the workgroup, or group task interdependence, affect the visibility of overqualified employees as references for coworkers on which to base their social comparison processes. Moreover, friendship network density affects social exchanges in the workgroup, and as such, influences the dynamics of the relationships among perceived overqualification, friendship network centrality, and organizational outcomes.

Building on social comparison theory and integrating with social exchange theory, I argued and showed that overqualified employees will be more inclined to leave their job when the group as a whole is low in overqualification, or when there are not many coworkers who are also overqualified for their jobs. Furthermore, I found that no significant relation exists between perceived overqualification and turnover intentions when the workgroup as a whole is high in overqualification, or when overqualification is a prevalent attribute in the workgroup.

Additionally, I built on social exchange theory and showed that there exists a crossover interaction between perceived overqualification and group task interdependence in predicting employees' organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers, meaning that overqualified employees will be less likely to engage in citizenship behaviors when the workgroup characterizes low task interdependence, and more likely to engage in citizenship behaviors when the workgroup is high in task interdependence. This finding further demonstrates the *conditional* effect of perceived overqualification on organizational citizenship behaviors documented in the literature (Deng et al., 2018; Erdogan et al., 2020). Finally, integrating person-group fit theory with social comparison theory, I demonstrated that in workgroups where the friendship network is dense, overqualified employees are less inclined to leave their job as they feel better matched with the group of people with which they are working.

The results did not support hypothesis 2 that perceived overqualification is negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers. The reason was that there existed a crossover interaction between perceived overqualification and workgroup task interdependence which canceled out the POQ-FRDNC-OCBI relationship at the high levels of task interdependence versus low levels of task interdependence. In other words, results showed that the nature of this relationship is contingent on the level of group task interdependence: when task interdependence is high there exists a positive relationship between POQ and OCBI while when task interdependence is low this relationship is negative. The net effect of this crossover interaction was that POQ was not significantly related to OCBI at moderate levels of workgroup task interdependence. I also failed to find support for hypothesis 5 suggesting that friendship network centrality mediates the relationship between perceived overqualification and turnover intentions. Instead, I found that perceived overqualification was directly but conditionally related

to turnover intentions suggesting that an employee's turnover intention is a proximal outcome of perceived overqualification. This finding is consistent with that of extant literature on the relationship between perceived overqualification and withdrawal behavior (e.g., Erdogan & Bauer, 2009) but goes beyond it in suggesting that when group overqualification is high, overqualification will not be significantly related to turnover intentions. The results also did not support hypothesis 8 that friendship network density strengthens the positive relationship between friendship network centrality and organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers, suggesting that the indirect ties in a friendship network do not make a focal employee feel obligated to return the favor of their indirect links.

This study made important contributions to the literature in multiple ways. First, by introducing social networks to overqualification research, this study advanced the literature in going beyond individual, dyadic, or group-level investigations of overqualification effects and in examining its influence on network dynamics. Particularly, by investigating the role of social exchanges among organizational members, this study unpacked the social network mechanism through which overqualification translates into organizational outcomes. In doing so, I extended social exchange theory by integrating it with the foundations of social comparison and fit theories and suggested a more encompassing model of social interactions among organizational members.

Second, I advanced the literature by introducing group level variables to overqualification research as called for by several scholars (Deng et al., 2018; Erdogan et al., 2011a; Hu et al., 2015; Sierra, 2011). In fact, I took an important step forward in integrating overqualification at the individual level of analysis with that at the group level. With one notable exception (Hu et al., 2015), studies to date have treated perceptions of overqualification in isolation, neglecting

the fact that employees are intrinsically embedded in workgroups and that their reactions to perceived overqualification are shaped in the social context of a workgroup. Therefore, understanding the workgroup context of overqualification was critical to advancing knowledge in this area. By examining the moderating roles of group characteristics along with workgroup and network structural attributes in overqualification-friendship network centrality-outcome relationships, this study identified the boundary conditions under which overqualification influences on-the-job social networks and further organizational outcomes (as called for by Erdogan & Bauer, 2009). In doing so, this study added to the body of research adopting a contingency perspective to overqualification and thus, presents a fine-grained assessment of overqualification effects (Erdogan et al., 2020).

Finally, I contributed to the social network literature by identifying an important predictor of friendship network centrality. Indeed, while the extant literature has typically examined the outcomes of social networks, the examination of antecedents of such networks has been relatively overlooked (Erdogan et al., 2020; Zohar & Tenne-Gazit, 2008). This study underscored an important new direction by introducing a critical predictor of friendship network centrality. Investigating the dynamics of a friendship network was important because information obtained from friendship links may be more credible and relevant, more easily and frequently available, and more persuasive (Brass, 1992), and thereby influential on organizational outcomes. Furthermore, this study demonstrated the mediating role of friendship network centrality in linking perceived overqualification to organizational outcomes while controlling for employees' centrality in advice networks. In doing so, this study highlighted the interplay between employees' human capital and their social capital and suggested that the investigation of

employees' human capital is critical in examining the precursors of their social capital in the social context of on-the-job networks.

6.1 Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions

A significant strength of this study was extending the overqualification literature beyond the traditional individual-level focus to a social network and multi-level focus. Rather than merely adding another outcome to the array of previously established individual level outcomes, I integrated overqualification research with social network research as these two streams of research are rich in themselves but have remained exclusive and distinct. In doing so, I have also integrated overqualification literature, with social exchange, social comparison and fit theories. I also introduced group-level moderators to the overqualification research stream, and examined the effects of overqualification in the workgroup context as employees are intrinsically embedded in workgroups. The examination of the impact of perceived overqualification and friendship network centrality on employees' *actual* behaviors was also among the strengths of this study. In addition to examining employees' actual behaviors, I investigated the impact of overqualification on employees' intentions to leave their job, and as such, simultaneously examined the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of overqualification. Yet, another strength of this study emanates from the multisource study design. Especially, to minimize the likelihood of common-source common-method bias, I collected data from three different sources: employees, coworkers, and supervisors. Controlling for the effect of overqualification on advice friendship network centrality, which has been shown to contribute to employees' organizational citizenship behaviors, was another strength of my analyses as it helped to rule out plausible alternative explanations for the proposed relationships.

Despite its strengths and important contributions, this study is not without limitations. One important limitation of this study was the concurrent measurement of study variables limiting the ability to ascertain the direction of causality. Even though I developed theory-driven arguments to support the hypothesized relationships and establish the direction of causality, a possibility of alternative causal directions remains. For instance, while I proposed that friendship network centrality is a predictor of OCBI, the reverse is also possible. Future studies applying longitudinal or experimental research designs are warranted to establish causality and to rule out the possibility of reverse causality among the variables of interest.

Next, my study focused on a perceptual measure of overqualification. Although the extant literature has suggested the advantage of a perceptual operationalization of overqualification in examining behavioral outcomes (Maltarich et al., 2011), it is possible that operationalizing overqualification using an objective measure (although I controlled for employee education in the regression models) may uncover alternate relationship patterns. Second, I focused on organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers (OCBI) and turnover intentions as the outcome variables. Other potentially useful attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (such as affective commitment, actual turnover, and counterproductive work behaviors) were not included in this study. Likewise, I used specific exemplars of structural attributes of workgroups (i.e., task interdependence) and social networks (i.e., network density) as boundary conditions at the group level, but it is entirely possible that other group factors (such as structural attribute of leader's span of control, affective attribute of group team commitment, and normative attribute of power distance or collectivism) prove differential influence on the main relationships of interest.

Future research is recommended to not only overcome limitations of the current study, but also advance overqualification research in exciting and potentially useful directions. First, future

research should both theorize and empirically investigate how an objective measure of overqualification affects the nature of proposed relationships. Overqualification researchers should also investigate overqualification dynamics at the group level (e.g., Sierra, 2011) in future studies. One such question worthy of investigation is how workgroups fare in group-level outcomes, such as group performance or group potency, when the average magnitude and nature of distribution in individual overqualification differ among workgroups. Future research may also examine the effect of rarity or prevalence of overqualification in a workgroup on overqualification outcomes. For instance, it is reasonable to speculate that the destructive impact of overqualification on organizational outcomes decreases for employees embedded in workgroups with a high degree of overall overqualification. In other words, when an overqualified employee finds himself/herself working within a group where many of the members are overqualified for their positions, they tend to feel less misfit, develop less negative attitudes toward their job and the organization at large, and consequently, engage in less destructive behaviors.

Yet, another avenue could be introducing other types of on-the-job social networks to overqualification research. This is important since, as shown in the current study, individuals' social comparison processes are likely affected by the specific characteristics of social networks. For example, coworkers who are highly visible in the social networks of the work setting due to their central position in a communication, information sharing, trust, or avoidance network may serve as influential referents on which to base social comparisons. Future research may even assess if employees could report the level of overqualification of their coworkers who are embedded in their social network and how this assessment affects overqualification-outcomes dynamics. In other words, the way coworkers perceive their peers' overqualification might affect

their social network linkages. There also exists various referent comparisons that overqualified employees may use and thus depending on which referent comparison is used, they may think about their overqualification differently. Thus, I suggest that examining the role of referent comparisons would be theoretically worthwhile. Moreover, the spillover effect of being a member of different social networks may complicate the dynamics of social networks. For example, it is likely that a tie in the trust network be explained by a link in the friendship network.

Future research may also establish the generalizability of my findings by replicating the study using different employee samples and workgroup contexts. For example, future research can assess whether the results hold in other industries (e.g., manufacturing or academia), economic conditions (e.g., economic recession or high unemployment) and cultural contexts (e.g., collectivistic countries) because each of these factors independently as well as jointly have the potential to affect the relationships examined in this study. For instance, it is possible that the effects of perceived overqualification on employees' social network and further organizational outcomes vary in a high unemployment economic condition (McKee-Ryan & Harvey, 2011) because employees feel obligated to possess the job position in which they are underutilized regardless of their level of job satisfaction.

I also suggest that how overqualified employees respond to their perceived overqualification depends on their appraisal: (a) whether they view their overqualification positively or negatively, (b) whether their overqualification is volitional, based on their choice or not. As such, I urge future research to take an integrative approach to overqualification and examine the implications of overqualification while taking into consideration employees' appraisals with respect to overqualification. It is reasonable to suspect that employees' reactions

to their perceived overqualification differ when they had chosen to be overqualified versus when they had to take positions for which they are overqualified. In addition, there might exist pertinent individual differences that affect when perceived overqualification results in various organizational outcomes. For instance, some employees may have a lower need for challenge or recognition, or less opportunity for mobility, or perhaps enjoy being a 'big fish.' Therefore, future research is recommended to examine the role of individual differences in perceived overqualification-outcome relationships.

6.2   Practical Implications

This study has significant implications for the management of employees. Managers should note that overqualified employees may serve as referents for the social comparison processes of their coworkers and be viewed as threats by them. As a result, overqualified employees who will not be central in a friendship network, engage in less functional behaviors of organizational citizenship and are more willing to leave their jobs. In such occasions, however, managers can design the work in such a way that a high level of task interdependence exists within the workgroup, and in doing so, decrease the possibility of dysfunctional behaviors by overqualified employees. Moreover, managers should note that employees evaluate their overqualification in the social context of a work setting and with respect to the overqualification distribution in the workgroup, and that it is this subjective evaluation that affects employees' attitudes and behaviors. As such, when the level of overqualification in a workgroup is high, or when there are several other employees who are overqualified, the negative effects of perceived overqualification decrease. This suggests that managers need to pay attention to the social comparisons that employees make, and try to make overqualified employees feel that they are not the only overqualified ones in the workgroup. Employees' perceptions may not necessarily

reflect reality, so managers may be able to motivate employees by letting them know of their standing in the overqualification distribution of the workgroup or by dropping hints that make such impression.

6.3   Conclusion

For over four decades, organizational scholars have theorized on and probed employees overqualification and its implication. However, there is limited research considering overqualification as a component of human capital and investigating the interrelationship between an employees' human capital and his/her social capital. By integrating social comparison theory with social exchange and fit theories, I extended the extant individual-level stream of research to a group level (workgroups' membership and attributes) and social network (network centrality and network density) examination. My study showed that employees engage in within-group comparisons in their overqualification assessment, and that this cognition affects their inclination to build friendship ties with their coworkers, which in turn influences a focal employee's citizenship behaviors and turnover intentions. Furthermore, I found that group overqualification, the structural attribute of workgroup task interdependence, and the structural characteristic of friendship network density independently affect the strength of this relationship. Supported by the study results, I assert that viewing employees' overqualification in isolation may represent a partial (or even an erroneous) picture, and accounting for employees' social context of workgroup membership, workgroup attributes, and social networks is imperative in theorizing about and developing effective managerial practices revolving around overqualification.

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Appendix

Appendix A. Surveys

A.1 Employee Survey

Section A: Please select your response from **Strongly Disagree = 1** to **Strongly Agree = 5** presented below and enter the corresponding number in the space to the left of each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Moderately 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.	_____	Someone with less work experience than myself could do my job just as well.
9.	_____	I have more abilities than I need in order to do my job.
10.	_____	This task can be performed fairly independently of others.
11.	_____	This task can be planned with little need to coordinate with others.
12.	_____	It is rarely required to obtain information from others to complete this task.
13.	_____	This task is relatively unaffected by the performance of other individuals.
14.	_____	This task requires frequent coordination with the effort of others.
15.	_____	Performance on this task is dependent on receiving accurate information from others.
16.	_____	I can decide how I do my job.
17.	_____	I have a lot of independence and freedom in how I do my job.
18.	_____	I can decide how to go about doing my work.
19.	_____	The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my workgroup values.

20.	_____	My personal values match my workgroup's values and culture.
21.	_____	My workgroup's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.
22.	_____	I feel my workgroup's goals are my own.
23.	_____	I feel attached to my workgroup.
24.	_____	I feel I belong to my workgroup.
25.	_____	The work culture in this restaurant is "collaborative".
26.	_____	The work culture in this restaurant is "team-oriented".
27.	_____	The work culture in this restaurant is "cooperative".
28.	_____	I am given important assignments at work.
29.	_____	At work, there are promotional opportunities.
30.	_____	This restaurant takes a personal interest in my career.
31.	_____	This restaurant has devoted special time and consideration to my career.
32.	_____	This restaurant helps me coordinate my professional goals.
33.	_____	My coworkers seem to respect my opinion about things.
34.	_____	My coworkers seem to like me.
35.	_____	My coworkers seem to understand how I feel about things.
36.	_____	I have successfully asked for extra responsibilities that take advantage of the skills that I bring to the job.
37.	_____	At my request, my supervisor has assigned me tasks that better develop my skills.
38.	_____	I have negotiated with my supervisor for tasks that better fit my personality, skills, and abilities.
39.	_____	My supervisor has offered me opportunities to take on desired responsibilities outside of my formal job requirements.
40.	_____	In response to my distinctive contributions, my supervisor has granted me more flexibility in how I complete my job.
41.	_____	My supervisor considers my personal needs when making my work schedule.
42.	_____	Following my initial appointment, my supervisor assigned me to a desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities.

43.	_____	At my request, my supervisor has accommodated my off-the-job demands when assigning my work hours.
44.	_____	Outside of formal leave and sick time, my supervisor has allowed me to take time off to attend to non-work-related issues.
45.	_____	My supervisor understands my problems and needs.
46.	_____	My supervisor recognizes my potential.
47.	_____	I usually know how satisfied my supervisor is with what I do.
48.	_____	My supervisor will use his/her power to help me solve problems in my work.
49.	_____	If I need it, my supervisor will help me even at the expense of himself/herself.
50.	_____	I would defend my supervisor's decisions in his/her absence.
51.	_____	My working relationship with my supervisor is effective.
52.	_____	I have a better relationship with my supervisor than most others in this restaurant.
53.	_____	When my supervisor cannot come to an important meeting or event, it is likely that he/she will ask me to fill in.
54.	_____	Compared to others in this restaurant, I receive more support from my supervisor.
55.	_____	My relationship with my supervisor is better than the relationships most employees have with my supervisor.
56.	_____	My supervisor is more loyal to me compared to my colleagues.
57.	_____	My supervisor likes me more than he/she likes most other employees of this restaurant.
58.	_____	I will probably look for a new job in the near future.
59.	_____	At the present time, I am actively searching for another job in a different organization.
60.	_____	I intend to quit my job.
61.	_____	My coworkers lack some of the things I have.
62.	_____	My coworkers feel bitter toward me.
63.	_____	My coworkers feel envious of me.
64.	_____	My coworkers have a grudge against me.
65.	_____	My coworkers want to have what I have.

66. _____	I have things going for myself better than my coworkers do.
67. _____	My coworkers feel gall of me.
68. _____	My coworkers feel some hatred toward me.
69. _____	My coworkers feel rancor toward me.
70. _____	Overall, I am treated fairly by this restaurant.
71. _____	In general, I can count on this restaurant to be fair.
72. _____	In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair.
73. _____	Usually, the way things work in this restaurant is fair.
74. _____	For the most part, this restaurant treats its employees fairly.
75. _____	Most of the people who work here feel that they are treated fairly.

Section B: Please select your response from **Never = 1** to **Very Often = 5** presented below and enter the corresponding number in the space to the left of each statement.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Quite Often	Very Often
1	2	3	4	5

1. _____	How often do you get into arguments with colleagues at work?
2. _____	How often do colleagues yell at you at work?
3. _____	How often are colleagues rude to you at work?
4. _____	How often do colleagues treat you badly at work?
5. _____	How often do you get into arguments with customers at work?
6. _____	How often do customers yell at you at work?
7. _____	How often are customers rude to you at work?
8. _____	How often do customers treat you badly at work?

Section C: These questions will be used to describe the general characteristics of the participants.

1. What is your age? _____ years
2. What is your sex?   Male   Female
3. What is your job title: _____ (e.g., Server or Cook or Cashier etc.)
4. What is your education level? _____
5. How long have you been employed with this restaurant? _____ years and _____ months

6. How long have you been working with your current supervisor? _____ years and _____ months

7. How much restaurant experience do you have? _____ years and _____ months

8. How long have you lived in the USA? _____ years and _____ months

9. What is your race?   Hispanic   Caucasian   African-American   Asian   others _____

10. On average how many hours do you work per week in this restaurant? _____ hours

Section D: Please mark the names of your co-workers in this restaurant who**:**
Mark (✔) as many names as you like or leave all <u>blank (or X)</u> if there is no one that fits the answer.

No.	Name	You are friends with - someone you socialize outside of work.	You go to for help or advice about work related matters.	You talk about confidential work-related matters.	You avoid because they are difficult to work with.
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					
13					
14					

A.2 Manager Survey

Section A: Please select your response from **Strongly Disagree = 1** to **Strongly Agree = 5** presented below and enter the corresponding number in the space to the right of each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Moderately Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

	This employee…								
1.	Has more education than this job requires.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
2.	Has more talent than what this job requires.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
3.	Has more experience than necessary to be successful in this job.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
4.	Has more skills than what this job requires.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
5.	Helps others who have been absent.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
6.	Helps others who have heavy workloads.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
7.	Assists supervisor with his/her work "when not asked".	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
8.	Takes time to listen to coworkers' problems and worries.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
9.	Goes out of way to help new employees.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
10.	Takes a personal interest in other employees.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
11.	Passes along information to coworkers.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
12.	Defends the restaurant when other employees criticize it.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
13.	Encourages friends and family to use this restaurant's services.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____

14.	Defends the restaurant when outsiders criticize it.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
15.	Shows pride when representing this restaurant in public.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
16.	Actively promotes the restaurant to potential customers.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
17.	Has been performing his/her job the way I would like it to be performed.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
18.	Has been effectively fulfilling his/her roles and responsibilities.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
19.	If I had my way, I would not change the manner in which this employee is performing his/her job.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____
20.	Overall level of performance is high.	____	____	____	____	____	____	____	____

Section B: Please select your response from **Never = 1** to **Very Often = 5** presented below and enter the corresponding number in the space to the right of each statement.

Never 1	Rarely 2	Sometimes 3	Quite Often 4	Very Often 5

	During the last month this employee…								
1.	Behaved in an unpleasant manner toward a coworker.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
2.	Tried to harm a coworker.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
3.	Criticized a coworker's opinion or suggestion.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
4.	Excluded a coworker from a conversation.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
5.	Tried to avoid interacting with a coworker.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
6.	Spoke poorly about a coworker to others.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
7.	Did not work to the best of his/her ability.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
8.	Spent time on tasks unrelated to work.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
9.	Criticized organizational policies.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
10.	Took an unnecessary break.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
11.	Worked slower than necessary.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
12.	Spoke poorly about the organization to others.	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

Section C: Please select your response from **Strongly Disagree = 1** to **Strongly Agree = 5** presented below and enter the corresponding number in the space to the left of each statement.

Strongly Disagree 1	Moderately Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Moderately Agree 4	Strongly Agree 5

1. _____	I believe supervisors should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.
2. _____	I believe it is necessary for a supervisor to use authority when dealing with subordinates.
3. _____	I believe supervisors should rarely ask for the opinion of subordinates.
4. _____	I believe supervisors should avoid social contacts with subordinates outside of work.
5. _____	I believe subordinates should not disagree with management decisions.
6. _____	I believe supervisors should not delegate important tasks to subordinates.

Section D: Questions will be used to describe the general characteristics of the participants.

1. What is your age? _____ years
2. What is your sex?   Male   Female
3. What is your education level? _____
4. How long have you been employed with this restaurant? _____ years and _____ months
5. How long have you been working as a manager? _____ years and _____ months
6. How much restaurant experience do you have? _____ years and _____ months
7. How many employees report to you? _____
8. How long have you lived in the USA? _____ years and _____ months
9. What is your race?   Hispanic   Caucasian   African-American   Asian   others _____
10. Are you related to the owner of this restaurant? ☐ No   ☐ Yes   If yes, how? _____

Tables

Table 2.1: Antecedents and Consequences of Overqualification

Concepts		Related Studies
Antecedents		
Individual differences	Gender	Luksyte & Spitzmueller (2011)
	Openness to experience	Fine (2007)
	Narcissism	Lobene et al. (2015)
	General mental ability	Fine (2007)
	Career adaptability	Yang et al. (2015)
	Job search behavior	Guerrero & Hatal (2015)
Job characteristics	Leader-member exchange	Alfes et al. (2016)
	Task repetitiveness	Lobene et al. (2015)
	Job type	Mckee-Ryan & Harvey (2011)
	Pay	Lobene et al. (2015)
External factors	Economic factors	Mckee-Ryan & Harvey (2011)
Psychological/Attitudinal Outcomes		
Psychological	Psychological and physical well-being including depression, stress, and distress	Bolino & Feldman (2000); Chen et al. (2010); Johnson et al. (2002); Johnson & Johnson (1996, 1997); Maynard et al. (2015); Wu et al. (2015)
	Feelings of relative deprivation	Erdogan et al. (2018)
Attitudinal	Organizational commitment	Johnson et al. (2002); Lobene et al. (2015)
	Job satisfaction	Erdogan & Bauer (2009); Johnson et al. (2002); Khan & Morrow (1991); Maynard et al. (2006)
	Turnover intentions	Erdogan & Bauer (2009); Maynard et al. (2006)

	Employer's hiring decisions	Kulkarni et al. (2015); Martinez, Lengnick-Hall, & Kulkarni (2014)
Behavioral Outcomes		
Withdrawal behavior including job search behavior and voluntary turnover		Erdogan & Bauer (2009); Maynard & Parfyonova (2013); Wald (2005)
Counter-productive work behavior		Fine & Edwards (2017); Liu et al. (2015); Luksyte et al. (2011)
Proactive behavior		Zhang et al. (2016)
Organizational citizenship behavior		Deng et al. (2018); Erdogan et al. (in press); Hu et al. (2015)
Job performance		Deng et al. (2018); Erdogan & Bauer (2009); Fine (2007); Holtom, Lee, & Tidd (2002); Hu et al. (2015)

Table 5.1: Descriptive Statistics, Intercorrelations, and Reliabilities

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	25.94	7.99											
2. Sex	0.45	0.50	.10										
3. Education	3.93	1.12	.06	-.02									
4. Tenure	1.14	1.14	.22**	-.07	-.09								
5. Working hours	41.15	17.76	.16*	-.24**	-.21**	.04							
6. Task interdependence	2.96	0.91	.11	.01	-.11	.10	-.04	(.71)					
7. Advice network centrality	0.29	0.30	.06	.02	.05	.10	.07	-.06					
8. Perceived overqualification	3.59	0.81	.01	.10	.05	.03	-.18**	.10	-.09	(.84)			
9. Friendship network centrality	0.28	0.28	-.06	-.02	-.03	.11	.12	-.14*	.52**	-.28**			
10. Turnover intentions	2.93	1.23	-.13	-.11	-.08	-.07	.12	-.05	.07	.18**	.08	(.80)	
11. OCBI	3.69	0.85	.04	.10	.10	.09	.03	.03	.08	.03	.22**	.03	(.83)

Group level variable													
1. Group size	5.60	2.79											
2. Group overqualification	3.57	0.49	.11										
3. Group Task interdependence	2.91	0.51	.23	.07									
4. Friendship network density	0.34	0.23	-.53**	-.27	-.46**								

Notes. Individual level *n* = 222; group level *n* = 40; Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are reported along the diagonal. Age and tenure were in years. Sex was coded as 0 = male, 1 = female. Education was coded as 1 = primary school, 2 = secondary school, 3 = high school, 4 = undergraduate education, 5 = graduate education, 6 = doctoral student. OCBI = organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers. * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01 (two-tailed test).

Table 5.2: Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) Results

Model	Description	$\chi2$	df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	Comparison with Model 12	
							$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Model 1	One-factor model where POQ, TINT, TOI, and OCBI were combined	1391.65	230	.52	.51	.16	903.01***	6
Model 2	Two-factor model where POQ, TINT, and TOI were combined	969.23	229	.63	.61	.12	480.59***	5
Model 3	Two-factor model where POQ, TINT, and OCBI were combined	1192.91	229	.57	.56	.15	704.27***	5
Model 4	Two-factor model where POQ, TOI, and OCBI were combined	890.58	229	.65	.62	.12	401.94***	5
Model 5	Two-factor model where TINT, TOI, and OCBI were combined	993.13	229	.62	.61	.14	504.49***	5
Model 6	Three-factor model where POQ and TINT were combined	771.06	227	.75	.74	.09	282.42***	3
Model 7	Three-factor model where POQ and TOI were combined	810.99	227	.69	.68	.10	322.35***	3
Model 8	Three-factor model where POQ and OCBI were combined	1035.25	227	.60	.58	.14	546.61***	3
Model 9	Three-factor model where TINT and TOI were combined	821.32	227	.69	.67	.10	332.68***	3
Model 10	Three-factor model where TINT and OCBI were combined	771.18	227	.76	.75	.09	282.54***	3
Model 11	Three-factor model where TOI and OCBI were combined	843.04	227	.69	.68	.11	354.40***	3
Model 12	Four-factor model	488.64	224	.94	.93	.07		

Notes. n = 222. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

Table 5.3: Summary of the Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Average Variances Extracted	Parameter Estimates
Perceived overqualification	3.59	0.81	56.1%	.697 – .834
Task interdependence	2.96	0.91	50.8%	.689 – .810
Turnover intentions	2.93	1.23	60.0%	.765 – .791
OCBI	3.69	0.85	72.2%	.815 – .928

Notes. n = 222, χ^2 = 488.64, *df* = 224, CFI = .94, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .07.

Table 5.4: Intercorrelations, Construct Reliabilities, and Shared Variances

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Perceived overqualification	**.84**	.01	.03	.00
2. Task interdependence	.10	**.71**	.00	.00
3. Turnover intentions	.18	-.05	**.80**	.00
4. OCBI	.03	.03	.03	**.83**

Notes. Intercorrelations are presented in the lower triangle of the matrix; Construct reliabilities are depicted in boldface on the diagonal; Shared variances are given in the upper triangle of the matrix.

Table 5.5: HLM Results for Relationships among POQ, Group Overqualification, Group Task Interdependence, and Friendship Network Centrality

Variables	FRDNC						
	Model 1 estimates	Model 2 estimates (H1)	Model 3 estimates	Model 4 estimates (H6)	Model 5 estimates	Model 6 estimates (H7)	Model 7 estimates
Intercept, γ_{00}	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.17	0.14	0.13	0.21
Control variables							
Age, γ_{10}	-0.15	-0.13*	-0.13*	-0.12*	-0.12*	-0.13*	-0.12*
Sex, γ_{20}	0.06	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.05
Education, γ_{30}	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02
Tenure, γ_{40}	0.09	0.10*	0.10*	0.11*	0.10*	0.10*	0.09
Working hours, γ_{50}	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.04
ADVNC, γ_{70}	0.41**	0.41**	0.41**	0.41**	0.40**	0.40**	0.40**
Task interdependence, γ_{80}					-0.01	-0.01	0.01
Group Size, γ_{01}	-0.10**	-0.10**	-0.10**	-0.10**	-0.10**	-0.09*	-0.13**
POQ, γ_{60}		-0.24**	-0.24**	-0.24**	-0.24**	-0.24**	-0.24**
GOQ, γ_{02}			0.02	-0.03			-0.04
POQ × GOQ, γ_{62}				-0.13			-0.03
GTINT, γ_{03}					-0.17	-0.17	-0.20*
POQ × GTINT, γ_{63}						-0.01	0.03
Pseudo R-Squared	0.17	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28	0.28
ΔPseudo R-Squared		0.11		0.00		0.00	
AIC	530.61	511.12	514.12	513.53	515.70	512.76	513.98
ΔAIC		19.49		0.59		8.57	

Notes. Individual level $n = 222$; group level $n = 40$; HLM = hierarchical linear modeling; FRDNC = friendship network centrality; ADVNC = advice network centrality; POQ = perceived overqualification; GOQ = group overqualification; GTINT = group task interdependence; Pseudo R-squared was calculated using the formula recommended by Snijders and Bosker (1999); AIC = Akaike information criterion. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$ (two-tailed tests).

Table 5.6: HLM Results for Relationships among POQ, Group Overqualification, Group Task Interdependence, and OCBI

Variables	OCBI							
	Model 1 estimates	Model 2 estimates (H2)	Model 3 estimates	Model 4 estimates	Model 5 estimates	Model 6 estimates	Model 7 estimates	Model 8 estimates (H8)
Intercept, γ_{00}	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.04	0.14	0.01	0.01
Control variables								
Age, γ_{10}	-0.07	-0.06	-0.04	-0.05	-0.07	-0.07	-0.03	-0.03
Sex, γ_{20}	0.24	0.25	0.23	0.25	0.25	0.33*	0.20	0.20
Education, γ_{30}	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.07	0.12	0.03	0.03
Tenure, γ_{40}	0.15*	0.16*	0.14	0.14	0.16*	0.11	0.11	0.11
Working hours, γ_{50}	0.05	0.06	0.10	0.09	0.08	0.09	0.01	0.00
Task interdependence, γ_{70}					0.02	0.04		
Group Size, γ_{01}	-0.01	-0.01	-0.02	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	0.02	0.02
POQ, γ_{60}		-0.05	-0.10	-0.10	-0.06	-0.03	0.00	0.00
GOQ, γ_{02}			0.51*	0.48**				
POQ × GOQ, γ_{62}				-0.15				
GTINT, γ_{03}					-0.04	0.20		
POQ × GTINT, γ_{63}						-0.61*		
FRDNC, γ_{70}							0.15*	0.14
FRDND, γ_{04}							0.21*	0.20
FRDNC × FRDND, γ_{74}								-0.06
Pseudo R-Squared	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.08	0.09	0.15	0.17	0.17
ΔPseudo R-Squared		0.02		0.03		0.06		
AIC	619.14	619.13	614.67	609.98	614.07	602.92	598.53	599.64
ΔAIC		0.01		4.69		11.15		

Notes. Individual level $n = 222$; group level $n = 40$; HLM = hierarchical linear modeling; OCBI = organizational citizenship behaviors directed at coworkers; POQ = perceived overqualification; GOQ = group overqualification; GTINT = group task interdependence; FRDND = friendship network density; Pseudo R-squared was calculated using the formula recommended by Snijders and Bosker (1999); AIC = Akaike information criterion. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$ (two-tailed tests).

Table 5.7: HLM Results for Relationships among POQ, Group Overqualification, Group Task Interdependence, and Turnover Intentions

Variables	Turnover Intentions									
	Model 1 estimates	Model 2 estimates (H4)	Model 3 estimates	Model 4 estimates	Model 5 estimates	Model 6 estimates	Model 7 estimates	Model 8 estimates	Model 9 estimates	Model 10 estimates (H9)
Intercept, γ_{00}	0.11	0.13	0.13	0.21*	0.13	0.11	0.13	0.13	0.10	0.12
Control variables										
Age, γ_{10}	-0.08	-0.12	-0.11	-0.08	-0.12	-0.10	-0.11	-0.11	-0.09	-0.09
Sex, γ_{20}	-0.12	-0.11	-0.11	-0.10	-0.11	-0.13	-0.10	-0.10	-0.13	-0.13
Education, γ_{30}	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03
Tenure, γ_{40}	-0.01	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00
Working hours, γ_{50}	0.06	0.08	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.09
Task interdependence, γ_{70}					-0.01	0.02				
Group Size, γ_{01}	-0.09**	-0.08**	-0.08**	-0.08**	-0.08**	-0.09*	-0.09**	-0.10**	-0.10**	-0.10**
POQ, γ_{60}		0.24**	0.22**	0.20**	0.24**	0.27**	0.23**	0.23**	0.25**	0.26**
GOQ, γ_{02}			0.11	-0.03						
POQ × GOQ, γ_{62}				-0.31**						
GTINT, γ_{03}					0.08	0.01				
POQ × GTINT, γ_{63}						-0.26*				
FRDND, γ_{04}							-0.21**	-0.19*	-0.13	-0.11
POQ × FRDND, γ_{64}								-0.18*		
FRDNC, γ_{05}									0.08	0.09
FRDNC × FRDND, γ_{65}										-0.02
Pseudo R-Squared	0.07	0.15	0.15	0.21	0.14	0.18	0.19	0.23	0.16	0.16
ΔPseudo R-Squared		0.08		0.06		0.04		0.04		
AIC	606.93	591.79	591.00	583.45	596.83	588.95	585.77	579.58	598.15	599.62
ΔAIC		15.14		7.55		7.88		6.19		

Notes. Individual level $n = 222$; group level $n = 40$; HLM = hierarchical linear modeling; POQ = perceived overqualification; GOQ = group overqualification; GTINT = group task interdependence; FRDND = friendship network density; Pseudo R-squared was calculated using the formula recommended by Snijders and Bosker (1999); AIC = Akaike information criterion. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$ (two-tailed tests).

Table 5.8: Summary of Results

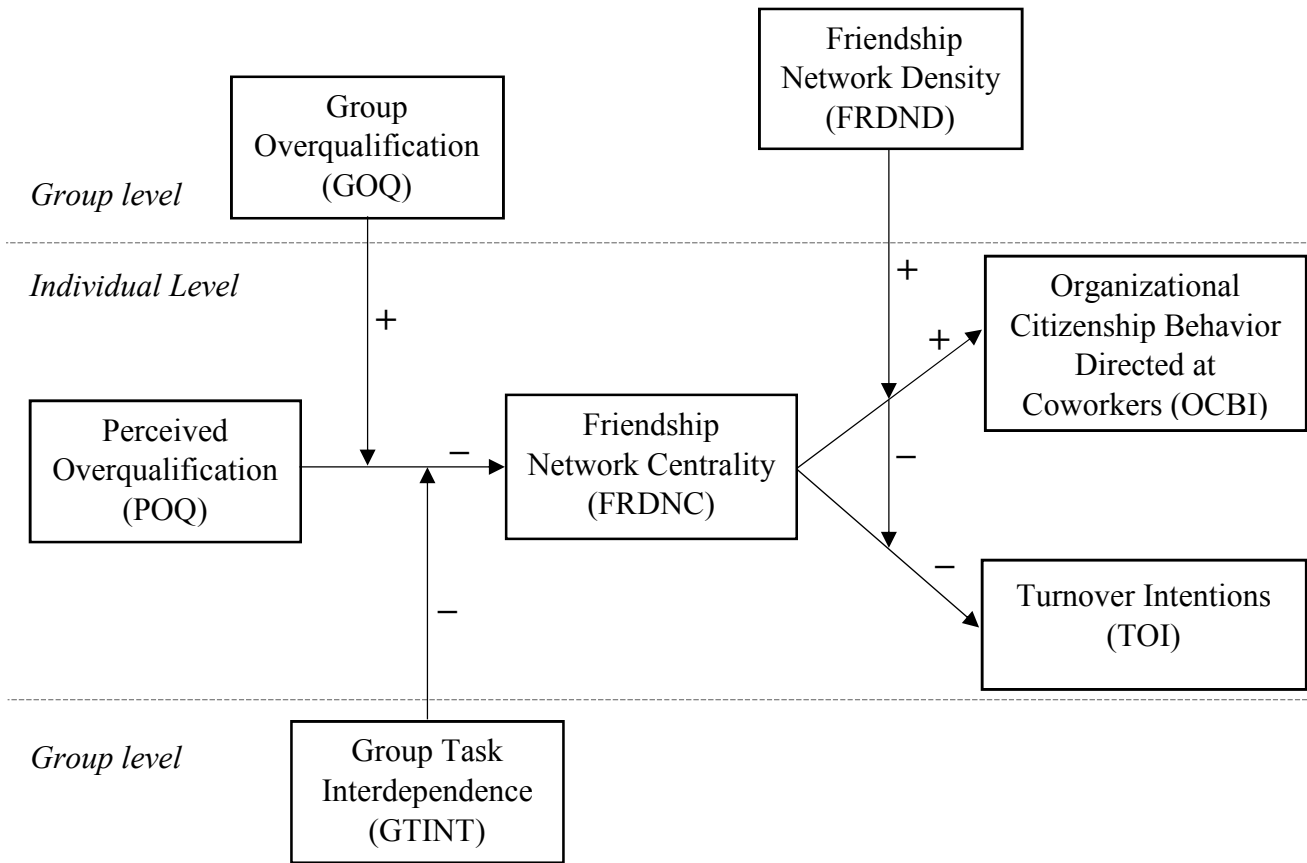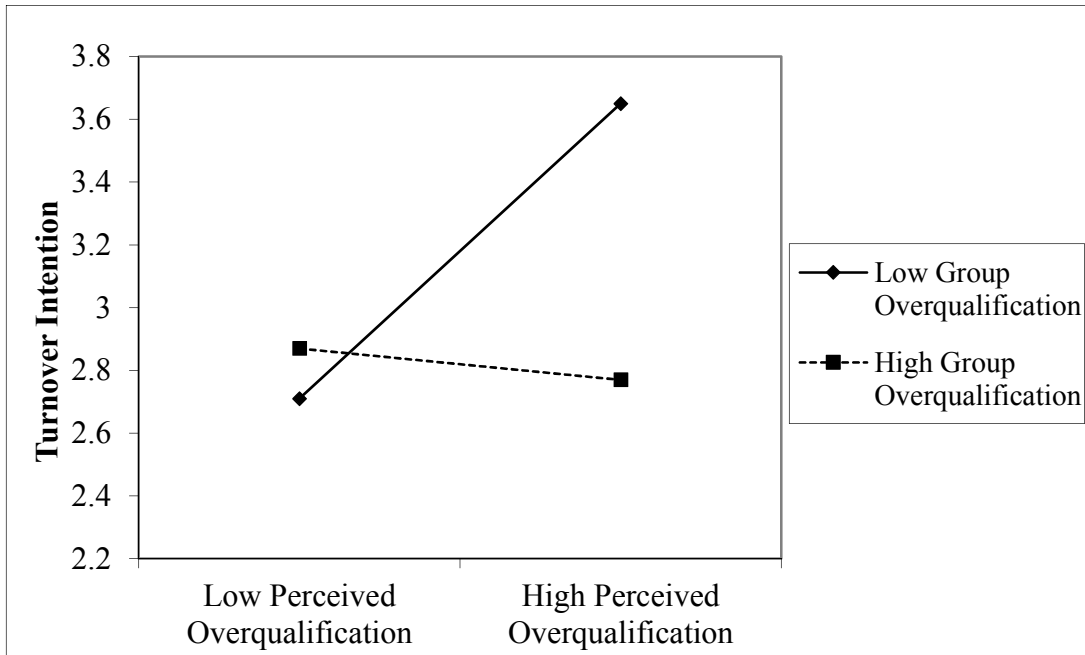| Hypothesis	Finding
H1	Supported
H2	Not supported
H3	Supported
H4	Supported
H5	Not supported
H6	Partially supported
H7	Partially supported
H8	Not supported
H9	Partially supported

Figures

Figure 3.1: The Hypothesized Model

Figure 5.1: Group Overqualification as a Moderator of the Relationship between Perceived Overqualification and Turnover Intentions
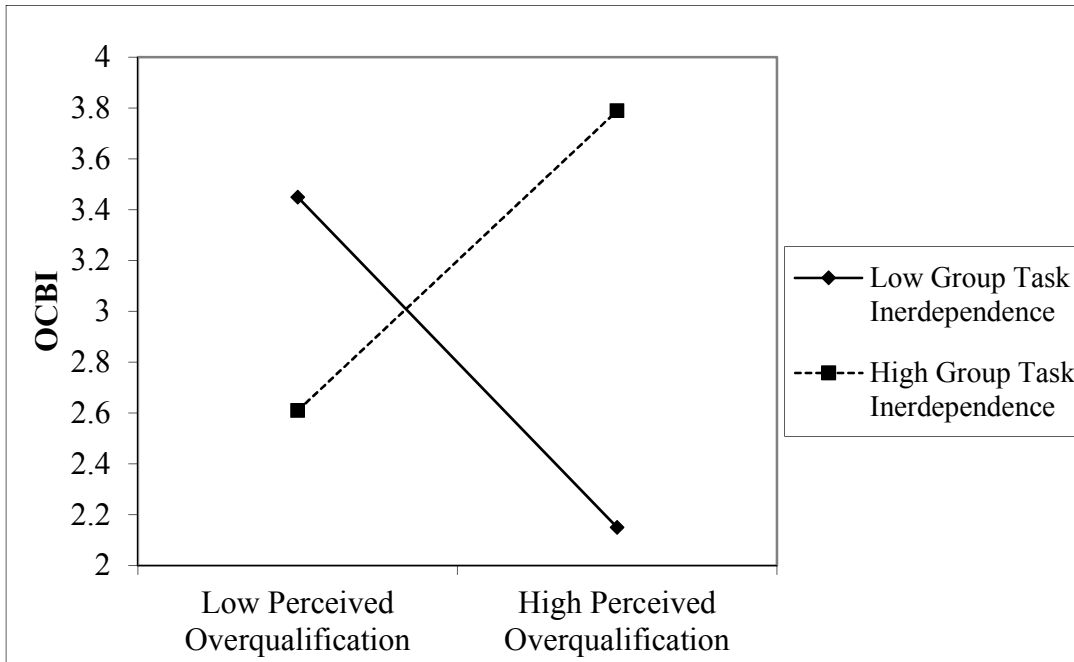
Figure 5.2: Group Task Interdependence as a Moderator of the Relationship between Perceived Overqualification and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors Directed at Coworkers
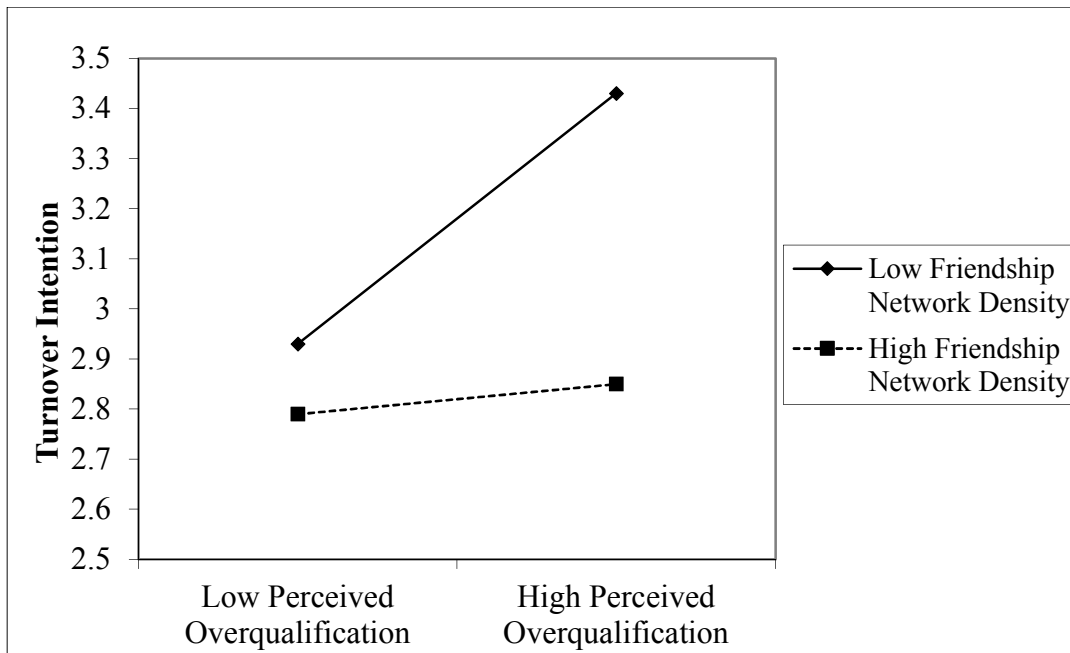
Figure 5.3: Friendship Network Density as a Moderator of the Relationship between Perceived Overqualification and Turnover Intentions
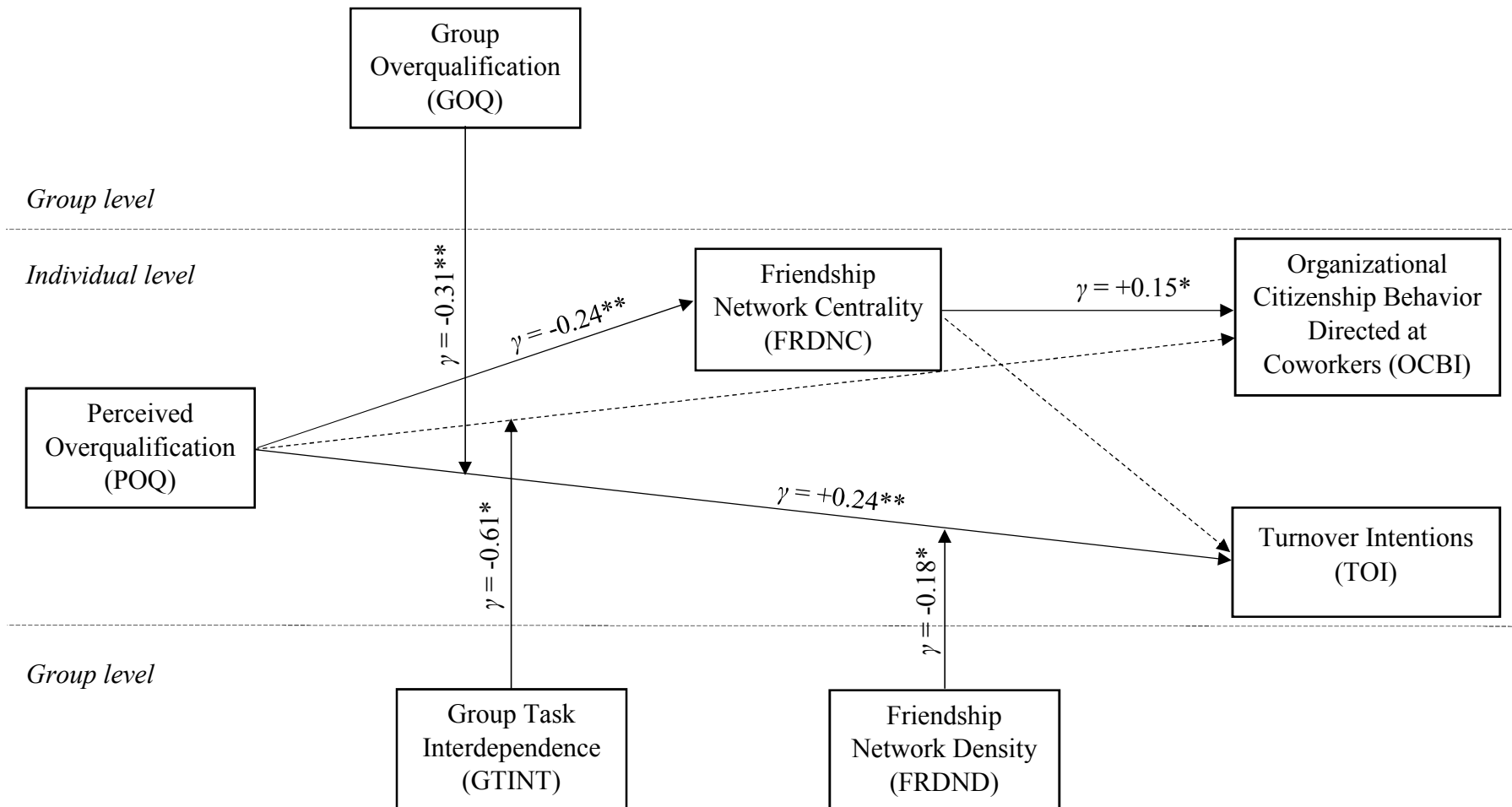
Figure 5.4: The Supported Model

Vita

Farid Jahantab earned his Bachelor of Science in Industrial Engineering from Khaje Nasir Toosi University of Technology in 2009. In 2013, he received his Master of Art in Management from London Metropolitan University. In 2015, he joined the doctoral program in Business Administration with the concentration in Management at the University of Texas at El Paso (UTEP), from which he graduated in Spring 2020. He also has four years of industry experience.

At the University of Texas at El Paso, Dr. Jahantab was the recipient of Dodson Research Grant and multiple academic travel grants. He was also granted the Outstanding Reviewer Award from Academy of Management. While pursuing his PhD at UTEP, Dr. Jahantab taught 15 sections of OB/HR classes to more than 600 students. Moreover, he has had ten presentations and proceedings at national and international conferences, and two publications at the Advances in Management and Journal of Organizational Psychology.

Dr. Jahantab's dissertation entitled, "A Social Network Perspective of Employee Overqualification to Outcomes Relationships in Workgroups," was supervised by Dr. Prajya Vidyarthi. Dr. Jahantab has accepted a position as a tenure-track, Assistant Professor of Business at the Pennsylvania State University – Scranton.

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