Disentangling Passion and Engagement: An Examination of How and When Passionate Employees Become Engaged Ones

Violet T. Ho  
*University of Richmond, vho@richmond.edu*

Marina N. Astakhova

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Disentangling Passion and Engagement: An Examination of How and When Passionate Employees Become Engaged Ones

Violet T. Ho
University of Richmond

Marina N. Astakhova
The University of Texas at Tyler

Published in 2018 in Human Relations, 71, pp. 973–1000

Note: Both authors contributed equally to this research.
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Abstract

While anecdotal industry evidence indicates that passionate workers are engaged workers, research has yet to understand how and when job passion and engagement are related. To answer the how question, we draw from person-environment fit theory to test, and find support for, the mediating roles of perceived demands-abilities (D-A) fit and person-organization (P-O) fit in the relationships between passion and job engagement, and between passion and organizational engagement, respectively. Also, because the obsessive form of passion is contingency-driven, we answer the when question by adopting a target-similarity approach to test the contingent role of multi-foci trust in the obsessive passion-to-engagement relationships. We found that when obsessively passionate workers trust their organization, they report greater levels of organizational engagement (because of increased P-O fit). In contrast, when these workers trust both their co-workers and supervisor simultaneously, they report greater levels of job engagement (because of increased D-A fit).

Keywords: harmonious passion, obsessive passion, engagement, person-environment fit, trust
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While anecdotal industry evidence suggests that passionate workers are engaged workers (Hagel et al., 2014), the linkages between employee passion and engagement “are still in the early stages of theory development,” and research is needed to understand how and when passionate employees engage in their jobs and their organizations (Birkeland and Buch, 2015, p. 393). This dearth of research on the job passion–engagement relationship needs to be rectified for at least two reasons. First, preliminary research attempting to link job passion to engagement has found weak and mixed evidence (Ho et al., 2011; Trépanier et al., 2014), such that depending on the type of passion an employee has (harmonious or obsessive), s/he may or may not be engaged at work. Thus, our knowledge of this purported linkage is under-developed, and more work is needed to verify whether this link is a fallacy that needs correction, or whether it does indeed exist and, if so, how and when passion translates into engagement. Second, job passion, capturing a strong inclination for one’s job that defines who the individual is (Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2014), and work engagement, capturing one’s psychological presence in work roles (Kahn, 1990; 1992; Saks, 2006), share a conceptual overlap, both being motivational states that drive a person’s involvement in work-related activities (Ho et al. 2011; Rothbard, 2001). Thus, delineating these two constructs as well as the intermediate mechanisms through which they relate to each other will inform researchers on how they are conceptually and empirically distinct but yet connected.

To date, only two studies have empirically tested the job passion–engagement relationship. Drawing on the dualistic model of passion developed by Vallerand and colleagues (2003), Ho et al. (2011) hypothesized that engagement would mediate the relationships that harmonious passion (HP) and obsessive passion (OP) have with work performance. Trépanier and colleagues (2014) also hypothesized that HP and OP would, respectively, be positively and
negatively related to engagement. However, these studies fall short of capturing the level of engagement toward different targets, such as the job or the organization as a whole, a distinction that is important given that employees’ engagement can vary according to the target (Saks, 2006). Indeed, an employee may be engaged in his/her job role as a project manager, for example, but may not actively engage in broader organizational activities, such as strategic planning for the organization’s expansion. The question of whether employees who are passionate about their jobs will experience a more narrow, job-focused form of engagement, or a broader, organization-focused engagement, has both conceptual and practical importance.

Conceptually, linking job passion to different types of engagement will not only provide further evidence of the discriminant validity of the passion construct, but also test the assumption that passionate employees will necessarily have both job and organizational engagement. Practically, this knowledge will allow organizations to direct passion to where its positive impact is greatest or most essential, thereby making passion more actionable.

This research also seeks to address another limitation of the two prior studies, which focused on the direct relationship between passion and engagement but did not explore the intermediate processes within this relationship. Beyond establishing that the two constructs are related, another important step to advancing research is to open the black box between these constructs and explicate the mediating and moderating factors in the passion-to-engagement relationship. Drawing on person-environment (P-E) fit theory, the present study offers a theoretically-grounded perspective on how passion relates to engagement. P-E fit presents a logical choice of the conduit between passion and engagement because on one hand, fit perceptions are shaped by affective experiences at work (including those stemming from job passion) (Yu, 2009), and on the other hand, fit perceptions also determine work engagement (Maslach and Leiter, 2008). Given the strong affect and emotions associated with job passion (Vallerand et al., 2003), we adopt an affect-based model of P-E fit (Gabriel et al., 2014; Yu,
to explain why passion will predict fit perceptions and, in turn, engagement. Specifically, we test a nuanced model in which perceived demands-abilities (D-A) fit and person-organization (P-O) fit mediate the relationships that HP and OP have with job and organizational engagement.

Further, because the dualistic model posits that passion, particularly OP, may not always yield favorable outcomes despite the strong inclination and liking for one’s job, this suggests the presence of contingency factors moderating the influence of OP on work outcomes (Vallerand and Houlfort, 2003). Thus, we adopt the target-similarity model (Lavelle et al., 2007) to examine boundary conditions, in the form of multi-foci trust, that moderate the relationship between OP and engagement via perceived fit. Trust is particularly relevant not only because the construct distinguishes among different targets and aligns with our target-similarity approach, but also because employees’ attitudes toward social relationships and the larger organizational environment are key drivers of their fit perceptions (Yu, 2013). Given that individuals “maintain distinct perceptions about, and direct meaningfully different attitudes and behaviors toward multiple organizational foci” (e.g., coworker, supervisor, or organization) (Lavelle et al., 2007, p. 842), we expect that employee trust in coworkers, supervisor, and the organization can create a favorable context that would mitigate against the potentially negative function of OP on fit perceptions. Integrating both P-E fit and trust perspectives, we propose a conceptual model that delineates how and when job passion translates into engagement, and use a three-phase time-lagged study with a sample of healthcare professionals to test this model.

**Theoretical Framework**

**Job Passion and Conceptually Related Constructs**

Passion is a motivational construct that reflects a strong inclination toward a self-defining activity that one likes or even loves, finds important, and consequently invests time and energy in (Vallerand, 2010). In the organizational context, research has examined employees’ passion for their jobs and showed that employees can indeed have job passion (i.e., have a strong inclination
for their job that defines who they are) (e.g., Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2014). Two essential components underlie the passion construct: the first is an affective component comprising a strong liking or love for one’s job, and the second is a cognitive component capturing the internalization of the job into one’s identity. The combination of these two components not only sets passion apart from other common motivational constructs but is fundamental to the construct itself, such that passion is absent if any one of these two components is missing. Underscoring this point, scholars have noted that “passion is much more than experiencing love for an activity. It also entails valuing the activity to a high degree… (and) making it one of the central aspects of one’s identity and life” (Vallerand, 2010, p. 102).

Job passion can be further differentiated into two forms, depending on the way that the job is internalized into one’s identity (Vallerand et al., 2003; 2014). The harmonious form of passion stems from a voluntary internalization of the job that is free of external contingencies (e.g., rewards and social acceptance). Harmoniously passionate individuals freely choose to internalize their jobs and perform their job responsibilities due to characteristics of the job itself (e.g., challenging; enjoyable). This allows them to more fully and freely engage in work activities, thereby facilitating positive emotions and affect (e.g., inspired, enthusiastic) when carrying out these activities (Philippe et al., 2010; Vallerand et al., 2014). Because such employees are also able to balance their jobs with other life activities and obligations, they are less likely to experience conflict, guilt, or other forms of negative affect when they have to focus on these other activities and are unable to attend to their jobs (Vallerand et al., 2003).

In contrast, the obsessive form of passion, which also includes liking or love for one’s job, is nonetheless distinct in that it is associated with a pressured form of internalization, such that the job is important because of certain contingencies, pressures, or outcomes (e.g., rewards, recognition, or self-esteem) attached to the job. Because obsessively passionate employees approach their job “with a defensive, rather than an open, orientation,” this prevents them from
fully experiencing the positive emotions that should emerge when doing something they like or love (Vallerand, 2015, p. 163). In fact, obsessively passionate people have been consistently found to experience negative affect and emotions (e.g., anxiety, nervousness) even as they carry out the passionate activity which they love (Curran et al., 2015). Their rigid form of activity pursuit also prevents them from focusing on other life activities and obligations, and such felt conflict further inhibits their positive emotion and increases negative emotions of guilt and shame when doing their jobs (Vallerand et al., 2003).

While the construct of job passion resembles other conceptually similar motivational constructs, it is nevertheless distinct from them. The appendix summarizes the conceptual as well as empirical (where available) differences between passion and other such constructs. Broadly, passion is distinct in that it is activity-specific (unlike intrinsic and extrinsic motivation), encompasses strong liking for the job (unlike calling, work involvement, grit, identification, burnout, or workaholism) as well as internalization of the job into one’s identity (unlike commitment, job satisfaction, engagement, interest, flow, or grit), and is relatively stable and consistent rather than fluctuating (unlike interest, serious play, and personally salient activities). Thus, because passion encompasses both affective and cognitive components that other constructs do not, empirical evidence shows that passion has predictive power over and above constructs such as intrinsic motivation, controlled and autonomous motivation, engagement, workaholism, job satisfaction and identification, and organizational commitment (e.g., Birkeland and Buch, 2015; Ho et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011).

**Job Passion and Work Engagement**

Given the focus of this study on passion and engagement, we describe the distinction between the two constructs in more detail. Work engagement research has primarily developed along two distinct research streams. One stream views engagement as an antipode of burnout in that the three dimensions of engagement – energy, involvement, and efficacy – are direct
opposites of the three corresponding dimensions of burnout – exhaustion, cynicism and ineffectiveness. Thus, engagement is measured by the opposite patterns of scores on burnout (e.g., Maslach and Leiter, 1997). The second predominant view derives from Kahn’s (1990, 1992) view of engagement as an independent, distinct concept (e.g., Schaufeli et al., 2002), whereby engagement is conceptualized and operationalized in its own right as the psychological presence or “the harnessing of organization members’ selves in their work roles” (Kahn, 1990, p. 694). Despite some differences, both streams have one convergent similarity in that they characterize engagement as the investment of one’s psychological resources (e.g., attention, focus, mental energy) into work roles. Building on the premise that engagement is role-related and that “the two most dominant roles for most organizational members are their work role and their role as a member of an organization,” Saks subsequently advanced a two-dimensional engagement model that consists of job and organizational engagement (2006, p. 604). Job engagement pertains to the extent to which an individual is psychologically present in the job-related role, that is, when performing specific job tasks and responsibilities, whereas organizational engagement pertains to the extent of the individual’s psychological presence in the organization-related role that involves the broader organizational mission and context. We utilize Saks’ (2006) definitions of job and organizational engagement in the present study.

While work engagement may resemble job passion, the two constructs are nevertheless distinct in at least two ways. First, although engaged workers experience positive psychological states when working (Christian et al., 2011), they do not necessarily define themselves by their job. In contrast, a passionate employee views the job as part of his/her identity and as reflecting who s/he is (e.g., I am a musician; I am a doctor). Second, unlike job passion, engagement is less consistent and may fluctuate depending on individual experiences. In fact, Kahn referred to engagement as “moments of task performances” (Kahn, 1990, p. 693), and in line with this premise, empirical research showed that engagement can fluctuate daily (Sonnentag, 2003), and
is highest after morning recovery but decreases in response to situational constraints (Sonnentag et al., 2012). Job passion is more stable, and while it may be invoked in response to targeted interventions (Forest et al., 2012), this change does not occur on a day-to-day basis. As Birkeland and Buch (2015) observed, engagement relates to one’s experiences while working, whereas passion reflects the quality of one’s relationship with work in general. Consistent with this, they found that passion predicted burnout and well-being even after controlling for the role of work engagement. Together, these differences indicate that engagement and passion represent distinct constructs.

**Mediating Role of P-E Fit**

Person-environment (P-E) fit is defined as congruence between the individual’s characteristics and the commensurate characteristics of the environment (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), and while multiple forms of fit exist (e.g., P-O fit; person-group fit; person-job fit), we focus on two specific forms of fit that best correspond to the two forms of engagement outcomes. The first is P-O fit, defined as congruence in values between the individual and the organization, and the second is D-A fit, defined as the compatibility between the individual’s knowledge, skills, and abilities and the job demands (Cable and DeRue, 2002). We expect that perceptions of D-A fit and P-O fit would respectively mediate the passion-to-job engagement and passion-to-organizational engagement relationships, and elaborate on these mediating roles next.

**Mediating Role of D-A Fit in the Job Passion–Job Engagement Link.** The affect-based model of P-E fit theorizes fit as a dynamic construct that can change in tandem with the individual’s affect-driven attitudes (Gabriel et al., 2014; Yu, 2009). Building on this model, we propose that HP and OP will, respectively, have positive and negative linkages to D-A fit, based on two underlying affect-based perspectives – an affective-consistency one and a hedonistic one – proposed by Yu (2009).
The affective-consistency perspective of fit posits that individuals will adjust their perceptions of fit “in ways that are consistent with the work-based affect that they experience” (Yu, 2009, p. 1212), such that those who experience positive work-based affect will perceive greater congruence between aspects of the self and the environment so as to be consistent with their positive feelings. In contrast, those who experience negative affect tend to perceive a misfit, consistent with their negative feelings. Such affective consistency derives, in part, from affective primacy, whereby affective experiences precede cognition and “serve as a “cognitive filter” that causes people to perceive themselves and their work environments in ways that are consistent with experienced levels of affect” (Yu, 2009, p. 1213). Theories in cognitive consistency and dissonance (e.g., Festinger, 1957) also underscore individuals’ desire to strive for consistency between experienced affect and cognitions, and applied to the job passion context, this suggests that HP, which arouses positive emotions and affect as one carries out one’s tasks (Vallerand et al., 2003; 2014), is likely to yield higher perceptions of D-A fit. For instance, HP enables employees to focus on the positive moments when doing their jobs, such as the tasks that went well and their own skills and abilities that made that possible, thereby enhancing their perceived D-A fit. On the other hand, because OP and its controlled form of internalization elicits more negative emotions and affect (e.g., anxiety, worry) as one performs his/her job-related tasks (Vallerand et al., 2014), this is likely to decrease the individual’s perception of D-A fit as such negative affect pushes individuals to ruminate more about their job-related failures (Donahue et al., 2012) and their inability to fulfill job demands.

The hedonistic perspective of affect-based fit provides a different, behavioral-based explanation for the link between job passion and D-A fit. This perspective postulates that individuals are motivated to feel good about themselves and their situation, and will engage in various behaviors in order to sustain this feeling. Harmoniously passionate individuals derive pleasure from job characteristics and processes, rather than from external job outcomes.
(Vallerand and Houfort, 2003). As such, to enhance the hedonic value of their jobs, these individuals are likely to undertake various actions and adjustments to make their jobs enjoyable and, in the process, enhance their D-A fit. Specifically, because HP is associated with a mastery goal orientation that emphasizes personal competence and task mastery (Ho and Pollack, 2014; Vallerand et al., 2007), harmoniously passionate individuals will work toward developing the requisite skills if they perceive that job demands exceed their capabilities. Conversely, if they perceive that their abilities exceed job demands, they may seek out more challenging tasks so as to enhance their enjoyment of the job. Accordingly, this flexible approach to pursuing one’s job role will correct for any imbalance in D-A fit, thereby yielding higher D-A fit perceptions.

In contrast, obsessively passionate individuals have a controlled internalization of their jobs and, by implication, derive pleasure from the job because of external outcomes and rewards associated with it (e.g., prestige, salary, or promotion). Thus, the hedonic value of the job is measured in terms of the likelihood of obtaining those contingencies. Further, OP is driven not only by mastery goals but also by performance-approach goals of “beating others at all costs” (Vallerand, 2008, p. 7), and by performance-avoidance goals focused on avoiding incompetence relative to others (Vallerand et al., 2007). Thus, obsessively passionate individuals are likely to avoid behaviors that manifest their relative incompetence and/or that threaten their performance and associated likelihood of obtaining the rewards linked to superior performance. Accordingly, OP individuals are less inclined to take proactive actions to enhance their abilities to meet challenging job demands, or to take on challenging tasks that may better match their skillsets, which then implies that in either situation, these individuals will experience suboptimal D-A fit.

Hypothesis 1a: HP is positively related to perceived D-A fit.

Hypothesis 1b: OP is negatively related to perceived D-A fit.

In turn, we expect a positive relationship between perceived D-A fit and job engagement. This linkage has been conceptually proposed (e.g., Kahn, 1990) and empirically demonstrated
through multiple studies and meta-analytic findings (e.g., Crawford et al., 2014). This relationship is grounded on the premise that individuals who perceive themselves as having the requisite abilities to fulfill job demands will derive a sense of competence, meaningfulness, and self-worth from the job (Crawford et al., 2010), and thus are more willing and able to fully engage and “give themselves to their work role” (Rich et al., 2010, p. 621), thereby experiencing the psychological presence characteristic of job engagement. In contrast, employees who perceive low D-A fit are likely to experience either strain from not having the necessary abilities to perform their jobs (Edwards, 1996), or boredom from perceiving the job as being not sufficiently challenging (Fisher, 1993), both of which reduce the likelihood that they will engage in their job roles.

Integrating the previous arguments, we also predict that job passion will be distally related to job engagement through perceived D-A fit. Although no studies to date have examined the mediating role of D-A fit on the passion–outcomes relationships, P-E fit scholars have noted that contemporary treatments of P-E fit view perceived fit as a mediator between individual, job, or other environmental factors and work outcomes (e.g., Edwards et al., 1998; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), because perceptions of reality are key drivers of employee reactions to specific contexts (Yu, 2013). Tangential support for the mediating role of perceived fit can be found in Chen and colleagues’ (2014) study, which found that person-job fit mediated the relationships between both individual and collaborative crafting and job engagement. Together, these suggest that person-job fit can serve as a linking mechanism through which employees’ passion translates into higher job engagement.

**Hypothesis 2**: Perceived D-A fit is positively related to job engagement.

**Hypothesis 3**: Perceived D-A fit mediates the (a) positive relationship between HP and job engagement; and (b) negative relationship between OP and job engagement.
Mediating Role of P-O Fit in the Job Passion–Organizational Engagement Link. In explaining how job passion predicts P-O fit, the affective-consistency perspective is applicable as well, given that this perspective does not distinguish between perceptions of job- or organization-focused P-E fit (Yu, 2009). We expect that HP and the positive affect that ensues will yield greater P-O fit so that the latter cognition is consistent with such positive affect, and to avoid potential dissonance between felt affect and cognition. Positive emotions widen the array of thoughts and actions called forth (Fredrickson, 1998), suggesting that positive affect ensuing from HP will spill over to moments and experiences that are not only focused on the job but also to those related to the organization. Thus, HP can foster individuals’ focus on organizational aspects (e.g., mission, vision, culture) that they share, thereby enhancing their perceptions of P-O fit. In contrast, the negative emotions ensuing from OP emphasize the unpleasant aspects of the organizational environment, thereby reducing one’s P-O fit.

The hedonistic perspective offers another explanation for how job passion predicts P-O fit. HP facilitates individuals’ positive interpersonal relationships (Philippe et al., 2010), which enhances their socialization with and help toward coworkers, as well as their participation in social functions (Astakhova, 2015). These behaviors not only provide pleasure for such individuals but also assist in their socialization process by exposing them to organizational values and norms, and offering opportunities to understand the organizational environment and feedback on assimilating into the organization (Chatman, 1989). These enhance employees’ assimilation of organizational norms and values, with empirical evidence demonstrating that the extent to which employees socialize and interact with others enhances the congruence between their values and those of the organization (e.g., Cable and Parsons, 2001). Thus, we contend that HP will be positively associated with P-O fit.

OP, on the other hand, is associated with a rigid persistence at work (Vallerand et al., 2014) and an emphasis on obtaining rewards and external outcomes which contribute to the
hedonistic value of the job. Informal socialization behaviors that do not add to such hedonistic value and are not mandated are viewed as distractions (Astakhova, 2015), with preliminary evidence showing that OP is linked to less positive interpersonal relationships and experiences (Philippe et al., 2010). Thus, the lack of adequate organizational socialization constrains the alignment of organizational values with the individual’s values (Cable and Parsons, 2001), suggesting that OP will be associated with suboptimal P-O fit.

**Hypothesis 4a:** HP is positively related to perceived P-O fit.

**Hypothesis 4b:** OP is negatively related to perceived P-O fit.

To the extent that employees perceive high congruence between their own and organizational values, their organizational engagement will increase. This is premised on the empirically-validated argument that individuals with high P-O fit “perceive that organizational role expectations are congruent with their preferred self-images... and thus they should find more meaningfulness in their work, and in turn, exhibit higher engagement” (Rich et al., 2010, p. 621). In particular, the congruence of values with the organization is essential for assuming an organizational role and for engaging as an organizational member (Chatman, 1989), whereas D-A fit, and its emphasis on work abilities and job demands, represents aspects that are not as proximally related to the broader organizational goals and values. Thus, we expect P-O fit, rather than D-A fit, to be related to organizational engagement.

Integrating the previous arguments leads us to expect that perceived P-O fit will mediate the relationships between job passion and organizational engagement. Again, this is based on the notion that individuals’ subjective perceptions (including perceived fit with one’s organization) are important linking mechanisms that connect motivational constructs and individual work outcomes (e.g., Yu, 2013). More specific but tangential support for the mediating role of P-O fit can be seen in Hoffmann et al.’s (2011) study, which showed that the motivational effect of
transformational leadership invoked higher P-O fit among followers, which then led to greater work effectiveness. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 5:* Perceived P-O fit is positively related to organizational engagement.

*Hypothesis 6:* Perceived P-O fit mediates the (a) positive relationship between HP and organizational engagement; and (b) negative relationship between OP and organizational engagement.

**Moderating Role of Trust in the OP–Fit Relationships**

While the P-E fit literature offers theoretically-driven reasons for a negative link between OP and fit perceptions, prior research in passion has reported mixed and sometimes null effects stemming from OP. For instance, Ho et al. (2011) found that OP was negatively related to the attention component of engagement but not to the absorption component, whereas Trépanier et al. (2014) found that OP was not associated with engagement even though they hypothesized a negative linkage. More broadly, studies have found that OP can have null (Carbonneau et al., 2008), positive (Burke et al., 2015), or negative (Thorgren et al., 2013) linkages to job satisfaction, and have either non-significant (Burke et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2011) or positive (Astakhova and Porter, 2015) relationships to job performance. These inconsistent findings allude to the presence of contingency factors that may foster or inhibit the functioning of OP. We therefore examine trust as one possible contingency factor given that trust represents a particularly strong form of positive attitude relating to interpersonal relationships and, thus, is a plausible candidate in mitigating the negative impact of OP on fit perceptions.

Trust is defined as an individual’s willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the latter will perform a particular action (Schoorman et al., 2007), and is an attitude that is referent-focused, such that one can trust in (i.e., be willing to be vulnerable to) one’s coworkers, supervisors, and the organization in general (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). Drawing on arguments from the target similarity framework (Lavelle et al., 2007), we
predict that trust in coworkers and supervisor will moderate the link between OP and D-A fit, whereas trust in the organization will moderate the link between OP and P-O fit.

The target similarity model stipulates that employees form unique attitudes towards multiple foci in the organizational environment (e.g., organization, supervisors, and coworkers), and naturally focus on those foci that are viewed as most responsible or salient for their experiences in a particular situation (Lavelle et al., 2007). In the context of D-A fit, such perceptions relate to one’s fulfillment of his/her job role and work demands, which necessitates recurrent interdependence with coworkers and supervisors. This suggests that one’s trust in coworkers and supervisor play particularly salient roles in moderating the link between OP and D-A fit. High levels of trust in coworkers and supervisor carry with them positive affect (McAllister, 1995), which can mitigate the negative role of OP (with its corresponding negative affect) on perceived D-A fit, as predicted from an affective-consistency perspective.

Additionally, while the hedonistic perspective stipulates that OP will dampen D-A fit because of fear of revealing one’s lack of abilities/competence and the threat to valued rewards, trust in coworkers and supervisor can alleviate such fears. Indeed, trust in coworkers creates psychological safety (May et al., 2004) and reduces the need for self-protection (Edmondson, 1999). Similarly, trust in supervisor increases employee willingness to share sensitive information and to be more vulnerable to criticism (Mayer and Gavin, 2005). Thus, obsessively passionate employees who trust their coworkers and supervisor may feel more comfortable in taking proactive actions to enhance their abilities and take on more challenging tasks, compared to their low-trust counterparts. Accordingly, we expect that trust in either coworkers or supervisor will attenuate the negative link between OP and D-A fit, and integrating this with Hypothesis 3b, we propose the following:
**Hypothesis 7**: The strength of the mediated relationship between OP and job engagement (via perceived D-A fit) is moderated by (a) trust in coworkers; and (b) trust in supervisor, such that the indirect relationship is less negative when each form of trust is high.

In line with the target similarity model, we also predict that one’s trust in the organization will moderate the link between OP and P-O fit, given that P-O fit perceptions relate to organizational values rather than specific job aspects. Because employees who trust their organization perceive a social exchange relationship with the organization and have positive expectations about the organization’s concern for their well-being (Blau, 1964), this can enhance obsessively passionate workers’ confidence that the organization has their interests at heart, thereby reducing their sense of pressure and compulsion to work for the sake of external contingencies. Further, such trust can alleviate their concerns that engagement in organizational activities outside of their formal job roles will not be acknowledged or rewarded, thereby enhancing their inclination to go beyond formal job tasks and engage in activities that are not formally rewarded but nonetheless facilitate organizational socialization and integration (Van Dyne et al., 1994). This then yields greater P-O fit compared to their obsessively passionate counterparts with lower organizational trust. Integrating this with Hypothesis 6b, we propose the following hypothesis and present the conceptual model and the results in Figure 1.

**Hypothesis 8**: The strength of the mediated relationship between OP and organizational engagement (via perceived P-O fit) is moderated by trust in the organization, such that the indirect relationship is less negative when trust in organization is high.

**Method**

**Sample and Procedure**

Healthcare professionals enrolled in Healthcare MBA online courses during the Spring 2014 semester at a southern U.S. university participated in the study and received a course grade for their participation. To reduce common method variance (CMV), we employed a three-phase
time-lagged approach by measuring control variables and independent variables (HP and OP) at Time 1, mediator variables (perceived D-A and P-O fit) and moderator variables (trust in coworkers, supervisor, and organization) at Time 2, and outcome variables (job and organizational engagement) at Time 3. Each time period was separated by a two-week lag. An online link to the Time 1 survey was sent to 305 individuals, and we received 265 responses (87% response rate). Subsequently, 232 of these respondents completed the Time 2 survey (88% of Time 1 respondents). Finally, the Time 3 survey was completed by 214 respondents (93% of Time 2 respondents; 70% of original sample) who formed the final sample. Of these participants, 68% were female, and the average age was 35.86 years. The average total work experience was 13.23 years and the participants came from diverse set of jobs in healthcare (e.g., healthcare administrator, clinic manager).

To assess the presence of nonrandom sampling bias caused by attrition of respondents, we conducted multiple logistic regression analyses recommended by Goodman and Blum (1996). We examined such bias caused by attrition between Times 1 and 2, and between Times 2 and 3. The non-significant results ($\chi^2_{73} = 83.15, p > .05$ and $\chi^2_{78} = 65.97, p > .05$ for the each of the two comparisons, respectively) suggested a low possibility of nonrandom sampling bias in the sample.

**Measures**

Measures of job passion, perceived fit and trust utilized a 7-point agreement scale, whereas the engagement measures utilized a 5-point agreement scale.

**Job passion.** HP and OP were measured with 7 items each, based on the instrument originally developed by Vallerand et al. (2003) and adapted to the job context by Ho et al. (2011). Sample items for HP and OP include “My job reflects the qualities I like about myself” and “I have difficulty imagining my life without my job” respectively.
**Perceived fit.** Perceive D-A fit and P-O fit were each measured with 3 items from Cable and DeRue’s (2002) scales. Sample items for D-A fit and P-O fit are “The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills” and “The things that I value in life are very similar to the things my organization values” respectively.

**Trust.** We measured trust in coworkers, supervisor, and organization using Ferres and colleagues’ (2004) 12-item scale for each variable. Sample items include “I feel that my coworkers are truthful in their dealings with me,” “I proceed on the basis that my supervisor will act in good faith,” and “I feel that information can be shared openly within my organization” for trust in coworkers, supervisor, and organization, respectively.

**Job and organizational engagement.** Saks’s (2006) scale was used to assess job engagement (5 items) and organizational engagement (6 items). Sample items for job and organizational engagement are “I am highly engaged in this job” and “I am highly engaged in this organization” respectively.

**Control variables.** We included respondents’ education, organizational tenure, work experience, and rank as control variables, based on previous research demonstrating the relationships between these variables and person-environment fit and engagement (e.g., Ho et al., 2011).

**Results**

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables. Three of the control variables (education, organizational tenure, and work experience) had no significant relationships with the outcomes and were excluded from the subsequent analyses to conserve statistical power (Becker, 2005). To assess the nine-factor measurement model, we first parcelled the items for the three trust scales into three composite indicators each, so as to optimize the measurement structure of constructs and minimize the potential pitfalls of small sample sizes relative to the number of estimated parameters (Little et al., 2002). The hypothesized
measurement model achieved good fit ($\chi^2_{666} = 552.92$, RMSEA = .00, CFI = 1.00, NFI = .99, AIC = 456.94), and all indicators loaded on their respective constructs except for one organizational engagement item, which was subsequently deleted. The comparisons of the hypothesized model against eight alternative models indicated the best fit for the former (results available from authors). Average variances extracted (AVE) indicators also exceeded 0.5 except for that for OP (0.47), which was slightly below that threshold (see Table 1). Additionally, AVEs for all constructs (including OP) exceeded the squared of respective inter-variable correlation values (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Together, the above provide support for convergent and discriminant validity of the study constructs.

We used Edwards and Lambert’s (2007) approach to assess our hypotheses, which were tested in two steps. First, we examined simple mediation models to test Hypotheses 1 through 6, and we applied a bootstrapping approach using SPSS macros to test the indirect effects of passion (Preacher and Hayes, 2008). In the second step, we included the moderator variables of trust to test the first-stage moderation (between OP and fit) proposed in Hypotheses 7 and 8. All continuous measures were mean-centered (Aiken and West, 1991), and Figure 1 presents the summarized findings.

**Mediating role of D-A fit.** Table 2 presents the results for Hypotheses 1 through 3. The results indicate that HP was positively associated with D-A fit ($B = .31, p < .001$), consistent with Hypothesis 1a. However, Hypothesis 1b was not supported in that the relationship between OP and D-A fit was not significant ($B = -.06, p = .40$). In line with Hypothesis 2, the relationship between D-A fit and job engagement was positive and significant ($B = .10, p < .05$). The total indirect effect of HP on job engagement via D-A fit was significant ($B = .18, p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 3a. However, Hypothesis 3b on the indirect effect of OP on job engagement via D-A fit was not supported, because despite the significant beta-coefficient ($B = .10, p < .05$), the bootstrapped 95% CI around the indirect effect contained zero (LL 95% CI = -
.03; UL 95% CI = .01). We also tested an alternative model where P-O fit mediated the passion-job engagement relationship, and the bootstrap results for this indirect effect were not significant, thereby ruling out P-O fit as a mediator.

**Mediating role of P-O fit.** Table 3 summarizes the results for Hypotheses 4 through 6. Consistent with Hypothesis 4a, HP was positively related to perceived P-O fit \((B = .35, p < .001)\), but contrary to Hypothesis 4b, OP was positively instead of negatively related to P-O fit \((B = .17, p < .05)\). Supporting Hypothesis 5, P-O fit was positively related to organizational engagement \((B = .18, p < .001)\). Hypothesis 6a was supported, in that the indirect positive effect of HP on organizational engagement via P-O fit was significant \((B = .27, p < .001)\). Again, contrary to Hypothesis 6b, the indirect effect of OP on organizational engagement via P-O fit was significant but positive \((B = .17, p < .001)\). Finally, we again included D-A fit as an alternative mediator in the above analyses, and the bootstrap results for the indirect effect of passion on organizational engagement through D-A fit were not significant, ruling out this form as fit as a mediator.

**Moderated mediation.** We expected that the negative relationship between OP and D-A fit will be attenuated when trust in coworkers and in the supervisor are high. As seen in Table 4, however, neither the interaction between OP and trust in coworkers \((B = .04, p = .57)\) nor that between OP and trust in supervisor \((B = .04, p = .36)\) was significant. The bootstrapping results also indicated that the indirect effect of OP on job engagement at high levels of either trust in coworkers or supervisor \((\text{LL 95\% CI} = -.02; \text{UL 95\% CI} = .05)\) contained zero, thereby indicating that the indirect effect of OP on job engagement was not conditioned by trust in coworkers or the supervisor, failing to support Hypothesis 7a or 7b.

To test Hypothesis 8, we first tested the moderating role of trust in organization in the relationship between OP and P-O fit. As predicted, the interaction term was significant \((B = .08, p < .05)\), and simple slope tests revealed that the link between OP and P-O fit was positive when
trust in organization was high ($\beta = .27, p < .001$), but was not significant when trust was low ($\beta = .11, p = .18$) (see Figure 2). It is worth noting that while we initially expected trust in organization to weaken or buffer the negative link between OP and perceived P-O fit, the unexpected positive relationship between the two constructs changed the role of the moderator to an amplifier rather than a buffer of the relationship strength. We then tested the moderated mediation model, and the bootstrapping results for the indirect relationship between OP and organizational engagement via perceived P-O fit contained zero when trust in organization was low (LL 95% CI = -.04; UL 95% CI = .08) but not when it was high (LL 95% CI = .04; UL 95% CI = .11). These results are in line with Hypothesis 8, in that the hypothesized indirect negative effect was weaker (and, in fact, positive) at higher levels of trust.

**Post-hoc analysis.** Given the non-significant results for the moderating roles of trust in coworkers and trust in supervisor, we explored the possibility that both forms of trust need to be jointly present in order for them to moderate the link between OP and D-A fit. Because each of these two targets presents different forms of threats to an obsessively passionate worker, whereby the supervisor has the formal authority to withhold rewards or to punish (French and Raven, 1959) and coworkers have the potential to ostracize, for instance (Williams and Sommer, 1997), such a worker may need to have trust in both of these targets before his/her fears and concerns about each of these targets can be mitigated. Thus, we included a three-way interaction of OP, trust in coworkers, and trust in supervisor to predict D-A fit, and this three-way interaction was significant ($B = .10, p < .05$), with Figure 3 graphically representing this interaction. The relationship between OP and D-A fit was positive and marginally significant when both trust in coworkers and trust in supervisor were high ($\beta = .14, p = .07$), and slope difference tests revealed that this slope was significantly different from the other three (non-significant) slopes ($t$-values for slope differences ranged from 2.06 to 2.30, $p < .05$); no other slope differences was significant. We then tested the full moderated mediation model, and the
bootstrapping results for the indirect effect of OP on job engagement were positive and did not contain zero when trust in coworkers and trust in supervisor were both high (LL 95% CI = .01; UL 95% CI = .07), but contained zero at all other levels of the moderators. Together, these results indicate that the effect of OP on job engagement via perceived D-A fit was strongest (and, in fact, positive) at high levels of trust in both coworkers and the supervisor, and non-significant in all other instances.

Discussion

This is the first study to integrate P-E fit theory with the dualistic model of passion, and to employ a target-similarity approach to explain nuanced relationships between job passion and engagement. Findings were more straightforward for HP than for OP, in that HP was associated with higher D-A fit which then translated HP into higher job engagement. Similarly, consistent with the target similarity model, P-O fit mediated the positive link between HP and organizational engagement. Findings for OP were more nuanced and underscore the contingent nature of OP, in that the indirect effect of OP on job engagement through D-A fit was qualified by the joint interaction of one’s trust in coworkers and in the supervisor, such that the indirect effect was positive only when both forms of trust were high. Similarly, while the indirect effect of OP on organizational engagement through P-O fit was positive, this was moderated by one’s trust in the organization, such that it was positive when such trust was high, but not significant when trust was low.

While we predicted that the relationship between OP and D-A fit would be moderated by trust in coworkers or trust in supervisor, the post-hoc analyses revealed that the simultaneous presence of trust in coworkers and in the supervisor was required for moderation to emerge. We interpret this as an indication that obsessively passionate employees distinguish between these two work referents as they develop trust in the workplace. The two referents embody distinct forms of rewards (e.g., formal incentives from supervisors vs. informal social support from
coworkers) as well as punishments (e.g., formal reprimand from supervisors vs. ostracism by coworkers) (e.g., Monnot and Beehr, 2014; Williams and Sommer, 1997). Thus, in order for the negative emotions and affect stemming from OP to be countered by positive affect from trust, a stronger degree of trust (i.e., trust in both these targets) appears to be necessary. Only then may obsessively passionate workers feel psychologically safe to challenge themselves and/or improve their work abilities so as to enhance their D-A fit. These findings are also consistent with the notion that social connectedness is highly important for obsessively passionate individuals (Vallerand, 2010), and thus feelings of trust with multiple foci may provide greater assurance of that connectedness and enhance positive outcomes of OP.

It is worth noting that, contrary to our prediction of the negative link between OP and P-O fit, the main-effect relationship was positive. However, the moderating results revealed that this relationship was positive only in the high organizational trust condition, not in the low trust condition, thereby underscoring the need to adopt a more contextualized, nuanced interpretation of the main-effect relationship. Specifically, the results suggest that to counter and outweigh the negative affect stemming from OP to yield improved P-O fit, high trust is necessary. This finding, taken together with the moderating results for the link between OP and D-A fit, highlights a broader theme whereby the influence of OP on outcomes may manifest only in the presence of critical contingency factors.

**Research Implications**

The main contribution of the present study is to delineate the mediating and moderating factors that underline the relationships between job passion and engagement. The findings that perceived D-A fit and P-O fit are the conduits for job passion–engagement relationships augment passion research by shedding light into the “black box” of how passion translates into engagement. We argue that the affect-based fit perspective provides an explanatory framework for this linkage, thereby addressing Ho and Pollack’s (2014) concern about the lack of clarity on
the process question of how passion results in favorable outcomes. Our findings also align with prior theoretical assertion that affective experiences triggered by passion can function as mechanisms that shape the broadening of thought-action repertoires and self, leading to a changed pattern of outcomes (Philippe et al., 2010).

By showing that multi-foci trust serves as a critical contingency in the OP–engagement relationship, our study also sheds light on prior passion research that found mixed findings on the outcomes of OP. In particular, in contrast to some studies reporting negative outcomes stemming from OP (Forest et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2007), we show that OP can indeed yield positive outcomes (in the form of job and organizational engagement) under the right conditions, specifically those where individuals’ OP is complemented by trust in coworkers, the supervisor, and the organization. These findings echo previous studies showing that OP for non-work activities can, if combined with positive factors such as experiences of success or high self-enhancement, lead to favorable outcomes (Lafrenière et al., 2012; 2013). More specifically, this contingency also explains why the hypotheses relating to the outcomes of OP were not necessarily supported – because these relationships are contingent on obsessively passionate workers’ trust in their colleagues and the organization, the hypothesized negative main effects may be suppressed or compensated for by the presence of these contingent factors.

Consequently, interpreting main effects without taking into account critical contingencies is likely to yield misleading conclusions, and we recommend that prior findings on the consequences of OP be interpreted with a more nuanced view, while future research should identify further critical moderators in the OP-to-outcomes linkages.

By integrating trust as the moderating construct into the model, our work introduces a trust-based social exchange perspective to the context of job passion. Exchange relationships with various organizational members have long been shown to pay dividends in the form of positive work outcomes, and we demonstrate here that such dividends also extend to the context
of OP by promoting obsessively passionate workers’ perceptions of fit. This has important implications for passion research and underscores the value of incorporating social exchange constructs (e.g., perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange) as critical boundary conditions in the nomological network of job passion.

Because our model integrates job passion with fit and engagement literatures, our findings inform the latter literatures as well. We contribute to engagement research by testing the antecedents of job and organizational engagement. Although the distinction between the two forms of engagement is not new, previous research on unique antecedents of each type of engagement has been scarce. In showing that D-A fit predicted job engagement but not organizational engagement, whereas P-O fit predicted the latter but not the former, we highlight clear differences in the nomological networks of job and organizational engagement. At the broadest level, these results align with the premise in social exchange theory that individuals direct their reciprocation efforts to the sources from which they receive a benefit (Blau, 1964). To the extent that employees perceive their job demands as matching their abilities, they will be more psychologically present in their job roles. Similarly, those who perceive that the organization’s values are aligned with their personal values will be more inclined to invest energies into their organizational role. These findings highlight the value of distinguishing work engagement into its various forms, given that the antecedents of each are distinct and the pathways to promoting each also differ.

As a secondary contribution, this study adds to the P-E fit literature by examining both antecedents and outcomes of P-E fit in the same model, thereby enriching the nomological connections of fit and reducing the elusiveness of the fit construct (Yu, 2009). As Yu (2009, p. 1211) noted, research on individual-level antecedents of P-E fit is limited, and “(t)he usefulness of P-E fit to organizations and individuals is thus compromised until we have a better idea of how individuals experience, manage, and influence P-E fit.” Our study takes a step toward filling
this gap by not only introducing job passion as an important individual-level igniter of P-E fit perceptions, but also showing that the two types of passion are not uniformly important in how they induce fit perceptions. HP is a more consistent and stronger predictor of D-A and P-O fit compared to OP, which positively predicts both fit perceptions only in the presence of high trust. These findings align with Shin’s (2004, p. 738) assertion that “the rationale for specific attributes being identified as the antecedents of each fit depends on their relative importance and salience,” and provide the stimulus for further research to examine which antecedents may be more critical for one type of fit than the other.

**Practical Implications**

Because job passion enhances P-E fit and, ultimately, job and organizational engagement, companies should strive to build passion in the workplace. As HP develops out of individual autonomy orientation (Liu et al., 2011), organizations can specifically recruit and hire individuals who show initiative in problem-solving or who seek interesting and challenging tasks, as those individuals will likely develop HP for their jobs. Further, the role of autonomy-supportive organizational environment in growing HP can be used by organizations as a strategy to nurture passion “in house” by facilitating more job autonomy. The finding that both HP and OP are indirectly related to engagement through fit perceptions also presents evidence of equifinality (multiple paths) through which engagement can be managed, such that organizations can opt to fuel employees’ HP, manage their OP, or undertake both actions simultaneously.

Unlike the case with HP, organizations are typically advised to be cautious about OP due to its potentially negative consequences (Astakhova and Porter, 2015; Ho and Pollack, 2014). To this end, our research provides hope for organizations by showing that obsessively passionate workers can nonetheless be highly engaged, specifically when they trust their coworkers, supervisor, and the organization. Thus, rather than concluding that OP is potentially detrimental and that obsessively passionate workers should be sidelined or not be hired, managers should
instead consider harnessing such passion for organizational gain, such as by facilitating conditions that allow for the benefits of OP to manifest. Our study highlights one such boundary condition – obsessively passionate employees’ multi-foci trust – and suggests that organizations should develop these employees’ organizational trust if they want to enhance their organizational engagement. On the other hand, if developing such workers’ job engagement is the goal, then simultaneously building their trust in coworkers and the supervisor should become a priority. For example, fair and effective performance appraisal systems can be beneficial for building trust in supervisors and the organization.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

While CMV may have artificially inflated correlations among some of the study variables and present a potential threat to validity, we implemented both procedural and statistical remedies recommended by Podsakoff and colleagues (2012) to mitigate this risk. Procedurally, we protected respondents’ anonymity and used an intentional ordering of survey questions to assess the criterion variables first. Our data were also collected as a part of a larger study that measured other items unrelated to this research, thereby increasing the psychological separation of the variables. Further, we implemented a temporal separation of measures by having a two-week time lag between each point of data collection. Statistically, we used the marker variable technique which evaluates the extent to which correlations among the model variables are significantly biased by marker variable method effects (Williams et al., 2010), and the results indicated that CMV did not substantively bias the results. The alternative models we tested for mediation and moderated mediation hypotheses also indicated the presence of various non-significant paths, tempering the concern that all relationships are artifacts of CMV. Finally, the fact that we found evidence for moderating effects, which cannot be attributed to CMV and, in fact, are attenuated in its presence (Conway and Lance, 2010), further suggests that this threat is
minimal. Nonetheless, we acknowledge that conclusions of causality cannot be made from the cross-sectional study and we recommend that longitudinal studies be conducted in future.

It is worth acknowledging some other methodological limitations that should be mitigated in future research, even though they do not threaten the validity of the present findings. Some of the constructs are strongly correlated (e.g., between passion and organizational engagement), but the various tests for convergent and discriminant validity consistently suggest that both types of validity hold in our sample. The values of some confidence intervals may be considered small, but our use of a large bootstrap sample size of 5,000 adds confidence in the results. Finally, we did not include common job attitudes (e.g., organizational commitment, job satisfaction) as control variables in view of prior research distinguishing these attitudes from passion and engagement. Nonetheless, we recommend that future research include these control variables so as to enhance the validity of the present findings.

Although we use the affective-consistency fit perspective to explain the mediating role of fit, we did not specifically measure affect, something that future research can incorporate as an intermediate mechanism between passion and fit. Additionally, this being the first study to open the black box linking job passion to work engagement, we recommend that subsequent research consider other plausible mediating and moderating factors. For instance, employees’ psychological states (e.g., subjective vitality) and role perceptions (e.g., role overload) can be alternative mediating mechanisms, whereas other social exchange factors previously discussed can help to attenuate or accentuate the link between OP and key outcomes.

Another future research direction involves replicating and extending the present findings to samples from different occupations, industries, and organizational contexts to test the robustness of our model. It is conceivable that differences in these contextual factors create boundary conditions on the influence of job passion on engagement, such that the linkage between these two constructs can be attenuated or accentuated based on such conditions. In
particular, extending our findings to occupations beyond the healthcare sector is important in view of the fact that Trépanier et al.’s (2014) study on the link between passion and engagement was also conducted with healthcare employees (nurses).

Finally, while our study demonstrates that OP, conditional upon trust, can be associated with positive outcomes, by no means do we claim that OP is an overall positive phenomenon. As discussed earlier, previous research has found that OP can be associated with favorable as well as unfavorable outcomes, thereby necessitating further investigation to evaluate these relationships. For example, future research can test a model in which both favorable (e.g., engagement) and unfavorable (e.g., burnout) outcomes of passion are simultaneously included, and examine whether trust can mitigate or even reverse the negative association between OP and unfavorable outcomes. To conclude, our study not only illuminates the mediating process through which HP and OP translate into job and organizational engagement, but also provides a heretofore missing perspective on the boundary conditions under which OP yields high engagement, thereby providing a contextualized answer to how and when passionate employees become engaged ones.
References


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*Note. n=214; AVE=average variance extracted; HP=harmonious passion; OP=obsessive passion; D-A=demands-abilities; P-O=person-organization. Cronbach’s alphas are presented in the diagonal.

*p < .05

**p < .01
Table 2
Mediating Role of Perceived Demands-Abilities (D-A) Fit

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<td>Total effect of IV on DV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV→job engagement (through perceived D-A fit)</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>2.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bootstrap results for indirect effect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>CI</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effect (through perceived D-A fit)</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-03</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect (through perceived P-O fit)</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-01</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-01</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n=214. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size=5,000; IV=independent variable; DV=dependent variable; LL=lower limit; CI=confidence interval; UL=upper limit.
Table 3

Mediating Role of Perceived Person-Organization (P-O) Fit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>IV=HP</th>
<th></th>
<th>IV=OP</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>p</td>
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<tr>
<td>Direct effect of IV on DV</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>IV→organizational engagement</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Direct effects of IV on Mediators</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV→perceived P-O fit</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV→perceived D-A fit</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct effects of Mediators on DV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived P-O fit→organizational engagement</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived D-A fit→organizational engagement</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-0.04</td>
<td>.96</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total effect of IV on DV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV→organizational engagement (through perceived P-O fit)</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>6.44</td>
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Bootstrap results for indirect effect

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<th></th>
<th>LL 95%</th>
<th>UL 95%</th>
<th>LL 95%</th>
<th>UL 95%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effect (through perceived P-O fit)</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effect (through perceived D-A fit)</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. n=214. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size=5,000; IV=independent variable; DV=dependent variable; LL=lower limit; CI=confidence interval; UL=upper limit.
### Table 4

Moderated Mediation Models for Obsessive Passion (OP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Perceived D-A fit</th>
<th>Perceived P-O fit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$B$</td>
<td>$SE$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust in coworkers</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust in supervisor</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust in organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Two-way interactions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP×Trust in coworkers</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP×Trust in supervisor</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OP×Trust in organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$</td>
<td>8.59***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* $n=214$. D-A=demands-abilities; P-O=person-organization; OP=obsessive job passion.

***$p<.001$
Figure 1

Conceptual Model and Results

Note. HP=harmonious passion; OP=obsessive passion; D-A=demands-abilities; P-O=person-organization. Hypotheses 3a/b and 6a/b test for the mediating roles of D-A fit and P-O fit, respectively, in the links between passion and job engagement, and between passion and organizational engagement. The beta coefficient above the dotted rectangular box represents the post-hoc three-way moderation test.
Figure 2

Moderating Role of Trust in Organization in the Relationship between Obsessive Passion (OP) and Perceived Person-Organization (P-O) Fit
Figure 3
Moderating Roles of Trust in Coworkers and Trust in Supervisor in the Relationship between Obsessive Passion (OP) and Perceived Demands-Abilities (D-A) Fit