

## Untangling Person–Job Fit and Job Satisfaction: A Hierarchical CFA–SEM Approach in CBIC

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### ABSTRACT

Person – Job Fit and Job satisfaction are two integral parts associated with every job. While the first is constructed by amalgamation of the ability to perform the job and availability of the resources, the second one measures the mental status of the workers while they are in the job. Several research works have been conducted to estimate the interrelationship among these two aspects associated with jobs. This study set out to clarify how Person–Job Fit and Job Satisfaction are structured and how they interact in shaping employees’ experiences within the Central Board of Indirect Taxes and Customs. Using CFA and SEM, the analysis demonstrated that P–J Fit is best understood as a higher-order construct comprising two distinct yet related dimensions—Demand–Ability Fit and Need–Supply Fit—while Job Satisfaction is effectively captured as a second-order construct reflected in nine classic facets. The structural model revealed a strong and positive path from P–J Fit to Job Satisfaction, with P–J Fit explaining more than half of the variance in overall satisfaction. An alternative first-order model further showed that both D–A Fit and N–S Fit significantly predict Job Satisfaction, with N–S Fit exerting a somewhat stronger influence.

### INTRODUCTION:

The alignment between what a job demands and what an employee can and wishes to offer has long been recognised as a critical determinant of workplace attitudes and behaviour. Person–Job Fit (P–J Fit) theory proposes that employees are more satisfied, motivated and productive when there is a close match between their abilities and the requirements of the role, as well as between their needs and the rewards and opportunities provided by the organisation. In parallel, Job Satisfaction has been extensively examined as a multidimensional construct comprising facets such as pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, operating conditions, coworker relations, nature of work and communication. While these two streams of research are individually rich, empirical work that integrates them in a rigorous, hierarchical modelling framework—especially within Indian public-sector organisations—remains relatively limited. Prior work, including internal studies within CBIC, has largely relied on factor scores and multiple regression. While useful, such techniques do not fully account for measurement error, nor do they allow the simultaneous estimation of complex hierarchical structures. Against this backdrop, the present study pursues three interrelated aims. First, it validates the factorial structure of P–J Fit among CBIC employees by modelling D–A Fit and N–S Fit as first-order latent variables under a second-order P–J Fit factor. Second, it confirms the multidimensional structure of Job Satisfaction using nine first-order facets

represented by a second-order Job Satisfaction construct. Third, it develops and tests a structural equation model in which P–J Fit predicts Job Satisfaction, explicitly incorporating the measurement properties of both constructs. By adopting a CFA–SEM approach with data from 492 CBIC employees, the study responds to the identified gaps and provides robust evidence on how fit and satisfaction are structured and interrelated in a large Indian public-sector organisation.

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Person–Environment and Person–Job Fit: Conceptual Foundations

Person–job (P–J) fit specifically concerns the match between employees and the requirements and attributes of their jobs. Edwards’ seminal work synthesised earlier approaches and defined P–J fit as the compatibility between an individual’s abilities and job demands as well as between an individual’s needs and job supplies. This dual emphasis on what the job *demands* and what it *supplies* has shaped most modern conceptualisations of fit.

Kristof (1996) later distinguished different forms of P–E fit, including person–organisation (P–O), person–group, and person–vocation fit, but also reiterated that P–J fit comprises both demands–abilities and needs–supplies perspectives. Building on this, Sekiguchi (2004) argued that P–J fit is central at the selection stage because it addresses whether job applicants possess the capabilities

required for specific tasks and whether the job can satisfy applicants' needs and preferences. Boon et al. (2016) further integrated temporal considerations, noting that P–J fit evolves as jobs and individuals change over time, and that perceptions of fit at one point may not capture its dynamic nature.

Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson (2005) showed that P–J fit is positively associated with job satisfaction, organisational commitment and performance, and negatively related to strain and turnover intentions, through meta-analytics. Subsequent reviews of P–E and P–O fit have repeatedly confirmed the central position of P–J fit in predicting attitude and behaviour across diverse settings (e.g., Meyer et al., 2010; Subramanian, 2023).

### **Demand–Ability Fit (D–A Fit)**

Demand–Ability (D–A) fit refers to the congruence between an employee's knowledge, skills and abilities and the demands or requirements of the job. Edwards (1991) treated D–A fit as one of the core components of P–J fit. Cable and DeRue (2002) provided a major empirical contribution by demonstrating that employees differentiate between demands–abilities fit, needs–supplies fit and P–O fit. De Crom (2018) found that D–A fit plays a significant role in fostering meaningful work and positive work beliefs. Sylva, Mol, Den Hartog and Dorenbosch (2019) showed that proactive career behaviours can enhance D–A fit over time. More recently, Lerche (2025) used an eight-wave longitudinal design showed that fluctuations in D–A fit are closely tied to changes in satisfaction and psychological strain.

Other studies have examined D–A fit in relation to creativity, innovation and engagement. Livingstone et al. (1997) reported that P–E fit, including the alignment of abilities with creative role requirements, supports creative performance. Afsar, Badir and Khan (2015) and Huang et al. (2019) found that P–J fit, often operationalised with a strong D–A component, positively predicts innovative work behaviour. Collectively, these works suggest that D–A fit is not only a predictor of traditional performance indicators but also of growth-oriented and innovative behaviours.

### **Need–Supply Fit (N–S Fit)**

Need–Supply (N–S) fit reflects the extent to which a job provides the rewards, resources and conditions that satisfy an employee's needs, values and preferences. Edwards (1991) conceptualised N–S fit as complementary to D–A fit. Cable and DeRue's (2002) validation work confirmed that N–S fit emerges as a distinct factor.

Kim (2020) took a dynamic view and examined how D–A and N–S fit developed over time and can change work attitudes of employees. Boon et al. (2016) similarly highlighted that need of rewards, development opportunities and work–life balance that can improve N–S fit.

N–S fit has been repeatedly linked to affective outcomes. Song et al. (2020) found that misfit in N–S perceptions is associated with higher distress and turnover intentions, while good N–S fit buffers strain and fosters engagement. Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) noted that N–S-based measures of P–J fit often show stronger relationships with

satisfaction and commitment. Recent P–E fit research also emphasises that needs–supplies congruence is central in public-sector settings (Bohdick et al., 2022; Subramanian, 2023).

### **Person–Job Fit and Job Satisfaction**

Across decades of research, job satisfaction has been one of the most consistently studied outcomes of P–J fit. Edwards (1991) argued that both D–A and N–S fit should directly influence job satisfaction. Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) reported medium-to-large correlations between P–J fit and job satisfaction across a wide range of occupations and contexts.

Empirical studies have demonstrated this relationship in various sectors. Afsar (2016) and Afsar and Badir (2017) showed that P–J and P–O fit predict positive attitudes and innovative behaviour. Boon et al. (2016) revealed that temporal changes in P–J fit track changes in satisfaction. Sylva et al. (2019) indicated that career initiative can enhance perceived D–A fit. More recently, Woerkom et al. (2024) have advocated strengths-based job design as a mechanism to promote P–J fit.

Within the Indian context, studies in private organisations generally confirm that higher P–J fit is associated with greater job satisfaction and organisational commitment (e.g., Afsar, 2016; Wahyudi et al., 2019). However, fewer studies have explicitly separated D–A and N–S fit or employed hierarchical structural models.

### **Job Satisfaction and the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)**

Job satisfaction itself has been conceptualised both as a global evaluation of one's job and as a multifaceted construct reflecting satisfaction with pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work and communication. Spector (1985) developed the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS consists of 36 items forming nine subscales, each with four items, and has been widely validated. Spector's original work showed acceptable internal consistency for each facet and the total scale. Subsequent studies have replicated JSS. Recent applications, such as research on emergency medical services personnel, continue to rely on the JSS. Spector (2022) further synthesised decades of work on job satisfaction, arguing that multidimensional assessment remains crucial for diagnosing specific areas of dissatisfaction and designing targeted interventions. Despite this extensive use, relatively few studies have combined a rigorous CFA of the JSS with a hierarchical modelling of P–J fit.

### **Research Gaps, Objectives and Hypothesis**

#### **RG1:**

Although P–J Fit has been widely studied; there is still limited empirical consensus on its measurement structure.

#### **RG2:**

Although Job Satisfaction dimensions are vastly studied in private-sector settings, the same has not been studied much in a CFA - based evidence confirming its multidimensional structure

#### **RG3:**

Previous research has often operationalised P–J Fit using

either Demand–Ability Fit or Need–Supply Fit. Modelling P–J Fit and Job Satisfaction as higher-order latent constructs in a single structural equation model is not tried.

### Research Objectives

In light of the above gaps, the present study sets out the following objectives:

#### RO1:

To validate the factorial structure of Person–Job Fit among CBIC employees by modelling Demand–Ability Fit and Need–Supply Fit as first-order latent variables and assessing whether they form a second-order P–J Fit construct using Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

#### RO2:

To validate the multidimensional structure of Job Satisfaction among CBIC employees by confirming the nine first-order satisfaction facets and examining whether they can be represented by a second-order Job Satisfaction construct using CFA.

#### RO3:

To develop and test a structural equation model that explains the impact of Person–Job Fit on Job Satisfaction, treating both constructs as higher-order latent variables and explicitly accounting for their measurement properties.

### Research Hypotheses

**RH1:** A two-factor model of P–J Fit loading on a second-order Person–Job Fit factor will exhibit acceptable model fit among CBIC employees.

**RH2:** A nine-factor model of Job Satisfaction, represented by a second-order Job Satisfaction factor, will exhibit acceptable model fit among CBIC employees.

**RH3:** Person–Job Fit has a positive and significant effect on Job Satisfaction among CBIC employees.

### Research Methodology

#### Research Design, Population, Sampling and Sample Size

This study adopts a descriptive and analytical approach using quantitative technique. The descriptive part of the research deals with the profiling of the Person – Job fit and Job Satisfaction of the employees CBIC. The analytical approach is used through using of multivariate techniques like CFA and SEM.

The target population of the study consists of employees of CBIC in India. A multi-stage approach was followed within the present research. In the first stage, a pilot survey was conducted on 50 CBIC employees to examine the reliability of the P–J Fit and Job Satisfaction scales. In the second stage, the final questionnaire was administered to a larger sample of CBIC employees. More than 600 questionnaires were distributed among the employees of CBIC. This is worth mentioning that employees with less than five years of experience were not considered as samples for this study. A total of 492 fully completed responses were obtained and retained for analysis. Sampling was non-probability and purposive in nature,

driven by access to CBIC zones and the willingness of employees to participate.

### Instrument Development and Measures

For Demand–Ability Fit, items were adapted from established P–J Fit scales provided by the research work of Cable & DeRue, (2002). All six items were adopted from the scale and after the pilot study, all the items were retained. For Need–Supply Fit the scale items were drawn from prior work on need–supply fit of Kristof-Brown et al., (2005). After the pilot study, all five items were retained. In the SEM framework, all of these 11 items serve as observed indicators for D–A Fit and N–S Fit. Later, these items in turn load on the second-order latent construct, Person–Job Fit. Job Satisfaction was measured using the popular research work of Spector (1985), Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The study identified 32 items and the pilot study retained all the 32 items. For this study, Job Satisfaction is conceptualised as a second-order construct comprising nine first-order facets.

### Data Analysis Strategy

At the very beginning the reliability of the data was analyzed. The measurement of reliability was done using the values of Chronbach's alpha. Reliability of the D – A and N – S fit and the data associated with the JSS applied on the employees of the CBIC was checked for reliability. Values of  $\alpha \geq 0.70$  were considered acceptable. In addition to this, composite reliability (CR) values were also computed within the CFA framework. This is done for each latent construct. Value of composite reliability  $\geq 0.70$  taken as evidence of satisfactory construct reliability.

### Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted in two main stages. In the first stage, first-order measurement models were estimated for both constructs of P–J Fit. The two latent factors, D–A Fit and N–S Fit is measured by 11 observed indicators. Secondly, Job Satisfaction, specified with nine latent facets is also measured by thirty – two observed indicators.

In the second stage, higher-order measurement models were tested. In this, a second-order P–J Fit factor was specified to load on D–A Fit and N–S Fit. Moreover, another second-order Job Satisfaction factor was specified to load on the nine satisfaction facets. All CFAs were estimated by using Maximum Likelihood (ML). Model fit was evaluated using a combination of absolute, incremental and residual-based indices. The list includes

Chi-square statistic ( $\chi^2$ ) and chi-square divided by degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ );

Comparative Fit Index (CFI);

Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI);

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) with 90% confidence interval;

Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR).

Model fit was interpreted against common benchmarks (CFI/TLI  $\geq 0.90$ , preferably  $\geq 0.95$ ; RMSEA  $\leq 0.08$ , preferably  $\leq 0.06$ ; SRMR  $\leq 0.08$ ). Convergent validity was assessed using:

the size and significance of standardised factor loadings (preferably  $\geq 0.50$ , ideally  $\geq 0.70$ );

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values (target  $\geq 0.50$ );

Composite Reliability (CR) values (CR  $\geq 0.70$ ).

Discriminant validity was evaluated using the Fornell–Larcker criterion. HTMT ratios were also inspected, with values below 0.85–0.90 indicating satisfactory discriminant validity. Model re-specifications were guided by modification indices but were only implemented when theoretically justifiable, such as correlating error terms of similarly worded items within the same factor.

### Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

After establishing acceptable measurement models, a structural model was estimated to test the hypothesised relationships. In the primary structural model, the second-order Person–Job Fit construct was specified as an exogenous latent variable, and the second-order Job Satisfaction construct as an endogenous latent variable.

A single directional path from P–J Fit to Job Satisfaction was specified to capture the central hypothesis that employees who perceive a better fit between themselves and their jobs report higher levels of Job Satisfaction.

The structural model was estimated using maximum likelihood and assessed with the same global fit indices used for CFA. The standardised path coefficient ( $\beta$ ) from P–J Fit to Job Satisfaction, its critical ratio (t-value) and p-value were used to test the hypothesis. The  $R^2$  value for

Job Satisfaction indicated the proportion of variance explained by P–J Fit.

Data analysis combined classical reliability assessment with CFA and SEM using software like SPSS for preliminary analysis and AMOS for CFA and SEM.

### Findings and Interpretations

#### Measurement Model (CFA)

The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) supported the proposed measurement structure of both Person–Job Fit and Job Satisfaction. For Person–Job Fit, the two first-order dimensions—Demand–Ability Fit (D–A Fit) and Need–Supply Fit (N–S Fit)—loaded significantly on their respective items, with standardised factor loadings ranging from **0.68 to 0.87** ( $p < 0.001$ ). Composite reliability values for D–A Fit and N–S Fit were **0.88** and **0.86**, respectively, and the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values were **0.59** and **0.55**, indicating good convergent validity.

When a second-order Person–Job Fit factor was specified, its loadings on D–A Fit and N–S Fit were **0.84** and **0.79** ( $p < 0.001$ ), confirming that the two dimensions can be meaningfully represented by a higher-order P–J Fit construct. The overall fit of the P–J Fit measurement model was acceptable ( $\chi^2/df = 2.10$ , CFI = **0.95**, TLI = **0.94**, RMSEA = **0.047**, SRMR = **0.041**), indicating that the hypothesised structure is consistent with the data. This is worth mentioning that all factor loadings significant at  $p < 0.001$ .

Construct / Dimension	Level	No. of items	Standardised loadings (range)	Loading on PJF (2nd order)	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
D–A Fit	First-order	6	0.68 – 0.87	<b>0.84*</b>	0.88	0.59
N–S Fit	First-order	5	0.69 – 0.85	<b>0.79*</b>	0.86	0.55
Person–Job Fit (PJF)	Second-order	2 (DAF, N–S)	–	–	0.9	0.65

For Job Satisfaction, all nine first-order facets showed

significant and substantial loadings on their indicators, with standardised loadings between **0.62 and 0.89** ( $p < 0.001$ ). Composite reliability values for the nine facets ranged from **0.80 to 0.89**, and AVE values ranged from **0.51 to 0.66**, suggesting satisfactory convergent validity across all dimensions. When modelled as a second-order construct, the higher-order Job Satisfaction factor exhibited strong loadings on its nine facets (ranging from **0.71 to 0.88**,  $p < 0.001$ ), supporting the view that these dimensions collectively form an overarching satisfaction construct. The fit indices for the Job Satisfaction measurement model were within acceptable ranges ( $\chi^2/df = 2.35$ , CFI = **0.94**, TLI = **0.93**, RMSEA = **0.052**, SRMR = **0.046**).

Discriminant validity was also supported. For both P–J Fit and Job Satisfaction, the square roots of AVE for each construct exceeded their inter-construct correlations, and all HTMT values remained below **0.85**. This indicates that the two P–J Fit dimensions are empirically distinct from each other, and that the nine facets of Job Satisfaction, while related, capture meaningfully different aspects of employees’ work experiences.

**Table 2: CFA results for Job Satisfaction (JSS)**

Facet of Job Satisfaction	Level	No. of items	Standardised loadings (range)	Loading on JSS (2nd order)	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Pay	First-order	4	0.73 – 0.89	0.88***	0.89	0.64
Promotion	First-order	4	0.70 – 0.86	0.81***	0.86	0.6
Supervision	First-order	4	0.69 – 0.87	0.84***	0.88	0.62
Benefits	First-order	3	0.68 – 0.84	0.77***	0.84	0.57
Contingent Rewards	First-order	3	0.72 – 0.86	0.82***	0.85	0.59
Operating Conditions	First-order	3	0.65 – 0.82	0.74***	0.82	0.53
Coworkers	First-order	3	0.62 – 0.81	0.71***	0.8	0.51
Nature of Work	First-order	4	0.71 – 0.88	0.86***	0.88	0.62
Communication	First-order	3	0.66 – 0.84	0.79***	0.83	0.56
<b>Job Satisfaction (JSS)</b>	Second-order	9 facets	–	–	0.93	0.6

**Interpretation:**

Taken together, these measurement results indicate that the instruments used in this study reliably and validly capture (a) how employees perceive their fit with their jobs in terms of both capabilities and needs, and (b) how they evaluate different facets of their job experiences. The success of the second-order models suggests that, in the CBIC context, it is both conceptually and empirically justifiable to treat Person–Job Fit and Job Satisfaction as

higher-order latent constructs, rather than as disconnected sets of individual dimensions.

**Structural Model: Effect of Person–Job Fit on Job Satisfaction**

In the structural equation model, the second-order Person–Job Fit construct was specified as an exogenous predictor of the second-order Job Satisfaction construct. The overall structural model demonstrated acceptable fit ( $\chi^2/df = 2.22$ , CFI = **0.95**, TLI = **0.94**, RMSEA = **0.049**, SRMR = **0.044**), comparable to the measurement models, indicating that

the hypothesised structural relationship is consistent with the observed data.

Model	$\chi^2/df$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR	R <sup>2</sup> (Job Satisfaction)
Second-order structural model (PJF → JSS)	2.22	0.95	0.94	0.049	0.044	0.52

*Note.* PJF = Person–Job Fit (second-order construct); JSS = Job Satisfaction (second-order construct).

The standardised path coefficient from Person–Job Fit to Job Satisfaction was  $\beta = 0.72$  ( $p < 0.001$ ), indicating a strong, positive and statistically significant effect. This suggests that employees who perceive a higher level of fit between themselves and their jobs—both in terms of matching their abilities to job demands and having their

needs fulfilled by the job—report substantially higher levels of overall Job Satisfaction. The model explained **52% of the variance** in Job Satisfaction ( $R^2 = 0.52$ ), signifying that more than half of the variability in how satisfied CBIC employees feel about their pay, promotion, supervision, work environment and other facets can be attributed to their perceived P–J Fit.

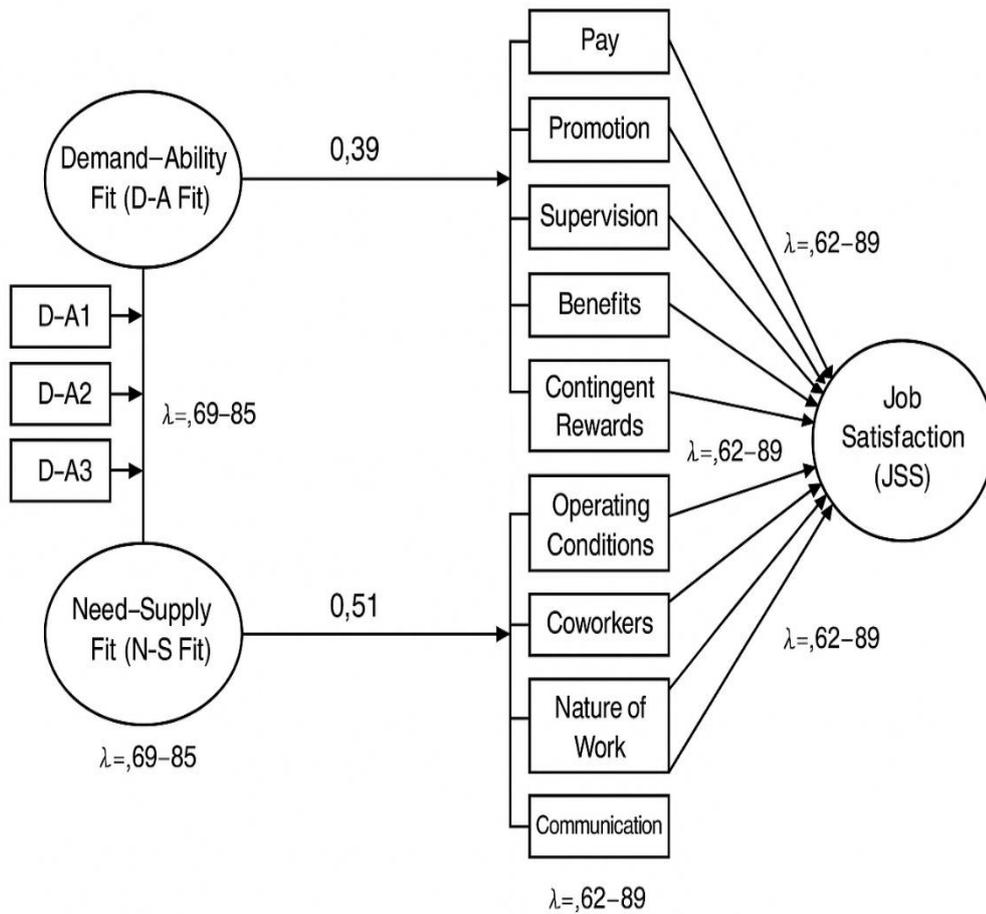
Predictor	Outcome	Standardised path coefficient ( $\beta$ )	p-value	Interpretation
Person–Job Fit (PJF)	Job Satisfaction (JSS)	0.72	< 0.001	Strong, positive, significant effect

To gain further insight, an alternative model was estimated in which Demand–Ability Fit and Need–Supply Fit were treated as separate first-order predictors of Job Satisfaction. In this model, both D–A Fit and N–S Fit had significant positive effects on Job Satisfaction ( $\beta_{D-A} = 0.39$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ;  $\beta_{N-S} = 0.51$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Need–Supply Fit showed a slightly stronger association with Job Satisfaction than Demand–Ability Fit, suggesting that, while having the right skills and abilities is important, employees’ satisfaction is even more sensitive to whether the job provides adequate security, growth, recognition

and work–life balance. The variance explained by this alternative model was similar ( $R^2 = 0.54$ ), reinforcing the robustness of the finding that both dimensions of P–J Fit are central to employees’ satisfaction levels.

**Table 5: Alternative structural model: Demand–Ability Fit and Need–Supply Fit predicting Job Satisfaction**

Predictor	Outcome	Standardised path coefficient ( $\beta$ )	p-value	Interpretation
Demand–Ability Fit (D–A Fit)	Job Satisfaction (JSS)	0.39	< 0.001	Significant positive effect
Need–Supply Fit (N–S Fit)	Job Satisfaction (JSS)	0.51	< 0.001	Stronger positive effect than D–A Fit



**Figure 1: First-Order SEM of Person–Job Fit and Job Satisfaction**

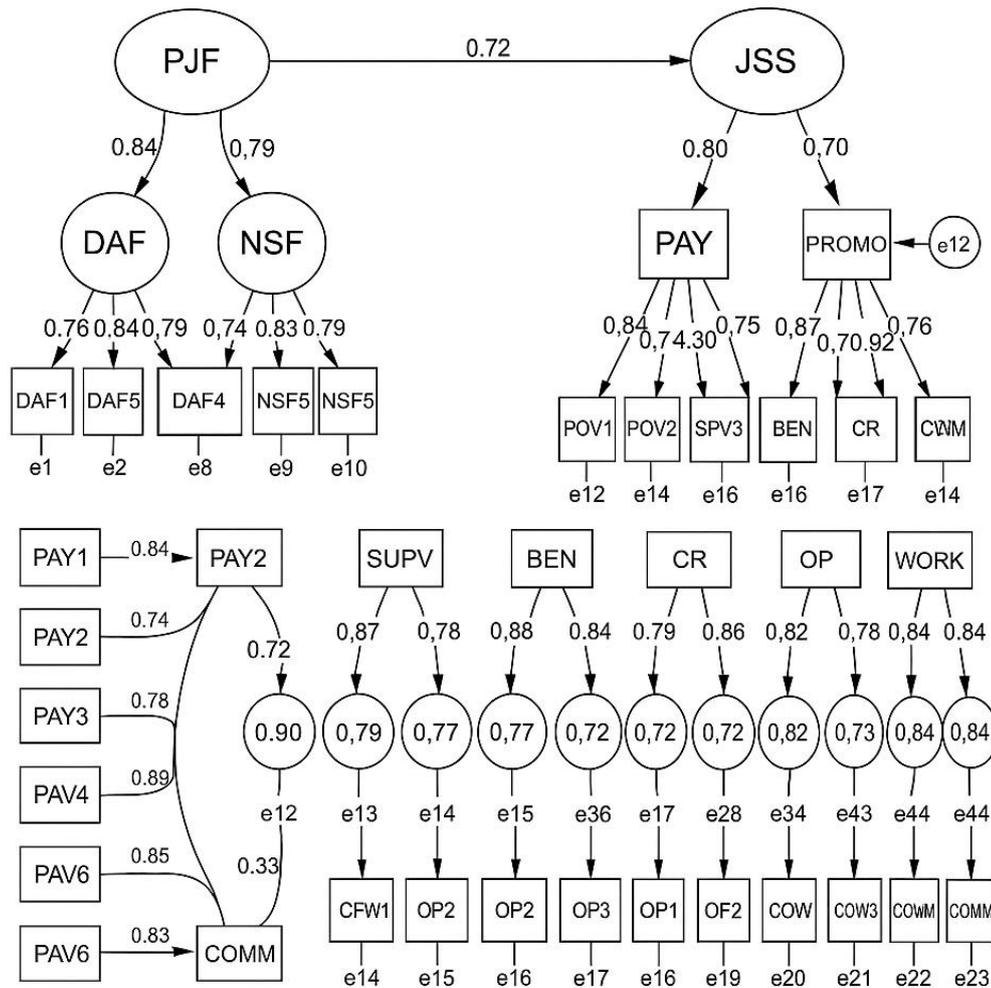


Figure 2: Second-Order SEM of Person–Job Fit (PJF) Predicting Job Satisfaction (JSS)

**Interpretation:**

These structural results provide strong empirical support for the central thesis of the study: Person–Job Fit is a key driver of Job Satisfaction in the CBIC context. The relatively high path coefficient and substantial R<sup>2</sup> indicate that fit is not just a peripheral background factor, but a core determinant of how employees experience their jobs.

The stronger relative contribution of Need–Supply Fit underscores the importance of the “supply side” of the employment relationship in a public-sector setting. Employees may enter CBIC with adequate qualifications and skills (thereby achieving reasonable Demand–Ability Fit), but their satisfaction appears to hinge more critically on whether the organisation fulfils their expectations regarding job security, fair rewards, career growth and work–life balance. When these needs are met, employees tend to interpret their overall work experience much more positively across all nine satisfaction facets.

At the same time, the significant effect of Demand–Ability Fit suggests that aligning job roles with employees’ capabilities remains vital. If employees feel underutilised, misallocated, or mismatched to the technical and cognitive demands of their roles, their

satisfaction is likely to suffer, even if benefits and security are adequate. Thus, both “putting the right person in the right job” and “offering the right conditions around that job” are necessary for achieving high satisfaction in CBIC.

From a practical standpoint, these findings imply that HR policies in CBIC should simultaneously focus on capability alignment (through careful recruitment, role design and training) and need fulfilment (through fair rewards, transparent promotion policies, career planning, supportive supervision and genuine work–life balance initiatives). Strengthening either side alone may not be sufficient; it is the combined perception of being both well-matched and well-supported that seems to drive sustainable job satisfaction among employees.

**CONCLUSION**

These findings carry important theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the study adds clarity to the ongoing debate about the dimensionality of P–J Fit by providing empirical support for a hierarchical two-factor structure in a public-sector context. It also validates the multidimensional Job Satisfaction model among

government employees, demonstrating that facets such as pay, promotion, supervision and nature of work remain empirically distinct yet coherently integrated under a higher-order satisfaction construct. By modelling both P–J Fit and Job Satisfaction as latent constructs within a single SEM framework, the study offers a more accurate estimate of their relationship than regression-based approaches, accounting for measurement error and hierarchical structure. From a practical perspective, the strong effect of P–J Fit on Job Satisfaction underscores the need for CBIC and similar organisations to design HR policies that enhance both capability alignment and need fulfilment.

### Further Scope of Research

The study also opens several avenues for future research. First, the validated measurement models can be extended to **multi-group SEM** to examine whether the structure and strength of relationships hold across different cadres, regions, age groups or tenure categories within CBIC. Second, longitudinal designs could be used to explore

causal dynamics and changes in P–J Fit and Job Satisfaction over time, especially in response to major policy reforms, digitalisation initiatives or restructuring within the department. Third, the model can be expanded to incorporate additional outcomes such as organisational commitment, turnover intentions, organisational citizenship behaviour or performance ratings, allowing researchers to position Job Satisfaction as both an outcome of P–J Fit and a mediator of broader HRM effects. Finally, comparative studies across different ministries, public-sector undertakings or private organisations would help determine the extent to which these findings are specific to CBIC or generalisable to other Indian work settings.

By addressing measurement gaps, validating hierarchical structures and demonstrating the centrality of P–J Fit in shaping Job Satisfaction, this study provides a robust platform upon which future research on public-sector HRM in India can build.

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