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Person-Task Fit: Emotional Consequences of Performing Divergent Versus Convergent Thinking
Tasks Depend on Need for Cognitive Closure

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1 Person-Task Fit: Emotional Consequences of Performing Divergent Versus Convergent
2 Thinking Tasks Depend on Need for Cognitive Closure

3

4 Abstract

5 We investigated how people high (vs. low) in the Need for Cognitive Closure (NFC)
6 experience working on divergent and convergent thinking tasks. Based on the notion of
7 person-task fit we hypothesized that individuals high in NFC (but not those low in NFC)
8 would feel less competent when solving divergent (vs. convergent) thinking tasks, because,
9 being open-ended, divergent thinking tasks do not offer closure. We also predicted that,
10 consequently, high NFC individuals would experience less positive emotions and more
11 negative emotions when performing a divergent (vs. convergent) thinking task. To test this
12 idea, we measured NFC among participants ($N = 549$) from five European countries and
13 asked these participants to complete a divergent (vs. convergent) thinking task and to appraise
14 their own competence and emotions. Participants high in NFC (but not these low in NFC) felt
15 less competent and experienced less positive and more negative emotions when solving a
16 divergent (vs. convergent) thinking task. The association between task type and emotions was
17 mediated by perceived competence but only for participants high in NFC.

18

19 *Keywords:* creativity; divergent thinking; convergent thinking; need for closure;
20 competence; person-environment fit; person-task fit; emotions

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1. Introduction

Why do some people like to come up with multiple possibilities, whereas others stick to the first solution that comes to their mind? A trait that differentiates between these contrasting preferences is *need for cognitive closure* (NFC). NFC reflects a stable dispositional preference for order and predictability, an urgent desire to reach decisions, affective discomfort with ambiguity, and “closed-mindedness” (Webster & Kruglanski, 1994). NFC manifests itself in motivational rigidity, which has been shown to have a wide range of consequences for psychological functioning, information processing, and decision making (Kruglanski, 2004; Roets, Kruglanski, Kossowska, Pierro, & Hong, 2015). For example, a lack of closure – when no definitive conclusion has been reached – is aversive to high NFC individuals and causes distress (Roets et al., 2015; Roets & Van Hiel, 2008).

In this paper, we extend the research on the consequences of NFC by applying the notion of Person-Environment fit (P-E fit; e.g., Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). As argued by P-E fit theories, individuals working in an environment (e.g., an organization, a team, or a job) that suits their personalities and fulfills their needs will function and perform better than those who experience a misfit (Edwards & Shipp, 2007). Building on this idea, our paper focuses specifically on *person-task fit*, which has been rarely studied in the P-E fit literature (Finucane, Mertz, Slovic, & Schmidt, 2005) and, to the best of our knowledge, has not been examined in relation to NFC (but for related evidence on Personal Need for Structure see Rietzschel, Slijkhuis, & Van Yperen, 2014a, 2014b; Slijkhuis, Rietzschel, & Van Yperen, 2013). Thus, we examine whether NFC affects how people respond to different types of tasks.

In particular, we propose that tasks varying in the extent to which they provide closure will (vs. will not) fit the needs of people differing in NFC. In doing so, we specifically focus

47 on convergent versus divergent thinking tasks (Guilford, 1950, 1967). In convergent thinking
48 tasks a single correct solution is required, but in divergent thinking tasks the aim is to generate
49 as many diverse responses as possible. Closure should be easily achieved by reaching the
50 correct solution in convergent thinking tasks, implying a high person-task fit for people high
51 in NFC. However, closure may be not achieved in the process of generating multiple
52 possibilities in divergent thinking tasks, implying a person-task *misfit* for people high in NFC.
53 We further propose that the degree of person-task fit will have momentary-level consequences
54 for how people experience the situation in terms of their feelings of competence and their
55 emotional responses to the task at hand.

56 To test these hypotheses, we conducted a multi-group study in five language samples,
57 in which participants completed a divergent (vs. convergent) thinking task and evaluated their
58 competence and emotions during the task. We aimed to extend the P-E fit framework by
59 showing the effects of fit at the momentary level (i.e., fit between personality and the task at
60 hand), and to provide a novel perspective on the consequences of NFC in terms of
61 experienced competence and emotions when working on different types of tasks.

62 **1.1 Need for Cognitive Closure and Person-Environment Fit**

63 NFC relates to individual needs regarding knowledge, and influences the way people
64 think; NFC is a desire for any definitive answer to a question, and fulfilling this desire is
65 experienced as urgent by high NFC individuals (Kruglanski, 2004). People high in NFC
66 engage in a rigid processing style to reduce uncertainty, which has a wide range of
67 consequences (Kruglanski, 2004; Roets et al., 2015). For example, motivational rigidity at
68 high levels of NFC relates to a limited number of hypotheses generated before forming a
69 judgement and to increased judgmental confidence (Mayselless & Kruglanski, 1987).
70 Furthermore, people high in NFC follow the task strategy employed by other solvers (Jaško,

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71 Czernatowicz-Kukuczka, Kossowska, & Czarna, 2015) as well as adopt the strategy cued in
72 the task instructions (Szumowska, Kossowska, & Roets, 2018). This does not necessarily
73 imply that high NFC individuals work less hard on any task, because high NFC people are
74 willing to exert more effort when closure can be achieved only through effortful strategies
75 (Szumowska, Szwed, Kossowska, & Wright, 2017; see also Sankaran, Szumowska, &
76 Kossowska, 2017). Importantly, high-NFC individuals may experience negative emotions as
77 long as no closure is reached: Absence of a definitive answer during task completion triggers
78 distress and aversion especially among high NFC individuals (Roets & Van Hiel, 2008).

79 We propose that the combination of high dispositional NFC and a situational
80 opportunity to reach closure represents a good person-environment fit (P-E fit; e.g.,
81 Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), whereas the combination of high NFC and a lack of opportunity
82 to reach closure represents a misfit. In general, when P-E fit is high, the environment either
83 aligns with or complements the individuals' needs or preferences. P-E fit has been mostly
84 examined in relation to work outcomes, such as work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction and
85 organizational commitment) and turnover intentions (Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2003), but
86 also in relation to mental and physical health, and in relation to task performance (Edwards &
87 Shipp, 2007). Meta-analyses have shown that P-E fit indeed relates to higher job satisfaction,
88 organizational commitment, and task performance (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown
89 et al., 2005). For instance, for high NFC people P-E fit may be high in routine jobs with clear
90 rules, whereas it may be low in jobs requiring spontaneity and quick adaptation to change (cf.
91 Billing, Bhagat, & Babakus, 2013).

92 P-E fit has not been explored in relation to how people high (versus low) in NFC
93 function in tasks that provide them with more or less opportunities to achieve closure (but for
94 related evidence see Rietzschel, Slijkhuis, & Van Yperen, 2014a, 2014b; Slijkhuis,

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95 Rietzschel, & Van Yperen, 2013). We suggest that these kinds of tasks – which provide or do
96 not provide closure – are represented by convergent and divergent thinking tasks, respectively
97 (Guilford, 1950, 1967). In *convergent thinking tasks*, people are required to find a single
98 correct solution (e.g., a correct answer in a multiple choice test; the correct word in a
99 crossword puzzle), whereas in *divergent thinking tasks*, people are asked to provide many
100 different answers with no clear distinction in terms of correct versus incorrect solutions (e.g.,
101 novel uses of a bottle; cf. Colzato, Szapora, Lippelt, & Hommel, 2014). Convergent thinking
102 tasks are by definition closed-ended, in that a single correct answer exists and task progress
103 can usually be verified. Consequently, we propose that convergent thinking tasks grant high
104 NFC individuals the opportunity to reach closure, which provides a good fit with the needs of
105 those individuals. In contrast, divergent thinking tasks are by definition open-ended tasks, in
106 which closure cannot readily be achieved, and in which task progress may be unclear.
107 Therefore, in our view, this type of task entails a misfit for high NFC individuals. Our basic
108 prediction is that the (mis)fit between convergent (vs. divergent) thinking tasks and NFC will
109 affect feelings of competence, which will, in turn, affect emotional functioning.

110 **1.2. Emotional Consequences of Person-Task Fit**

111 We firstly propose that the fit or misfit between NFC and task type (convergent vs.
112 divergent) will influence the extent to which individuals feel competent while completing the
113 task. In fact, people high (vs. low) in NFC have been shown to perform worse on divergent
114 thinking tasks at both the group (Chirumbolo, Livi, Mannetti, Pierro, & Kruglanski, 2004;
115 Chirumbolo, Mannetti, Pierro, Areni, & Kruglanski, 2005) and individual level (Sankaran,
116 Grzymala-Moszczyńska, Strojny, Strojny, & Kossowska, 2017). This seems at least partly the
117 result of a personality-task misfit. Since high NFC individuals want to reach closure, they
118 pressure fellow group members into conforming to others, and this behavior is incompatible

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119 with the goal of generating many options (as opposed to one correct option; Chirumbolo et al.,
120 2005). Similarly, high NFC individuals tend to feel threatened by creative tasks (Sankaran,
121 Grzymala-Moszczyńska, et al., 2017), which may result from a person-task misfit, and which
122 ultimately undermines their performance. Thus, because of a person-task misfit, high NFC
123 individuals tend to underperform in divergent thinking tasks, and will therefore feel lower
124 levels of competence during these tasks as compared to low NFC individuals.

125 In contrast, high NFC individuals may feel relatively competent on convergent
126 thinking tasks, because they may experience increased judgmental confidence in these tasks
127 (but not in divergent thinking tasks). As argued by Maysless and Kruglanski (1987), when
128 confronted with a problem, people high in NFC are not motivated to generate multiple
129 alternative hypotheses or solutions, because this would threaten their existing knowledge
130 structures. Rather, due to their motivational rigidity, they prefer to stick to the first available
131 solution. If alternative solutions were generated, it would decrease confidence in the first
132 solution, which would threaten closure. In support of this idea, Maysless and Kruglanski
133 (1987) found that participants high in NFC not only exhibited higher confidence in their
134 initial response than those with low NFC, but also generated fewer alternative answers to the
135 problem.

136 Increased judgmental confidence of people high in NFC should have consequences for
137 how competent they feel during convergent and divergent thinking tasks. In convergent
138 thinking tasks, high NFC people could (in principle) stop after the first satisfactory solution
139 has been found. Because they are motivated to reach closure and justify such closure
140 (Kruglanski, 2004), they are likely to be overconfident in that answer, and experience
141 elevated levels of competence. However, divergent thinking tasks require the generation of
142 multiple alternatives, and thus, subjective confidence in each solution should be lower.

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143 Together with uncertainty about reaching closure in open-ended tasks, this lower confidence
144 should decrease experienced competence among high NFC people during divergent thinking
145 tasks. As it is not important or urgent for people low in NFC to obtain closure, their feelings
146 of competence should not vary depending on task type.

147 **H1:** High NFC people will experience higher competence when completing
148 convergent thinking tasks than when completing divergent thinking tasks; this effect is
149 not found among low NFC individuals.

150 Secondly, based on two theories, we propose that perceived competence will have
151 consequences for positive and negative emotions experienced during the task. Firstly,
152 according to self-determination theory, satisfaction of the basic psychological needs for
153 competence, relatedness, and autonomy contributes to positive emotions and well-being
154 (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan, 2017). For example, a meta-analysis (Van den Broeck, Ferris, Chang,
155 & Rosen, 2016) has shown that satisfaction of the need for competence is a unique predictor
156 of intrinsic motivation and well-being. Even more relevant work by Schmierbach, Chung,
157 Wu, & Kim (2014) found momentary-level effects of competence on well-being: Engaging in
158 a more difficult game decreased feelings of competence, which in turn diminished overall task
159 enjoyment. Thus, self-determination theory suggests that feelings of competence will improve
160 emotional functioning and will be positively associated with positive emotions and negatively
161 with negative emotions. Secondly, cognitive appraisal theory of affect and emotions suggests
162 that control appraisals strongly influence emotional experiences (Frijda, Kuipers, & ter
163 Schure, 1989; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). For example, feelings of reduced control (i.e., not
164 being in control of the situation) are associated with reduced happiness and increased
165 frustration (Landau, Kay, & Whitson, 2015; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Because experienced
166 competence signals high control, we expected that experienced competence relates to more

167 positive emotions and less negative emotions. Given that emotions are not only characterized
168 by valence (positive – negative), but also by activation (activating – deactivating) (Russell,
169 Weiss, & Mendelsohn, 1989; Vittersø, Oelmann, & Wang, 2009), we examined the effects on
170 positive activating emotions (e.g., interest and engagement), positive deactivating emotions
171 (e.g., contentment and pleasure), and negative activating emotions (e.g., frustration). Since
172 Roets and Hiel (2008) found no effects on negative deactivating emotions (e.g., sadness,
173 tiredness), we did not include those.

174 **H2:** Experienced competence is positively related to (activating and deactivating)
175 positive emotions and negatively related to activating negative emotions.

176 Overall, research has shown that the opportunity to engage in divergent thinking tasks
177 can be quite motivating and enjoyable. For example, Bujacz et al. (2016) found that solving
178 divergent (vs. convergent) thinking tasks increased positive emotions through increased
179 feelings of autonomy (see also Chermahini & Hommel, 2012). However, Hypotheses 1 and 2
180 suggest that this conclusion may not apply to everyone. Rather, they suggest that divergent
181 thinking activities (as compared to convergent thinking) could *decrease* positive emotions and
182 *increase* negative emotions among people high in NFC, and that this relation is mediated by
183 experienced competence. Our final hypothesis therefore is:

184 **H3:** Divergent tasks lead to lower positive and higher negative emotions as mediated
185 by experienced competence but only among individuals high in NFC.

186 **2. Method**

187 **2.1 Participants and Design**

188 The study was conducted in Austria, Italy, Ireland, Poland, Sweden, and the UK.
189 Ethical approval was granted from ethical committees in each country, and 863 adults
190 participated in the online study across all countries. Participants were recruited through

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191 university websites and social networks, and informed consent was obtained from all
192 participants. Of the sample, 289 participants withdrew from the study prior to task
193 assignment. Data from 25 participants (3% of the total sample) were subsequently excluded
194 from the analyses: 5 participants had missing values on predictor variables, and 20
195 participants spent less than twenty seconds or more than twenty minutes on a task. We
196 assumed that those who spent too little time were insufficiently motivated, while those who
197 spent too much time may have been distracted by other activities. In total, data from 549
198 participants were analyzed (divided by language groups into 159 English, 73 Swedish, 106
199 Italian, 121 Polish, and 90 German; 71% women; age range 18 to 69; $M = 28$ years, $SD =$
200 9.6). Participants were randomly and automatically assigned to a divergent thinking or
201 convergent thinking task condition and they could subsequently choose one out of three
202 (divergent or convergent, depending on condition) tasks that they wanted to solve.

203 **Divergent thinking tasks** used in his study were: (1) generating cartoon titles ($n =$
204 128; Sternberg, 2006), (2) listing different uses for a rubber band ($n = 85$; Guilford, 1967),
205 and (3) improving design of a table for people with impaired vision ($n = 54$; Kim, 2006). All
206 tasks required providing multiple (rather than one) potential solutions and offered no
207 opportunity to verify when sufficient progress has been made, i.e., had no limits and no
208 indication on how many ideas was enough (e.g., “list as many ideas as you wish.”).

209 **Convergent thinking tasks** used in this study were: (1) spotting the differences
210 between two cartoons ($n = 214$), (2) answering questions about a presented book excerpt ($n =$
211 46; Sacks, 2008), and (3) writing instructions on how to assemble a table based on given
212 illustrations ($n = 22$). The convergent thinking tasks were pre-tested so that their difficulty
213 was similar to those of the divergent thinking tasks (Bujacz et al., 2014, 2016). In all of these
214 tasks, people were required to find the only correct solution (or limited set of solutions) and

215 could verify their progress while solving the task, i.e., they could recognize that the goal has
216 been met when they provided the answer.

217 **2.2 Measures¹**

218 All items used in the study were translated from the English versions. We employed a
219 7-point response format where 1 = “not at all”, 4 = “moderately”, and 7 = “very much”. See
220 Table 1 for the correlations among all study variables.

221 **Need for closure (NFC)** was measured with fifteen items of the brief version of the
222 Need for Closure Scale (Roets & Van Hiel, 2011; e.g., “I don’t like situations that are
223 uncertain”; $\alpha = .85$ across the various language groups).

224 **Competence** was measured using two items (“I had a chance to show how capable I
225 am”, “I felt that I’m good at what I’m doing”) from the satisfaction of the need for
226 competence scale (Longo, Gunz, Curtis, & Farsides, 2016; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste,
227 De Witte, Soenens, & Lens, 2010; $r = .68$).

228 **Emotions** were measured using five items taken from the Basic Emotions State Test
229 (BEST; Vittersø, Oelmann, & Wang, 2009), one representing active negative emotions
230 (“annoyed”), two representing active positive emotions (“interested”, “engaged”), and two
231 representing passive positive emotions (“content”, “pleased”). Active and passive emotions
232 were distinguished for exploratory reasons, because some research suggests that they relate to
233 different motivational states (Higgins, 1997) or have a different relation with (creative)
234 performance (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008).

235 **2.3 Procedure**

236 The study was conducted online. The data for this study were collected as part of a
237 larger international project on creativity and well-being (Bujacz et al., 2014). Previously

¹ Since our hypotheses concerned affective responses to performing convergent vs. divergent tasks, and due to the difficulty in reliably assessing performance among different language samples, we chose to not report any performance results.

238 published papers used the same dataset (Bujacz et al., 2014, 2016), but the key variables
239 (NFC and competence) used in the present research have not been reported before. Need for
240 closure was measured first, alongside other personality questionnaires (see Bujacz et al., 2014
241 for a complete list of questionnaires). Next, participants were randomly assigned to the
242 divergent or convergent thinking task condition. Afterwards, they chose one task (out of
243 three) that appealed to them the most. Participants assigned to the convergent thinking task
244 condition chose one out of three convergent thinking tasks; an analogical choice of three
245 divergent thinking tasks was given in the divergent thinking task condition.

246 As mentioned, these tasks were pre-tested and confirmed to vary on difficulty level
247 (see Bujacz et al., 2014, 2016). However, participants were not informed that the tasks varied
248 in difficulty; they were only provided with a short description of each task. In this way,
249 participants were able to make an informed choice and perform the task that best matched
250 their preferences. This procedure has the advantage that fit or misfit effects between task type
251 and NFC are not due to specific tasks, to their level of attractiveness, or to their level of
252 difficulty. The disadvantage is that different participants performed different tasks. To address
253 this issue, we controlled for task difficulty in the analyses².

254 Participants had unlimited time, but time-on-task was measured. On average, it took
255 about 5 min to solve a task (see Table 1), and across groups, participants spent less time on
256 divergent than on convergent thinking tasks ($\Delta = 2.68$ minutes; $p < .001$). Time-on-task was
257 used as a control variable throughout. Immediately after task completion, participants'
258 experienced competence, positive emotions, and negative emotions were measured in
259 reference to the task (i.e., "How did you feel while solving this task?").

² We also analyzed only the data of those participants who chose to perform the easy task. All results remained similar and conclusions identical. Effect sizes were equally strong or stronger.

260 **2.4 Analytic strategy**

261 The dataset included five subsamples collected in different languages. These samples
262 were systematically compared to empirically test for the equivalence of results across
263 samples, following the assumptions of multivariate meta-analysis (Jackson, Riley, & White,
264 2011). To account for mean score differences due to language and cultural factors, all
265 variables were standardized and group mean centered. We tested our hypotheses using a
266 moderated mediation model (Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) estimated on manifest
267 variables (i.e., mean scores across test items). The model controlled for the effects of gender,
268 age, task difficulty, and time-on-task on both the mediator (competence) and the outcome
269 variables (emotions). Indirect effect tests used bootstrapping with 10,000 samples (e.g.,
270 Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

271 All analyses were performed with Mplus version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017).
272 For the evaluation of a model, the following fit indices were used with the respective cut-off
273 values indicating good model fit: CFI above .95; RMSEA below .05; and SRMR below .10
274 (Williams, Vandenberg, & Edwards, 2009). For model comparison, the BIC difference was
275 used with a value higher than 10 providing strong evidence against the model with the higher
276 BIC value (Kass & Raftery, 1995).

277 **3. Results**

278 The moderated mediation model (see Figure 1) with all effects, apart from control
279 variables' effects, constrained to equality across language groups fitted the data very well
280 ($\chi^2[76] = 95.54$; RMSEA = .048; CFI .978; SRMR = .046; BIC = 6005.32), and fitted
281 significantly better than the same model with all structural paths allowed to vary freely across
282 language groups ($\Delta\text{BIC} = 383.88$). Thus, relations were comparable and the results
283 generalized across groups.

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284 NFC was related to competence ($b = .17, p = .005, SE = .06$), but not to emotions
285 ($b = -.02, p = .773, SE = .05$ for passive positive emotions; $b = -.02, p = .71, SE = .05$ for
286 active positive emotions; $b = .02, p = .700, SE = .06$ for active negative emotions). In support
287 of Hypothesis 1, the effect of task type (convergent task = 0, divergent task = 1) on
288 competence was moderated by NFC ($b = -.20, p = .015, SE = .08$). For people high in NFC,
289 task type predicted competence ($b = -.28, p = .037, SE = .13$), but not for people low in NFC
290 ($b = .12, p = .33, SE = .13$; see Figure 2).

291 Furthermore, experienced competence was positively related to both passive ($b = .65,$
292 $p < .001, SE = .03$) and active ($b = .59, p < .001, SE = .03$) positive emotions, as well as
293 negatively to active negative emotions ($b = -.27, p < .001, SE = .04$). This supported
294 Hypothesis 2. Consequently, we found significant indirect effects from task type through
295 competence to positive and negative emotions but only for people high in NFC ($b = -.18, p =$
296 $.040, SE = .08, 95\% CI [-.36; -.01]$ for passive positive emotions; $b = -.17, p = .041, SE = .09,$
297 $95\% CI [-.33; -.01]$ for active positive emotions; $b = .08, p = .047, SE = .04, 95\% CI [.01; .16]$
298 for active negative emotions). For people low in NFC, these indirect effects were statistically
299 non-significant ($b = .08, p = .33, SE = .08, 95\% CI [-.08; .24]$ for passive positive emotions; b
300 $= .07, p = .33, SE = .07, 95\% CI [-.07; .22]$ for active positive emotions; $b = -.03, p = .34, SE$
301 $= .03, 95\% CI [-.11; .03]$ for active negative emotions). Furthermore, the direct effect of task
302 type on active and passive positive emotions was statistically non-significant at all levels of
303 NFC. The direct effect of task type on active negative emotions was statistically significant
304 only for people with mean level of NFC ($b = -.24, p = .021, SE = .10$). Taken together, this
305 suggests full mediation for positive emotions and partial mediation for active negative
306 emotions. These results support Hypothesis 3.

307 An estimation of explained variance suggested a medium effect size for positive
308 emotions (R^2 between .37 and .43 for active positive emotions and between .41 and .47 for
309 passive positive emotions) and a small effect size for negative emotions (R^2 between .10 and
310 .16 for active negative emotions) across language groups.

311 **4. Discussion**

312 Building on the person-environment fit literature, we proposed that the degree of fit
313 between Need for Cognitive Closure (NFC) and the possibility of attaining closure in a given
314 task influences feelings of competence and emotions during the task solution; we also
315 suggested that experienced competence mediates the interactive effect of task type and NFC
316 on emotions. More specifically, we predicted that high (but not low) NFC people would feel
317 less competent and would experience less positive emotions and more negative emotions in
318 tasks that deprive them of the opportunity to reach closure as compared to tasks that offer
319 them such an opportunity.

320 In line with our expectations, we observed that high NFC people experienced less
321 competence while performing a divergent than a convergent thinking task and that these
322 feelings of competence in turn related to less positive emotions and more negative emotions.
323 In contrast, task type had no effects on participants low in NFC. This result suggests that the
324 open-ended nature of divergent thinking tasks can exert a significant influence at high levels
325 of NFC. Such tasks lack the opportunity for closure, and decrease subjective competence and
326 worsen emotional functioning of people high in NFC. These effects may generalize to a wide
327 range of convergent and divergent thinking tasks as well as different language samples, since
328 three different types of divergent and convergent thinking tasks were used and hypotheses
329 were tested on five language samples.

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330 Our findings extend the literature on P-E fit. Although researchers have examined the
331 effects of fit between personality and job (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), organization (Hoffman
332 & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), or environment in general (Sen, Acar, &
333 Cetinkaya, 2014), rarely have they investigated fit between personality and a task at hand (but
334 see Rietzschel, Slijkhuis, & Van Yperen, 2014a, 2014b; Slijkhuis, Rietzschel, & Van Yperen,
335 2013). We found that the fit between personality (NFC) and type of activity (solving a
336 convergent vs. divergent thinking task) increases feelings of competence, and indirectly
337 improves emotional functioning at high levels of NFC. This finding corroborates the idea that
338 environmental resources may help fulfill individual needs (needs-supplies fit). However, this
339 idea has mostly been examined at the group, organizational and vocational level, while our
340 findings show the effects at the level of specific tasks (cf. Edwards & Shipp, 2007).

341 Although we did not find that task type mattered for people low in NFC, this should,
342 of course, not be taken to mean that P-E fit is not important for these people. For one thing,
343 this group of respondents probably comprises both those who simply do not have a high need
344 for closure as well as those who would actually prefer *not* to have closure (i.e., a high need to
345 avoid closure). The latter group may well respond differently to tasks that require actual
346 decision-making, and would presumably prefer to generate more and more ideas and options.

347 Furthermore, the present findings shed light on the emotional consequences of NFC,
348 and extend the findings of Roets and Van Hiel (2008). These authors used tasks that required
349 participants to provide a single correct answer, but achieving this answer was severely
350 hindered (because of short exposure times or unclear rules), leading to negative emotions
351 among high NFC individuals. We have shown that high NFC people can experience not only
352 less negative emotions but also more positive emotions when a single solution is available

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353 (convergent thinking tasks) as compared to when multiple alternative answers are required
354 (divergent thinking tasks).

355 Our results suggest that the fit between personality and task type influences
356 experienced competence, which in turn impacts positive and negative emotions. This
357 perspective is supported by self-determination theory (Deci et al., 2017), which claims that
358 satisfaction of the basic psychological need for competence has positive consequences for
359 well-being. It is also supported by cognitive appraisal theory of emotions, in which the
360 experience of control is positively linked to positive emotions, such as happiness, and
361 negatively to negative emotions, such as frustration (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). More
362 generally, feeling competent may closely reflect a feeling of control over one's environment,
363 and such control has long been associated with optimal functioning (Maier & Seligman,
364 2016). In addition, the theoretical assumption of competence causally influencing emotions
365 has an important implication: Frequently solving tasks that fit (or not) one's level of NFC
366 could have long-lasting effects on well-being. This intriguing possibility may be worth
367 investigating in the future research. For example, if high-NFC employees work in a job or a
368 work environment where their need for closure is routinely thwarted (e.g., if a coworker or
369 supervisor repeatedly postpones decisions, or crucial information is not shared by the
370 organization), their decrease in perceived competence could have serious long-term
371 ramifications for their emotional well-being.

372 However, from another theoretical perspective, it is also possible that experienced
373 emotions influence feelings of competence. According to feelings-as-information theory
374 (Schwarz, 2011), affect serves as diagnostic information for the task at hand. Negative affect
375 signals high task demands, novelty, and that processing requires substantial effort. In contrast,
376 positive affect signals fluent processing, and is connected to liking and familiarity. Since

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377 people high in the NFC experience distress when they cannot attain closure, negative affect
378 accompanying distress may also spill over into other evaluations and serve as a diagnostic
379 information about lower competence. All in all, more research is needed to test whether and
380 how competence and emotions causally influence each other, and how these relations play out
381 over time in a real-world context.

382 Finally, our findings highlight the role of NFC in creativity research. Although it has
383 been studied as a predictor of creative performance (e.g., Chirumbolo et al., 2004, 2005), it
384 may also be an important moderator in studies that manipulate task type and use tasks with
385 only one correct solution versus tasks with multiple potential solutions. An example of a task
386 that has only one correct solution, and in which progress can be verified, is the Remote
387 Associates Test (RAT; Mednick, 1962). The RAT requires participants to find one common
388 associate for three words provided. Various studies examined reactions triggered by the RAT
389 (Akbari Chermahini & Hommel, 2010, 2012; Fischer & Hommel, 2012). For example,
390 according to the control-state approach to creativity (Hommel, 2012; Hommel, Akbari
391 Chermahini, van den Wildenberg, & Colzato, unpublished manuscript) solving divergent and
392 convergent thinking tasks triggers different control states, which either allow broad
393 exploration and flexible switching between options (divergent thinking) or restrict processing
394 towards the specific goal (convergent thinking). Our results suggest that high NFC may be an
395 important boundary condition for such effects, because people high in NFC experience lower
396 competence and more negative emotions in divergent thinking tasks as compared to
397 convergent thinking tasks. Due to that, divergent thinking may trigger a different control state
398 at high (vs. low) levels of NFC.

399 While our results show that the fit between NFC and the task at hand contributes to
400 perceived competence and positive emotions, the fact remains that people cannot always

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401 avoid situations that do not fit their needs. Especially in the modern workplace, people are
402 likely to be confronted with both open-ended, divergent, and more closed-ended and
403 convergent tasks. While this did not matter much to our low-NFC participants, it made a
404 substantial difference for high-NFC participants. This may have training implications:
405 Perhaps there is something to be gained by giving people (e.g., employees) the opportunity to
406 acquire more of a behavioral repertoire for precisely those tasks they would normally tend to
407 avoid.

408 To conclude, this research demonstrated that the effects of task type on experienced
409 competence and emotions depend on NFC. People high in NFC respond positively to tasks
410 that offer the opportunity to achieve closure but negatively to tasks that do not (such as
411 divergent tasks), whereas low NFC people's reactions are less sensitive to task type. These
412 person-task fit effects may have important consequences for well-being at work, especially in
413 times when demands for divergent thinking and creativity are ever increasing.

414

415

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590

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations Among Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Task	-									0.49	0.50
2. NFC	-.01	-								3.96	0.97
3. Competence	-.13**	.05	-							4.27	1.64
4. Passive positive emotions	-.03	.03	.66**	-						4.08	1.51
5. Active positive emotions	-.08	-.01	.62**	.70**	-					4.73	1.46
6. Active negative emotions	-.02	.02	-.26**	-.33**	-.29**	-				2.11	1.50
7. Gender	.03	.10*	-.06	.01	.02	-.08	-			0.71	0.46
8. Age	-.02	.05	.12**	.15**	.11**	-.09*	-.06	-		28.1	9.60
9. Time on task	-.37**	-.13**	.18**	.15**	.22**	-.05	-.13**	.20**	-	4.48	3.62
10. Difficulty	.28**	-.10*	-.07	-.02	.05	.06	-.15**	-.01	.24**	1.51	0.72

Note. Task is coded 1 = divergent, 0 = convergent. Variables 2 through 6 were standardized and group mean centered in the analysis, means and standard deviations of unstandardized variables are presented in the table. Gender is coded 1 = women, 0 = men. Time on task is presented in minutes. Difficulty is coded 1 = easy, 2 = medium, 3 = difficult.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Figure 1

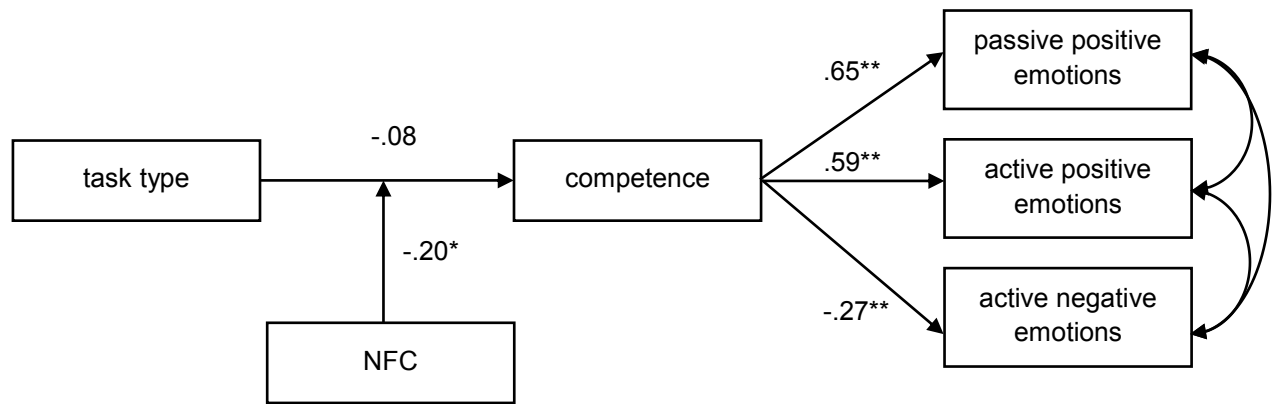


Figure 1. Moderated mediation model invariant across language groups

Note. Task type is coded 1 = divergent, 0 = convergent. All relations control for gender, age, task difficulty, and time on task. All but control variables' effects constrained to equality across groups. Need for closure (NFC), competence, and emotions are standardized and group-mean centered.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Figure 2

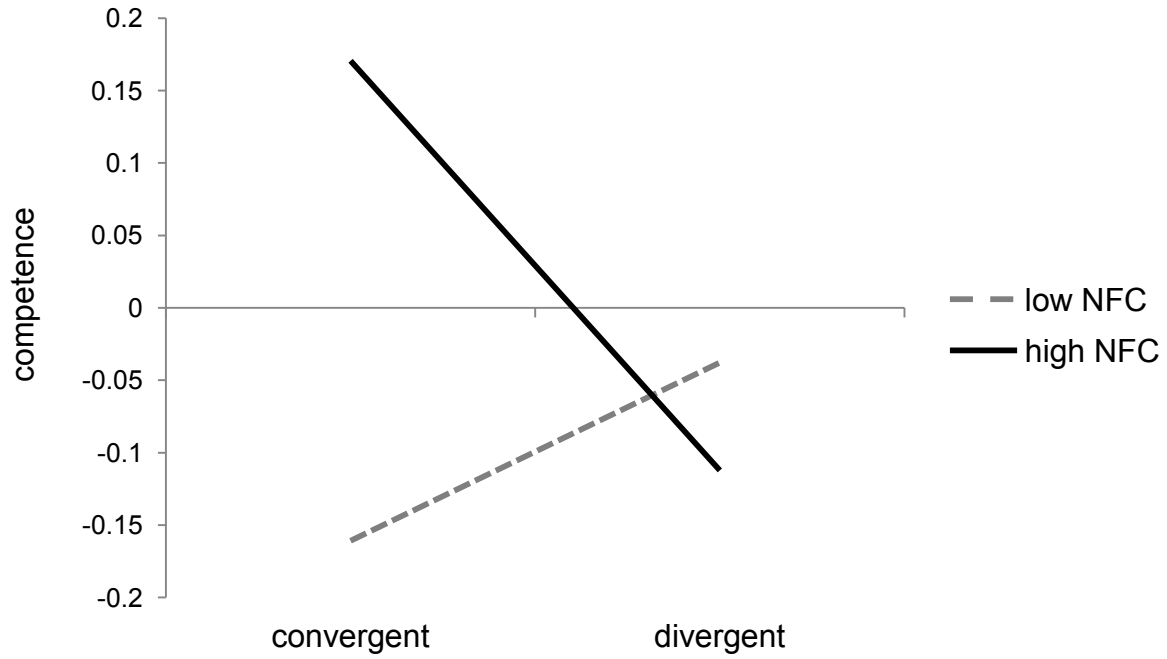


Figure 2. Interaction task type and NFC on competence

Note. Low NFC is 1 *SD* below the mean and high NFC is 1 *SD* above the mean. Need for closure (NFC) and competence are standardized and group-mean centered.

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