THE MOTIVATION AND CAPABILITY TO JOB CRAFT

by

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B.S., Kansas State University, 2011

A THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Psychological Sciences
College of Arts and Sciences

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

2016

Approved by:

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Abstract

For decades psychologists have studied ways in which organizations can redesign jobs to achieve improved performance and worker satisfaction. Recently there has been interest in job crafting, the process by which workers themselves change their jobs to achieve similar ends. This study examined the relationships between job crafting and (a) worker autonomy and (b) proactive personality. It was found that both autonomy and proactive personality were positively related to job crafting, with proactive personality being more strongly related to job crafting than was autonomy. Thus, the potential for both situational and individual characteristics to influence job crafting was found.

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Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my major professor, Dr. Patrick Knight, for his hard work in helping me complete this project. I would also like to thank both of the members of my research committee, Dr. Wendong Li and Dr. Laura Brannon. Finally, thank you to Steve Van Krevelen and Alexander Jackson for their advice and support during this project.

Dedication

To my parents, Frank and Jan Beer, who have provided me with the opportunity to receive the best education possible. I appreciate their sacrifices and wouldn't have been able to accomplish this without them.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Organizational researchers have spent a great deal of time investigating how people experience their jobs (Grant, Fried, Parker, & Frese, 2010). Dating back to Scientific Management (Taylor, 1911), this research has primarily focused on ways organizations can design a job to influence how workers accomplish and experience their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The most widely studied and used theory of job design is the job characteristics model (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; 1980). The JCM proposes that five job characteristics (autonomy, skill variety, task identity, task significance, and feedback) influence how satisfied a worker is with their job and how motivated they are to do well. Meta-analyses of the JCM have found a great deal of support indicating that all five job characteristics can lead to a number of different outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance (both objective and subjective), and work motivation (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007).

Based on findings from research into the JCM (and other job design theories), organizations have attempted to redesign jobs to alter job characteristics, in order to achieve better organizational outcomes. For example, in a study of work design conducted by Grant (2008), it was found that fundraising callers performed better when they were made aware of the significance of what they were doing. In this study, the jobs of the employees were re-designed to increase task significance, leading to a "better" organizational outcome (increased performance). Grant's study demonstrates an assumption made in most job design/JCM research; that the experience one has at work is determined by the way in which the organization designs jobs, resulting in individuals being either motivated or de-motivated by their work (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999).

However, in recent years a different approach to job design has emerged, in which employees are viewed as being able to take an active role in shaping the dimensions of their job (Bell & Staw, 1989; Clegg & Spencer, 2007); one such view is called job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Based on Wrzesniewski & Dutton's model of job crafting, how someone experiences their job can be influenced by the design/characteristics of their job, but, their experiences or desires can also lead them to change the characteristics of their job. The current study will attempt to examine potential motives and constraints of the job crafting process. Specifically this study will examine how autonomy and proactive personality are related to job crafting.

Job Crafting

Job crafting is an informal and proactive process by which an individual physically and/or cognitively changes the boundaries of their job (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). It is theorized that employees can engage in job crafting for a number of reasons, such as altering the meaning of their work or changing their work identity. Job crafting is different from other job design theories because it is employee-driven rather than manager/organization-driven.

Although a relatively new field, job crafting has been found to be positively related to a number of important variables, including engagement (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2013), well-being (Tims, Bakker & Derks, 2013), job satisfaction (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013), and an increase in future job resources (Tims et al., 2013). Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) theorized that job crafting could lead to negative outcomes for the organization (since the decisions made are made by the individual), but no empirical studies have investigated this theory and it is outside the scope of this study. Wrzesniewski & Dutton also developed a model of job crafting (See Figure 1) that outlines the motivation to job craft, moderators of job crafting, potential

forms job crafting can take, and outcomes of job crafting; the following sections discuss each of these in turn.

   Motivations to Engage in Job Crafting. In discussing what motivates employees to engage in job crafting, Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) identified three motives for job crafting:

    1) The need to exert control over one's job

    2) The need to establish a positive self-image

    3) The need for connection with others

   The first motivation that can lead to job crafting is the need to exert control over one's job, which is based upon the premise that control is an inherent human drive (Adler, 1930). Research has supported this assumption, finding that the lack of control at work can result in feelings of alienation, increased strain, and burnout within employees (Alarcon, 2011; Humphrey et al., 2007). By engaging in job crafting, employees can attempt to take control of different aspects, tasks, or purposes of their work and by doing so can change their job to make it their own. Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) argue that employees will engage in job crafting even in jobs with little autonomy by developing mastery over new domains and making small changes to their tasks to take control of their work.

   Job crafting can also be motivated by an individual's desire to create and maintain a positive self-image. According to social identity theory, when people are part of a group/organization their self-esteem will be influenced by their perception of their individual performance, their team's performance, and by the performance of the organization as a whole (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). When an individual's positive self-image is threatened at work, they will be motivated to change something about how they

complete/think about their job, to regain or retain their positive self-image (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

The final motivation for job crafting that was identified by Wresniewski & Dutton (2001) is the need for human connection. Previous research has shown that in order to experience something as meaningful, we need to have established connections with others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Interpersonal connections that are forged through work can have an impact on how an individual experiences meaning within their work setting (Kahn, 1998). Therefore, being connected to others can be viewed as a necessity, and a desire to establish those connections can result in employees crafting their jobs to create situations where they are better able to feel a connection with others (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010).

Although these motives for job crafting were the only three originally identified by Wresniewski & Dutton (2001), recent studies have found that other motives or predispositions might exist that influence an individual's propensity to craft their job. For example, in a study on proactive personality and job crafting, it was found that individuals with a proactive personality were more likely to engage in job crafting (Bakker et al., 2012), indicating that there are likely some individual differences that might increase the likelihood that workers engage in job crafting behaviors.

Moderators of Job Crafting. Employees who are motivated to job craft should be more likely to engage in job crafting behaviors when they perceive they have the opportunity to job craft. Wresniewski & Dutton define the perceived opportunity to job craft as "the sense of freedom or discretion employees have in what they do in their job and how they do it" (2001, pg 183). Wresniewski & Dutton identify two components that could influence the perceived

opportunity to engage in job crafting: task interdependence and how closely monitored they are in completing their job.

Task interdependence is defined as "the extent to which the items or elements upon which work is performed or the work processes themselves are interrelated so that changes in the state of one element affect the state of the others" (Scott, 1987, pg 214). This suggests that the more interdependent an individual's tasks are, the less able the individual is able to alter how they complete those tasks. When there is a high level of task interdependence, it limits the flexibility and autonomy an individual has in changing their job, which in turn limits the perceived (and actual) capability one has to alter the characteristics of their job.

Wresniewski & Dutton (2001) also discuss how closely managers monitor and control an employee's tasks as influencing an individual's perceptions that they have the opportunity to craft their job. When employees are closely controlled and monitored by their manager, it is argued that the visibility of any job crafting will increase and will likely be resisted by management.

Forms of Job Crafting. In Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) model of job crafting they describe three different forms of job crafting including: task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting. Task crafting involves physically changing the task boundaries of a job. By engaging in task crafting, individuals can alter the type or number of tasks they complete. For example, an employee can take on additional tasks by volunteering for projects that are not formally part of their job. Alternatively, although normally conceptualized as beneficial to an organization, task crafting can also be seen when employees choose to do fewer tasks or avoid tasks they dislike completing. At its most basic level, a job can be defined as "a set of task elements grouped together under one job title and designed to be performed by a single

individual" (Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 1991, pg 173). From this definition the tasks that are completed within a job make up the essence of that job. Therefore, task crafting, which involves physically changing the task boundaries of the job, would seem to alter the essence of a job itself, creating a "new" job. Although this might seem similar to other job design processes that have been studied in the past (i.e. job enlargement, job enhancement), there is one fundamental difference. With job crafting the employees are the driving force behind the changes they make to their jobs, whereas in job design research the managers/leaders are viewed as the driving force behind these changes (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). This difference in viewpoint changes what motivations might start an individual on the job crafting process and what outcomes will be sought by the employee making the changes.

The second type of job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) occurs when employees alter the quality or number of relationships they have with others at work; called relational crafting. Employees are often able to decide the degree to which they interact with others at work, avoiding those people they dislike and gravitating towards those they do like; these decisions are examples of relational crafting. An example of someone engaging in relational crafting that happens regularly is with professors at universities; they will often help students at their university outside of the classroom by helping them prepare and apply to graduate schools. Professors who help students get into graduate schools will likely experience an expanded perception of how they impact their students' lives (changing the meaning they experience from their job). Instead of just imparting knowledge as the basic elements of their job requires, these professors have become more active agents in assisting their students become successful people outside of their classroom.

The final form of job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) involves changes an employee makes in the cognitive boundaries of their job. This occurs when employees change how they think about their work, and is called cognitive crafting. By changing the way they think about their job, an individual can alter their perceptions of the underlying meaning of their job and/or change how they approach and complete their job. Cognitive crafting is theorized to happen a great deal in "dirty work" professions, which are jobs that have a physical, social, and/or moral taint (Hughes, 1958). For example, some prostitutes have reframed the meaning of their job by saying that they provide therapy and education to their customers instead of selling themselves (Miller, 1978; Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999). In doing this, the prostitutes altered the meaning of what they are doing to one that could be viewed as beneficial, rather than negative.

Outcomes of Job Crafting. People engage in job crafting to achieve one or more desired outcomes in their job. First, if an individual is successful in crafting some aspect of their job, the most proximal outcome might be changes in the characteristics of their job For example, if an individual engaged in task crafting in a way that increased the number of tasks they had to complete, they will have increased the demands their job has upon them. In a longitudinal study looking at this relationship, it was found that when individuals engage in task crafting in an attempt to develop more resources, they did report having an increased amount of resources two months later (Tims et al., 2013).

The study by Tims and colleagues (2013) also found that job crafting led to an increase in the employee's well-being two months later. This effect of job crafting on the job crafter is theorized to work through the altered work identity and/or the meaning of work that is experienced after engaging in job crafting behaviors. Hackman & Oldham (1980) found that

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people experience meaningfulness in their work when they feel that what they do is both worthwhile and valuable. Therefore, by engaging in job crafting (using any combination of the three forms) it is possible for an individual to alter the meaning they experience from work and in turn experience a change in how satisfied they are with their job and/or affect their overall well being.

If job crafting does result in positive outcomes for an individual, Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) suggested that it will likely influence that individual's motivation and/or ability to engage in job crafting behaviors in the future. Said differently, Wrzesniewski & Dutton proposed that if an individual successfully job crafts in a way that increases the meaning they experience from their job, they may be more or less likely to engage in job crafting in the future, depending on their new perceived needs. For example, if an individual engaged in job crafting because they did not have enough control in their job and were successful at crafting more control into their job then they may be less likely to engage in job crafting because what motivated them to engage in it has decreased. Alternatively, if that same individual who crafted their job so they would experience more control still was not happy with the amount of control they had in their job, the success they had in crafting some control into their job might motivate them to job craft again in the future. Theoretical support for this proposition can be seen by using control theory as a basis and viewing the environmental change as the effect one's job crafting behavior had on the job itself (Lord & Hanges, 1987; Klein, 1989).

Proactive Personality as a Motive for Job Crafting

Two related constructs to job crafting are proactive behaviors and proactive personality. Proactive behaviors can be defined as "anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments" (Grant & Ashford, 2008, pg 8). From this definition, job

crafting behaviors can be considered a type of proactive behavior because they focus on changing future aspects of an employee's job. As an extension of proactive behaviors, proactive personality is defined as a "relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change" (Bateman & Crant, 1993, pg 103). Individuals who have a proactive personality are more likely to identify opportunities to improve their environment and act upon them, persisting until meaningful change has been made (Crant, 1995).

A meta-analytic study on proactive personality by Fuller & Marler (2009) found that proactive personality has a positive relationship to a number of important outcomes variables including job performance, job satisfaction, and both subjective & objective career success. Fuller & Marler's meta-analysis on proactive personality also found it to have positive relationships with a number of proactive behaviors including taking charge, networking, voice, and career initiative. Although not inclusive of all job crafting behaviors, each of these four proactive behaviors, when applied to the workplace, could be considered as behavioral manifestations of job crafting. For example, in Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) original job crafting paper, they discuss "taking charge" as a related construct, but differentiate it from job crafting because of its focus on problem solving. Taking charge is defined as "voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, pg 403). Based upon this definition, the two concepts, although different, share much of the same underlying motives and purpose (both are enacted volitionally by the employee and attempt to change something about their work). Furthermore, in a qualitative study on job crafting, the authors concluded that job crafting is a proactive and

adaptive process (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010). Therefore, it seems likely that proactive personality and engaging in job crafting behaviors should be positively related to each other.

In support of this assumption, it was found that individuals who had a proactive personality were more likely to engage in job crafting behaviors (Bakker et al., 2012). However, this study measured job crafting using a job crafting scale (Tims, et al., 2012) that conceptualizes job crafting differently than Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) model (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). First, the job crafting scale developed by Tims, et al. focuses on the development of structural and social job resources and increasing job demands, which while a portion of job crafting, misses out on the fullness of what relational and task crafting behaviors can entail (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). Furthermore, the Tims, et al. (2012) scale of job crafting doesn't measure cognitive job crafting at all, which means it misses out on a potentially important way individuals can alter the meaning they experience from work (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013). Therefore, it is important to examine the relationship between proactive personality and job crafting using a measure of job crafting that assess all three forms of job crafting instead of focusing on a subset of two of the forms.

This led to our first hypothesis:

> Hypothesis 1 – Proactive personality will have a positive relationship with all
> three forms of job crafting.

Autonomy: Motive or Moderator of Job Crafting?

A job characteristic that has been found to have a great deal of influence over how individuals experience their jobs is autonomy (Humphrey et al., 2007). Autonomy is defined as the degree of control or discretion a job provides the individual (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Research on autonomy (and control) has revealed that it can be a motivator (Fried & Ferris,

1987), a resource (Hobfoll, 1989), and possibly even something that all humans need (Adler, 1930). Autonomy has been found to be positively related to performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, as well as negatively related to absenteeism, anxiety, stress, and burnout (Humphrey et al., 2007). Therefore, it seems as though autonomy is indeed a very important characteristic of a job.

In looking at potential relationships between autonomy and job crafting, autonomy could be conceptualized as a motive to job craft, a moderator of job crafting, or even as an outcome of job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). As discussed earlier, Wrzesniewski & Dutton's original model of job crafting identified the need for control as a motive to engage in job crafting. Based in the work of Adler (1930), this suggests that for employees in jobs with low autonomy, the motivation to engage in job crafting should be high because that individual lacks what some consider to be "a basic human need" (Alder, 1930, p. 181). This increased motivation would likely mean that autonomy should have a negative relationship with job crafting. However, while discussing autonomy, Wrzesniewski & Dutton conclude that "autonomy in the job leads to perceived opportunities for job crafting and encourages employees to alter the task and relational boundaries of their jobs" (2001, p. 184). This statement indicates that autonomy both has a positive relationship with job crafting and moderates the relationship between other motives of job crafting and engaging in job crafting. To further complicate matters, later in their theoretical article Wrzesniewski & Dutton state that "employees take on the role of job crafters even in work that might be considered low in autonomy" (2001, pg 194), suggesting that job crafting might occur, even when autonomy is low because other motives to engage in job crafting might be high.

These two statements and the first proposed motive of job crafting seem to be somewhat contradictory; if lacking control over one's job is a motivator to engage in job crafting, but having control also encourages employees to craft their jobs, what is the end result? Furthermore, if job crafting can occur at all levels of autonomy, then what does that mean in terms of capability/desire to job craft? In a recent qualitative study it is argued that individuals at higher levels of the organization (who tend to have more autonomy; Mechanic, 1962) have more constraints on their job (i.e. interdependence, visibility) than do individuals at lower levels within an organization (Berg, et al., 2010). Although their findings support their arguments/hypothesis, rank was used as a proxy of autonomy instead of measuring it directly. Therefore, this study will attempt to identify the relationship between autonomy and job crafting behaviors. The following section will present the theoretical rationale for job crafting being either positively or negatively related to autonomy, followed by our hypothesis of what we believe to be the better of the two arguments in regards to autonomy and job crafting.

If the need for control is a basic human drive and is an "intrinsic necessity of life itself" (Adler, 1930, pg 398), then the lack of autonomy should motivate employees to craft their job in ways to increase their autonomy. If this is true, then we would expect employees who are experiencing low amounts of autonomy to try to create more autonomy within their job by changing the tasks, their relationship with others (especially those who have the capability to give them more autonomy), and/or by changing how they think about their job. However, research into the need for autonomy has revealed that people differ in how much autonomy they desire/need (Pryor, 1987); suggesting that although autonomy is still important, Alder's claim that autonomy is an "intrinsic necessity of life itself" is likely overzealous. If the need for autonomy does vary between individuals, then people wouldn't uniformly craft their job to create

more autonomy and therefore there likely wouldn't be a negative relationship between job crafting and autonomy.

In looking at the other theoretical argument (that job crafting and autonomy are positively related), we believe the argument is much more straightforward. It can be argued that individuals who have more autonomy will perceive more opportunities to engage in job crafting, and therefore be more likely to engage in job crafting. If we apply the motivating potential score (MPS) from Hackman & Oldham's (1980) job characteristic model of job design to this question, we can see how this might occur. The MPS is a mathematical equation for estimating the how motivating a job or specific task is; the equation is as follows:

$$MPS = \frac{(Skill\ variety + Task\ Identity + Task\ Significance)}{3} \times Autonomy \times Feedback$$

In applying the MPS to job crafting behaviors, we can set up the motivation to engage in job crafting as a job behavior. Therefore, if an individual has little autonomy within their job they will likely perceive little to no opportunity to craft their job and their motivation to engage in job crafting behaviors will likely be reduced. On the flip side, if an individual has a lot of autonomy within their job they will likely perceive the opportunity to craft their job as being high which should increase the likelihood that they will engage in job crafting behaviors. Since job crafting is considered a proactive behavior we can also look at research on proactive behaviors and autonomy, where multiple studies have found that employees are more likely to exhibit proactive behaviors when autonomy is higher (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006; Morrison, 2006). Furthermore, in a theoretical paper on proactivity at work it was proposed that situational autonomy will increase proactive behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Since we believe this theoretical argument is stronger, we developed our second hypothesis based upon this argument:

H2: Autonomy will have a positive relationship with all three forms of job

crafting.

Autonomy and Proactive Personality

In looking at a larger view of Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) model of job crafting, we

can examine whether or not autonomy moderates the relationship between proactive personality

and job crafting. As stated earlier, Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) model of job crafting

theorized that autonomy (through the perceived opportunity to job craft) would moderate the

relationship between the motivation to engage in job crafting and actually engaging in job

crafting. Therefore, we present the following hypothesis.

H3: Autonomy will moderate the relationship between proactive personality and

job crafting behaviors such that when autonomy is high the relationship between

proactive personality and job crafting will be stronger than when autonomy is low

(see graph 1).

Chapter 2 - Method

Participants and Procedure

Data was collected from 500 participants using an online recruitment system (called

Qualtrics), which have been shown to be a good source of data for psychological research

(Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Approximately 58% were female, the average tenure

within their organization was 10 years (SD = 9), and the average age was 42 (SD = 12).

To ensure that participants were paying attention and answering in a consistent manner

attention check questions were used as outlined by DeSimone, Harms and DeSimone (2014) (see

Appendix A). Any participant who failed to answer the attention checks were excluded from the

analysis. The sample consisted of people who were employed full time and United States

Citizens who can fluently speak English. Participants completed a survey of the three measures using the Qualtrics survey system.

In estimating the effect size for use in the power analysis, to determine the number of participants needed, previous research was examined to see if similar constructs have been looked at together. In a study that examined proactive personality, autonomy, and general proactive behaviors (which job crafting is similar to) correlations between .15 and .34 were found between the three measures (Parker et al., 2006). To be conservative in the power analysis the smallest predictive value effect size found in the Parker and colleague's study was used as an estimated effect size (0.15^2 or 0.0225). With a desired statistical power level of 0.8 and setting the probability level at 0.05, at least 484 participants would be needed to find the interaction proposed in hypothesis 3.

Measures

Autonomy was assessed using the nine items measuring autonomy from the Work Design Questionnaire (Humphrey & Morgeson, 2006). Respondents answered each item using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). An example item is, "The job allows me to plan how I do my work" (see Appendix B for full scale). Items on the scale showed strong internal consistency so items scores were averaged to create a composite score ($\alpha = .95$).

Proactive Personality was measured using the 10-item Proactive Personality Scale (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Respondents answered each question using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). An example item is, "If I see something I don't like, I fix it" (see Appendix C for full scale). Items on the scale showed strong internal consistency so items scores were averaged to create a composite score ($\alpha = .95$).

Job Crafting was measured using the 15-item Job Crafting Questionnaire (JCQ) developed by Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013). Respondents indicated how frequently they have engaged in each job-crafting activity on a scale ranging from 1 (hardly ever) to 6 (very often). All three types of job crafting (task, cognitive and relational) were measured with five items and the JCQ can be examined as a full scale or by using each five item subscale. An example item for task crafting is, "Choose to take on additional tasks at work." An example item for cognitive crafting is, "Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being." An example item for task crafting is, "Organize or attend work related social functions" (see Appendix D for full scale). Both the full scale and each of the three subscales showed strong internal consistency (full scale α = .94; task α = .90; cognitive α = .93; relational α = .89).

Chapter 3 - Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables are reported in Table 1. Because of the high level of correlations between the three subscales of job crafting, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to ensure the independence of the three job crafting subscales. To do this a first and second order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were developed and tested. In testing the second order CFA (see Figure 2) the model statistics indicated a moderately good fit (χ^2/CMIN (87, N = 500) = 356.953, p<.001; RMSEA = .079; RMR = .083; GFI = .906). However, in testing the first order CFA (see Figure 3) the model statistics indicated poor fit (χ^2/CMIN (90, N = 500) = 1507.225, p<.001; RMSEA = .178; RMR = .203; GFI = .632). To compare these two models statistically a Chi-square difference test was performed. The model was significantly improved when a second order CFA was used $\chi^2_{difference}$ (3, N =500) = 1150.272, p<.001. With these results it was concluded that job crafting with the three subscales

(the second order CFA) had a better fit than without the three subscales. Therefore, both the job crafting subscales and the full scale will be used in the analysis as was originally planned.

To test Hypothesis 1, that proactive personality and all three forms of job crafting would be positively related, four separate bivariate correlations were computed. It was found that proactive personality was positively related to job crafting as a whole ($r = .652$, $p < .001$), task crafting ($r = .607$, $p < .001$), cognitive crafting ($r = .588$, $p < .001$), and relational crafting ($r = .505$, $p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 1. Since all three forms of job crafting are highly correlated a post-hoc stepwise regression was also conducted to identify if the three forms of job crafting added incremental variance in predicting proactive personality or if they were accounting for the same variance in proactive personality. Furthermore, a stepwise regression was used because there was no theoretical basis for entering one form of job crafting into the equation before another. Results indicated that task crafting accounted for the largest proportion of variance in predicting proactive personality ($r = .618$, $r^2 = .381$, $p < .001$). Cognitive crafting was found to account for a significant amount of unique variance above and beyond task crafting alone in predicting autonomy ($r = .534$, $\Delta r^2 = .010$, $p = .007$). Relational crafting was also found to account for a significant amount of unique variance above and beyond task crafting and cognitive crafting in predicting autonomy.

Four bivariate correlations were also used to test Hypothesis 2, that autonomy and all three forms of job crafting would be positively related. It was found that autonomy was positively related to job crafting as a whole ($r = .507$, $p < .001$), task crafting ($r = .522$, $p < .001$), cognitive crafting ($r = .417$, $p < .001$), and relational crafting ($r = .388$, $p < .001$), supporting Hypothesis 2. Similarly to proactive personality, a stepwise regression was conducted to identify if the three forms of job crafting added incremental variance in predicting autonomy or if they

were accounting for the same variance in autonomy. Furthermore, a stepwise regression was used because there was no theoretical basis for entering one form of job crafting into the equation before another. Results indicated that task crafting accounted for the largest proportion of variance in predicting autonomy ($r = .524$, $r^2 = .274$, $p < .001$). Cognitive crafting was found to account for a significant amount of unique variance above and beyond task crafting alone in predicting autonomy ($r = .534$, $\Delta r^2 = .010$, $p = .007$). However, relational crafting was not found to explain a significant amount of unique variance above and beyond task and cognitive crafting, so it was left out of the equation.

To test Hypothesis 3, that autonomy would moderate the relationship between proactive personality and job crafting, a hierarchical multiple regression was used. Autonomy and proactive personality combined to explain a significant proportion of variance ($r = .697$, $R^2 = .488$, $p < .001$). However, the interaction term did not explain additional variance in job crafting above and beyond what was explained by autonomy and proactive personality ($\Delta R^2 = .002$, $p = .130$), failing to support Hypothesis 3.

Chapter 4 - Discussion

The purpose of this study was to fill a void in the job crafting literature by attempting to understand potential contradictory statements made in Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) original job crafting theory. This study produced three important findings in an examination of when job crafting occurs.

First, individuals with higher scores on proactive personality are more likely to report engaging in job crafting than those with lower scores. This finding provides empirical support for Wrzesniewski & Dutton's theoretical argument that job crafting is a proactive behavior. Furthermore, it can be used in an applied setting when leaders are considering how to best utilize

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their employees. Based on our findings, employers may want to consider whether or not the positions they need to fill would benefit from being expanded or altered (through job crafting). For example, if a new position was developed where some of the role and responsibility boundaries needed to be tested and ironed out, an individual who has a high proactive personality would likely craft the job more and potentially help in firming up that job's core roles and responsibilities.

Second, autonomy and job crafting are positively related. Although we cannot say for certain that one causes the other, given our results and the theoretical arguments made, it appears likely that increased autonomy allows individuals the opportunity to job craft. This suggests that jobs that inherently have more autonomy may need increased monitoring to make sure that the core job responsibilities are still being completed, as suggested in Wrzesniewski & Dutton's (2001) original theoretical paper. Furthermore, if the job is dependent upon relationships (which many are), jobs with more autonomy may be prone to issues arising from employees changing with whom they interact, and/or favoring certain relationships over others. These altered relationships could then either positively or negatively influence performance of both the job incumbent and the group within which they work. Future research should further explore this relationship to identify when/where positive and negative alterations are more likely to occur.

Third, autonomy did not moderate the relationship between job crafting and proactive personality, with only the main effects of autonomy and proactive personality being significant predictors of job crafting. To examine the relative importance of these two factors, we investigated the incremental validity of autonomy above and beyond proactive personality (and the vice-versa) in predicting job crafting behaviors. We found that proactive personality explained an additional 22% of the variance above and beyond autonomy (see Table 2), but that

autonomy only explained an additional 6% of the variance above and beyond proactive personality (see Table 3). This indicates that proactive personality has a stronger relationship with job crafting than autonomy, and that there may be potential differences that we did not detect. For instance, since proactive personality and job crafting were positively related ($r = .447$, $p < .001$), individuals with a proactive personality may select jobs with high levels of autonomy, or they may have previously crafted additional autonomy into their job, thus causing a potential ceiling effect when looking at the interaction of the two predictors.

Limitations and Future Research

There were a number of limitations to this study. The design limited some of the implications that can be made, in that it was a cross-sectional. Future research should examine how proactive personality influences job crafting behaviors at different points in an individual's career, and at different points in time while they are in a single position. Also, future research should investigate whether job crafting can occur in positions with low autonomy and whether people can craft autonomy into their job.

This study also was limited in that the sample was collected through an online survey system. Furthermore, the self-report survey the participants completed was the only method used potentially resulting in a mono-method bias which might have inflated the relationships. However, participants were recruited through Qualtrics, which was able to ensure that respondents were indeed employed full time and in the positions they indicated. Future studies should look at different contexts within actual organizations to confirm these findings. Replicating this study within an organization would help to confirm these results and the design could be altered slightly to measure actual job characteristics (instead of self-reported ones) and help identify if a mono-method bias inflated the scores.

Conclusions

Despite the limitations, this study is a good initial step toward understanding the individual and situational differences that are related to job crafting. We found that when individuals report having more autonomy in their job they report engaging in job crafting behaviors more often. We also found that individuals with a proactive personality reported job crafting more often, thus providing additional evidence that job crafting is a proactive behavior. Finally, we did not find autonomy and proactive personality to interact when predicting job crafting. This indicates that autonomy might be a motivation to engage in job crafting (i.e. more freedom leads to more crafting) and not act as a moderator of job crafting, as was originally proposed by (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

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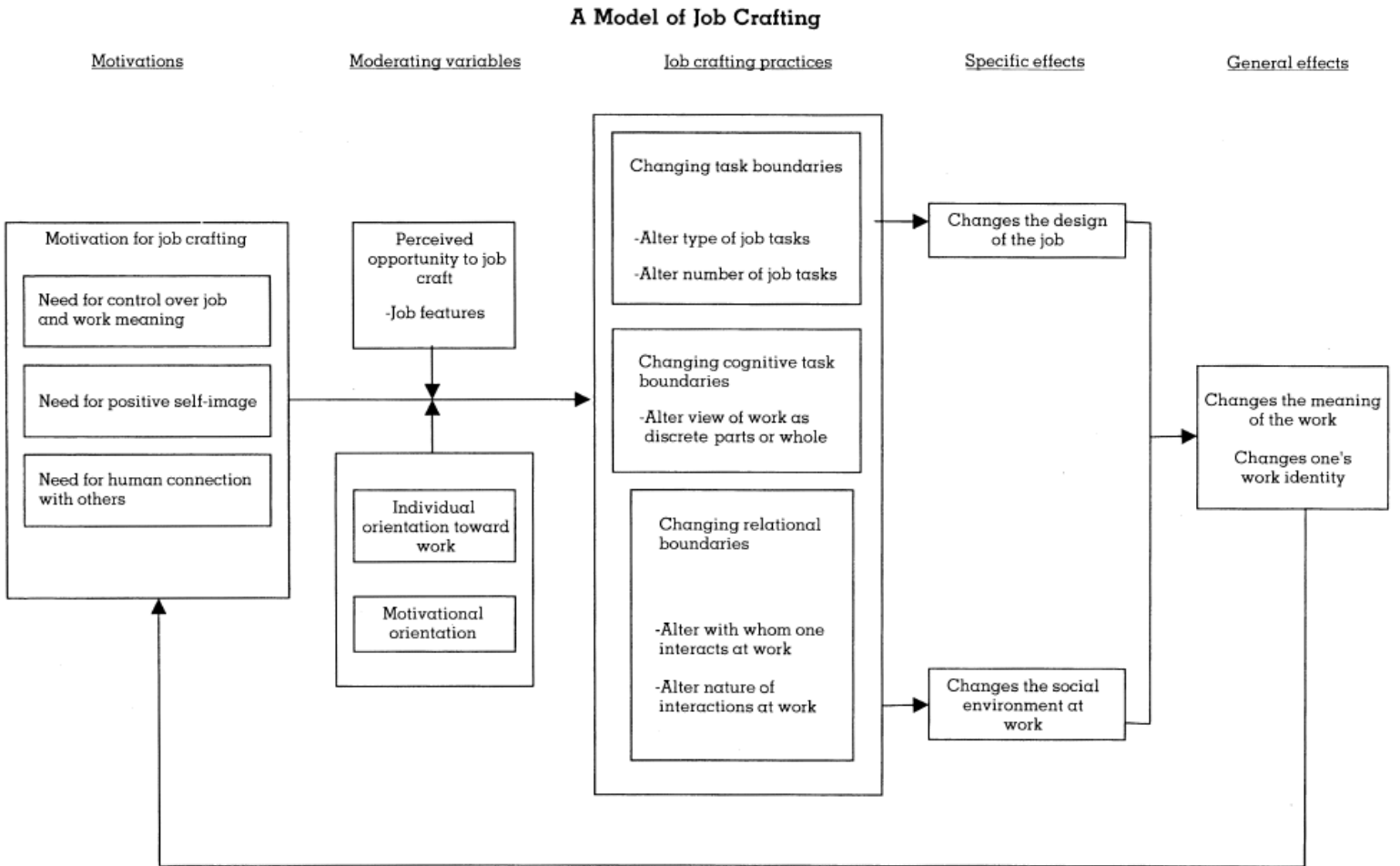**Figure 1. Model of Job Crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, pg 182)**

A Model of Job Crafting
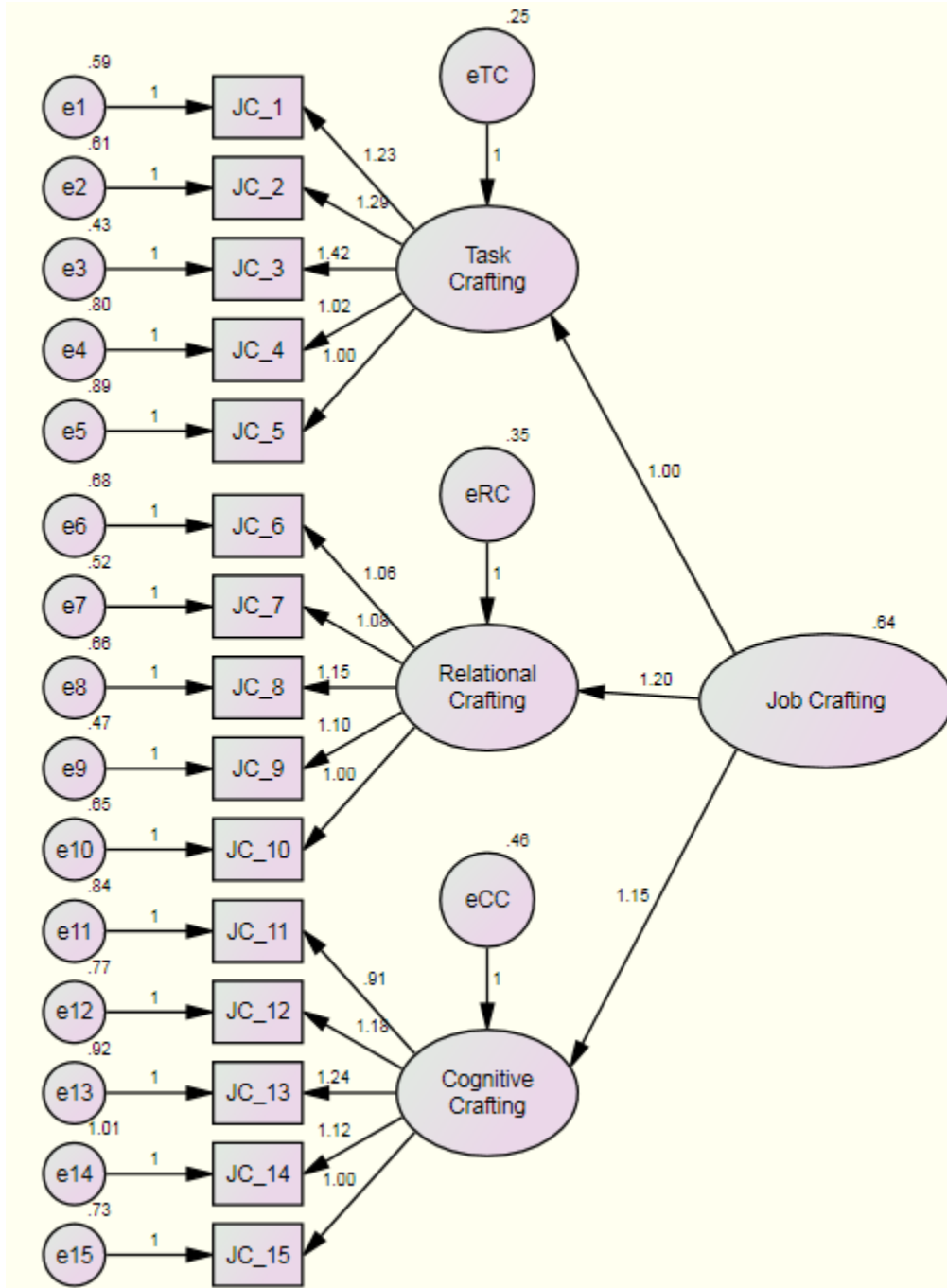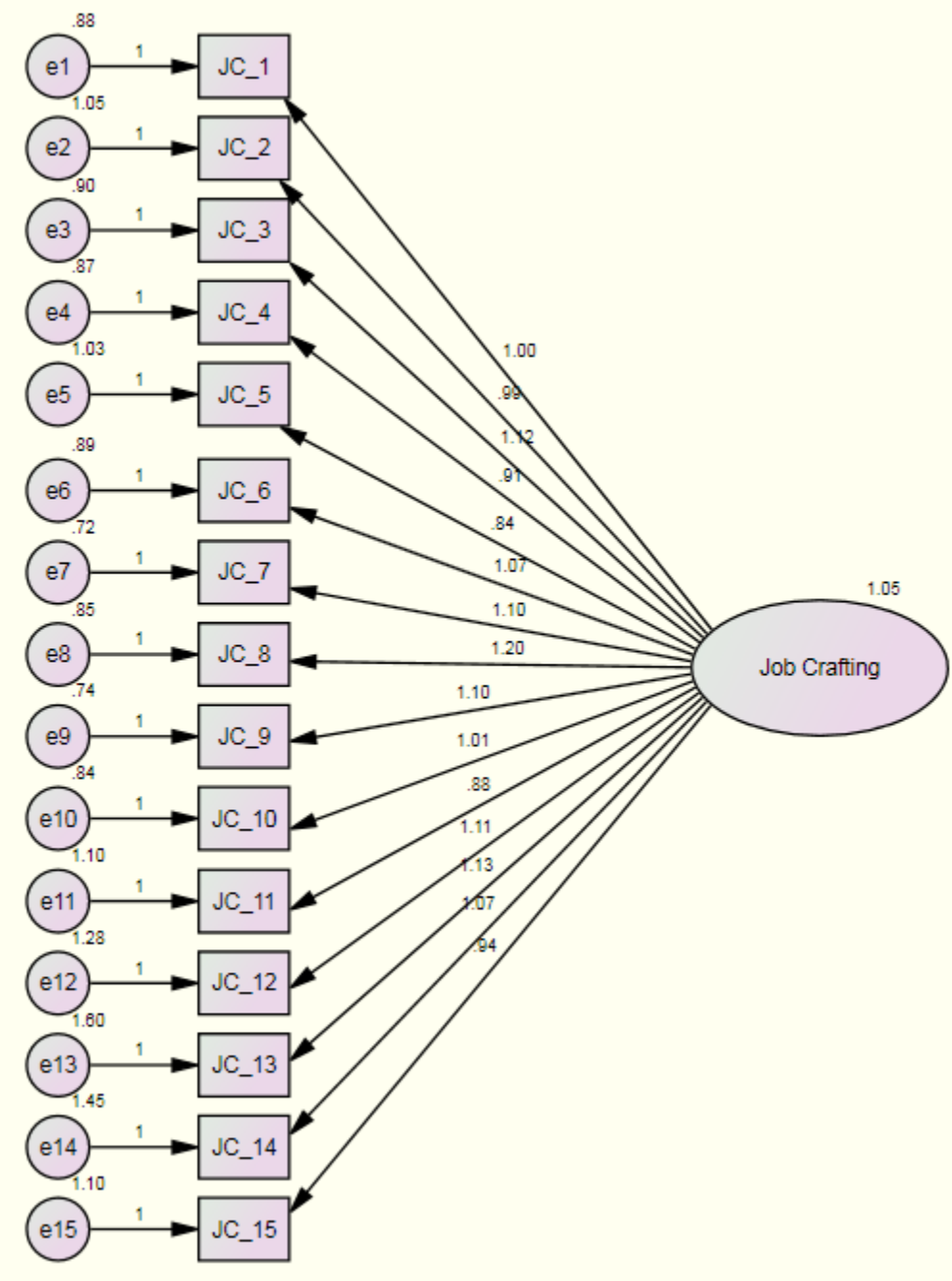
Figure 2. Second Order Factor Analysis

Figure 3. First Order Factor Analysis
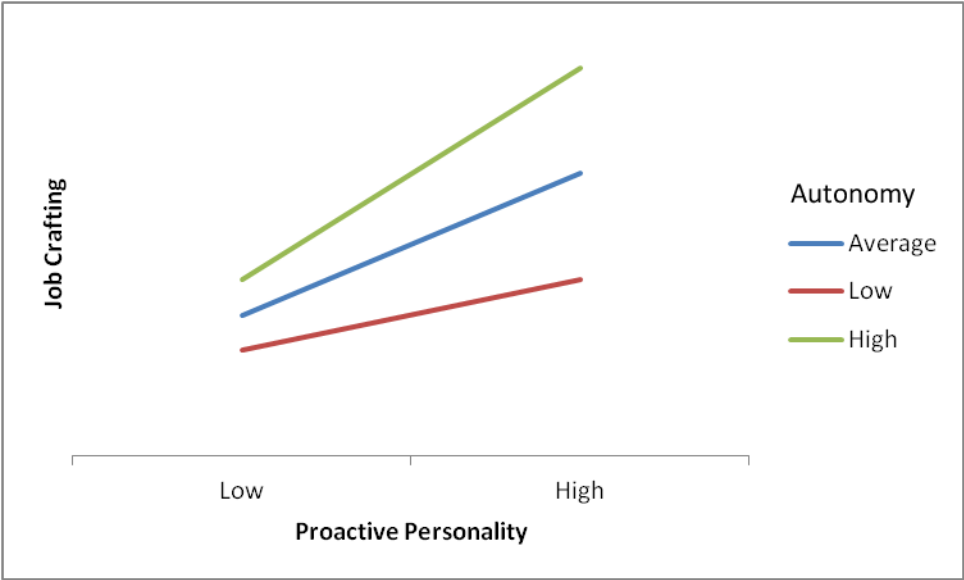
Graph 1. Hypothesis 3

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Proactive Personality,

Autonomy, and Job Crafting (the full scale and all three sub-scales)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Proactive Personality	5.29	1.09					
2. Autonomy	4.90	1.28	.447				
3. Job Crafting (Full)	3.99	1.09	.652	.512			
4. Task Crafting	4.03	1.18	.618	.524	.870		
5. Cognitive Crafting	4.15	1.27	.588	.427	.879	.671	
6. Relational Crafting	3.80	1.31	.505	.395	.868	.625	.628

Note. $n = 500$

All correlations are significant at the $p < .001$ level.

Table 2. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Job Crafting from Autonomy and

Proactive Personality

Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	B	Std Error	β
Step 1	**.262**	**.262**			
Autonomy			**.655**	.049	**.512**
Step 2	**.697**	**.224**			
Proactive Personality			**.797**	.054	**.529**

Note: Bolded items indicate $p < .001$

Table 3. Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Job Crafting from Proactive Personality and Autonomy

Predictor	R^2	ΔR^2	B	Std Error	β
Step 1	**.425**	**.425**			
Proactive Personality			**.982**	.051	**.652**
Step 2	**.697**	**.061**			
Autonomy			**.353**	.046	**.276**

Note: Bolded items indicate $p < .001$

Appendices

Appendix A. Attention Check Filters (Inserted throughout survey)

1) This is an attention filter, please select Disagree for this statement.

2) Select Agree for this statement, this is an attention filter.

3) Please choose Strongly Disagree for this statement, this is an attention filter.

Appendix B. Work Design Questionnaire, Autonomy sub-scale (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006)

1. The job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work.

2. The job allows me to decide on the order in which things are done on the job.

3. The job allows me to plan how I do my work.

4. The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.

5. The job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own.

6. The job provides me with significant autonomy in making decisions.

7. The job allows me to make decisions about what methods I use to complete my work.

8. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.

9. The job allows me to decide on my own how to go about doing my work.

Appendix C. Shortened Proactive Personality Scale (Bateman & Crant, 1993)

1. I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.

2. Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.

3. Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.

4. If I see something I don't like, I fix it.

5. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.

6. I love being a champion of my ideas, even against others' opposition.

7. I excel at identifying opportunities.

8. I am always looking for better ways to do things.

9. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen

10. I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.

Appendix D. Job Crafting Questionnaire (Slemp and Vella-Brodrick, 2013)

Task Crafting

1. Introduce new approaches to improve your work

2. Change the scope or types of tasks that you complete at work

3. Introduce new work tasks that you think better suit your skills or interests

4. Choose to take on additional tasks at work

5. Give preference to work tasks that suit your skills or interests

Cognitive Crafting

6. Think about how your job gives your life purpose

7. Remind yourself about the significance your work has for the success of the organization

8. Remind yourself of the importance of your work for the broader community

9. Think about the ways in which your work positively impacts your life

10. Reflect on the role your job has for your overall well-being

Relational Crafting

11. Make an effort to get to know people well at work

12. Organize or attend work related social functions

13. Organize special events in the workplace (e.g., celebrating a co-worker's birthday)

14. Choose to mentor new employees (officially or unofficially)

15. Make friends with people at work who have similar skills or interests