

How job crafting can link demographic similarity and engagement

by

Lynn Beer

B.S., Kansas State University, 2011
M.S., Kansas State University, 2016

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychological Sciences
College of Arts and Sciences

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

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Abstract

In the fast-changing world of business today, employees are not passive recipients of their jobs; instead, employees actively craft their jobs. The concept of job crafting was first developed in 2001 as a way to assess the extent to which this crafting occurs (Wrzesniewski & Dutton). Built within the job crafting framework is the consideration of a person by situation interaction. From that, this study tries to explore how relational demography of the supervisor-subordinate relationship might differentially impact engagement through job crafting. A conditional indirect effect of relational demography was found on engagement through job crafting for minorities, but not White employees. This effect was examined for sex differences, but no relationship was found. Future research needs to further examine these relationships to better understand why this effect occurs and the impact it might have on job crafting related interventions.

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Approved by:

Major Professor
Patrick Knight

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Dedication

To my loving wife Amy, for without her support I would never have made it into graduate school, let alone finish my Ph.D.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Organizational researchers have long documented the changing workplace. Work is becoming more complex. One only needs to look at the changing dynamics of data within organizations and the full out sprint to make objective decisions using data (Soundararajan & Singh, 2016). With the fast-changing environment, employees are crafting their jobs to meet business demands. Job profiles/descriptions are often outdated by the time they are completed. In a paper by Bell and Staw (1989), the authors identified contradictory views on the nature of job design between practitioner's usage and approaches compared to the academic literature. Practitioner approaches and the associated literature viewed employees as "sculptors," being able to take charge of their job/career and shape the dimensions of it to achieve their career aspirations. Up until this point, the academic literature viewed employees as "sculpture," seeing them as malleable and passive recipients, changing to better "fit" within their organization. Bell and Staw argued that employees are both sculptors and sculpture, being able to change some things within their job/careers, but also evolving themselves to better fit within their organization. Based in part upon Bell and Staw's work and as a counter to the more classical job design literature (i.e., The Job Characteristics Model; Hackman & Oldham, 1980), Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) developed a model they called job crafting. With job crafting, employees are capable of actively altering the dimensions of their job.

Since Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) seminal paper on job crafting, there have been many studies looking at what job crafting is, moderators of job crafting, outcomes of job crafting, etc. A google scholar search of "job crafting" results in approximately 9,000 articles since the seminal paper (Date accessed 2/16/20). The current study will attempt to extend the job crafting literature by looking at job crafting through a relational demography lens; specifically, it

will look at racial and sex differences with relational demography, and how they might influence job crafting behaviors and associated outcomes. Given our increasingly diverse workplace, we need to better understand what the impacts of diversity might be and their implications for important psychological constructs.

Chapter 2 - Job Crafting

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) define Job Crafting as an informal and proactive process through which individuals change the boundaries of their job to better align it with their desires. The boundaries of a job are comprised of the physical tasks that make up a job, the social context a job exists within, and the experienced meaning the job incumbent has for that job. Therefore, boundaries of a job are both based upon physical and social inputs, but also on the perceptions of the individual within that role. Wrzesniewski and Dutton argue that by changing the boundaries of a job, employees are redesigning their job, thereby changing the characteristics inherent in their job and the meaning they experience from completing their job. To better understand where job crafting came from and what has been found in the research on job crafting, as defined by Wrzesniewski and Dutton, we will now examine the job crafting model.

Forms of Job Crafting

Job crafting initially took three distinct forms (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001): Physical, Relational, and Cognitive. Physical job crafting occurs when an employee changes the job characteristics or tasks completed within their job. Examples of physical job crafting include changing the type or number of job tasks through behaviors like delegating or volunteering for alternative job types. Relational job crafting is when an employee alters the interaction style, process, or the people with whom they interact with as part of their job. Examples of relational job crafting include changing how or with whom you interact within your job, such as communicating more with people you dislike through email instead of face to face (or vice versa). The last type of job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski and Dutton, cognitive job crafting, involves changing how an employee thinks about and conceptualizes anything about their job. For example, a nurse can view their job as implementing care for patients based upon

what the overseeing physician tells them. Alternatively, the same nurse can view their job as advocates for their patients, who ensures that the primary physician considers the patient's unique circumstances to provide the best possible care. It is also important to note that job crafting behaviors can involve multiple types of job crafting, such as when an employee works on projects more with other employees with whom they enjoy working, which would be both physical and relational job crafting.

Since the original description of job crafting, other research streams have conceptualized job crafting differently than did Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001). The primary alternative theory of job crafting was developed by Tims and Bakker (2010), who defined job crafting as a form a proactive behavior in which employees initiate changes to their job demands and resources to better align these job characteristics with their needs and abilities. This theory of job crafting uses the job demand resources model to ground job crafting research in a broader theoretical framework (Bakker, 2011). Furthermore, Tims and Bakker (2001) found job crafting to act as a mediating mechanism between job performance and work engagement. Similarly, this study will conceptualize job crafting as a mediating mechanism leading to engagement. Tims and Bakker's model of job crafting has an issue, in that it fails to consider the full scope of Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) original model, as it does not address cognitive job crafting (Slemp & Vella-Broderick, 2013). Instead, Tims and Bakker (2010) described their model of job crafting as having four components: Increasing structural job rewards, increasing challenging job demands, decreasing hindering job demands, and increasing social job demands (Tims, et al., 2012). Through the job crafting lens developed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), the first three dimensions of Tims and colleagues' (2012) model of job crafting are all types of physical job crafting, with the fourth being a type of relational job crafting.

Motivations to Job Craft

Employees are motivated to engage in job crafting behaviors for several reasons. However, the underlying motivation that leads an employee to engage in job crafting is to align their job with satisfying an inherent need (Berg, et al., 2013). In discussing specific underlying motives that lead employees to engage in job crafting, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified three specific needs that motivate individuals to engage in job crafting:

1. The need for control in one's work and its meaning
2. The need to have a positive self-image
3. The need to have a human connection with others

The first underlying motivation for job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) is an individual's need for control, which is viewed a basic human driver (Adler, 1930). Adler argued that the need for control is “an intrinsic necessity of life itself” and is one of the most important human drivers (Adler, 1930: pg. 398). In support of this theory, research has shown that lack of control at work can result in employees feeling alienated, experiencing increased strain, and higher rates of burnout (Alarcon, 2011; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). Furthermore, research has shown that the need for control to be positively related to job crafting ($r = .198$) (Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova, 2016). However, in this study this relationship was primarily due to a positive relationship with cognitive crafting ($r = .231$). In contrast, task and relational crafting were not found to be significantly related to the need for control. This finding could mean that needs influence the different dimensions of job crafting behaviors differently.

The second motivation for job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) is an individual's need to have a positive self-image. According to Social Identify Theory, an

individual's self-esteem is influenced by their perception of their performance, the performance of a team they are on, and the performance of the organization they are in (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). Furthermore, research on self-enhancement theory has shown that people have a basic need to create and maintain a positive sense of self (Leary, 2007). At work, when individuals experience a threat to their self-image, it can motivate them to change something about what they do, how they interact with others, or how they cognitively conceptualize their job, all of which are types of job crafting. In support of this, numerous studies on "dirty work," or occupations that are perceived to be disgusting, have found that dirty workers tend to have relatively high levels of occupational esteem and pride in what they do (i.e., Thompson, 1991, McIntyre, 1987, Wacquant, 1995). In exploring this phenomenon, Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) found that dirty workers cognitively change their perceptions of what they do and what/who they use as standards to compare their self-image. The change in perspective results in a more positive self-image amongst dirty workers than would otherwise be predicted.

The third motivation Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified that can lead to job crafting is the need for human connection with others. To experience and perceive something as being meaningful, humans need to have relationships with others to share the meaning (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). Research has shown that the need for human connection leads people to view their social relationships as a resource that they are motivated to conserve and expand (Rego, Souto, & Cunha, 2009). Furthermore, interpersonal connections at work influence how individuals can experience and perceive the meaning they get from their work (Kahn, 1998).

The three needs that Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identify as being the underlying motivations to job craft are, theoretically, inherent needs. However, there are individual differences in the degree to which inherent needs exist (i.e., Pryor, 1987). Furthermore, the

degree to which each need is satisfied depends upon what the job provides for any individual employee. Therefore, the underlying motivations for job crafting are dependent upon individual differences as well as environmental/job-based factors, which Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) original model of job crafting viewed as moderators.

Moderators of Job Crafting

In discussing the potential moderators of job crafting, Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) model specified that even if an employee has the necessary motivation to engage in job crafting, they might not do so because of job features and individual difference moderators. Wrzesniewski and Dutton expand upon how job features influence an individual's perceived opportunity to job craft, focusing on task interdependence and closeness of monitoring.

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). Wresniewski and Dutton (2001) argued that when there is a high level of task interdependence, the individual's flexibility and autonomy is limited, which in turn limits the perceived (and actual) capability to alter the characteristics of the job.

How closely managers monitor and control an employee's tasks likely influences an employee's perception that they have the opportunity to craft their job (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). When employees are not directly controlled and observed, the perceived opportunity to engage in job crafting should increase. However, when an employee is directly controlled or observed by their supervisor, then the visibility of job crafting behavior will be high and will likely be subverted by the supervisor.

Research has supported these two components and has expanded them to include other job characteristics that can influence job crafting behaviors. Research into autonomy on job crafting has found there to be a positive link between autonomy and job crafting (e.g., Beer, 2016). In addition to autonomy, a meta-analysis on job crafting has found that workload is positively related to job crafting behaviors (Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017).

In looking at individual differences, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified work and motivational orientations as potential characteristics that might moderate the relationship between job crafting motives and behaviors. Three work orientations have been identified to help explain how most people view their work: as a job (focus on rewards, don't consider work to be a central part of their life), as a career (focus on advancing in their profession), or as a calling (focus on enjoying their job and having meaning in what they do) (Wrzesniewski, McCauley, Rozin, & Schwartz, 1997). Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argued that there would be different effects on job crafting behavior types for each of the different work orientations. Workers with job orientations would likely craft jobs in ways that they believe directly impact their pay, minimizing behaviors that are not directly related. Workers with career orientations were argued to be more likely to engage in job crafting that is focused on helping or working with those more powerful than themselves, or by engaging in tasks that have high visibility. Having a calling at work and its relation to job crafting is the only one of the three work orientations scientifically investigated since Wrzesniewski and Dutton's originally theorized the relationship. In a study investigating callings and job crafting, it was found that workers who view their job as a calling, engaged in a number of unique job crafting behaviors (Berg, Grant, & Johnson, 2010). For example, workers who viewed their job as a calling were more likely change the nature of tasks they completed or the amount of time spent on tasks in order to emphasize the tasks that aligned

with their calling. Workers with a calling orientation were also more likely to take on additional tasks to pursue their unanswered callings. Additionally, these workers with calling orientations were more likely to reframe their role to align their cognitive conception of their job with how it related to their perceived calling.

In addition to work orientation, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations as potential moderators of job crafting motives and behaviors. Other individual orientations could likely act as a moderator as well. Specifically, they argued that intrinsically motivated workers would be more likely to engage in job crafting that expands their role, whereas extrinsically motivated workers would likely engage in job crafting that limits the boundaries of their job in order to meet external criteria (i.e. formal performance evaluations). Research has supported this theory, with a study finding that intrinsic motivation was positively related to job crafting behaviors that expanded worker's roles through increasing job challenges (Martinez & Solem, 2019)

Forms of Job Crafting

There were three forms of job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) in their original paper: task, relational, and cognitive. Task crafting occurs when individuals change the boundaries of what they do in their job. Task crafting occurs when an employee alters the type, number, or scope of the tasks completed. An example of task crafting could be when an employee goes outside of their regular work and creates a new process that outlines what everyone on their team does and how they interact to improve efficiency. If this was not a part of the individual's job, and they did it on their own, it would be them engaging in task crafting. Research has shown that autonomy and task crafting are positively related (Beer, 2016).

Relational crafting, the second type of job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), describes behaviors by which employees change with whom they interact, or how they interact with others, as part of their job. Relational crafting behaviors can occur when an employee attempts to work more with people they enjoy working with, email people they dislike while calling or visiting those they like, and through helping others as a way to improve relationships with them. All of these are examples of relational crafting, and to the extent to which a job allows individuals to relationally job craft, people will naturally do so. Similar to other types of job crafting, relational job crafting is dependent upon aspects of the job; for example, autonomy is positively related to relational job crafting (Beer, 2016).

The third, and least well-known, form of job crafting identified by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) is cognitive crafting. Cognitive crafting is when someone reconceptualizes their job, their tasks, the outcomes of what they do, etc. Cognitive crafting is what likely occurs for employees who occupy "dirty jobs," as it allows them to focus on the positive components of their role instead of what people outside of their profession might think of those jobs. By engaging in cognitive job crafting, employees can directly impact the meaning they experience from their job (Lazazzara, Tims, de Gennaro, 2020).

An important note about job crafting that the present study won't try to unravel, but which should be considered, is the organizational valence of the outcomes of job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Tims & Bakker, 2010). Although it is primarily discussed in terms of being a good thing for organizations, job crafting does not necessarily result in benefits for the organization (or the individual). Since it is employee-motivated and driven, it is an attempt by the individual to gain some desired outcome. Therefore, an employee could use job crafting to become less efficient, more reliant on others, to minimize their job, etc. The possible

negative impacts of job crafting are essential to consider because job crafting research should not be prescriptive, and will eventually need to examine the positives and negatives of each form of job crafting.

Since their original paper (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), other types of job crafting have been proposed and investigated, with the primary alternative conceptualization developed by Tims and Bakker (2010). Tims and Bakker conceptualized job crafting within the job demand resources model, and view job crafting as being split into three forms: increasing structural or social job resources, increasing job demands/challenges, and decreasing job demands. This model focuses primarily on task job crafting (with components of it in all three forms) with a slight sprinkling of relational job crafting (through increasing social job resources). Although a great deal of research has investigated Tims and Bakker's conceptualization of job crafting, it fails to adequately consider cognitive job crafting (Lazazzara et al., 2020), which is a critical component of the job crafting model.

Job crafting has also been recast through a role-resource and approach-avoidance model of job crafting to try and understand different motivations and types of job crafting that occur (Bruning & Campion, 2018). Through their model, job crafting is argued to be broken into role crafting and resource crafting; however, similarly to Tims and Bakker's model of job crafting (2010), Bruning and Campion (2018) fail to fully include the cognitive crafting component of job crafting. Bruning and Campion do include components of psychological crafting, but only from an avoidance standpoint (through what they term "withdrawal crafting") and a metacognition standpoint (looking at how people structure their thoughts to complete their work).

This study will utilize the original conceptualization of job crafting by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) to examine job crafting behaviors holistically, while incorporating findings from the Tims and Bakker (2010) as well as Bruning and Campion (2010) lines of research into the full model of job crafting.

Outcomes of Job Crafting

When an employee changes the tasks they complete in their job, or the relationships they have at work, they are changing the characteristics of their job (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Previous meta-analytic findings have shown that the many different job characteristics can influence the meaning individuals experience from their job, as well as many other outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, experienced stress, burnout; Humphrey et al., 2007). This suggests that employees who engage in job crafting are changing the characteristics of their job, which can lead to an increase in the meaning they experience from their job and other beneficial outcomes. Even if an employee engages in job crafting in a way that decreases their responsibilities, it would likely still have beneficial outcomes for the employee. The decrease in responsibility an employee creates through job crafting can result in fewer demands and less stress (this type of crafting might harm the organization).

In looking at some of the outcomes of job crafting, job crafting in general has been found to be positively related to the performance and the health of employees (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018). A meta-analytic study on job crafting supported this result in part, finding task and relational job crafting to be positively related to other-rated job performance (Rudolph et al., 2017), cognitive crafting was not examined. That same study also found job crafting overall to be positively related to contextual job performance. Research has also found that job crafting

leads to an increase in employee well-being, increased engagement, increased job satisfaction, and decreased feelings of burnout (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013).

Although there has been a great deal of research in recent years on the outcomes of job crafting, much of the research has focused on organizational differences or individual differences in isolation. This study will look at the person-situation interaction and how relationships change between job crafting behaviors and a known outcome of job crafting. These differences in job crafting will be examined through a relational demography lens.

Chapter 3 - Workplace Diversity and Relational Demography

Workplace diversity is a topic in I/O psychology that is both extremely prevalent in academic research and in application within HR departments. A cursory search using Google Scholar for the term “Workplace Diversity” results in 17,000 articles having been written, demonstrating a great deal of focus on workplace diversity. Further, a search for the term workplace diversity on SHRM's website, the largest HR professional society (SHRM.org, 2019), results in 2,672 articles, demonstrating a great deal of focus on workplace diversity in applied settings.

Even with all of the research and applied emphasis on workplace diversity, much of the research has focused on simple statistical methods and correlations. Relational demography is one way by which we can look deeper into the relationship between diversity in organizations and business outcomes, and the implications of that relationship for organizations at the micro and macro level (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1992).

Relational Demography is the study of the person-situation interaction of demographic similarity between individuals, groups, or organizations (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Before Tsui & O'Reilly's seminal paper, workplace demographic researchers were split into two camps: one camp investigated how demographic compositions within organizations impacted individual experiences, and the other camp investigated how individual demographics influenced those individuals' organizational experiences.

Using Social Identity Theory (SIT) (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and self-categorization theory (Turner, 1987) as a basis, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) argued that the impact of organizational demographics differs for each individual depending on their demographics. SIT theorizes that individuals classify themselves based upon social characteristics (Tajfel & Turner,

1986). Then, based upon their self classifications, individuals view others as being congruous with their perceived classification and thus part of their in-group (for that social characteristic) or out-group. Using this classification system and applying it to demographics, Relational Demography argues that demographic research should always be, at a minimum, interactive in nature (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989).

In a meta-analysis that examined dyadic interaction differences between interracial and same-race dyads, it was found that same-race dyads had more positive outcomes in several cases than did interracial dyads (Toosi, Babbit, Ambady, & Sommers, 2012). Same-race dyads reported slightly more positive attitudes about their partners, reported feeling lower amounts of negative affect, and exhibited greater amounts of friendly behavior. Same-race dyads also had differences in non-verbal behaviors and scored slightly higher on performance measures. However, these differences tended to disappear with longer relationships between the members of the dyads, and there was no difference in how much the partners liked working with each other for same-race or inter-race dyads. The meta-analysis used data from 1964-2010; when only 2000-2010 data was included, nonverbal differences were no longer significant, indicating that individual interaction between same and inter race dyads have been decreasing. The meta-analysis also found relationships to be larger in field studies as opposed to laboratory studies. It was argued that in lab settings investigating racial bias, participants are more like to engage in self-presentation tactics than in field research. Therefore, they argue for using field-based research techniques as opposed to lab studies when investigating racial bias. Based in part upon these findings, this study will use perceptions of individuals based upon real-world experiences as opposed to laboratory-based simulations.

Although the impacts of relational demography are changing (Toosi et al., 2012), the impact that same- and inter-race relationships have is still extremely important to understand. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2019), Whites made up 78% of the workforce and occupied 84.5% of management positions. African Americans comprised an estimated 12.3% of the workforce and only 7.6% of management positions, demonstrating that White individuals are approximately 74% more likely to occupy management roles than expected when compared to African Americans and hold over ten times as many management roles overall. This difference is even larger for Hispanics who make up 17.3% of the workforce and occupy only 10.3% of management roles (80.7% lower than expected when compared to whites on average). These differences, whatever the reason, highlight the importance of understanding inter-racial dynamics and their potential negative effects, as the negative effects are more likely to be present for historically disadvantaged groups.

This study will examine the relationship between relational demography and job crafting behaviors. Further, this study will examine to see if the relationship between relational demography and job crafting mediate the relationship between relational demography and engagement. Since relational demography affects races differently, this study will look at how the relationship between relational demography and job crafting is different for different racial groups. Stereotype threat will be used to help understand this relationship, and will be used as a theoretical underpinning of this difference.

Stereotype threat occurs when an individual perceives that there is a risk of confirming a negative stereotype about their social group (Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002). Multiple factors can contribute to the experience of stereotype threat, with the most-researched areas being racial grouping and sex differences. Stereotype threat is caused when the individual views themselves

through the association they have with a specific social category that they are a part of. An example of this is among women when made aware of the stereotype that women are inferior drivers (Yeung & von Hippel, 2008). Research has shown that stereotype threat can vary by the salience of the encounter, context, and grouping (Inzlicht & Schmader, 2012). The impact of salience on the experience of stereotype threat can be seen with stereotype salience, or how salient the stereotypical behavior is to the individual experiencing stereotype threat. For example, if a female student driver is taught to drive by a sexist teacher, her performance is likely to increase less than with a teacher who is not sexist. The experience of stereotype threat in this instance can also increase if the context of the situation has evaluative scrutiny. In the example, if the student driver is evaluated as part of her driving test, the experience of stereotype threat is likely to increase as well. The stereotype threat increases because of the heightened feelings of anxiety in the student driver because they fear to fail and reinforce the stereotype. In the workplace, for minorities, women, or other marginalized groups, this has been shown to occur across a variety of situations, and likely impacts a variety of workplace experiences (Roberson & Kulik, 2007).

When looking at experiences of stereotype threat in the workplace, most situations are evaluative, meaning that groups who are vulnerable to stereotype threat can experience it at any time. Experiencing stereotype threat can lead to increased stress, lower performance, decreased engagement, and other important negative outcomes (e.g., Kray, Thompson, & Galinsky, 2001; Roberson, Deitch, Brief, & Block 2003; Bergeron, Block, & Echtenkamp, 2006). These stigmatized individuals, who become aware of their stigmatized status, have increased susceptibility to environmental acts that show prejudice and discrimination. These individuals also become more aware of signs of stereotypical behavior or actions, seeking out validation that

they are stigmatized. This has been shown to lead to a decrease in feedback-seeking and acceptance in the workplace (Roberson et al. 2003), which is critical to many measures of performance (e.g., De Stobbeleir, Ashford, & Buyens, 2011, Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2007). In support of this, research has found that stigmatized employees are less likely to solicit feedback and less likely to accept feedback when they do receive it (Walton, Murphy, & Ryan, 2015). Further, this decrease in feedback solicitation and acceptance lead to the decline in long term development for those stigmatized employees. This has been theorized to be due to employees who experience stereotype threat believing that feedback from coworkers, especially superiors, is aimed at their inability to perform relative to others in the organization. These employees have been found to take feedback more personally, and can attribute their lack of ability to meet performance expectations to their stereotypic groupings. This misattribution by the employee impacts their self-esteem and then leads to a decrease in willingness to learn, to accept feedback, and ultimately to perform.

In linking this with job crafting, job crafting is a proactive behavior by which an employee changes the bounds of their job. For minorities and women who experience more stereotype threat, the negative effects of stereotype threat on job crafting can be two-fold. First, they might seek out less feedback and therefore be less likely to engage in job crafting (since feedback is important to guide job crafting behavior). Second, if they are less likely to accept feedback and less willing to change their behavior as a result of that feedback, this can further decrease the likelihood that they will engage in job crafting. Since minorities and women are more likely to experience stereotype threat (when their boss is a different race/sex), and therefore are less likely to seek out feedback and more likely to misattribute the feedback, we argue that

minorities and women will be less likely to engage in job crafting behaviors when their boss' race or sex doesn't match their own.

Research has also found evidence that stereotype threat can lead to disengagement, as the employees experiencing stereotype threat attempt to separate their work performance from their self-esteem (Major et al. 2002). This disengagement can cause these employees to feel that they have no control in their work. Employees who experience a lack of control due to stereotype threat have many negative outcomes; it is hypothesized that these negative outcomes will lead to a decrease in job crafting. The impact of disengagement from stereotype threat can also help to explain the decrease in willingness to learn. Research has shown that employees who feel threatened while at work are less likely to take advantage of developmental opportunities, and are less likely to take risks (Davies et al. 2005). An example of this occurring is workplaces where traditionally masculine traits are emphasized. Emphasis on traditionally masculine traits can lead women to avoid taking leadership positions as they can see themselves as inferior to men due to the work culture.

This study will also examine the relationship between a decrease in job crafting through incongruence of race/sex, stereotype threat, and engagement.

Chapter 4 - Engagement

Engagement, although a relatively new construct, is one of the most commonly studied psychological constructs within organizations (Macy & Schneider, 2008). However, engagement has also had issues with conceptual clarity. This problem is likely due, at least in part, to the popularity of the construct in applied I/O Psychology. Due to the popularity of engagement, a large portion of the research conducted on it has been communicated through practitioner journals or consulting firms with proprietary definitions and measures, as opposed to traditional empirical research (Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004). This has resulted in many different definitions and measures of engagement (Macy & Schneider, 2008).

One of the more common definitions of engagement is, "an individual's involvement and satisfaction with, as well as enthusiasm for work" (Harter, Schmidt, Hayes, 2002, p. 269). It is also conceptualized as a persistent state of positive feeling/emotion that is fulfilling; this definition breaks engagement into three components, vigor, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma, & Bakker, 2002). Other research has defined engagement as the antithesis of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) or as workers being psychologically present in their jobs and work roles (Kahn, 1990).

Even with its various incarnations, engagement of almost every type has been shown to be an important predictor and outcome for employees; making engagement both an attitude that predicts behaviors and an outcome of behavior. Studies have found engagement to impact individual and organizational performance (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011), customer service ratings, and intentions to stay within organizations (Kahn, 1990; Harter et al., 2002; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005; Saks, 2006; Bakker, Demerouti, & ten Brummelhuis, 2011).

In other research, it was found that engagement perceptions can be influenced by outside forces. For example, in a study on age similarity and engagement, it was found that perceptions of age congruency between coworkers impacted their satisfaction with working with other employees as well as their self-reported engagement levels (Avery, McKay, and Wilson, 2007).

Further, in a study on the age-based relational demography of supervisor-subordinate relationships, it was found that the relative age between supervisors and subordinates resulted in different levels of engagement (Yang & Matz-Costa, 2018). The researchers found that employees who perceived their supervisors to be of a similar age to them reported lower engagement levels than did employees who had supervisors who were perceived to be older than them. Taken together, these studies provide evidence that engagement is not determined only by the aspects of an employee's job or their individual characteristics, but by the combination of individual perceptions and environmental cues, such as perceived age differences. Similarly, a study looking at the engagement and demographic similarity between supervisor and subordinates found that subordinates were less likely to be engaged when their supervisor was not the same race as them (Beer & Snyder, 2015). However, the negative relationship between engagement and demographic similarity was found to be primarily driven by minorities, and the authors argued that this relationship was due to experiences of stereotype threat.

These findings lead to the final relationships this study will attempt to investigate; does racial and sex similarity between supervisor and subordinate impact engagement, and is this relationship mediated by the decrease in job crafting? Taking the above findings and the arguments presented for the expected differences related to demographic similarity and job crafting into consideration, it is hypothesized that demographic similarity will be positively related to engagement, but this relationship will be higher for minorities and women, likely due

to increased experiences of stereotype threat. Further, we believe that any decrease in engagement will be due to the decrease in job crafting that previous studies have found. Since job crafting leads to engagement, the decrease in job crafting will lead to a decrease in engagement.

Chapter 5 - Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 – The relationship between demographic similarity and engagement will be mediated by job crafting when:

- a. The race of the employee is a minority, but not when the race of the employee is White.
- b. The sex of the employee is female, but not when the sex of the employee is male.

Hypothesis 2 – Demographic similarity of (a) race and (b) sex will have a positive relationship with job crafting.

Hypothesis 3 – The relationship between job crafting and demographic similarity will vary based upon:

- a. The race of employees, such that there will be no relationship between demographic similarity and job crafting for White employees, but there will be a positive relationship between demographic similarity and job crafting for minorities.
- b. The sex of employees, such that there will be no relationship between sex similarity and job crafting for male employees, but there will be a positive relationship between sex similarity and job crafting for female employees.

Hypothesis 4 – Job crafting will be positively related to engagement.

Hypothesis 5 – Demographic similarity of (a) race and (b) sex will have a positive relationship with engagement.

Hypothesis 6 – The relationship between demographic similarity and engagement will vary based upon:

- a. The race of employees, such that there will be no relationship between demographic similarity and engagement for White employees, but there will be a positive relationship between demographic similarity and engagement for minorities.
- b. The sex of employees, such that there will be no relationship between sex similarity and engagement for male employees, but there will be a positive relationship between sex similarity and engagement for female employees.

Hypotheses 1-6 are testing the components of a moderated mediation model; this model is displayed in Figure 1.

Chapter 6 - Methods

Participants and Procedure

Data was be collected from 1,000 participants using the online recruitment system Prolific. Participants were paid \$1.25 for their responses. Online data collection through services like Prolific has been shown to be a good source of data for psychological research (e.g. Buhrmester, Talaifar, & Gosling, 2018). Prolific also allows for a demographically representative sample to be collected, based upon US demographics, which will be used for this study. To ensure active participation and answering in a consistent manner, data screening methods outlined by DeSimone and colleagues (2014) will be used, along with attention check questions and reputation filters, as developed by Peer and colleagues (2014). The sample will be US citizens who speak English fluently and have a manager/supervisor (i.e., are not self-employed). Participants will complete a survey assessing: job crafting, engagement, demographics, and manager/supervisor demographics. To minimize the impact of stereotype threat within the survey, the demographic information of the survey taker and their supervisor/manager will be collected last.

Measures

Job crafting will be measured using the 15-item Job Crafting Questionnaire (JCQ) (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013), see Appendix A. In the JCQ, participants indicate the frequency in which they engage in different job crafting behaviors on a scale ranging from 1 (Hardly Ever) to 6 (Very Often). The JCQ measures all three types of job crafting separately with five questions each. The scores can also be combined to create an overarching measure of job crafting. A sample item is "Choose to take on additional tasks at work." Slemp and Vella-Brodrick showed the JCQ to be a reliable scale at the overall ($\alpha = .91$) and sub dimension level (Task Crafting $\alpha =$

.87; Cognitive Crafting $\alpha = .89$; Relational Crafting $\alpha = .83$). The JCQ also had good convergent validity with other similar measures such as organizational citizenship behaviors.

Engagement will be measured using the 17-item Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), see Appendix A. In the UWES, participants indicate the frequency of behaviors using a 7 point scale ranging from 0 (Never) to 6 (Always/Every Day). The UWES measures Absorption (6 questions), Vigor (6 questions), and Dedication (5 questions), which combine to create a measure of engagement. A sample item is "At my work, I feel bursting with energy." Schaufeli & Bakker found the UWES to demonstrate strong internal consistency and test-retest reliability across multiple samples.

Demographic similarity will be assessed using the dyadic relationship between the participant (employee) and their manager, see Appendix A. The demographic information of the participant to be collected will include race/ethnicity and sex. Manager/supervisor demographic information will be collected, asking participants to make best guesses for their manager's race/ethnicity and sex. Participants will also be asked if they believe their manager/supervisors' race to be the same as theirs (to provide an alternative measure for demographic similarity). To measure this, participants will indicate their racial/ethnic background as White (not Hispanic or Latino), African American or Caribbean, Hispanic or Latino, American Indian and Alaska Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander, or Other. To simplify analysis, the racial & ethnic measures will be combined and include "Hispanic or Latino" as an option to the racial/ethnic measures. Participants will then be asked what they believe their direct manager/supervisor's racial/ethnic background is using the same choices as they used to indicate their race/ethnicity. Participants will then be asked if they believe they share a racial/ethnic background with that of their direct manager/supervisor. Participants will also indicate their sex

as Male or Female, as well as what they believe the sex of their manager/supervisor is. To establish congruence between race and sex similarity relationships, the study will code the responses four ways.

1. Matched Racial Congruence = having the same race/ethnicity as perceived manager race.

If the participants self-indicated race matches the manager/supervisor indicated race, they will be congruent and assigned a 1 (congruent), if not they will be assigned a 0 (incongruent).

2. Identified Racial Congruence = Participants' answer to the question of whether they believe their manager/supervisor's race matches theirs will be a final way to investigate racial congruence. Perceived matches will be coded as 1 (congruent) and perceived differences will be coded as 0 (incongruent).

3. Matched Sex Congruence = having the same sex as perceived manager sex. If the participants' self-indicated sex matches the manager/supervisor indicated sex, they will be congruent and assigned a 1 (congruent), if not they will be assigned a 0 (incongruent).

4. Identified Sex congruence = Participants' answer to the question of whether they believe their manager/supervisor's sex matches theirs will be a final way to investigate sex congruence. Perceived matches will be coded as 1 (congruent) and perceived differences will be coded as 0 (incongruent).

The different congruence relationships will be entered as moderators using the 1 and 0 indicated as above for each of the different measures of congruence.

After coding the responses, racial groups will be examined individually as well as by grouping them into racial minority or White. All non-white participants will be combined into

racial minority. This will be done due to sample size considerations and since non-Hispanic or Latino Whites make up approximately 60% of the United States.

Chapter 7 - Analysis

This study will assess the hypothesis by performing a moderated mediation model using the Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro Model 8 with 5,000 bootstrapped samples. The results will be interpreted and reported using the method outlined by Krishna (2016). Using this method, all effects will be tested at one time, and the output will include information on all of the individual effects hypothesized and the overall effect without increasing significance finding due to chance.

Chapter 8 - Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations between variables are reported in Table 1. One issue identified was that the different measures of demographic similarity were not aligned for both racial/ethnic and sex similarity. From the sample, 304 individuals identified their race and the race of their supervisor, but also said they were unsure if their race matched that of their supervisor. This lowered the sample size by approximately 30%. We believe this might have occurred due to people not answering the questions in the same way (for example, a White respondent with a White supervisor might have been unsure if their supervisor shared the same racial background via country of origin and were therefore reluctant to say they share the same race, even though they identified this to be the case in the previous question). In order to maintain the full sample size, the matched racial congruence measure for race will be used in the analysis and the question on racial match with the supervisor will be removed. This effect was similar with sex, so we will be using the calculated sex similarity measure for sex as well.

To test the different hypothesis a moderated mediation analysis was completed using the Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro Model 8 with 5,000 bootstrapped samples. The racial and sex hypotheses were analyzed separately.

For the racial-based hypotheses 1-6(a), the overall moderated mediation model was found to be significant ($\beta=1.313$, $se(HC4)=0.213$, 95% C.I. [0.895, 1.730]), indicating there is a conditional indirect effect of race/ethnicity on racial/ethnic similarity and engagement through job crafting. In looking at the indirect effects for participant race, the minority group was found to have a significant positive indirect effect ($\beta=0.872$, $se(HC4)=0.187$, 95% C.I. [0.510, 1.241]) and the White group was found to have a significant negative indirect effect ($\beta=-.441$, $se(HC4)=0.096$, 95% C.I. [0.-0.634, -0.257]). These results partially support hypothesis 1a; the

relationship between racial/ethnic similarity and engagement was mediated by job crafting for minorities, however, there was a negative indirect effect for Whites (as opposed to no relationship as predicted). To further explore the significant moderated mediation effect found, hypotheses 2a, 3a, 5a, & 6a were examined using the omnibus error from the full Process Model 8 test.

The relationship between racial/ethnic similarity and job crafting, was found to have a significant positive effect ($\beta=0.892$, $se(HC4)=0.188$, 95% C.I. [0.524, 1.26]), supporting Hypothesis 2a. In looking at the interaction of racial/ethnic similarity and racial group (minority or White) on job crafting, it was found that the racial group of the individual significantly changed the relationship between racial/ethnic similarity and job crafting ($r=0.269$, $F(HC4)=15.8$), such that racial/ethnic similarity and job crafting were negatively related for White individuals ($\beta=-0.451$, $se(HC4)=0.097$, 95% C.I. [-0.641, -0.261]) and positively related for minorities ($\beta=0.892$, $se(HC4)=0.188$, 95% C.I. [0.524, 1.26]), partially supporting Hypothesis 3a (See Graph 1 for simple slopes). Hypothesis 3a was only partially supported, because no relationship was predicted for White individuals, when instead there was a negative relationship. In looking at the direct unmoderated relationship between racial/ethnic similarity and engagement, a significant positive relationship was found ($\beta=0.551$, $se(HC4)=0.173$, 95% C.I. [0.211, 0.89]), supporting Hypothesis 5a. The relationship between racial/ethnic similarity and engagement was found to be moderated by race ($\beta=-0.508$, $se(HC4)=0.203$, 95% C.I. [-0.906, -0.11]) such that there was significantly negative relationship between racial/ethnic similarity and Engagement for minorities ($\beta=0.551$, $se(HC4)=0.173$, 95% C.I. [0.211, 0.89]) but there was no relationship for Whites ($\beta=0.042$, $se(HC4)=0.093$, 95% C.I. [-0.139, 0.224]), supporting Hypothesis 6a.

For the sex-based Hypotheses 1-6(b), the overall moderated mediation model was found to not be significant ($\beta=-0.045$, $se(HC4)=0.116$, 95% C.I. [-0.276, 0.181]), indicating there was not a conditional indirect effect for sex on sex similarity and engagement through job crafting, failing to support Hypothesis 1b. Although the overall model was non-significant, Hypotheses 2b, 3b, 5b, & 6b were still examined as exploratory analyses using the omnibus error from the full Process Model 8 test.

No relationship was found between sex similarity and job crafting ($\beta=0.155$, $se(HC4)=0.216$, 95% C.I. [-0.268, 0.578]), failing to support Hypothesis 2b. In looking at the interaction of sex similarity and sex on job crafting, it was found to be non-significant ($r=0.071$, $F(HC4)=1.681$, $p=.169$), failing to support Hypothesis 3b. There was no direct unmoderated relationship between sex similarity and engagement ($\beta=0.313$, $se(HC4)=0.230$, 95% C.I. [-0.138, 0.765], $p=.174$), failing to support Hypothesis 5b. For the last sex-based hypothesis, the relationship sex was not found to moderate the relationship between sex similarity and engagement ($\beta=-0.137$, $se(HC4)=0.137$, 95% C.I. [-0.406, 0.133], $p=.321$).

Job crafting and engagement were significantly positively related ($\beta=0.977$, $se(HC4)=0.030$, 95% C.I. [0.918, 1.037]), supporting Hypothesis 4. The model used to evaluate Hypothesis 4 was the racial/ethnicity model; the relationship with the sex model was very similar.

Chapter 9 - Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the impacts of job crafting on engagement through a relational demography lens. This was the first study to look at job crafting and demographic differences. This study found that for minorities, sharing a race with their supervisor had a significant effect on job crafting behaviors, which explained some of the differences observed on engagement. This effect was not replicated for sex. There were three primary findings of this study that will be discussed.

First, the findings illustrated that there are racial/ethnic differences in how individuals might engage in job crafting behaviors. Minorities are more likely to engage in job crafting behavior when their supervisor is of the same race/ethnicity as them, but this was reversed for Whites. When paired with other findings on job crafting and its relation to numerous important organizational and individual outcomes, like performance and health (i.e. Humphrey et al., 2007; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2018), this finding becomes even more important because of secondary effects that might occur. This study found initial support for the secondary effects of the potential combined effect racial/ethnic differences and relational demography can have through job crafting on important organizational outcomes by finding the moderated mediation on engagement. Evidence of this secondary effect demonstrated that engagement was further dampened by supervisor mismatches for minorities but not Whites. In the US, where Black or African Americans make up 13.4% of the population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019) but only an estimated 9.6% of management positions (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019), Black or African American individuals are much less likely to share a race with their supervisor than Non-Hispanic Whites (60.1% population and 77.7% of management positions). Future research

should look at how the combination of individual race/ethnicity and relational demography might impact other important organizational outcomes through job crafting.

Second, when looking at racial/ethnic differences and job crafting, this study highlights the importance to consider both the person and the situation (not just race/ethnicity) when looking at job crafting. Although there were some racial differences in job crafting when only looking at simple relationships, these were all qualified by the person by situation interaction between the employee and their supervisor/manager. This finding mirrors that of other relational demography research (i.e. Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989; Schaffer & Riordan, 2013) and confirms its application for job crafting research. This finding also should be extended to applied intervention-based job crafting research. One of the newer directions of job-crafting research is looking at how it might be fostered in the workplace through interventions. Future research should investigate how relational demography and race/ethnic differences impact these interventions. These interventions could exacerbate the differences we identified in job crafting behaviors and subsequent secondary effects or they could minimize them. To ensure we are not widening racial disparities in the workplace through these interventions, this needs to be considered.

Third, no sex-based differences were identified with this study. Future research will want to reexamine this lack of a significant finding to confirm. However, if the null results are confirmed, this provides a bright spot with regards to the integration of sexes in the workplace. Interventions would still want to consider sex and relational demography to ensure it does not impact sex disproportionately, but more emphasis would be able to be placed on racial differences.

Limitations

Various limitations might have impacted this study. First, this study was cross-sectional, which limits the degree to which the implications of the findings might apply to other situations. To extend the issue of the cross-sectional nature of this study, the data was collected in August of 2020, right in the middle of the COVID-19 pandemic in the US. During this time, many US citizens were working in modified conditions (i.e. at home, alternate shifts, etc), which might have further impacted the findings of this study. Concerning job crafting, this likely becomes even more important as job crafting is positively related to autonomy (Beer, 2016) and for individuals who work from home, this possibly changed their autonomy. Future research will want to confirm that the findings here were not due to the demands that the workplace change put upon the employees due to the changing of the work environment in response to COVID-19. Additionally, future studies will want to look at longitudinal measures of change to identify the directionality of the effects.

Another limitation was that the sample collected in this study was entirely sourced through online survey recruitment and was completed entirely online. Participants were recruited through Prolific which was able to ensure the validity of the sample characteristics (such as race), but the mono-recruitment and completion could have resulted in a mono-method bias that might have inflated the relationships. Replicating the findings of this study within an organization or in another context will help confirm the generalizability of these findings.

The final limitation identified was that this study relied upon a single study to review a moderated mediation analysis. Similar to recommendations on 3-way interactions (Hayes, 2017), this study should be replicated to ensure the validity of the results found.

Conclusions

Despite the limitations, this study found that relational demography had a conditional indirect effect on engagement through job crafting that changed depending on the race of the individual. This finding is very important because it is the first known study to examine racial/ethnic relationships with job crafting and a known associated outcome. The findings here can be used to better understand the process through which relational demography and race might result in organizational outcomes through the mechanism of job crafting. If this is the case, future research might be able to use these findings as a springboard to create interventions that provide minorities with the agency to craft their jobs in ways that could minimize the racial disparities in America.

Chapter 10 - References

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Appendix A - Materials

The Job Crafting Questionnaire (JCQ) (Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013)

Employees are frequently presented with opportunities to make their work more engaging and fulfilling. These opportunities might be as simple as making subtle changes to your work tasks to increase your enjoyment, creating opportunities to connect with more people at work, or simply trying to view your job in a new way to make it more purposeful. While some jobs will provide more of these opportunities than others, there will be situations in all jobs where one can make subtle changes to make it more engaging and fulfilling.

Please indicate the extent to which you engage in the following behaviours using the following scale: 1 = Hardly Ever, to 6 = Very Often. (Note: 'Very Often' means as often as possible in your workplace)

1. Introduce new approaches to improve your work*

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

4. Choose to take on additional tasks at work

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

6. Think about how your job gives your life purpose

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

12. Organise or attend work related social functions

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

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

1 (Hardly Ever) 2 3 4 5 6 (Very Often)

Work & Well-being Survey (UWES) © (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004)

The following 17 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the '0' (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month or less	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every Day

1. _____ At my work, I feel bursting with energy* (VII)
2. _____ I find the work that I do full of meaning and purpose (DE1)
3. _____ Time flies when I'm working (AB1)
4. _____ At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (VI2)*
5. _____ I am enthusiastic about my job (DE2)*
6. _____ When I am working, I forget everything else around me (AB2)
7. _____ My job inspires me (DE3)*
8. _____ When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work (VI3)*
9. _____ I feel happy when I am working intensely (AB3)*
10. _____ I am proud on the work that I do (DE4)*
11. _____ I am immersed in my work (AB4)*
12. _____ I can continue working for very long periods at a time (VI4)
13. _____ To me, my job is challenging (DE5)
14. _____ I get carried away when I'm working (AB5)*
15. _____ At my job, I am very resilient, mentally (VI5)
16. _____ It is difficult to detach myself from my job (AB6)
17. _____ At my work I always persevere, even when things do not go well (VI6)

Relational Demography & Demographics

- 1) Which of the following best represents your racial or ethnic heritage? (Choose all that apply)
 - African American or Caribbean
 - American Indian and Alaska Native
 - Asian
 - Middle Eastern
 - Hispanic or Latino
 - Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander
 - White
 - Other
- 2) What racial or ethnic heritage do you think best matches that of your direct manager/supervisor?
 - African American or Caribbean
 - American Indian and Alaska Native
 - Asian
 - Middle Eastern
 - Hispanic or Latino
 - Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander
 - White
 - Other
- 3) Do you believe that you share a racial or ethnic background with that of your direct manager/supervisor?
 - Yes
 - No
- 4) What is your biological sex?
 - Male
 - Female
- 5) What is your direct supervisors biological sex?
 - Male
 - Female
- 6) Do you believe that you have the same biological sex with that of your direct manager/supervisor?
 - Yes
 - No

Appendix B - Tables and Figures

Figure 1. Proposed Model.

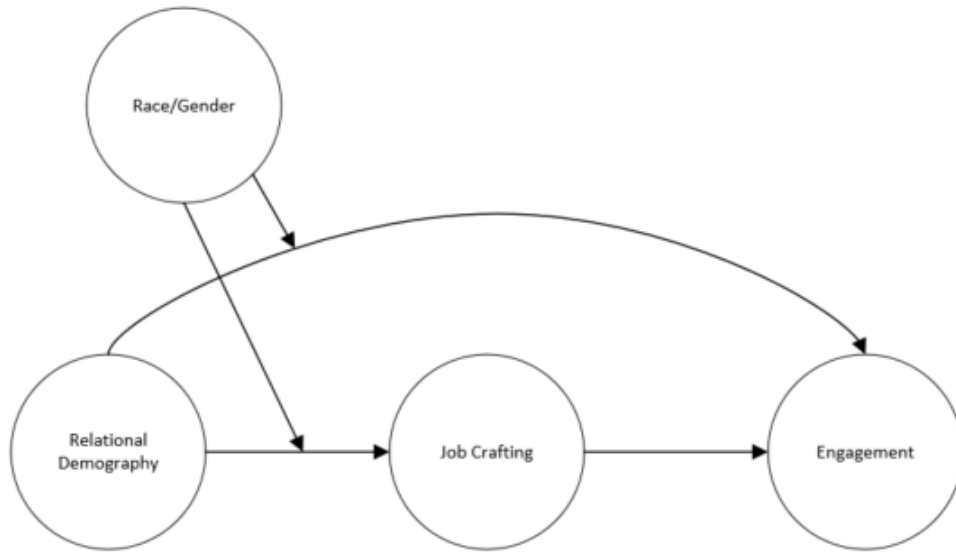
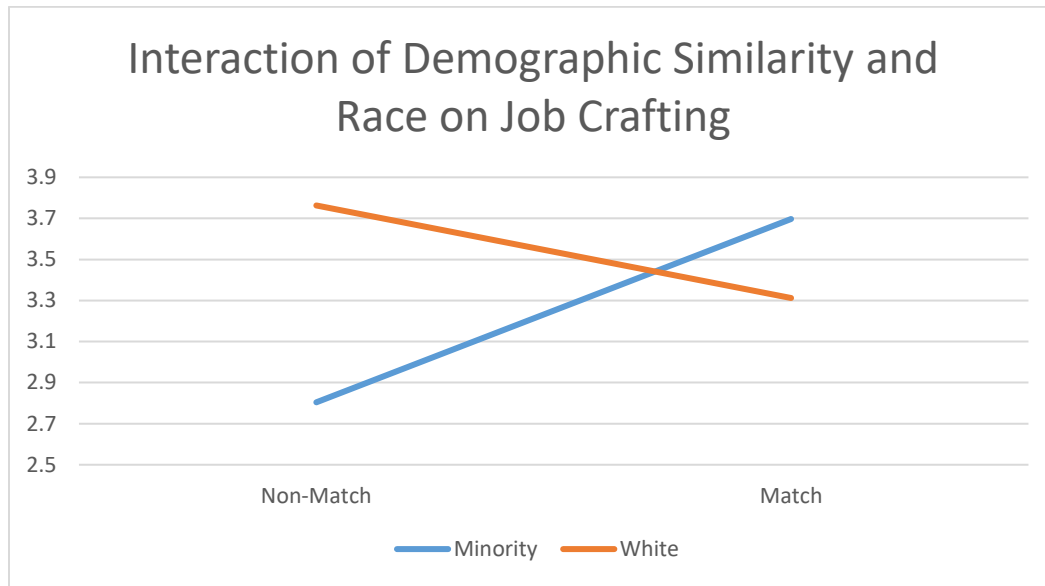


Table 1. Correlation Table.

Variable	n	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Job Crafting	1048	53.78	17.55	0.92	0.73*	.047	.023	-.060	-.041
2 Engagement	1048	79.76	27.86		0.95	.051	.015	-0.06*	-.041
3 Minority vs White	863	15%	0.36				-.014	.033	-.040
4 Race Match w/ Supervisor	863	69%	0.463					-0.08*	0.16*
5 Sex Sex Match w/ Supervisor	1005 920	49% 62%	0.5 0.486						-0.17*

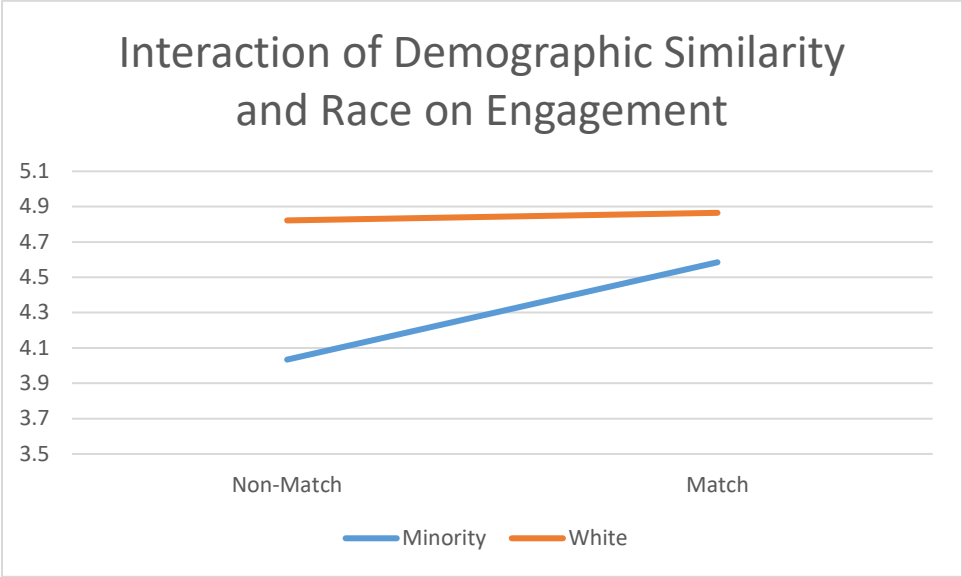
Minority = 1, White = 0. Race Match = 1, Mismatch = 0. Male =1 Female = 0. Sex Match = 1, Sex Mismatch =0. *p<.05.

Table 2. Interaction of Demographic Similarity and Race on Job Crafting.



se(HC4)=0.211, 95% C.I. [0.929, 1.757].

Table 3. Interaction of Demographic Similarity and Race on Engagement.



se(HC4)=0.203, 95% C.I. [0.11, 0.906].

Table 4. Results of Moderated Mediation Analysis for Race/Ethnicity Group.

Predictor	Race			
	β	<i>SE</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Racial/Ethnic Similarity	0.551 *	0.173	0.890	0.211
Job Crafting	-0.977 *	0.030	-0.918	-1.037
Minority vs White (Participant)	-0.280 *	0.114	-0.056	-0.503
Racial/Ethnic Similarity x Job Crafting	-0.508 *	0.203	-0.110	-0.906
R squared	0.558 *			
Indirect Effect of Demographic Similarity on Engagement				
	Boot Indirect Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Minority	0.872 *	0.187	0.510	1.241
White	-0.441 *	0.096	-0.634	-0.257

Listwise N=1048. LLCI = lower level confidence interval. ULCI = upper level confidence interval. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. * $p < .05$. Note: Standardize regression coefficients are reported.

Table 5 Results of Moderated Mediation Analysis for Sex.

Predictor	Sex			
	β	<i>SE</i>	LLCI	ULCI
Sex Similarity	0.230	0.230	-0.138	0.765
Job Crafting	0.033 *	0.033	0.817	0.948
Sex (Participant)	0.110	0.110	-0.180	0.253
Sex Similarity x Job Crafting	0.137	0.137	-0.406	0.133
R Squared	0.435 *			

Listwise N=1048. LLCI = lower level confidence interval. ULCI = upper level confidence interval. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000. *p<.001. Note: Standardize regression coefficients are reported.