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How do Different Types of Job Crafting Relate to Job Performance? Examining the Role of Occupational Self-Efficacy, Intrinsic Motivation, and Role Overload

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ABSTRACT

This study looks into the relationship between distinct job crafting forms and leader-rated performance, as well as job crafting's predictive relationship to occupational self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and role overload. A cross-sectional study was carried out, and a correlation analysis was used to examine the data. The study was conducted at an individual level and the analysis consists of 84 employees and 40 leaders across 8 different companies in Norway. The findings partially support one of the three job crafting-performance hypotheses, which suggests that the avoidance job crafting form, decreasing hindering demands, is negatively related to task proficiency. Contrary, approach forms of job crafting, increasing resources and increasing challenges, were not related to performance. Further, increasing challenges predicted intrinsic motivation and increasing resources predicted occupational self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. This study contributes to the research field of job crafting by providing evidence that not all forms of job crafting have a positive impact on employee's performance. In addition, it serves as a foundation for further research of the motives, impact and perceptions of job crafting aimed at reducing hindering demands.

INTRODUCTION

Job crafting can be explained as the change's employees make to their tasks or job characteristics on their own initiative (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). The concept is relatively new to the field of organizational behavior, however several researchers have defined and introduced their conceptualization of job crafting. This has resulted in different definitions and approaches which will later be presented in this paper. Nonetheless, job crafting has been consistently associated with proactive work behaviors (Berg et al., 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), as well as with bottom-up job design theories (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987).

While previous research has linked job crafting to job performance (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009; Tims et al., 2012), little is known about *how* different kinds of job crafting relate to different performance outcomes. While occupational-self efficacy, intrinsic motivation and role overload have all been linked to job crafting and performance in previous research, to our knowledge they have not been examined as mediators between different kinds of job crafting and performance more specifically. Accordingly, a primary purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between job crafting and performance, and the role that occupational self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation, and role overload play in mediating this relationship.

Further, as organizations become increasingly dynamic, employees are expected to perform in different ways (Grant & Parker, 2009). To our knowledge, job crafting has typically been investigated in relation to more general forms of job performance, often referred to as "task performance or "job-role performance", which be defined as "the expected performance of individuals in relation to their tasks" (Carpini, Parker, & Griffin, 2017, p. 843). We believe that understanding employees' job crafting in relation to an expanded model of job performance could add practical value for employees, managers and organizations. Accordingly, performance in the present study is conceptualized based on the expanded model of work role behavior outlined by Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007), which includes individual task proficiency, individual task adaptivity, and individual task proactivity. Understanding the relationship between different dimensions of job crafting and these dimensions of job performance will in turn allow managers and

organizations to get a deeper understanding for which behaviors to promote in order to achieve desired performance outcomes. In addition, we believe that this study could add to the understanding of how job crafting behaviors are perceived by managers. As managers often are a key source for providing resources and new challenges to employees, understanding how different types of behaviors are perceived by managers, could be valuable to employees and researchers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Job Crafting

Early conceptualization of the job crafting construct

The research on job crafting began when Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified a gap in research when it comes to what composes the experience of a job. Job design research up until this point had focused mainly on work design as a top-down approach of job characteristics. It had also focused on content and on the individual determinants or external characteristics of the job itself (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). However, no research had given attention to how employees play an active role in shaping their job tasks and work environment. Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) aim was therefore to contribute to research by creating awareness of the employee-driven initiatives that take place when employees try to improve their situation at work, and help provide understanding for what effects these initiatives have for the job itself. They believed that investigating these initiatives further would have practical implications for their working life, in the sense that it could give light to how employees create their identities and how they create meaning at work.

Job crafting was by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) defined as "the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work" (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001, p.179). Through these changes, individuals alter the design of the job and the social environment in which they perform. According to Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), employees craft their jobs to revise their work identities, enhance meaningfulness and to fulfill certain individual needs that are not met in their job as it is currently designed. In particular, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) emphasized the need for control over own job and

the environment, the need to create a positive self-image and the need for human connection, as basic motivational factors for crafting.

In this original conceptualization of job crafting, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argued for three categories of job crafting behaviors; task crafting, relational crafting and cognitive crafting. While *task crafting* refers to changes that employees make in order to take on more tasks of interest, *relational crafting* refers to making changes to the quality and/or amount of interaction with others. Lastly, *cognitive crafting* captures how employees alter their perception of their work tasks. Through these types of crafting, employees make a different sense of who they are at work and why their work matters.

Demand-resources conceptualization of job crafting

Tims et al. (2012) built on Wrzesniewski and Dutton's (2001) conceptualization of job crafting and came up with what is today seen as the second, dominant perspective in job crafting research. Their framework uses the job demands-resources (JD-R) model from A. Bakker and Demerouti (2007) as a starting point for how they categorize different types of job crafting. In the JD-R model, *job demands* refer to aspects of the job that require sustained physical, emotional or mental effort and are associated with physical or psychological strain (e.g. anxiety, exhaustion, depression, and burnout (Jex, 1998)). Job demands are not necessarily negative; however they can result in stressors when overly high effort is required to deal with them (A. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). *Job resources*, on the other hand, refer to the aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, stimulate personal growth and development, or help reduce job demands (A. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Accordingly, using the JD-R model as a baseline, Tims et al. (2012) defined job crafting as "the changes that employees may make to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs" (Tims et al., 2012, p. 173). In their perspective, motivation to craft is seen as a response to a perceived imbalance between job resources and demands. Further, it is believed that individuals craft in order to achieve a better person-job fit. For reference, person-job fit was by Edwards (1991) defined as "the alignment between a person's characteristics (e.g. knowledge, abilities, needs and preferences) and the characteristics of the job or tasks (e.g. requirements, demands and supplies) that are performed at work".

Moreover, Tims et al. (2012) argue for four distinct categories of job crafting. The first category, *increasing challenging demands*, refers to proactive behavior aimed at increasing job demands that stimulate the employees to develop their knowledge and skills or attain more difficult goals (Lepine, Podsakoff, & Lapine, 2005; Tims et al., 2012). Their second category, *reducing hindering demands*, refers to proactive behavior aimed at decreasing job demands that have become overwhelming, and through this behavior make the job less emotionally intense or dissatisfying. Finally, Tims et al. (2012) distinguished between two categories of proactive behavior that is aimed at increasing job resources. *Increasing structural job resources* refers to behavior aimed at increasing resources such as variety, opportunity of development and autonomy, while *increasing social resources* refer to increasing resources such as social support, supervisory coaching and feedback (Tims et al., 2012). The difference between these two factors, lies in the type of resource. While increasing structural resources will more likely have an impact on the job design because the employee gains responsibility and knowledge about the job, increasing social resources is more likely to impact the social and interactional aspects of the job (Tims et al., 2012).

How the two perspectives differ

Although these main perspectives are building on similar ideas, they differ in important ways (Zhang & Parker, 2018). First of all, they differ in what they define as the motives underpinning the job crafting behavior. While Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argue that employees job craft to increase meaning, Tims et al. (2012) argue that the motivation behind job crafting behavior is to achieve a better person-job fit. Further, the two studies differ in how the data was analyzed and measured. Wrzesniewski and Dutton´s (2001) framework is based on qualitative method, while Tims et al. (2012) represents the first quantitative approach on the matter. Although there are benefits to having different ways of collecting, measuring and analyzing data, the use of different methods makes it difficult to contrast and compare findings as there is no established general measure for the construct. Lastly, as there is no single definition of the construct, it has been challenging to differentiate job crafting from other types of proactive behaviors (e.g. initiative, taking charge).

Integrative research

In addition to the two main dominant frameworks discussed, there exist recent efforts to integrate both perspectives and extend the job crafting research (Bruning & Campion, 2018; Zhang & Parker, 2018). Bruning and Campion (2018) define job crafting as "the changes to a job that workers make with the intention of improving the job for themselves" (Bruning & Campion, 2018, p. 500). They categorized and defined "role-based crafting" as a perspective of job crafting that builds on the motivational perspectives of job design, and "resource-based crafting" as a perspective of job crafting building on the job design literature that focus on resource management (Bruning & Campion, 2018). Role-based crafting can therefore be seen as an extension of the research from Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), while resource-based crafting in line with Tims et al. (2012) conceptualization of job crafting. In addition, they proposed an important distinction between what they call *approach* and *avoidance* forms of crafting, indicating that job crafting can entail either behavior that expands or reduces the job boundaries. Expansion can happen through role or social expansion, while reduction is defined as work-role reduction (Bruning & Campion, 2018). Building on transactive theories, they argue that individuals can confront demands as challenges, or avoid them as threats (Bruning & Campion, 2018). Although their contribution to integrate perspectives and create two main distinctions in the literature is very valuable, it is also limited, since the items to measure either form of crafting overlap with each other, as noted by Zhang and Parker (2018).

Additionally, a major contribution from Bruning and Campion's (2018) research was their effort to synthesize and summarize the defining characteristics of job crafting. This helps to identify what job crafting is, as well as, what it is not. First, they specify job crafting efforts as self-targeted and intended to benefit the individual, which involves volitional, conscious and intentional change. Moreover, job crafting relates to significant and noticeable deviations from pre-crafted job and should result in permanent or semi-permanent changes rather than temporary ones. Further, they stress that job crafting efforts aim to change the job role rather than the leisure time. Finally, job crafting applies to jobs with clear job description as opposed to self-created jobs.

A more recent publication by Zhang and Parker (2018) integrated and reviewed job crafting research, including the above-mentioned framework by Bruning and Campion (2018). Zhang and Parker's (2018) contribution consists on

the development of a hierarchical structure of job crafting concepts at three levels. The first level regards the job crafting orientation, where they differentiate between approach versus avoidance crafting. Secondly, they distinguish between two forms of job crafting; cognitive versus behavioral crafting. Their third level represent the job crafting content, which can be either resources or demands crafting, capturing the different ways that individuals craft their jobs (Zhang & Parker, 2018).

In addition to this model, they add to the defining characteristics listed by Bruning and Campion (2018) by stressing that crafting occurs within the acceptance of one's boss or peers, and where requiring formal approval is not necessary. In addition, job crafting involves changing the intrinsic characteristics of one´s job rather than extrinsic characteristics, such as pay. Zhang and Parker's (2018) contribution is relevant in the research field as it provides a useful way to review the antecedents and consequences of job crafting.

Our conceptualization of job crafting in the present study

For the purpose of our thesis research, we use Tims et al. (2012) conceptual framework of job demands-resources crafting. Hence, job crafting refers to "the changes employees may make to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs" (Tims et al., 2012, p. 173). Like Tims et al. (2012), we differentiate between three main types of job crafting: increasing resources, increasing challenges and reducing hindering demands. *Increasing resources* refers to job crafting aimed at increasing personal, social, or organizational resources at work in order to achieve work goals, reduce strain, or stimulate personal growth and development. Like Tims et al. (2012), we make a distinction between *increasing structural job resources*, which refers to behavior aimed at increasing resources such as variety, opportunity of development and autonomy, and *increasing social resources*, which refers to increasing resources such as social support, supervisory coaching and feedback (Tims et al., 2012). Further, *increasing challenging demands* refers to job crafting aimed at increasing work activities that require sustained physical, emotional or mental effort, but that promote personal goal accomplishment, growth and learning. Examples of increasing challenges includes taking on new work activities or asking for additional responsibilities. Lastly, *reducing hindering demands* refers to job crafting aimed at decreasing or avoiding work demands that harm personal growth or performance because they require too much physical, emotional or mental effort.

Examples of hindering demands employees might try to avoid or diminish can be high work pressure, an unfavorable physical environment and emotionally demanding interactions with clients or co-workers.

Job Performance

Performance is arguably one of the most important outcomes in industrial and organizational psychology (Tims, B. Bakker, & Derks, 2014). Measuring performance is of great interest to researchers, as well as stakeholders and shareholders in organizations, as it is often an indicator of effectiveness (Richard, Devinney, Yip, & Johnson, 2009). Performance can be measured on different levels, such as organizational level, team level and individual level. Relevant to this thesis is performance on an individual level.

What is defined as work performance has changed considerably over the past 40 years. Before, as tasks were generally more standardized and fixed, effectiveness could more easily be defined as the outcome achieved by carrying out the specified behavior of the job (Griffin et al., 2007). In more recent years however, organizational life has changed, leading to different demands towards the employees. This shift in demands has challenged the traditional views of individual work performance (Griffin et al., 2007). Howard (1995) points to increased interdependence and uncertainty of work systems as two major changes to the nature of work and organizations. As traditional views did not consider this to the same extent, it can be argued that they did not take into account the full range of behaviors that contribute to effectiveness when systems are uncertain and interdependent (Griffin et al., 2007). As a response, constructs like citizenship performance, adaptive performance and proactivity have been introduced (Griffin et al., 2007). Another factor that has gained attention in contemporary studies of performance is the importance of context. For instance, Ilgen and Hollenbeck (1991) argue that "the nature of work role cannot be divorced from the context in which they are enacted".

Griffin et al. (2007) presented a performance model which proposes that context shapes and constrains the behaviors that will be valued in an organization. In this model, uncertainty and interdependence are considered as two important features of context that organizations must manage to be effective. Their model comprises three levels and three forms of performance (organizational, team and

individual level, and task proficiency, task adaptivity and task proactivity), yielding a total of nine dimensions. On an individual level the model includes individual task proficiency, individual task adaptivity and individual task proactivity. *Individual task proficiency* refers to behaviors that can be formalized, and which are not embedded in a social context. These behaviors reflect the degree to which an employee meets the known expectations and the requirements of the role he or she is in (Griffin et al., 2007). Task proficiency is closely related to concepts such as "task performance" and "job role behavior", to mention a few (Griffin et al., 2007). Further, the model includes *individual task adaptivity*. Changes in the environment or technologies result in unexpected changes to work requirements. To be effective, employees need to adapt to or cope with these changes. Individual task adaptivity reflects "the degree to which individuals cope with, respond to, and/or support changes that affect their roles as individual" (Griffin et al., 2007, p. 331). Individual task adaptivity becomes especially important in times when the organization is introducing new technology or when changes to the work description are made, as these types of changes also require that individuals adjust their workplace behaviors. Lastly, under uncertainty, individuals in organizations must also anticipate and act upon the external environment in order to achieve effective outcomes. *Individual task proactivity* is therefore defined as "the extent to which individuals engage in self-starting, future-oriented behaviors to change their individual work situations, their individual work roles or themselves" (Griffin et al., 2007, p. 332). Recent research from Carpini et al. (2017) reviewed and synthesized 40 years of the existing work performance literature. In this review, they emphasize Griffin et al.'s (2007) model of performance as one of the two recently released integrative models, alongside with the competency model, that better capture the many concepts that have emerged within the study of performance. These theories bring attention to how workplace and individual needs have changed, as well as capturing the dynamic nature of today's work life. Several researchers have used the Griffin et al. (2007) framework to measure different kinds of performance. Neal, Yeo, Koy, and Xiao (2012) used supervisor ratings on the nine dimensions of the work role performance measure, in a study predicting form and direction of work role performance from Big 5 personality traits. Among their findings at the individual level, openness to experience positively predicted task proactivity, while agreeableness related negatively. Task proficiency was predicted by conscientiousness and negatively related to extraversion. Finally, task adaptivity

was negatively related to openness to experience and surprisingly was not predicted by any of the personality traits. This last finding contrasts with findings from Griffin, Parker, and Mason (2010) on leader vision, adaptive and proactive performance. Their findings suggested that the personality trait openness to change, appeared to predict increase in individual performance adaptivity. Moreover, this same study found support to say that role breath self-efficacy predicted increased proactivity. Another example is a study investigating self-leadership and work role performance, where Hauschildt and Konradt (2012) found all positive and significant relationships to the three dimensions of task proficiency, adaptivity and proactivity at both individual and group level. In addition to the abovementioned uses of the three dimensions of performance, we found that other researchers have frequently used parts of the framework, specifically that of the adaptive performance. For example Petrou, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2018) applied this measure to research job crafting and adaptivity in the context of organizational change, where job crafting to seek challenges, and not resources, significantly predicted current and future adaptivity. These studies support that the three distinctive forms of performance (task proficiency, task adaptivity and task proactivity) exist.

After having reviewed previous research on performance using Griffin et al. (2007) work role framework, we believe that this measure will adequately capture the effects of job crafting on specific and distinct forms of performance. Furthermore, by choosing to measure task adaptivity and proactivity in addition to proficiency, we can contribute to research's effort on expanding performance measures to consider aspects of behavior that are beneficial for organizations beyond work descriptions. Griffin et al. (2007) model of performance will be the basis for our understanding and measure of performance.

Employee Job Crafting and Individual Performance

Several studies have found a positive relationship between job crafting and performance. Leana et al. (2009) studied teachers in childcare centers and found that collaborative crafting was positively related to performance, resulting in better communication, more efficient collaboration and greater productivity. In Leana et al.'s (2009) study, performance was defined as quality of care in childcare classrooms. Performance was assessed with the help of trained observers that observed aspects of the environment, activities and teacher-child interactions within

the classroom. The observers used a 43-item scale as foundation for their assessment.

Tims et al. (2012) studied the relationship between increasing resources crafting, increasing challenges crafting, reducing demands crafting and in-role performance. In-role performance was measured using seven items from Williams and Anderson (1991) task performance scale and was evaluated through peer-ratings. As hypothesized, their findings showed that increase in social and structural job resources and increase in challenging demands was significantly positively related to performance. In addition, hindering job demands was expected to be negatively related to performance. Although their findings indicated a negative relationship, the relationship was not significant, and the hypothesis was therefore not confirmed.

A more recent article by Bruning and Campion (2018), also looked at the relationship between job crafting and performance, through two studies. Performance was measured by collecting data through the supervisor's rankings of employees on efficiency, teamwork and work improvements. Campion and Thayer's (1985) measure of supervisor rank data was used for measuring performance and they used three single-item rank measures. Results showed that resources crafting was positively related to performance. In addition, their second study found support for approach forms of crafting as more effective than avoidance crafting for outcomes, such as performance (Bruning & Campion, 2018).

Another study that looked at the relationship between job crafting and performance, is Weseler and Niessen's (2016) study. Performance was defined as task performance and was measured through self- and supervisor ratings. As measure, they used the six items from the Williams and Anderson (1991) in-role behavior scale. Their first hypothesis, "extending task boundaries will be positively related to task performance", was supported by both self and supervisor ratings. Hypothesis two, "reducing task boundaries will be negatively related to task performance", was supported by self-ratings, but not by supervisor ratings. Their third hypothesis, "Extending relational boundaries will be positively related to task performance", was also supported by self-ratings, but not by supervisor ratings. Hypothesis four, "reducing relational boundaries will be negatively related to task performance", was supported by both self-ratings, as well as supervisor ratings. Lastly, hypothesis five, "cognitive crafting will be positively related to task performance", was not supported either.

In addition to the above-mentioned studies, several other studies have found Tims et al.'s (2012) conceptualization of job crafting to relate to performance. To mention a few, Kooij, Tims, and Akkermans (2017); Mäkikangas, Aunola, Seppälä, and Hakanen (2016); Renata Silva de Carvalho, Maria Cristina, and Felipe (2015) and Tims et al. (2014), have found that increasing structural and social resources, increasing challenging job demands and decreasing hindering job demands, was positively related to in-role and extra-role performance.

Gordon, Demerouti, Le Blanc, and Bipp (2015) conducted a cross-sectional and cross-cultural design study that looked into the job crafting dimensions of increasing resources, increasing challenges, reducing hindering demands and performance in the context of health care professionals. In this study, they used three different performance measures. First, "Task performance", was defined as in-role performance that supports daily organizational functioning. This type of performance is usually in line with the organization's goals and can be considered part of someone's job description (Gordon et al., 2015). Task performance was measured with seven items from Williams and Anderson (1991). "Contextual performance" was described as "voluntary, and selflessly or intrinsically motivated; it helps organizations maintain a healthy (social) work climate" (Gordon et al., 2015, p. 194) Contextual performance was also measured with four items from Williams and Anderson (1991). Lastly, "creative performance" was defined as "the production of novel and useful ideas, products, services or organizational processes, as the basis of organizational innovation (Gordon et al., 2015, p. 194). This type of performance was measured with four items from Miron, Erez, and Naveh (2004). All three types of performance were measured through self-assessment. They hypothesized that seeking challenges and seeking resources would positively relate to the three forms of performance, while reducing demands would negatively relate to the three specified forms of performance. In their findings, seeking resources was positively related to task and creative performance and reducing demands related negatively to task and contextual performance. Surprisingly, seeking challenges did not show any significant relationships to performance.

Based on these previous studies, we assume that Tims et al.'s (2012) conceptualization will be related to job performance. Job crafters make changes to their work environment in order to better access the resources needed to perform

their tasks, increase challenging job demands or to avoid hindering demands. Crafting should therefore help them to achieve their goals. In line with previous research, we therefore expect that different types of job crafting will relate differently to performance ratings. While previous authors have found significant relationships between job crafting and performance, no study to our knowledge has yet considered how different forms of job crafting could lead to different performance outcomes, as operationalized by Griffin et al. (2007). Therefore, we aim to investigate how different forms of job crafting from Tims et al.'s framework (increasing resources, increasing challenges and reducing hindering demands) relate to individual performance as outlined in Griffin et al. (2007) model, which includes task proficiency, task adaptivity and task proactivity.

In order to further understand the relationship between job crafting and supervisor ratings of individual performance, we will introduce three mediator variables to the research design: occupational self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and role overload. We expect these mediators to explain the relationship between specific forms of job crafting and their performance outcomes. Each mediator has been selected based on pre-existing findings linking them to job crafting and to increased performance separately.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

In the section that follows we elaborate how different forms of job crafting should facilitate or hinder job performance. In doing so, we investigate employees' occupational self-efficacy (OSE), intrinsic motivation (IM) and role overload (RO) as concepts helpful to explain these expected relationships.

Job Crafting and Performance: The Mediating Role of Occupational Self-Efficacy (OSE)

The concept of self-efficacy derives from the social cognitive theory of self-regulation (Bandura, 1991). Bandura defined perceived self-efficacy as the "personal judgement of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Bandura, 1982). In other words, it concerns a person's belief of their ability to succeed within a given situation or with a task. Bandura argues that perceived self-efficacy has great consequences for what tasks people

choose to pursue, as humans in general try to avoid tasks that are assumed to exceed their coping capabilities, and instead pursue tasks that they judge themselves capable of managing (Bandura, 1982). Judgement of self-efficacy also affects how long people persist when facing obstacles. According to Bandura, those with a strong sense of self-efficacy will have a stronger belief in their own ability to overcome the obstacle and therefore will spend more effort trying to overcome challenges (Bandura, 1982). In other words, self-efficacy affects the initiation, intensity and persistence of behavior (Paglis & Green, 2002). Mastering a task will also give the person confidence and the will to do a similar task again at a later point in time. How many times a person succeeds with a task, will affect the effort that is put into completing the task, and also how long people persist when challenges in completing the task occurs (Paglis & Green, 2002). Bandura (2012) argue that there are four ways in which people's belief in their own capabilities is developed. The first one is through mastery experiences. When a person experiences overcoming obstacles through perseverant efforts, the persons resilient self-efficacy increases. The second source of self-efficacy mentioned by Bandura, is social modeling. Seeing people that are similar to you succeed by persevering efforts, raises your beliefs and aspirations in your own capabilities (Bandura, 2012, p.13). A third source of self-efficacy is through social persuasion. According to Bandura, people that are persuaded into believing in themselves, are more perseverant when they face obstacles. This in turn increases the person's chances of succeeding. Lastly, physical and emotional states can affect a person's self-efficacy. As an example, a person's self-efficacy beliefs are strengthened by reducing depression and anxiety (Bandura, 2012).

Self-efficacy differs from the related concept of self-esteem. Self-esteem was by Rosenberg (1965) defined as an individual's overall positive evaluation of the self (Abdel-Khalek, 2017). Sedikides and Gress (2003) later added to the definition and explained self-esteem as "an individual's subjective judgements of one's self-worth, one's feelings of self-confidence and self-respect, and that it concerns to which extent a person holds negative or positive views about them self" (Abdel-Khalek, 2017). The two concepts of self-esteem and self-efficacy therefore differ in that self-esteem is more constant across situations and time, while self-efficacy concerns a person's belief in their ability to succeed in a specific situation.

Self-efficacy has through the years been of interest to researchers within organizational research field. In the organizational context, self-efficacy can be seen

as a personal resource (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008), and employee's high self-efficacy is thought to have an impact on the results in an organization. There are different ways to measure self-efficacy. Bandura (1977) suggested that the task in question should be specified when assessing self-efficacy, or else it will not serve as a good predictor. However, specifying the task makes it difficult to measure and compare across organizations and tasks. More generic conceptualizations of self-efficacy have therefore been studied in the organizational context, in order to compare and contrast on equal terms. Occupational self-efficacy is a concept that deals with self-efficacy as a domain-specific assessment. It can be defined as "the competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job" (Rigotti et al., 2008).

Resources crafting and self-efficacy

In Tims et al.'s (2014) study, they found that crafting behavior influences job resources. More specifically, their study showed that employees that crafted their job resources the first month of the study, showed an increase in their structural and social resources over the course of the study (2 months). Conservation of resources theory (COR) by Hobfoll (2002) suggests that developmental processes tend to create resources caravans. That is, resources tend not to exist in isolation, but rather aggregate (Hobfoll, 2002, p. 322). In line with COR theory, we would assume that an increase in structural and social resources due to crafting, can lead to increase in personal resources, such as self-efficacy. In turn, we assume that the increase in structural and social resources caused by job crafting will result in increased self-efficacy. This happens through what Bandura refers to as the main source of self-efficacy, namely, masterly experiences, vicarious experiences and social persuasion (Bandura, 2012). By increasing the amount and quality of structural resources, employees may confront mastery experiences, which is the first main source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 2012). Increase in mastery experiences can lead to employees expanding their knowledge and skills, and prove themselves at the job, which in turn results in increased self-efficacy belief (Miraglia, Cenciotti, Alessandri, & Borgogni, 2017). By increasing social resources, such as being around and observing co-workers that are role-models and that are succeeding due to their sustained efforts, might raise employee's belief that they are capable of mastering the activities that are needed to succeed in that area themselves. This is what Bandura refers to as vicarious experiences, which is considered to be the

second main source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 2012). By crafting and expanding social resources, through asking for advice and increasing social interaction with people at work, employees may engage in social modeling (Miraglia et al., 2017). Seeing employees with the same capabilities as you succeed, can in turn increase your own self-efficacy. Further, manager feedback can raise self-efficacy beliefs through social persuasion (Miraglia et al., 2017), which is the third main source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 2012).

In addition, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009) found in their study that employees that work in a resourceful environment feel more competent and valued, which in turn boosted their self-efficacy. When employees are actively contributing to their environment through crafting, it may lead them to developing their self-efficacy beliefs to an even greater extent. Following this line of thinking, employees can contribute to shaping their work context through job crafting, which consequently reinforces their perceived confidence to control and influence it (Miraglia et al., 2017)

Based on this, we expect resources crafting to be positively related to occupational self-efficacy. We assume that employees that are able to attain resources through crafting and use those resources to achieve work goals, personal growth, development and reduce strain, might feel more confident about how they perform their tasks. Consequently, we believe that resources crafting will affect the perceived competence and confidence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job, hence increase their occupational self-efficacy. We therefore hypothesize the following:

***H1a**: There is a positive relationship between increasing resources crafting and occupational self-efficacy*

OSE as mediator between increasing resources job crafting and performance

The positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance has been supported by many studies. For instance, two meta-studies by Judge and Bono (2001) and Stajkovic, Luthans, and Eisenberg (1998) on the relationship between self-efficacy and performance, found a statistically significant correlation of 0.23 and 0.38, respectively. Perceived self-efficacy is thought to affect what tasks people pursue and how much effort they put into completing the task (Bandura, 1977).

Individuals that perceive themselves as more efficacious than others, will spend more effort in overcoming challenges, which in turn can produce a more successful outcome. This capacity for self-regulation is important for task performance (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Individuals with lower self-efficacy will, on the other hand, put less effort into overcoming challenges and will therefore more easily allow themselves to fail (Bandura, 1986; Stajkovic et al., 1998). The effort that employees put into completing the tasks is therefore believed to have an effect on performance. In light of the hypothesizing made above, we therefore expect this relationship between increasing resources job crafting and job performance to be explained by self-efficacy, and therefore propose the following hypothesis:

H1b: *OSE mediates a positive, indirect relationship between increasing resources job crafting and performance.*

Job Crafting and Performance: The Mediating Role of Intrinsic Motivation (IM)

Intrinsic motivation (IM) was first acknowledged in experimental studies of animal behavior where it was observed that organisms engage in exploratory, playful and curiosity driven behaviors even in the absence of rewards or reinforcement (White, 1959). In the same way, from the moment of birth and onwards, humans are active, curious, inquisitive and playful, showing readiness to learn and explore without the need of external incentives. It is this tendency to act through inherent interest that contributes to the development of growth, knowledge and skills, and is also a feature of human nature that affects performance, persistence and well-being throughout the life cycle of any individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Intrinsic motivation in the context of behavioral theories is found under the self-determination theory (SDT), which is the theoretical framework that comprises the two overarching types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. This framework was established by Ryan and Deci (2000). They defined intrinsic motivation as “the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn”. They suggested that IM is driven by an interest in and enjoyment of the task itself, and that this feeling relies within the person, not on external forces. In addition, IM not only exists within the

individual, but also in the relations between individuals and activities. In contrast, extrinsic motivation was defined as doing something due to a separable outcome, such as pressure or extrinsic rewards like money or verbal feedback (Edward L Deci & Ryan, 2000). In a further extension of intrinsic motivation theory, Deci and Ryan presented the cognitive evaluation theory (CET) to specify the three social and environmental factors that propel or underlie intrinsic motivation (Edward L Deci & Ryan, 1985). These are; need for competence, autonomy and relatedness. Need for competence refers to the feeling of experiencing perceived competence during action. When accompanied by an optimal level of challenge and constructive feedback, competence can facilitate intrinsic motivation through mastery experience. Moreover, feelings of competence must be accompanied by a sense of autonomy or a perceived locus of causality, so that attribution of competence can be self-determined. The previous has been validated through several studies, for example it was seen that within a class, teachers were able to catalyze greater intrinsic motivation, curiosity and desire for challenge in their students when teachers were autonomy-supportive instead of controlling (Edward L. Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981). However, in this example as in other contexts, the principles of intrinsic motivation and its catalysts will only apply for activities or tasks that the individual finds of interest, novelty, challenge or aesthetic value. Otherwise extrinsic motivation can better explain the motivation for all that is not experienced as interesting. The third factor, need for relatedness, refers to the will to interact, connect and experience caring and interest of others over one's actions and accomplishments. The principle of relatedness suggests that the social environment can facilitate or hinder intrinsic motivation (Ryan, Deci, Fowler, Seligman, & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). However, relatedness support is not strictly necessary for IM, as many intrinsically motivated behaviors are happily performed in isolation, but it can be important for the expression of IM to be in evidence. Therefore, autonomy and competence are considered the two principles underlying IM (Gagné & Deci, 2005).

Intrinsic motivation has often been operationalized in two measures. Experimental research has explored IM through the "free choice" measure, where participants are exposed to a task under various conditions. After some period of time the experimenter tells participants to stop working on the target task and leaves them alone in the experiment room with the target task and other distractors. This period of time is called the period of "free choice". Experimenters will observe if

participants return to the activity without any extrinsic reason to do so, concluding that the more time they spend with the task, the more intrinsically motivated they are to do it. The second approach is the use of self-report measures of interest and enjoyment on an activity per se (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Increasing challenging demands and IM

The challenge hindrance work stressor framework from Podsakoff, Lepine, and Lepine (2007) proposes that challenge stressors are positively associated to motivational outcomes, which results in the accumulation of challenges that further stimulate employees. This is consistent with research from Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, and Hetland (2012), who suggested that seeking challenges is motivational in nature. They conducted a study about job crafting on a daily basis and found support to state that seeking challenges daily was positively related with daily work engagement. Moreover, when a job is under stimulating, in contrast to challenging, it leads to general dissatisfaction and decreased engagement (Tims et al., 2012).

Taking this research together suggests that seeking challenges can be a positive job stressor when individuals see challenges as attainable, stimulating and as means to promote mastery. This especially applies when challenging goals are achieved, as achievement can promote self-fulfillment. Moreover, because job crafting is a self-initiated behavior that arises from personal interest and personal gains, we can assume that individuals will craft in direction of challenges that they find interesting and/or valuable and with a level of complexity they find attainable. This is in line with the previously reviewed literature and the basic principles of intrinsic motivation. Since challenge seeking behavior promotes self-fulfillment through mastery goal attainment, we assume it can affect feelings of competence and autonomy, directly increasing their intrinsic motivation.

As mentioned earlier, job crafting aimed at increasing challenging demands refers to increasing work activities that require sustained physical, emotional, or mental effort. This pursue promotes personal goal accomplishment, growth, and learning (Tims et al., 2012). As job crafting entails an attitude towards improving one's situation, we would assume that crafting to increase challenges will be used as a means to realize internal needs of individuals at work. We therefore expect:

H2a: *There is a positive relationship between increasing challenging demands job crafting and IM.*

IM as mediator between increase challenging demands job crafting and performance

There exists extensive research examining motivation and performance. However, historically research has focused mainly on examining the undermining effect that extrinsic rewards have over intrinsic motivation, and the effects it has on performance. Consequently, the effects of intrinsic motivation alone have not been studied in depth. In response to this, a recent meta-analysis conducted by Cerasoli, Nicklin, and Ford (2014) intended to show that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are equally functional in explaining performance. In their analysis, they found that tasks that emphasize quality over quantity have a stronger link to performance, as they require a higher degree of sustained effort to perform. Accordingly, Edward L Deci and Ryan (2000) argue that intrinsic motivation, with its autonomous nature and self-regulation, has more positive effects on well-being and performance than extrinsic motivation does. Similarly, individuals that score high in intrinsic motivation are more involved in their jobs and are able to attain more goals (Gagné & Deci, 2005). For these reasons, it is possible to establish a logic relationship between experiencing high intrinsic motivation and a tendency to perform better. This was supported by Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik and Nerstad's (2017) study, that found a positive relationship between work performance outcomes and intrinsic motivation, as well as organizational commitment.

Moreover, research linking intrinsic motivation with job crafting from A. B Bakker, Tims, and Derks (2012) found that work enjoyment from crafting resources and challenges at work, combined with proactive personality, was the strongest predictor of others' ratings of an employee's performance. Furthermore, intrinsic motivation can also affect performance outcomes via its effects on engagement, as employees experience positive emotions; a state that affects their curiosity and creativity to search for new ideas and build resources. Thus, they are more energized, they look for feedback and support, and they have the ability to transmit engagement to colleagues. In turn, this increases team performance (A. B. Bakker, Demerouti, & Sanz-Vergel, 2014). Furthermore, meta-analysis by Podsakoff et al. (2007) found challenging job demands to be positively related to job satisfaction. We therefore believe that job satisfaction can have an impact on motivation, as

employees who seek more knowledge and skills at work, pursue more challenging goals, resulting in higher levels of intrinsic motivation.

Therefore, considering the reviewed evidence linking job crafting aimed at increasing challenging demands and intrinsic motivation, and the relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance, we would expect that:

H2b: *IM mediates a positive, indirect relationship between increasing challenging demands job crafting and performance.*

Job Crafting and Performance: The Mediating Role of Role Overload (RO)

Strain at work is an undesirable outcome that manifests itself in forms of anxiety, tension and exhaustion, and is caused by stressor stimuli that triggers negative emotions and cognitions. In order to cope with this states, individuals manage them through physical and emotional withdrawal from work (Podsakoff et al., 2007). In general, hindering job demands are considered job stressors that result in strain because they harm personal growth and goal attainment (Lepine et al., 2005). Examples of hindrance stressors include demands such as role conflict, role ambiguity, organizational politics, high bureaucracy, hassle and work load (Crawford, Lepine, Rich, & Kozlowski, 2010; House, LaRocco, & French Jr, 1980).

Role overload arises from a perception that the demands imposed by single or multiple roles that an individual has to fulfill are so great that the time and energy resources are not sufficient to fulfill the requirements of this various roles to the satisfaction of self or others (Duxbury, Lyons, & Higgins, 2008). Furthermore, in the resource-demands theory, role overload has been categorized as a hindrance demand (Crawford et al., 2010), that refers to an amount of work demanded from an employee that threatens his or her ability to perform effectively.

Decreasing hindering demands and RO

While challenging demands promote mastery and competence, hindering demands represent work tasks and conditions that also require effort and energy, but do not have the growth potential (Lepine et al., 2005). Crafting aimed at reducing hindering demands refers to the change's employees make to avoid work demands that harm their personal growth or performance, because they require too

much physical, emotional, or mental effort. A study by Tadić, Bakker, and Oerlemans (2015) hypothesized that crafting aimed at reducing hindering demands should result in the decrease of hindering demands. In addition, by reducing hindering demands, employees would experience higher levels of energy and would be able to focus better on their core tasks. However, their hypothesis was only confirmed in those cases where employees used resources to balance hindering demands, which in turn helped them cope better throughout the day.

Furthermore, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) states that employees facing job demands, initially attempt to deal with them by putting more energy into their jobs. Moreover, additional discussions applying the JD-R framework illustrate that employees who experience exhaustion from their work will most likely generate additional job demands, such as time pressure and role conflicts (A. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). A possible explanation for this could be that people in this situation withdraw from their job in an effort to conserve personal resources. This can backlash in the form of higher job demands and less job resources to effectively manage these demands. We assume therefore that job crafting aimed at reducing hindering demands could increase perceptions of role overload. We therefore expect:

H3a: *There is a positive relationship between reducing hindering demands job crafting and RO.*

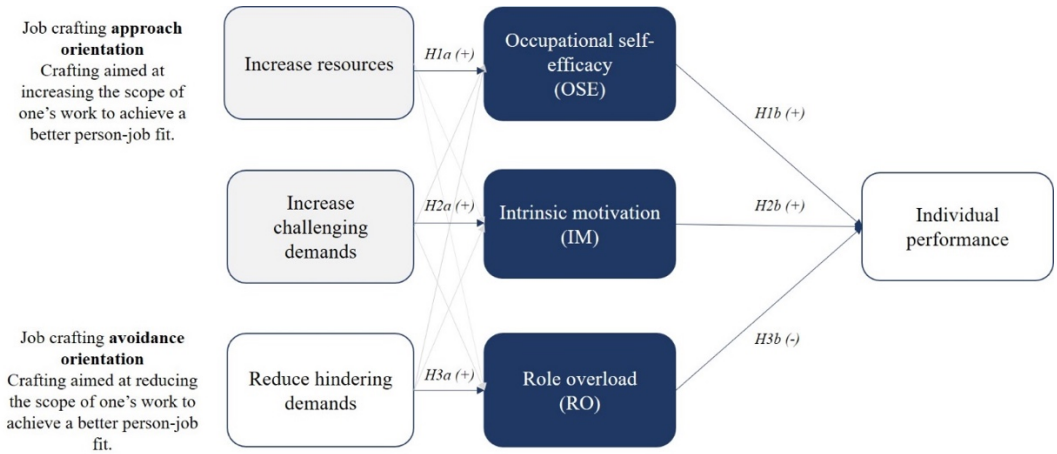
RO as mediator between decreasing hindering demands job crafting and performance

While job crafting aimed at reducing hindering demands could prevent negative effects such as burnout (Tims et al., 2012), it could also keep employees from fulfilling their prescribed task requirements (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). This likely explains why reducing hindering demands is more often related to lower ratings of performance (Gordon et al., 2015; Tims et al., 2012). As reducing hindering job demands could actually result in greater perceptions of role overload, it is likely that role overload also plays a role in the negative relationship between reducing hindering demands and job performance. Meta-analytic findings support a negative relationship between role overload and performance (Lepine et al., 2005). This is because role overload, as a hindrance stressor, produces burnout. In turn, burnout prevents employees from performing effectively.

Taking together this evidence, we presume that there will be a negative relationship between job crafting aimed at reducing hindering demands, and perceived performance, and that this relationship will be mediated by perceptions of role overload. Thus, we hypothesize:

H3b: *RO mediates a negative, indirect relationship between reducing hindering demands job crafting and performance.*

Figure 1: Research model



METHODOLOGY

Sample

Our conceptual model was tested with data collected through a panel field study where electronic surveys were sent to employees and managers in eight companies. We originally planned to collect data from three companies. However, in order to reach a good number of respondents, we reached out to several other companies throughout the data collection phase and ended up collecting data from eight different companies. All of the companies operate in the private sector, but in

different industries (insurance, banking, software, finance, audit and accounting, recycling and consumer goods).

We collected the data electronically through two employee surveys (Wave 1 and wave 2) and one leader survey (wave 3). In Wave 1 we collected data on the independent variables (resources crafting, challenges crafting and demand crafting). In this wave we also collected demographic data (gender, age, education level, tenure in company, tenure in position and how long they had worked for their immediate manager). In wave 2 we collected data on the mediators (role overload, occupational self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation), as well as data on the control variable, LMX. In time 3 we collected data on the dependent variable, perceived performance (task proficiency, adaptive performance and proactive performance) from managers. Participants were informed about the confidential treatment of their responses.

Wave 1 was sent to 141 employees and we received 107 responses (response rate = 75.89%). The second wave was sent to the 107 respondents, and we received 98 responses (response rate = 91.59%). Wave three was sent to 45 managers, where we received responses from 40 (response rate = 88.89%). As we were dependent on answers in all three waves to match the data, we had to remove responses from 14 employees due to lack of response from their manager. Matching the three data sets together yielded a final sample of 40 leaders and 84 employees, representing a total response rate of 59.57% (84/141).

Demographics

In our study, we collected demographic data regarding *age*, *gender*, *education*, *job tenure*, *tenure in the current job role* and *tenure of the leader relationship*. Age and tenure variables were measured in years, using intervals. Education was measured on an ordinal scale ranging from 1 = primary school to 5 = PhD. Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable coded such that 1 was male, and 2 was female.

Of the employees included in the final data set, 40 (41%) were male, while 58 (59%) were female. In regard to age, 40.8% of the sample were between 26-30 years old, 31.6% between 31-40, and 19.3% of the sample were above 41 years. Most of the employees had obtained a bachelor's degree (35.7%) or a master's degree (52%) as highest education level. On average, most of the employees had

worked for the company for less than 2 years (45%), followed by those who had been in the company for 3-5 years (30.6%). Only 12.2% had worked for the company for more than 10 years. As for tenure working for their immediate leader, 44.9% answered that they had worked for their immediate leader for less than a year, 44.9% answered between 1-2 years, while a minority (10.2%) had worked with their current manager for more than 3 years. Lastly, 31.6% reported to have worked in their current position for less than a year, 33.7% had worked in the position for 1-2 years, 21.4% answered that they had worked in the position for 3-5 years, while only 6.1% had worked in their current position for more than 6 years.

Measures

The selected measures and items used in this research were taken and, or, adapted from established pre-existing research on each of the concepts. They were selected on the basis of their relevance and accuracy in regard to reflect our hypotheses. All of the survey items can be found in Appendix 3-5 of this document. The items for *job crafting* were measured on a 7-point Likert scale. Since job crafting is a proactive behavior that not necessarily everyone engages in, a 7-point scale therefore offers more variety for the respondents. The rest of the items corresponding to the remaining variables were all measured in a 5-point Likert scale. Since our surveys for both employees and leaders were collected from both Norwegian and non-Norwegian speakers, items were translated from English to Norwegian with the translation-back translation procedure (Brislin, 1986).

Job crafting

There has been little research on job crafting in Norway using Tim's et al.'s (2012) conceptualization of job crafting, and we found that small changes in the wording of the measurement items was needed to use the measure for our research purposes. In order to identify the items that best suited our conceptualization of job crafting and to ensure inter-rater reliability, we conducted a class activity with first year students of MSc in Leadership and Organizational Psychology. In preparation for the class activity we first came up with specific definitions of IR, IC and RD (presented in *"Our conceptualization of job crafting for this study"*), as the three types of job crafting was not explicitly defined by Tims et al. (2012). Our definitions were in line with the JD-R model. These definitions helped to ensure that the items adequately represented the constructs that we were examining (Ghiselli, Campbell,

& Zedeck, 1981; Hinkin, 1998). As a second step, we came up with items ourselves that we thought reflected the definitions. We then made a list of items that included both our own and pre-established items from Tims et al. (2012) and Petrou et al. (2012), which are also developed based on the JD-R model. For the class activity, we provided the participants with a randomized list of items together with the definitions of the three types of crafting and asked them to categorize the items to the definition they saw the most fitting. In total 20 students participated in this class activity. As a final step, we summarized the findings and kept the items that had highest response accuracy, as well as items that were used by Tims et al. (2012) and Petrou et al. (2012) that got a reasonable score (above 50% response accuracy). For some of the items that seemed unclear to the participants, we adjusted the wording in order to better capture the concepts based on our definitions. For the final survey, we used 8 items to measure each form of job crafting.

Mediator variables

Occupational self-efficacy (OSE): As data was collected from several organizations, it made more sense to use occupational self-efficacy as our foundation, as it enables us to compare across organizations and tasks (in contrast to task-related self-efficacy). There are several measures of occupational self-efficacy, however the measure developed by Schyns and Von Collani (2002) is well-established by researchers. For our data collection we used selected items from their scale.

Intrinsic motivation (IM) was assessed with items taken from Gagné, Senecal, and Koestner (1997).

Role Overload (RO) was measured with items adapted from House et al. (1980).

Job Performance

To measure job performance, managers were provided with the 9 items corresponding to individual level performance scale from Griffin et al. (2007). The original items are phrased as self-report measures, so we adapted the wording to better fit as supervisor ratings of perceived performance. When data was collected, managers were sent personalized surveys, which included names of employees, where they were asked to assess each one on the nine items.

Control Variables

Certain control variables were included to establish pre-existing differences in our response group and to strengthen the internal validity (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In the second employee survey, we collected data on employees' perception of their relationship with their immediate supervisor using the 7-item measure of *leader member exchange (LMX)* from Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). By controlling for LMX, we aimed to rule out the possibility that LMX could inflate the managers perceptions of an employee's performance.

ANALYSIS

The analysis was conducted in several phases in SPSS. As a first step, exploratory principal component analysis (PCA) with promax rotation was performed in order to evaluate the employee rated measured items. This was performed on all multiple-scale items, in order to determine item retention (Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004). To avoid confounded measure of related constructs, we applied stringent rules of thumb when deciding which variables would be computed based on the loadings we found in the pattern matrix. Items with a loading of less than 0.50 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 2007), a cross-loading of more than 0.35 (Kiffin-Petersen & Cordery, 2003), and a differential of less than 0.20 (Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994) were not considered for inclusion in the computed measures (See appendix 1). The items for each construct that performed well, as indicated by the PCA, were then tested using reliability analysis in order to evaluate the internal consistency of the scales. Reliability was assessed by estimating Cronbach's alpha for each of the measures (Cronbach, 1951). We ensured all measures were above the acceptable level, removing those whose Cronbach's alphas scored under 0.7. Based on the rules of thumb and the Cronbach's alpha, we computed the variables with their final set of items. The threat of multicollinearity was evaluated by calculating the Pearson correlation coefficient and pairwise the variance inflation factor (VIF) for all independent variables.

A principal component analysis was also conducted for the dependent variable (See appendix 2), using the same criteria as mentioned above. Based on the pattern matrix, some cross-loadings were identified. Therefore, only one

variable, with its three items, was used in the analysis that followed. We then performed a reliability analysis on the final variable, to determine its internal consistency.

As a final step, to test our hypotheses, we ran correlation analyses for the independent variables, mediators and the dependent variable. Based on the findings of the correlation analyses, we decided to not proceed with further mediation analysis. In order to control for LMX, we also tried running the model using PROCESS. However, the results did not change.

RESULTS

Due to the findings in the principal component analysis, we removed 1 of the items intended to reflect increasing resources, 2 items intended to reflect increasing challenges, and 2 items measuring LMX, as they did not fulfill our requirements in regard to the rules of thumb. The items that were kept based on these rules of thumb, were all items from pre-established measures.

Removing these items, we found that our items concerning increasing resources (IR) loaded on two factors. One factor reflected the structural elements of IR (items IR1, IR2 and IR3) and one factor reflected the social elements of IR (items IR5 and IR6), which is in line with findings made by Tims et al. (2012). Our reducing demands (RD) items also loaded on two factors. One factor reflected the mental and emotional strain elements of RD (items RD1 and RD2 - will from here on out be referred to as RD_MES), while the other factor reflected the element of minimizing contact with others and simplifying the complexity of tasks at work (RD3, RD4 and RD5 - this factor will from here on out be referred to as RD_contact).

Subsequent reliability analysis found that not all factors had the acceptable level of Cronbach's Alpha (0.7) to be computed as a study variable.

Items reflecting increasing social resources (IR5 and IR6) had a Cronbach's Alpha of only .55 and were therefore not computed as a study variable. Further, we had to remove RD5 from the factor that included RD3, RD4, and RD5 in order to increase the Cronbach's Alpha from .67 to .85. The final job crafting variables therefore included a three-item scale for IR-structural (ⱥ = .73), a four-item scale for IC (ⱥ = .80), a two-item scale for RD_MES (ⱥ = .91), a two-item scale for

RD_contact (α = .83). Further, variables included a three-item scale for role overload (α = .75), a three-item scale for intrinsic motivation (α = .85), a three-item scale for occupational self-efficacy (α = .77) and a five-item scale for leader-member exchange (α = .77) (See appendix 1 for all included items).

As for the leader-rated performance items, the principal component analysis unfortunately revealed several cross-loadings, to the extent that using the three-dimensional model of performance would not be possible. We therefore decided to narrow our analysis to the items regarding Task Proficiency (P1, P2 and P3) as these most closely resembled the performance outcome investigated in previous research.

Table 1 reports the means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations for all included study variables.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. IR_structural	5.44	0.72	-								
2. IC	4.59	0.97	.46**	-							
3. RD_MES	3.14	1.22	-0.04	-0.10	-						
4. RD_contact	3.27	1.25	-0.09	-0.12	.40**	-					
5. OSE	4.05	0.51	.33**	0.15	-0.05	-.21*	-				
6. IM	4.01	0.58	.40**	.25*	-0.13	0.00	0.17	-			
7. RO	2.96	0.68	0.10	0.08	-0.08	-0.15	-0.09	-0.08	-		
8. TaskProficiency	4.08	0.63	-0.06	0.08	-.28**	0.00	0.01	0.12	-0.01	-	
9. LMX	3.92	0.51	.20*	-0.04	0.08	-0.01	0.12	.232*	-0.18	0.06	-

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In order to test our hypothesis, we first examined the correlation analysis presented in Table 1. The correlation analysis revealed that *increasing resources-structure (IR-S)* was positively and significantly related to occupational self-efficacy ($r = .33$, $p < .001$). *Hypothesis 1a* was therefore supported. However, in addition we also found that IR-S was positively and significantly related to intrinsic motivation ($r = .40$, $p < .000$). Further, as hypothesized, *increasing challenges* was found to be positively and significantly related to intrinsic motivation ($r = .25$, $p < .014$). *Hypothesis 2a* was therefore supported. As for the *reducing demands variables,* we found no support for a significant relationship with role overload. *Hypothesis 3a* was therefore not supported. However, the correlation analysis did

reveal that "RD-minimizing contact" relate negatively and significantly to occupational self-efficacy (r = -0.21, p < .040).

We also examined the correlation analysis with regards to zero-order relationships between the proposed mediator variables and task performance. Surprisingly, no significant relationships were found between any mediator and task performance. As there is no significant relationship between the mediators and performance, it is unlikely that any of these will mediate the indirect relationship between the different types of job crafting and performance. Further, the correlation analysis showed that employee ratings of LMX did not relate to leader ratings of task performance. Accordingly, regression analysis controlling for LMX was regarded as unnecessary, and the testing of *hypotheses 1b*, *2b* and *3b* stopped here. These hypotheses were regarded as not supported.

As a final step, we examined the correlations between the four components of job crafting and leader-rated task proficiency. This analysis showed that there is a significant, negative relationship between RD_MES and task proficiency (r = -0.28, p < .009). While direct relationships between job crafting and performance were not hypothesized, this finding is interesting to consider in our further discussion of findings.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between employee job crafting behaviors and its effects on leader-rated performance. We hypothesized positive relations between job crafting aimed at increasing both resources and challenges and performance, while we hypothesized a negative relationship between job crafting aimed at reducing hindering demands and performance. Although these relationships have been previously investigated, our study contributes to existing research in the job crafting literature by hypothesizing indirect mediated relationships between job crafting and performance, through employee perceptions of self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and role overload.

Increasing structural resources and OSE

Our research showed that increasing resources-structure (IR-S) was positively and significantly related to occupational self-efficacy (OSE). These findings suggest that crafting for structural resources can lead to increased self-efficacy beliefs for employees, because the structural resources contribute to personal and professional growth. We believe this can be explained through what Bandura (2012) refers to as masterly experience, described as one of the main sources of self-efficacy. When a person experiences that he or she is able to achieve a task due to perseverance and effort, it increases confidence and beliefs in their ability to succeed in similar tasks. Therefore, by increasing their structural resources, employees increase their competence and prove themselves at work, which in turn increases their self-efficacy beliefs. In addition, our findings can be seen in connection with Hobfoll´s (1989) COR theory, that argues that resources do not exist in isolation, but rather on aggregate. This is evident in our study, as crafting to increase structural resources such as gaining knowledge, increase personal capabilities, professional skills and abilities, will in turn co-exist and results in an increase in the personal resource of self-efficacy.

In addition to our hypothesized relationship, our study found that increasing resources-structure (IR-S) was positively and significantly related to intrinsic motivation. In line with the conservation of resources theory by Hobfoll (1989), the JD-R model (A. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and Tims et al. (2012), we presume that people will aim at keeping or increasing their resources, as the possessing resources boost motivation. We therefore believe that our findings can be explained by that employees that successfully are able to craft for more resources, will in turn possess more resources than others, and that this high level of resources will have an impact on their intrinsic motivation, as resources have a motivational component (A. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Increasing challenging demands and IM

We hypothesized that employees who craft their jobs by increasing challenges, find meaning and value in approaching challenging demands, as it provides them with enjoyment and energy. Therefore, we expected this form of job crafting to positively relate to intrinsic motivation and our findings provided support for this hypothesis. An explanation for our results could be that employees

that are willing to invest physical and mental effort to meet challenging demands, see their time and effort investment as meaningful and rewarding (Crawford et al., 2010), which in turn leads to an increase in employee intrinsic motivation through positive emotions and attitudes. In addition, we believe that our results reflect that seeking challenges and intrinsic motivation are two concepts that are tightly coupled together. The very definition of intrinsic motivation is that it is the inherent tendency to seek out challenges and mastery experiences (Edward L Deci & Ryan, 2000; Petrou et al., 2012), and it would be difficult to argue for a negative relationship between the two.

Nevertheless, although our findings suggests that increasing challenges will result in higher intrinsic motivation, theory on challenging demands emphasize that the individual has to perceive the challenge as attainable for it to have a motivational factor (Tims et al., 2012). We therefore suggest that our findings should be interpreted with caution in terms of generalization, as not *all* challenges necessarily increase intrinsic motivation.

Taken together, the present results supported the premise of our job crafting framework, where job crafting is said to be a proactive response to achieve a better person-job fit. Thus, challenge seeking behavior leads to increased well-being for the employee, which in turn results in experiencing higher levels of intrinsic motivation, competence and autonomy.

Decreasing hindering demands and RO

Contrary to our expectations, no positive relationship was found between reducing hindering demands in its two forms, RD_MES and RD_ contact, and role overload. In our analysis these relationships turned out to be negative and non-significant, and crafting to reduce hindering demands did therefore not seem to predict role overload. We expected that people who crafted to reduce their perceived strain would generate additional job demands for themselves, leading to high perceptions of role overload. However, it seems that the more employees isolated themselves or reduced the scope of their tasks, the less role overload they perceived. Our finding would therefore be in line with the prediction by Tadić et al. (2015), suggesting that employees who reduce hindering demands become more available to tackle their core tasks.

Another possible way to explain our result is perhaps by looking into role overload as an antecedent to reducing hindering demands instead. In this case, when

employees perceive high role overload, they would aim to decrease their hindering demands, and doing so on a regular basis would prevent future role overload perceptions. In other words, a high perception of role overload would be a result of poor efforts to craft reducing hindering demands in the first place. In addition, it is possible that being resourceful can help in decreasing demands so that hindrance is not perceived. However, in this research we did not investigate the boosting effect of high resources in a high role overload context.

In addition, an interesting and significant negative relationship was found between RD_contact and occupational self-efficacy. Reducing relationships in the workplace is perceived counterproductive work behavior and has been negatively related to performance (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). This finding is in line with research on network centrality. Network centrality states that employees who isolate themselves from interactions with colleagues, risk missing information needed to perform well (Ibarra, 1993). This is an important finding for future research looking into the harmful consequences of crafting to reduce hindering demands of social contact. In addition, we see this finding in connection to what Bandura (2012) argues for as two of the main sources of self-efficacy. As mentioned previously, one of these sources of self-efficacy is social modeling (Bandura, 2012). Social modeling refers to when a person, through observations of others that succeed by perseverance efforts, raises their own belief and aspirations of their capabilities. Employees that craft to RD_contact, might miss out on social interactions with others, and are therefore also less likely to have their self-efficacy increased through this source. Bandura (2012) also mentions social persuasion as a source of self-efficacy. It is argued that people that are persuaded into believing in themselves, are more perseverant when they face obstacles and therefore more likely to succeed, resulting in higher self-efficacy (Bandura, 2012). Employees that craft to RD_contact, might not interact as frequently with others that could potentially persuade them to believing in themselves. Crafting to RD_contact could therefore result in less perseverance when facing obstacles due to the lack of persuasion from others, which in turn leads to lower likelihood of success and increase in OSE. Hence, we assume that people who craft in this direction will negatively affect their level of social resources, which can decrease their perceptions of OSE and competence, leading to a decrease in performance.

Relationship between job crafting and performance

Contrary to our hypotheses, we found no significant relationships between the mediators (OSE, IM, RO) and task proficiency. This is contradictory of previous studies such as Judge and Bono (2001); Stajkovic et al. (1998) that found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance, Cerasoli et al. (2014) and Kuvaas et al. (2017) that found a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and performance, and Lepine et al. (2005) that found a negative relationship between role overload and performance.

As we, in addition to understanding the mediating effects of OSE, IM and RO, were interested in the effects of job crafting on performance, we also tested to see if there were any direct relationships between the different kinds of job crafting and task proficiency. However, there were no significant findings between IR_structure and performance and IC and performance. This is in contrast to studies such as the one by Tims et al. (2012), that found a significant and positive relationship between IR_stucture and performance, and between IC and performance. However, our study is in line with the findings of Gordon et al. (2015), that found no significant relationship between increasing challenges and performance.

Our only significant finding was the one between RD_demands and performance, that was found to be negative. We believe these findings support Bruning and Campion's (2018) distinction between approach and avoidance crafting, and that avoidance behaviors are often perceived negatively by managers. In addition, our overall findings indicate that behaviors that are perceived negatively, have a stronger impact than positive behaviors.

Our findings are also similar to those in Gordon et al.'s (2015) study. However, our research differs in that we used leader-ratings, as opposed to self-ratings of performance. Our study therefore adds to this field of research, by confirming that reducing demands could be perceived as slacking behavior, also by managers. In turn, our findings therefore confirm that not all types of job crafting have a perceived positive impact on performance.

On the other hand, it is important to note that reducing demands often is a behavioral mechanism to prevent burnout (Arnold B. Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004), which could help protect and ensure performance. Nevertheless, it seems like both actively decreasing hindering demands and performing under

hindering demands, will inevitably result in reduced performance. More research on the effects of reducing demands on performance is therefore needed.

The lack of findings in the relationship between performance and the other variables, could possibly be explained by looking more closely at the performance ratings. The mean score of task proficiency is 4,08, which is quite high considering this was measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Further, the standard deviation was only 0.63 (See appendix 6). This implies that managers on average scored the employee very similar, hence there was little variance in their replies. As we have previously noted, about 89% of the employees had worked for their immediate leader for 2 years or less, leading us to think that managers might not have known the employees well enough to notice all of their job crafting behaviors. However, because of the significantly negative relationship between RD_demands and performance, it seems like behaviors that reduce the scope are more visible to mangers than other types of behavior.

As mentioned, our results differ from the findings of previous studies on job crafting and performance (eg. Tims et al. (2012)). We believe our source of data for the performance data could be a contributing factor to the difference in findings. For example, in Leana et al. (2009) study, performance was specified to quality of childcare in classroom and data was collected through trained observers that used a 43-item scale to assess performance. Tims et al. (2012) measured performance through peer-ratings, while Weseler and Niessen (2016) measured performance through both self- and supervisor ratings. That these previous studies have used different measures and methods for data collection than us, could be an explanation as to why they found significant relationships, while we did not. This assumption is partly supported by the findings in Weseler and Niessen (2016), were they found different results in two of their hypotheses, depending on who was rating the performance.

Our study found a significant, negative relationship between RD_MES and task proficiency. However, the relationship was not mediated by role overload as we had expected. Therefore, we only found partial support for our hypothesis. Hindering demands are said to threaten employee well-being because they threaten personal growth and task accomplishment (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, &

Boudreau, 2000). In response to this, employees craft their jobs by reducing demands as a mechanism to reduce mental and emotional strain, and to be able to focus and maintain their working functionality (Petrou et al., 2012). However, decreasing hindering demands can have dysfunctional implications. On one side employees protect their well-being by managing their energy and preventing stress and burnout. While on the other, employees actively work to reduce what they do in comparison to what is expected from them, resulting in a poor perception of their work in terms of task performance. Moreover, not dealing with one's workload can be seen as a counterproductive work behavior that threatens goal attainment and efficiency in organizations, therefore it relates negatively to task performance.

Taken together, our findings could imply that expanding activities, such as increasing one's resources or level of challenges, are not seen as relevant outcomes in the eyes of managers and that they therefore go unnoticed. Behaviors that reduce that scope, on the other hand, seem to be more visible and defining for how managers perceives an employee's performance.

LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

A number of limitations can be found in regard to our data collection and the design of our study. We believe that these limitations can be helpful to have in mind for future research.

First, there are some limitations associated with the sample and data collection in our research. Our data was collected from eight different companies and from some of them we only got a small number of participants. In addition, the participants worked within different industries and functions. Having such a heterogeneous sample could be regarded as a limitation, as it affects the generalizability of our findings. Further, we believe the sensitive nature of job crafting and performance data affected our response rate. We find it reasonable to believe that some employees felt that participating in the study would portray them negatively or even expose them. As a way to prevent this, previous research could

focus on self-rated measures of performance, to cancel out some of these effects. As for performance ratings, our findings show that managers did not differentiate much between employees (See appendix 7). We believe a potential reason might be that 89% of the employees had worked for less than two years for their immediate manager, indicating that managers might not have known the employees well enough to notice all of their job crafting behaviors. Another potential explanation for the low differentiation in manager rating, is simply that managers might have held back and avoided giving their employees low ratings, to avoid seeming too harsh in their judgments.

For further research, we would therefore suggest studying a more homogeneous group, preferably within the same task domain. This would make it easier to generalize findings and also make it possible to be task specific, which could be beneficial, as it ensures that employees and managers have the same frame of reference when providing responses. We believe that task specificity could have helped for employees and supervisors to rate on equal terms. For instance, in Leana et al's (2009) study, performance was rated by observing aspects of the environment, activities and teacher-child interactions within the classroom. As mentioned, performance was in their study rated using a 43-item scale for assessment, and it was therefore rated based on more specific criteria compared to our 9-item scale. Also, all our items were generally phrased, as opposed to task specific. We believe that this lack of specificity might have led to employees and managers having different frames of reference when completing the questionnaires. For instance, employees might have rated themselves with more specific situations in mind, while supervisors, may have unintentionally rated their overall perception of the employee at work (e.g. likeability, collaborative skills). Task specificity has also been related to IM and OSE. We therefore believe that collecting data from employees within the same task domain would be helpful.

In regard to individual performance, our measures were limited to a perceived judgment from the manager. We believe that perception ratings do not necessarily provide a complete picture of employee performance and that the task specificity could have enhanced the objectivity of the ratings. A suggestion for future research looking into a similar relationship, could also include the companies own performance ratings in the assessment of performance. We believe it would be

valuable to contrast perception data with quantitative data of for example employee's performance indicators. A combination of multiple sources could provide a more objective and realistic evaluation of an employee's performance in contrast to relying only on perception. Further, self-ratings of performance could potentially have given us a better understanding of employee's perception of person-job fit, as a consequence of undertaking job crafting behaviors. In addition, having this data could have allowed us to look closer into whether this self-reported measure was aligned with the manager's perception. We therefore believe that using the company's own performance measures, could have yielded different results.

Previous diary studies have indicated that levels of self-efficacy can fluctuate on a daily basis, with as much as 48-63 percent of the variance attributable to within-person variations (Tims et al., 2011; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). In addition, performance has also been found to be highly fluctuating, with 44-57 percent of the variability explained at the within-person level (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). We believe that these fluctuations could have had an effect on our outcomes. OSE and performance were measured at different points in time, and for some of the companies we measured OSE and performance with a two-month time difference. We would suggest that further research measure these variables closer in time, in order to compare ratings in more precise ways and avoid potential effects of fluctuations.

In the discussion part of this thesis, we argued that OSE could be an antecedent to job crafting. This is also in line with other research, such as Vancouver, Thompson, Tischner, and Putka (2002) that found that high levels of self-efficacy may actually undermine job performance because participants become overconfident and consequently allocate fewer resources to reach their goals. We therefore suggest that future research would focus on OSE as an antecedent of job crafting, as opposed to an outcome.

A final limitation of our study is that our results did not allow us to test if role overload would mediate the negative relationship between reducing demands and leader-rated performance. Previous studies looking into similar relationships have hypothesized and confirmed negative relationships between job crafting and hindrance stressors like role overload (Solberg & Wong, 2016) and stress and

burnout (Singh & Singh, 2018). These have mostly looked into job crafting focusing on its approach features, where allocating resources is a response to cope with demands. However, few studies have focused on investigating how job crafting works in the presence of demanding work situations that hinder job effectiveness (Solberg & Wong, 2016), as well as how job crafting in its form of avoidance relates to this. Thus, more research in this direction is needed.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Although we did not fully find support for our theoretical model, we want to highlight the relevance of some of our findings and its practical implications, as job crafting has enormous potential in improving individuals experience of their job roles.

First, we highlight the relevance of structural resources for their impact in employee's intrinsic motivation and perceptions of self-efficacy, as our results showed a positive link between these two relationships. Resources are instrumental in increasing personal self-efficacy and motivation. Therefore, because of the resources power to increase capabilities, skills and abilities, it is important to continuously provide employees with formal and informal opportunities of training and actualization that help them gain personal and structural resources. Further, organizations and HR initiatives should aim to align their processes, practices and policies to foster cultures of information sharing, continuous feedback, networking, team building, among others. In this way, employees can get to know more about the challenges in the organization and what others around them do, so they can find ways to contribute better, while experiencing greater satisfaction from their job experience and performance. In addition, emphasis in resources is relevant because in the light of JD-R (A. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), resources have the potential to buffer the impact of job demands, by providing resources than can be instrumental to achieve more challenges, or by providing resources to better cope with hindering demands.

Second, in regard to employees crafting to reduce hindering demands, managers and HR functions should be aware of the relevance in identifying employees who seem to be, for any reason, socially isolated from their environment.

From our research, we saw that this tended to have a negative effect on beliefs of self-efficacy. Moreover, it is assumed that this contact withdrawal can eventually threaten organizational effectiveness of employees. In this sense, it is advisable that managers timely identify employees who seem to reduce or avoid contact with people at work and be proactive in addressing the matter and investigating employees underlying motives and needs. It is very likely that in the presence of high-quality relationships between leaders and followers, employees can feel more comfortable to look for support in situations of high strain (i.e. role overload, stress, burnout). This would help to reach mutual agreements (e.g. goal setting, job redesign) that can result in negotiated demand reductions without negatively impacting self-image, performance perceptions, or business effectiveness.

Moreover, while reducing demands might improve mental and physical well-being, it is a behavior that does not necessarily fosters growth. Thus, it would be more useful to learn to overcome and face hindering demands. For example, framing them as challenges can lead to increased skills, mastery experiences and higher levels of intrinsic motivation when the level of challenge is in line with an employee's capacity. By promoting an attitude of approach, as opposed to withdrawal, we would aim to promote experiences that generate commitment, satisfaction and engagement.

In sum, job crafting can be of equally great value to individuals and organizations, to improve employees' proactive behaviors and performance. By creating and facilitating the right conditions and resources, employees can experience freedom to engage in job crafting behaviors. This can in turn stimulate them to do more than is required from their job, and to experience greater levels of engagement and satisfaction in their roles. Experiencing positive emotions at work through job crafting, can lead not only to better performance that goes beyond work descriptions, but to confident employees who can take on challenges on their own initiative. As a final takeout, we believe reducing demands should be viewed as a way to free up cognitive resources. If employees effectively reduce hindering demands, they can free capacity to invest energy in activities that promote growth and learning, resulting in positive performance outcomes. Under these circumstances, reducing demands contributes positively to effectiveness, as it serves as a behavioral mechanism to prevent strain and exhaustion, as opposed to neglection of responsibilities.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we have examined the predictive relationships of distinct job crafting forms and leader-rated performance outcomes. Further, we looked into job crafting and its relationship with employees' self-perceptions of OSE, IM and RO. Our findings suggest that the approach forms of job crafting, increasing resources and increasing challenges, seemed to influence employee's self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation. However, we found no significant relationship between these forms of job crafting and performance.

Nonetheless, our findings suggest that reducing hindering demands associated with physical and mental well-being, is negatively related to leader's perception of performance. This indicates that this type of job crafting might be more visible or important to managers. Moreover, reducing contact with others affected employees' perceptions of occupational self-efficacy. We therefore encourage future research to investigate the real impacts of decreasing hindering demands on performance.

Having more knowledge on how and why employees craft to reduce hindering demands could help managers to effectively support employees and protect their well-being, rather than penalizing them for reducing strain.

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Appendix

Appendix 1: principal component analysis with promax rotation – employee rated items
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Appendix 3: Time 1 employee survey
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Appendix 1 - Principal Component Analysis with Promax Rotation

Employee rated items

Items	IR_structural	IR_social	IC	RD_demands	RD_contact	RO	IM	OSE	LMX
IRStructural01: I work actively to increase my personal capabilities.	0.8								
IRStructural02: I make an effort to increase my professional skills and abilities.	0.87								
IRStructural03: I make an effort to gain knowledge about new things at work.	0.59								
IRSocial05: I ask my supervisor for help with improving my performance (i.e, I ask him or her to "coach" me).		0.56							
IRSocial06: I ask my colleagues and/or supervisor for advice on what I should do in certain work situations.		0.84							
IC01: When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as project co-worker.			0.77						
IC03: When there is not much to do at work, I see it as a chance to start new projects.			0.76						
IC05: I ask for more tasks if I finish my work.			0.75						
IC06: I ask for more responsibilities.			0.84						
RD_demands01: I make sure that my work is mentally less intense.				0.93					
RD_demands02: I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense.				0.93					
RD_contact03: I manage my work so that I try to minimize contact with people whose problems affect me emotionally.					0.73				
RD_contact04: I organize my work so as to minimize contact with people whose expectations are unrealistic.					0.68				
RO01: The amount of work you have to do comes into conflict with how well you can do your work?						0.85			
RO02: You don't have enough support and resources to do a good job?						0.66			
RO03: You don't have enough time to do a good job?						0.86			

IM01: The tasks that I do at work are enjoyable.	0.89			
IM02: I find the job that I do to be interesting.	0.89			
IM03: The work I do is personally meaningful to me.	0.79			
OSE01: Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.		0.85		
OSE02: I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.		0.89		
OSE03: I remain calm when facing difficulties in my job, because I can rely on my ability to deal with them.		0.7		
LMX02: How well does your immediate manager understand the problem and needs you encounter in your work?				0.69
LMX04: To what extent would your immediate manager use his influence to help you with difficulties in your work?				0.93
LMX05: To what extent would your immediate manager stand up for you if it was at his / her own expense?				0.75
LMX06: I have so much confidence in my immediate manager that I will defend his / her decisions when he / she is not present				0.51
LMX07: How would you characterize your relationship with your immediate manager in terms of efficiency in your cooperation between you?				0.56

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Only factor loadings above .35 are shown.

Coding:

IR_Structural = Increasing resources_Structural

IR_Social = Increasig resources_Social

IC = Increasing challenges

RD_demands = Reducing demands_demands

RD_contact = Reducing demands_contact

RO = Role overload

IM = Intrinsic motivation

OSE = Occupational self-efficacy

LMX = Leader-member exchange

Removed items

IR_social04: I ask others for feedback on my job performance, i.e., information to help me improve	0.36	0.44

IC02: If there are new developments at work, I am one of the first to try them out	-0.38	0.38	
IC04: I regularly take on extra tasks even though I do not receive extra salary for them		0.48	
LMX01: Do you usually know how satisfied your immediate manager is with the work you do?	Item loaded in an additional component not shown		
LMX03: How well does your closest leader know your capacity and your abilities?	Item loaded in an additional component not shown		
RD_contact05: I try to simplify the complexity of my tasks at work.			0.73

Appendix 2 - Principal Component Analysis

Leader rated items

Item	Task Proficiency	Task Adaptivity	Task Proactivity
TProf01: Carried out the core parts of his/her job well	0.734	0.524	0.758
TProf02: Completed his/her core tasks well using the standard procedures	0.668	0.443	0.770
TProf03: Ensured his/her tasks were completed properly			0.832
TAdap01: (He/She) Adapted well to changes in core tasks	0.875	0.454	0.415
TAdap02: Coped with changes to the way he/she has to do his/her core task	0.867	0.443	
TAdap03: Learned new skills to help him/her adapt to changes in his/her core tasks	0.839	0.518	0.473
TProact01: Initiated better ways of doing his/her core tasks	0.539	0.859	0.463
TProact02: Come up with ideas to improve the way in which his/her core tasks are done	0.381	0.866	0.539
TProact03: Made changes to the way his/her core tasks are done	0.473	0.770	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix 3 - Time 1 Employee survey

Job Crafting

Increase resources | Increase challenges | Reduce hindering demands

In the following survey you will be presented with questions regarding your behavior in various situations you may encounter at work.

Please indicate how often you have engaged in this behavior

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	Every time
1. I work actively to increase my personal capabilities.[1]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
2. I make an effort to increase my professional skills and abilities.[1]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
3. I make an effort to gain knowledge about new things at work.[1]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
4. I ask my supervisor for help with improving my performance (i.e, I ask him or her to "coach" me).[1,2]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
5. I ask others for feedback on my job performance, i.e., information to help me improve.[1,2]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
6. I ask my colleagues and/or supervisor for advice on what I should do in certain work situations.[1,2]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

7. I try to develop my professional network at work.[3]*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. I try to make friends with people at work.[3]*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. When an interesting project comes along, I offer myself proactively as project co-worker.[1]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. If there are new developments, I am one of the first to learn about them and try them out.[1]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. When there is not much to do at work, I see it as a chance to start new projects.[1]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. I regularly take on extra tasks even though I do not receive extra salary for them.[1]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. I ask for more tasks if I finish my work.[2]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. I ask for more responsibilities.[2]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. I ask for more odd jobs.[3]*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. I take on new work activities in order to make my work more challenging.[3]*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. I make sure that my work is mentally less intense.[1,2]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense.[1,2]	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19. I manage my work so that I try to minimize contact with people whose problems affect me emotionally.[1]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
20. I organize my work so as to minimize contact with people whose expectations are unrealistic[1]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
21. I try to simplify the complexity of my tasks at work.[2]	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
22. I find ways to outsource parts of my work that require too much physical, emotional, or mental effort to others.[3]*	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
23. I find ways to reduce overly time-consuming tasks.[3]*	□	□	□	□	□	□	□
24. I seek out ways to do less of the work tasks that I least enjoy doing.[3]*	□	□	□	□	□	□	□

[1]Tims et al., [2]Petrou et al., [3]Other

*Items removed before Principal Component Analysis.

Demographics

1. Gender	Male □	Female □				
2. Age	18-25 □	26-30 □	31-40 □	41-50 □	50 + □	
3. Level of studies	Primary School □		High School □	Bachelor □	Masters □	PhD □

4. How long have you worked in the company?	<1 year □	1-2 years □	3-5 years □	6-10 years □	10 + years □
5. How long have you been working in your current position?	<1 year □	1-2 years □	3-5 years □	6-10 years □	10 + years □
6. How long have you been working under your current manager?	<1 year □	1-2 years □	3-5 years □	6-10 years □	10 + years □

Appendix 4 - Time 2 Employee survey

In this last survey you will be asked about your work tasks, motivations, and well-being. Towards the end, you will have some questions about your relationship with your immediate superior.

Role overload (RO)

How often do you experience the following:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Quite often	Almost always
1. The amount of work you have to do comes into conflict with how well you can do your work.	□	□	□	□	□
2. You don't have enough support and resources to do a good job.	□	□	□	□	□
3. You don't have enough time to do a good job.	□	□	□	□	□

Intrinsic motivation (IM)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. The tasks that I do at work are enjoyable.	□	□	□	□	□
2. I find the job that I do to be interesting.	□	□	□	□	□
3. The work I do is personally meaningful to me.	□	□	□	□	□

Occupational self-efficacy (OSE)

To what extent do you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.	□	□	□	□	□
2. I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.	□	□	□	□	□
3. I remain calm when facing difficulties in my job, because I can rely on my ability to deal with them.	□	□	□	□	□

Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX)

Please provide the answer that better reflects your relationship.

	Not at all	To a small degree	To some degree	To a large extent	To a very large extent
1. Do you usually know how satisfied your immediate manager is with the work you do?	□	□	□	□	□
2. How well does your immediate manager understand the problem and needs you encounter in your work?	□	□	□	□	□
3. How well does your closest leader know your capacity and your abilities?	□	□	□	□	□
4. To what extent would your immediate manager use his influence to help you with difficulties in your work?	□	□	□	□	□

5. To what extent would your immediate manager stand up for you if it was at his / her own expense?	□	□	□	□	□
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
6. I have so much confidence in my immediate manager that I will defend his / her decisions when he / she is not present.	□	□	□	□	□
	Not at all effective	Little effective	Sometimes effective	Usually effective	Extremely effective
7. How would you characterize your relationship with your immediate manager in terms of efficiency in your cooperation between you?	□	□	□	□	□

Appendix 5 - Leader survey

In this survey, you will be asked questions about each of your employee's task execution, adaptivity and proactivity. It is important that you respond objectively to the survey and try as best as you can to not establish comparisons between the employees.

Performance

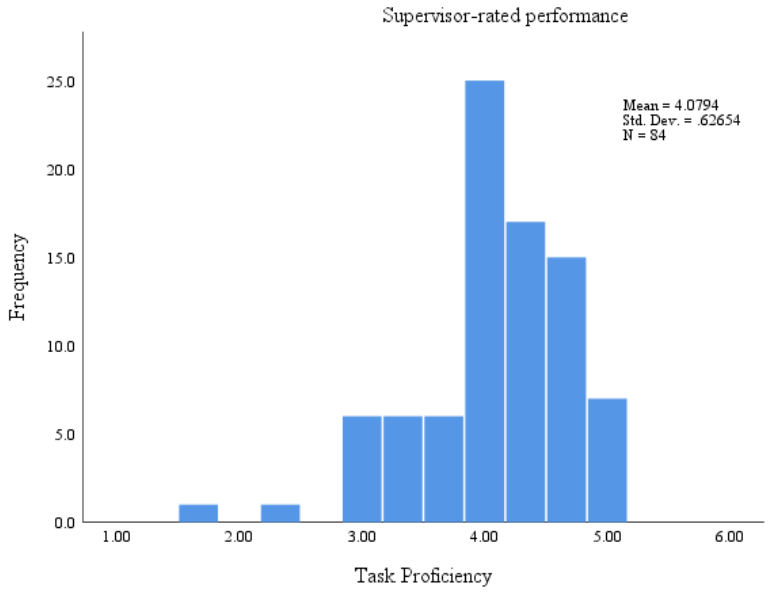
Task Proficiency | Adaptivity | Proactivity

To what extent has the employee:	Not at all	To a small degree	To some degree	To a large extent	To a very large extent
	□	□	□	□	□
1. Carried out the core parts of his/her job well.	□	□	□	□	□
2. Completed his/her core tasks well using the standard procedures.	□	□	□	□	□
3. Ensured his/her tasks were completed properly.	□	□	□	□	□
4. (He/She) Adapted well to changes in core tasks.	□	□	□	□	□
5. Coped with changes to the way he/she has to do his/her core tasks.	□	□	□	□	□
6. Learned new skills to help him/her adapt to changes in his/her core tasks.	□	□	□	□	□
7. Initiated better ways of doing his/her core tasks.	□	□	□	□	□
8. Come up with ideas to improve the way in which his/her core tasks are done.	□	□	□	□	□
9. Made changes to the way his/her core tasks are done.	□	□	□	□	□

Table 2: Descriptive statistics performance dimensions

	Task proficiency	Adaptive performance	Proactive performance
Mean	4.08	3.91	3.59
Median	4.00	4.00	3.50
Std. Deviation	0.63	0.68	0.80
Variance	0.39	0.47	0.64
Range	3.33	3.00	4.00

Figure 2: Distribution of leader-rated performance scores



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Summary

We have identified a research gap in the job crafting theory and want to investigate further the relationship between different types of job crafting and different kinds of performance. Following the introduction, relevant research in within the field of job crafting is presented, together with the conceptualization of the different kinds of job crafting that we will use as a base for our thesis. Further, we expect a positive relationship between job crafting and performance. Relevant literature and research on this concept, that has previously been related to job crafting, will be presented and linked to our conceptualization of job crafting. We then link our mediators, intrinsic motivation and occupational self-efficacy, to our model and present our hypotheses.

In the final section, an overview of our sample, procedure and measure is given, together with a short draft of our planned analytical strategy. Finally, an action plan of the following months up until the hand-in date is presented.

1. INTRODUCTION

The research on job crafting began when Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identified a gap in research when it comes to what composes the experience of a job. Research up until this point had focused mainly on individual determinants or external characteristics of the job it-self. In Wrzensiewski and Dutton's opinion, there was a lack of research that gave attention to how employees play an active role in shaping their job tasks and work environment. Studying job crafting provides an addition to research and have practical implications for work life in the sense that it could give light to how employees create their work identities and create work meaning. Job crafting was first defined by Wrzensiewski and Dutton (2001) as "the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in a task or relation boundaries of their job". Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2012) later provided a second perspective of job crafting, focusing on resources and demands, as well as person-job fit. They defined job crafting as "the changes that employees may make to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs". In addition to a a new definition for job crafting, they also developed the first quantitative research and measure of the concept.

Recent research from Bruning and Campion (2018) and Zhang and Parker (2018) has tried to integrate the two aforementioned perspectives and categorize different types of job crafting. Job crafting has also been linked to other relevant concepts such as motivation, self-efficacy, work roles and performance, to mention a few. Within the research on job crafting and performance, Leana, Appelbaum, and Shevchuk (2009) studied teachers in childcare centers and found a positive relationship between collaborative crafting and performance. In addition, Tims et al. (2012) found a positive relationship between job crafting and peer-rated performance. These researchers have linked job crafting to performance in general, however Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) presents a model of performance where individual performance is divided into three separate outcomes. In light of recent job crafting research, that has categorized job crafting into different kinds of job crafting (Bruning and Campion (2018), Zhang and Parker (2018)), a gap in the literature can be identified. Although different researchers have found positive

relationship between job crafting and performance, attention has not been given to how different kinds of job crafting lead to different kinds of performance.

Other researchers have also investigated the relationship between job crafting and self-efficacy (Tims, B. Bakker, & Derks, 2014). Self-efficacy concerns a person's belief of their ability to succeed within a given situation or with a task (Albert Bandura, 1982). General self-efficacy is related to a specific task or situation, making it difficult to compare across situations and tasks. In order to compare data from several employees in different organizations performing different tasks, the concept of occupational self-efficacy is more relevant. Occupational self-efficacy can be defined as "the competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008). The concept of self-efficacy has previously also been linked to performance.

In a similar way, the link between job crafting and intrinsic motivation has been previously been researched and analyzed. In particular under the reasons-to that precede proactive behaviors (i.e. motivation to craft) (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015). This view considers that job crafters undertake tasks that they find interesting and rewarding, which fills them with achievement, enjoyment and meaning.

We therefore expect that job crafting will have a positive relationship to performance, and that occupational self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation will mediate the relationship between job crafting and performance.

The contribution of this research is as follows. While previous research has linked job crafting outcomes to performance, little is known about how different kinds of job crafting, in this case resource and demands crafting, relate to different kinds of individual performance. By integrating the frameworks from Zhang and Parker (2018) and Griffin et al. (2007) we aim to validate the relationships between them. Further, we propose intrinsic motivation and occupational-self efficacy as mediators between job crafting and perceived performance. In the ever-changing world of work, employees are expected to anticipate and create changes to the way they perform, manage and succeed in their tasks (Grant & Parker, 2009). Knowing exactly the type of performance is attained through each form of job crafting, as well as potential mediators in this relationships employees and managers can take advantage in promoting and enacting job crafting behaviors to attain specific outcomes.

2. THEORY AND HYPOTHESIS

Job crafting

Job crafting is a relatively new concept within the organizational behavior field. So far, there has been a lack of consistency in its study, resulting in different definitions and approaches. Nevertheless, as noted by Tims et al. (2012) job crafting central characteristic is that employees alter their tasks or job characteristics on their own initiative. In this regard, job crafting has been associated with proactive work behaviors (Berg et al. (2010), Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001)) as well as with bottom-up job design theories (Kulik, Oldham, & Hackman, 1987).

Two different perspectives

Today, there exist two dominant perspectives with distinct theoretical backgrounds on job crafting. Originally, job crafting was a term coined by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) who defined it as "the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in a task or relational boundaries of their job". By affecting these elements, individuals alter the design of the job and the social environment in which they perform. From their standpoint, employees craft their jobs to revise their work identities and to enhance meaningfulness from their job. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argue for three types of crafting: task crafting (i.e. take on more tasks of interest), relational crafting (i.e. change quality and/or amount of interaction with others) and cognitive crafting (i.e. altering their perception of tasks that comprise their jobs). In this framework, employees are motivated to craft in order to fulfill three individual needs. First, they engage in job crafting to gain control over their jobs and their environments. Second, one of the pillars of social identity theory, is the construction of a positive self-image. In work life, individuals are driven to create positive images of themselves at work (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994). This drive becomes particularly salient when the job itself makes this so-called positive construction of the self, difficult (e.g. low status jobs). Thirdly, in their need for human connection, employees build relationships with others at work to reframe the meaning of work and their work identities (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Through these relationships, employees make a different sense of who they are at work and why their work matters. Moreover,

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) argue that motivation to craft a job will most often occur in situations where employees feel their needs are not met in their job as it is currently designed.

Tims et al. (2012) proposed the second dominant perspective in job crafting research. They defined it as "the changes that employees may make to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs". Their definition was theoretically framed in the job demands-resources JD-R model from Bakker and Demerouti (2007). In this sense, according to their model, job demands refer to aspects of the job that require sustained physical, emotional or mental effort. Job resources, on the other hand, refer to the aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, stimulate personal growth and development, or reduce job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In Tims et al. (2012) perspective, job crafting can take form of any of the following dimensions: increase structural job resources (e.g. search for opportunities of development), increase social job resources (e.g. ask for feedback or support), increase challenging job demands (e.g. take on extra tasks), and decrease hindering job demands (e.g. make job less emotionally intense or dissatisfying). Under Tims et al. (2012) perspective, motivation to craft is a response to a perceived imbalance between job resources and demands, in order to achieve a better person-job fit. In this sense, person-job fit defined by Edwards (1991) refers to "the alignment between a person's characteristics (e.g., knowledge, abilities, needs, and preferences) and the characteristics of the job or tasks (e.g., requirements, demands and supplies) that are performed at work".

Although both main perspectives imply that employees can expand and/or shrink their job roles, the perspectives differ in important ways (Zhang and Parker (2018). To mention some, first, they differ on the motives underpinning the job crafting behavior (i.e. increase meaning vs. achieve person-job fit). Second, measurements, research in Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) has been qualitative, while Tims et al. (2012) represents the first qualitative approach in the matter, making it difficult to contrast and compare findings as there is no established general measure for the construct. Third, as there is no single definition of the

construct, it has been challenging to differentiate job crafting from other types of proactive behaviors (e.g. initiative, taking charge).

Integrative research

In addition to the two main dominant frameworks discussed, there exist recent efforts to integrate both perspectives (i.e., Bruning and Campion (2018), Zhang and Parker (2018)) and further job crafting research. Bruning and Campion (2018) defined job crafting as "the changes to a job that workers make with the intention of improving the job for themselves". They categorized and defined research from Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) as "role-based crafting" and Tims et al. (2012) as "resource-based crafting". Also, they proposed that crafting can take approach and avoidance forms. Hence, based on transactive theories, individuals can confront demands as challenges, or avoid them as threats (Bruning & Campion, 2018). Although their contribution to integrate perspectives and create two main distinctions in the literature is very valuable, it also comes with some limitations, as items to measure either form of crafting overlap with each other as noted by Zhang and Parker (2018).

A more recent publication by Zhang and Parker (2018) integrated and reviewed job crafting research, including the above-mentioned framework by Bruning and Campion (2018). Their contribution consists on the development of a hierarchical structure of job crafting concepts at three levels. First, job crafting orientation: approach versus avoidance crafting. Second, job crafting form: cognitive versus behavioral crafting. And third, job crafting content: resources versus demands crafting, which captures the different ways that individuals craft their jobs (Zhang & Parker, 2018). Their contribution is relevant in the research field as it provides a useful way to review the antecedents and consequences of job crafting.

Defining characteristics

Moreover, a major contribution from Bruning and Campion (2018) research is that they synthetized and summarized the defining characteristics of job crafting. This helps us to identify what job crafting implies, as well as, what it is not. First, job crafting is self-targeted and intended to benefit the individual. Second, job

crafting involves volitional, conscious and intentional change. Third, job crafting relates to significant and noticeable deviations from pre-crafted job. Fourth, job crafting should result in permanent or semi-permanent changes rather than temporary ones. Fifth, job crafting aims to change the job role rather than the leisure time. Sixth, job crafting applies to jobs with clear job description as opposed to self-created jobs. In addition, Zhang and Parker (2018) contributed with two additional characteristics; seventh, job crafting occurs within the acceptance of one's boss or peers, and requiring formal approval is not necessary. And lastly, eight, job crafting involves changing the intrinsic characteristics of one´s job rather than extrinsic characteristics such as pay.

For aims of our thesis research we will base our conceptualization of job crafting on Zhang and Parker's (2018) categorization of job crafting content (i.e. demands and resources) which is more aligned with Tims et al. (2012) conceptual framework. Where job demands refer to the aspects of the job that require sustained physical, emotional or mental effort; which can be dealt by increasing challenges or decreasing hindrance of demands. While job resources refer to the aspects of the job that are functional in achieving work goals, stimulate personal growth and development (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Hence, we will utilize the following definition from Petrou, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2018) who defined job crafting as "voluntary self-initiated employee behaviors targeted at seeking resources (i.e., asking a manager or colleagues for advice), seeking challenges (i.e., asking for more responsibilities), and reducing demands (i.e., eliminating emotional, mental, or physical job demands)."

Performance

Measuring performance is of great interest to researchers, as well as stakeholders and shareholders in organizations, as it is often an indicator of effectiveness (Richard, Devinney, Yip, & Johnson, 2009). Performance can be measured on different levels, such as organizational level, team level and individual level. Relevant to this thesis is performance on an individual level.

What is defined as work performance has changed considerably over the past 40 years. Before, as tasks were generally more standardized and fixed, effectiveness could more easily be defined as the outcome achieved by carrying out the specified behavior of the job (Griffin et al., 2007). In more recent years however, organizational life has changed, leading to different demands on the employees. This shift in demands has challenged the traditional views of individual work performance (Griffin et al., 2007). Howard (1995) points out to increased interdependence and uncertainty of work systems as two major changes to the nature of work and organizations. As traditional views did not consider this to the same extent, it can be argued that traditional views of work performance did not take into account the full range of behaviors that contribute to effectiveness when systems are uncertain and interdependent (Griffin et al., 2007). As a response, constructs like citizenship performance, adaptive performance and proactivity have been introduced (Griffin et al., 2007). Another factor that has gained attention in contemporary studies of performance is the importance of context. For instance, Ilgen and Hollenbeck (1991) argue that "the nature of work role cannot be divorced from the context in which they are enacted".

Griffin et al. (2007) presented a performance model which proposes that context shapes and constrains the behaviors that will be valued in an organization. In this model, uncertainty and interdependence are considered as two important features of context that organizations must manage to be effective. Their model comprises three levels (organizational, team and individual) and on an individual level the model includes individual task proficiency, individual task adaptivity and individual task proactivity. Individual task proficiency regards behaviors that can be formalized and that are not embedded in a social context. These behaviors reflect the degree to which an employee meets the known expectations and the requirements of the role he or she is in (Griffin et al., 2007). Task proficiency is closely related to concepts such as "task performance" and "job role behavior", to mention a few (Griffin et al., 2007).

Further, the model includes individual task adaptivity. Due to changes in the environment or technologies result in unexpected changes to work requirements come about. To be effective, employees need to adapt to or cope with these changes. Individual task adaptivity reflects "the degree to which individuals cope with, respond to, and/or support changes that affect their roles as individual" (Griffin et

al., 2007). Individual task adaptivity becomes especially important in times when the organization is introducing new technology or when changes to the work description is made, as these types of changes also require that individuals adjust their workplace behaviors. Lastly, under uncertainty, individuals in organizations must also anticipate and act upon the external environment in order to achieve effective outcomes. Individual task proactivity is therefore defined as "the extent to which individuals engage in self-starting, future-oriented behaviors to change their individual work situations, their individual work roles or themselves" (Griffin et al., 2007). Griffin et al. (2007)'s model of performance will be the basis for our understanding and measure of performance.

2.1 Employee job crafting and individual performance

Several studies have linked performance and job crafting together. Leana et al. (2009) studied teachers in childcare centers and found that collaborative crafting was positively related to performance, resulting in better communications, more efficient collaboration and greater productivity. Tims et al. (2012) also found a positive relationship between job crafting and peer-rated performance. Further, as job crafting itself is identified as a proactive behavior, we wish to build on models of proactive motivation (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010) to explore the process in which different forms of job crafting relate to performance. As stressed in Tims et al. (2012), employees taking initiative to change or alter their work environments are likely to contribute to organizational effectiveness. In a more recent article by Bruning and Campion (2018), resource crafting was also found to be related to increased performance. Based on these previous studies, we assume that job crafting will be positively related to performance. Job crafters make changes to their work environment, providing them with the resources needed to perform their tasks, increase challenging job demands or to avoid hindering demands. This may lead them to craft their way to tasks they are able to succeed on, or access to resources that can help them to achieve their goals. We therefore expect that employees that undertake job crafting behaviors, will be perceived to perform better.

Although different studies have found a positive relationship between job crafting and performance, the research has not considered how the different kinds

of job crafting could lead to different kinds of performance. Therefore, considering this gap in the reviewed literature on job crafting, we aim to investigate how different kind/forms of job crafting (i.e. resources and demands) relate to different kinds of individual performance, using the performance model developed by Griffin et al. (2007). Thus we hypothesize the following model:

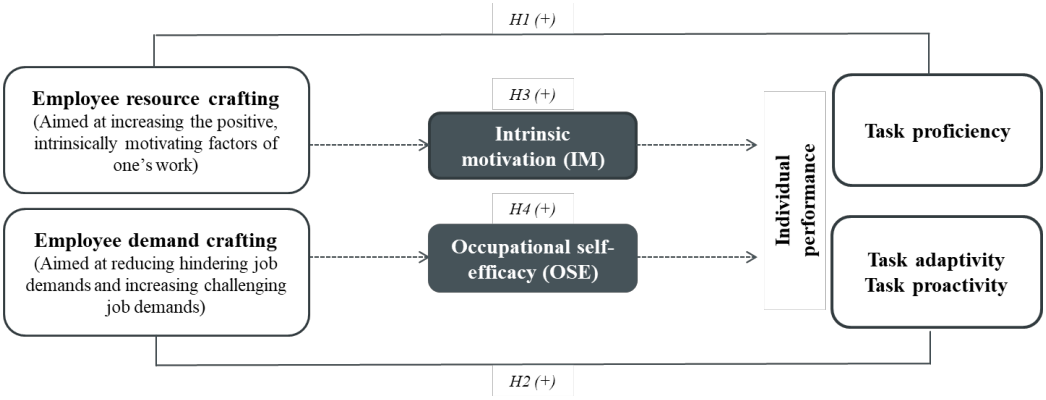

Figure 1. Conceptual model: Job crafting and individual performance

It is expected that employee resource crafting would be more important for individual task proficiency defined as "the degree to which an employee meets the known expectations and the requirements of his or her role as an individual" (Griffin et al., 2007, p. 331). Since resource crafting is a way of making work more meaningful, contributing to personal engagement, it is expected that people will work towards meeting the role expectations, resulting in task proficiency. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

> *Hypothesis 1: Employee resource crafting will relate positively with individual job performance.*

On the other hand, we expect that demands crafting would be more important for change-oriented performance, including *individual task adaptivity*, defined as "the degree to which individuals cope with, response to, and/or support changes that affect their roles as individuals" (Griffin et al., 2007, p. 331), and *individual task proactivity*, defined as "extent to which individuals engage in self-starting, future oriented behavior to change their individual work situations, their individual work roles, or themselves" (Griffin et al., 2007, p. 332). This due to the fact that employees demands-craft to manage work requirements in a more efficient and

effective way; by increasing challenging demands and decreasing the hindering demands. This way of crafting their work demands, leads us to assume that individuals will become more proactive and adaptable with regards to tasks. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 2: Employee demands crafting will relate positively with individual job performance.

2.2 The mediating role of Intrinsic Motivation (IM)

In the light of proactive motivation theory, Parker et al. (2010) discussed the can-do and reason-to behind proactivity. Can-do motivation comes from perceptions of control and self-efficacy, while reason-to motivation is related to why-reasons which can, to a great extent, be derived from intrinsic motivation. Researchers have discussed the importance of can-do and reason-to motivation and generally concludes that although individuals might feel able to improve their work situations, they might not have a compelling reason to do so. Thus, in the case of self-initiated goals, as job crafting behavior is, the reason-to might be more important for proactive goal attainment resulting in better performance.

Deci and Ryan (2000) defined intrinsic motivation (IM) as "the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn". They suggested that IM is driven by an interest and enjoyment of the task itself, and that this feeling relies within the person, and not on external forces.

Job crafting - Intrinsic motivation

According to the JD-R model of resources and demands, that resources lead to engagement in forms of intrinsic motivation by fulfilling basic human needs at work (employees' growth, learning and development) or achieving work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). As job crafting entails a proactive attitude towards improving one's situation, we would assume it will be used as a means to realize the internal needs of individuals at work. We therefore expect a positive relationship between resource job crafting and intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation - Performance

Also, research from Bakker, Tims, and Derks (2012) found that work enjoyment from crafting resources and challenges at work (namely intrinsic motivation), was the strongest predictor of others' ratings of an employee's performance. We would assume that the more employees seek resources at work (autonomy, feedback,

social support), the more they become more intrinsically motivated and engaged. In turn, this engagement and possession of resources will lead them to a better performance.

Therefore, it is expected that intrinsic motivation will be a mediating factor between resource crafting and performance. Consequently, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 3: Intrinsic motivation mediates the positive relationship between employee resource crafting and perceived job performance (task proficiency).

2.3 The mediating role of Occupational self-efficacy (OSE)

The concept of self-efficacy derives from the social cognitive theory of self-regulation (Albert Bandura, 1991) and can be defined as " how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (Albert Bandura, 1982). In other words, it concerns a person's belief of their ability to succeed within a given situations or with a task. Self-efficacy is different from self-esteem, as self-esteem is more constant across situations and time. Self-efficacy, as mentioned, concerns a person's belief of their ability to succeed in a specific situation.

Self-efficacy has been of great interest to researchers and has been widely studied within organizational research. Self-efficacy is seen as a personal resource (Rigotti et al., 2008), and employee's high self-efficacy is thought have an impact on the results in an organization. To measure and compare self-efficacy in organizations, has therefore been of interest to researchers. There are different ways to measure self-efficacy. A. Bandura (1977) suggests that the task in question should be specified when assessing self-efficacy, or else it will not serve as a good predictor. However, specifying the task makes it difficult to measure and compare across organizations and tasks.

Occupational self-efficacy is a concept that deals with self-efficacy as a domain-specific assessment and can be defined as "the competence that a person feels concerning the ability to successfully fulfill the tasks involved in his or her job" (Rigotti et al., 2008). There are several measures for this concept, however the measure developed by Schyns and Von Collani (2002) is well-established and used by researchers.

Job crafting and self-efficacy

We assume that job crafting will relate positively to self-efficacy. As occupational self-efficacy concerns the thought of one's ability fulfill job tasks, it is expected that employees that have higher occupational self-efficacy, will have more confidence to change their environment and demonstrate proactive behaviors. We therefore expect a positive relationship between job crafting and occupational self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy and performance

Perceived self-efficacy is thought to affects what tasks people pressure and how much effort they put into completing the task (A. Bandura, 1977). This effort that employees put into completing the tasks is believed to have an effect on performance. Several researchers have investigated this relationship between self-efficacy and performance. For instance, in a meta-analysis by Judge and Bono (2001), self-efficacy was found to be positively related to performance. The same goes for a meta-analysis by Stajkovic, Luthans, and Eisenberg (1998) that found a positive relationship between self-efficacy and performance. The finding of these researchers shows that self-efficacy has predictive validity for performance.

As we know that self-efficacy has been related both to job crafting and performance by researchers in the past, it is expected that occupational self-efficacy will mediate between demands crafting and performance. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 4: Occupational self-efficacy mediates the positive relationship between employee demands crafting and perceived job performance (task adaptivity & task proactivity).

3. RESEARCH METHOD AND DESIGN

Sample

Our data will be gathered from three different companies. Two of them are Norwegian, while one is an international company. Our survey will be distributed to the international company's employees on Norway. The companies operate within insurance, auditing and consumer goods, and all three are large companies

that are well-established within their field. The survey will be distributed to about 200 employees and their leaders, and we expect a response rate of about 50 percent, and therefore aim to have a final sample of approximately 100 participants. All the employees that will be asked to participate have so-called "office jobs" and all work for the most part in teams. The employees hold equivalent to associate or senior associate positions. For this study, employees and their immediate leaders will be asked to participate.

In order to successfully collect the data necessary data for this project, we are in need of data from both leaders and employees. The companies have been informed in advance that we are dependent on answers from both leaders and employees, this to ensure that we later can pair the answers.

Procedure

To explore the relationship between the variables in our model, as well as the relationship between the variables and mediators, we will use quantitative data analysis. The benefits of using quantitative data analysis over a qualitative analysis in this case, is that it will be easier to measure and compare, and it makes it more manageable to handle larger amounts of data. For our data collection, we are using a cross-section design, meaning that we are collecting data from more than one organization, we are collecting quantifiable data more or less simultaneously and we are investigating the relationship of a given set of variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

Three electronic surveys will be distributed at three different points in time. In the first wave of data collection, a self-report questionnaire will be sent to the employees to measure employee resource crafting and employee demand crafting. In addition, we will measure our control variables (age, gender, tenure, tenure in current position, and how long the participant has worked for their immediate leader) in this wave.

In the second wave of data collection, a questionnaire will be sent to the employees to measure intrinsic motivation and occupational self-efficacy. Shortly after, the leaders will be sent a questionnaire to rate the employee's performance. As can be understood, the measure of performance will happen after we have gathered data

on job crafting and the mediators from the employees. This is to prevent the data in that we gather from the employees to the affected by the measure of performance.

Measures

All the measures, except control variables, will be rated on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7(strongly agree). We have chosen to rate in terms of "Agreement" instead of frequency due to the fact that job crafting is a proactive behavior. We have chosen a scale from 1-7, rather than 1-5, to obtain more variability. We consider this the best option again because job crafting is a proactive behavior and not everyone will be engaging in it, necessarily. All questions will be asked using a time frame of 6-12 months. We have chosen to use a quite vide time frame, due to the fact that job crafting is behaviors that happens over time. Control variables will be measured either by dichotomous variables or interval variables (ratio variables). The control variables are included to establish pre-existing differences in our response group and the strengthen the internal validity (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

Moreover, employee resource crafting, employee demand crafting, intrinsic motivation and occupational self-efficacy will be measured through self-report questionnaires by the employees, while performance will be rated by the managers. The selected measures and items are taken and/or adapted from established pre-existing research on the concepts, based on those that we found more relevant and accurate to reflect our hypotheses. All of the survey items can be consulted under the Appendix section of this document.

- *Employee resource crafting:* To measure employee resource crafting, we will use items taken from Zhang and Parker (2018), Bruning and Campion (2018) and Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2014).
- *Employee demands crafting:* To measure employee demand crafting, we will use the items adapted and taken from Zhang and Parker (2018), Solberg and Wong (2016), Petrou, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2018), Tims, Bakker, and Derks (2012) and Bruning and Campion (2018).
- *Performance:* To measure performance we will use Griffin, Neal, and Parker (2007) model as a basis, using exclusively the items developed to measure performance on an individual level.

- *Intrinsic motivation:* To measure intrinsic motivation, we will use the measure developed by Gagné, Senecal, and Koestner (1997).
- *Occupational self-efficacy:* To measure occupational self-efficacy, we will use items from the scale developed by Schyns and Von Collani (2002).
- *Control variables:* The survey sent to the employees will include control variables such as gender (men/woman), age (rated on a interval scale), education (high school, bachelor, master) tenure in company (rated on an interval scale), tenure in current position (rated on an interval scale) and how long they have worked for their immediate leader (rated on an interval scale).

4. PLANNED ANALYTICAL STRATEGY

For our data analysis we will use SPSS and perform a regression analysis and mediation analysis. The data that we collect will re-coded, this to ensure that the participants remain anonymous. We have filled out and sent the application to NSD and are waiting for approval. We have also prepared the information letter that we plan to send to the respondents, which you can find attached in the appendix of this document.

Action plan towards final thesis submission

Activity	Date
Feedback from PTR submission	**Jan**
Preparations for data collection	**Jan**
Adapt NSD application (if needed)	
Finalize and review details of the selected measures	
Prepare questionnaire in Qualtrics	
Meet companies to establish time frames and logistics for the survey application	
Data collection and coding	**Feb - Apr**
1st wave – employees (Feb)	
2nd wave – employees (Mar-Apr)	
1st wave - leaders (Apr)	
Data analysis	**May - Jun**
Analyze data and results	
Sum-up findings	
Develop implications	
Draw conclusions	
Hand-in	**1st July**

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1 – Measurements

Variables	Items
Job Resources Crafting Zhang and Parker (2018), Bruning and Campion (2018), Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2014) RC=relational crafting TC=task crafting CC=cognitive crafting	• Initiated positive interactions with others at work. (RC) • Worked to improve my communication quality with others at work. (RC) • Sought out ways at work to increase my job autonomy. (TC) • Sought out job tasks in which I can learn new things at work. (TC) • Sought out ways to do more of the work tasks I like doing best. (TC) • Reframed my job or role in such a way as to perceive more positive aspects of the work. (CC) • Reminded myself about the significance my work has for the success of the organization. (CC) • Thought about the ways in which my work positively impacts my life. (CC)
Job Demands Crafting (reduce hindering demands) Zhang and Parker (2018), Solberg and Wong (2016)	• Initiated positive interactions with others at work. (RC) • Worked to improve my communication quality with others at work. (RC) • Sought out ways at work to increase my job autonomy. (TC) • Sought out job tasks in which I can learn new things at work. (TC) • Sought out ways to do more of the work tasks I like doing best. (TC) • Reframed my job or role in such a way as to perceive more positive aspects of the work. (CC) • Reminded myself about the significance my work has for the success of the organization. (CC) • Thought about the ways in which my work positively impacts my life. (CC)
Job Demands Crafting (increase challenging demands) Petrou et al. (2018), Tims et al. (2012), Bruning and Campion (2018)	• Asked for more job responsibilities.

- Offered myself proactively as project team member when an interesting project has come up.
- Started a new project when there hasn't been much to do at work.
- Been one of the first to learn about new developments in the organization.
- Taken on extra tasks and roles in the organization even though I do not receive extra salary for them.
- Tried to make my work more challenging.

Intrinsic Motivation

Gagné, Senecal, and Koestner (1997)

- The tasks that I do at work are enjoyable.
- I find the job that I do to be interesting.
- The work I do is personally meaningful to me.

Occupational self-efficacy

Schyns, Von Collani, and psychology (2002)

- Whatever comes my way in my job, I can usually handle it.
- I feel prepared for most of the demands in my job.
- I remain calm when facing difficulties in my job, because I can rely on my ability to deal with them.

Observed Individual Performance

Griffin et al. (2007)

TP=task proficiency TA=task adaptivity TPA=task proactivity

- Carried out the core parts of his/her job well. (TP)
- Completed his/her core tasks well using the standard procedures. (TP)
- Ensured his/her tasks were completed properly. (TP)
- (He/She) Adapted well to changes in core tasks. (TA)
- Coped with changes to the way he/she has to do his/her core tasks. (TA)
- Learned new skills to help him/her adapt to changes in his/her core tasks. (TA)
- Initiated better ways of doing his/her core tasks. (TPA)
- Come up with ideas to improve the way in which his/her core tasks are done. (TPA)
- Made changes to the way his/her core tasks are done. (TPA)

Control Variables

- Gender: men = 1 and woman= 0 do not identify as either= 2
- Age: will be measured using a five-item scale (18-25, 26-30, 31-40, 41-50 and above 50)
- Tenure in company? 0-12 months (less than 1 year), 1-3 year, 3-5 years and above 5 years

- Tenure in current position?0-12 months, 1-3 year, 3-5 years and above 5 years
- How long they have worked for immediate leader? 0-12 months, 1-3 year, 3-5 years and above 5 years
- Education (High School, Bachelor, Master, Ph.D. etc.)

Appendix 2 – NSD submitted information letter

LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT

TITLE OF STUDY

Job crafting: measuring reasons to craft and performance effects.

STUDENT RESEARCHERS

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Thesis research for obtaining the degree in MSc Leadership and Organizational Psychology.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

You are being asked to take part in a Master of Science thesis research study. Before you decide to participate in this study, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please read the following information carefully.

The purpose of this study is to investigate forms of job crafting and the reasons to craft, in connection with the perceived performance effects from this crafting. Job crafting has been defined as: "The changes to a job that workers make with the intention of improving the job for themselves". - Bruning and Campion (2018).

STUDY PROCEDURES

You will be presented with an electronic survey asking questions about workplace preferences, behaviors and attitudes. Please make sure to answer the entire survey. This will take you approximately 15-20 minutes.

Information will be collected at two points in time. Once data has been processed and analyzed as a whole, not individually, interpretations will be drawn. Finally, all data of participants will be anonymously treated and destroyed after research work has been submitted.

You may decline to answer any or all questions and you may terminate your involvement at any time if you choose.

BENEFITS

There will be no direct benefit to you for your participation in this study. However, we hope that the information obtained from this study may help to better understand and explain the motivations to craft in a job and the specific effects that each crafting form has in individual performance.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Your responses to this electronic survey will be anonymous. Every effort will be made by the researchers to preserve your confidentiality including the following:

- Assigning code numbers for participants that will be used on all research records.
- Keeping records and any other identifying participant information in a locked electronic file in the personal possession of the researchers and academic supervisor
- After research has been published and submitted, all data collected will be destroyed. And will not be used for other purposes or additional studies.

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in this study. If you decide to take part, you will be asked to agree to a consent affirmation. After you have agreed to the consent or completed the survey, you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed, your data will be deleted.

If you have questions at any time about this study, please contact the researchers whose contact information has been provided.

CONSENT

I have read, and I understand the provided information and have had the opportunity to ask questions. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason and without cost.

By clicking “continue”, I voluntarily agree to take part in this study.