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# Finding the fit: job Crafting as a Leadership Tool

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**Finding the Fit: Job Crafting as a Leadership Tool**

**Paul R. Johnson**

**Submitted in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the degree of  
Master of Arts in Leadership**

**AUGSBURG UNIVERSITY  
MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA**

**2018**

**MASTER OF ARTS IN LEADERSHIP  
AUGSBURG UNIVERSITY  
MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA**

**CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL**

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Abstract

## **Finding the Fit: Job Crafting as a Leadership Tool**

**Paul Johnson**

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Too many people go their entire lives in jobs that aren't quite the right fit. In fact, currently 70% of the American workforce is disengaged, a symptom of people feeling like the position or career they are in is not right for them. Some people end up switching jobs or careers multiple times throughout their life, while others may remain in a job they dislike.

The focus of my research was to look at a third possible solution for unhappy workers: job crafting. By giving workers the freedom to add new tasks or alter existing ones, expand or contract their social networks, or reframe the purpose and meaning of their work, they can gain a fresh perspective on the work they do and align their strengths and interests with the objectives of their job.

I explored this idea by doing a quantitative and qualitative study on the intersection of perceived level of job crafting and self-reported job satisfaction. The results showed that there was a significant positive correlation between the two variables. Qualitative analysis revealed that many participants were already engaging in job crafting behaviors and agreed that being able to job craft would increase their engagement at work.

Ultimately, this study was conducted to provide guidance and recommendations to leaders and management in business. Job crafting appears to be a viable solution for retaining talent and reengaging the workforce.

## Table of Contents

Introduction.....	3
Literature Review.....	4
Job Crafting.....	4
Motivations to Job Craft .....	6
Perceived Opportunities for Job Crafting .....	7
Support for Job Crafting .....	9
Related Concepts .....	12
Job Satisfaction .....	17
Job Satisfaction and Employee Engagement .....	18
Job Satisfaction and Turnover .....	22
Job Satisfaction and Employee Wellbeing .....	23
Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance.....	25
Leadership.....	26
Research Purpose.....	29
Research Questions.....	31
Methodology.....	31
Procedures.....	32
Participants.....	33
Measurement.....	33
Results.....	35
Discussion.....	46
Limitations .....	53

Future Research ..... 54

References ..... 56



## Introduction

A recent Gallup survey found that 70% of employees are not engaged at work, revealing the widespread challenges disengaged workers create for organizations such as loss of productivity and high attrition rates. Overall, the estimated costs to the U.S. economy due to disengaged workers are \$450 to \$550 billion a year (Sorenson & Garman, 2013). As a result, organizations and researchers are actively trying to discover what can be done to increase employee engagement.

Several studies have found that job satisfaction could be the key to increasing employee engagement (Abraham, 2012; Kamalanabhan, et. al. 2009; Garg & Kumar, 2012), showing a positive correlation between the two variables. Companies, therefore, are finding creative ways to provide incentives and fringe benefits for their employees in order to keep them happy and, ultimately, to get them to stay. Google designs their offices to be some of the most unique in the world, going to great lengths to create inspiring workspaces that are intended to retain talent and give their employees exciting fringe benefits. Google office spaces around the world offer features such as Lego rooms, bowling alleys, hammocks, sliding tubes between floors and scooters for employees to get from one meeting to the next (Dunne, 2014). Although these benefits undoubtedly attract talent and make their employees happy, companies are still searching for more impactful and sustainable strategies to increase job satisfaction.

There are many factors that make up job satisfaction, and researchers have long been trying to determine what organizations should do to increase levels of satisfaction among their employees. Companies have a lot to gain from high levels of job satisfaction, as it can lead to many benefits at individual, team and organizational levels. I will be exploring a new concept that, due to its characteristics and merits, has potential to be an effective tool that employees can

use to increase their own satisfaction: job crafting. I will do this by using quantitative and qualitative analysis to measure two variables: perceived levels of job crafting and self-reported job satisfaction. I will also argue that individuals in leadership should encourage and facilitate job crafting behaviors among their employees. The concepts that will be discussed in this research will be introduced below.

### Literature Review

Below I will discuss the existing literature in relation to job crafting and job satisfaction. I will provide the prevailing definitions of job crafting, as well as discuss why employees choose to job craft and the ideal conditions in which job crafting occurs. Additionally, I will present the support for job crafting and introduce related concepts. Finally, I will discuss job satisfaction and its link to metrics such as employee engagement, employee wellbeing, and turnover.

### Job Crafting

In 2001, Wrzesniewski and Dutton published a landmark article entitled “Crafting a Job: Revisioning Employees as Active Crafters of Their Work.” In this publication, the authors introduce job crafting, distinguishing it from similar concepts, defining motivations to job craft, and defining job crafting activities.

The authors define job crafting as “the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work” (2001, p. 179). Specifically, individuals change the physical task boundaries of their position by altering the form or number of activities they engage in. For example, a cook in a restaurant may spend a portion of their shift waiting tables because they enjoy speaking with patrons and finding out their preferred tastes. Changing the cognitive boundaries of the job involves altering the perception towards the meaning of the work. For example, a barista at a coffee shop may see their job not just as making espresso

drinks, but also helping people gain the energy they need to have a productive day at work or keeping students awake to study hard for a test. Finally, an accountant may seek out an individual in the marketing department to be an informal mentor because he is interested in going to college for marketing. It's important to note that job crafting is explicitly voluntary and is a bottom-up process; in other words, employees initiate job crafting activities without direction or sanction from leadership.

The authors argue that job crafting affects two different perceptions: meaning of the work and one's work identity. The former has been defined as "individuals' understandings of the purpose of their work or what they believe is achieved in the work" (Brief & Nord, 1990, as cited in Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Many employees will develop their own interpretation of why they perform the work they do. This may be influenced by their own internal motivations, or the perceptions of those around them (i.e., co-workers, leaders or stakeholders). One's work identity is internal; it is the way a person sees themselves in the context of their work in terms of what they do and who they interact with. Therefore, job crafting activities can be placed into three categories of activities: changing job tasks, changing the way one thinks about the relationship among tasks, or changing the interactions or relationships they have with others at work. At this juncture, it is important to point out that the authors maintain that job crafting is a neutral activity; whether or not these activities are good or bad for the organization depends entirely on the situation (2001, p. 180).

Tims et al. (2012) deepened the dimensions of job crafting by empirically defining four components of job crafting:

- 1) Increasing structural job resources: seeking out opportunities for development, autonomy or skill variety

- 2) Increasing social job resources: seeking social support, supervisory coaching or performance feedback
- 3) Increasing challenge job demands: increasing the difficulty of physical or cognitive tasks
- 4) Decreasing hindrance job demands: reducing or eliminating physical or cognitive tasks that are stressful or that lead to health problems

### Motivations to Job Craft

There are three motivations that initiate job crafting behaviors, the first being that employees need to have a sense of control over their work. Feeling in control has long been a deep need for humans, and we respond better in an environment where we have a sense of control whether it is actual or perceived (Adler, 1930, as cited in Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Individuals who job craft often change the nature of their job tasks or take on entirely new tasks, enabling them to take ownership of the work itself.

People also need to develop a positive sense of self in their own eyes (Steele, 1988, as cited in Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and in the eyes of others (Baumeister, 1982; Erez & Earley, 1993, as cited in Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). When people do not positively identify with the nature or the meaning of the work, they are motivated to change the tasks or develop a different perception of why or how they do the work. For example, an individual who is a garbage collector may be motivated to change the way they view or define their work due to a stigma around the profession. They may frame the work as being essential for beautifying cities and helping neighborhoods stay healthy, thus making the nature of their work not only more positive, but also appear to be more honorable.

The third motivation comes from another deep human need: the desire for human connection. Creating relationships with others has been found to be an effective way to enrich one's life with meaning (Baumeister & Leary, 1995, as cited in Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Individuals who are not satisfied with their relationships at work, especially those working in isolating positions, often create new connections with co-workers. For example, a bookkeeper at a company may be dissatisfied with his level of social interactions at work, noticing that it negatively affects his work. He may then begin to network within his company, collaborating on projects or simply socializing in order to make his work more enjoyable.

#### Perceived Opportunities for Job Crafting

In general, motivation to participate in job crafting behaviors stems from an overall dissatisfaction of the job. The employee, due to a lack of needs being met, seeks out ways to redesign their job in a way that improves their satisfaction with the specific tasks of the job, with whom they interact, or the perception they have of their work. In order to begin job crafting activities, there first must be a perceived opportunity to job craft. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) identify two specific contributors to perceived opportunities that are important factors in this research: 1) the level and form of task interdependence and 2) the level of discretion or freedom to job craft implied by monitoring systems in the job (p. 184). Task interdependence is a concept that was introduced by Scott (1987) and refers to “the extent of which the items or elements upon which work is performed or the work processes themselves are interrelated so that changes in the state of one element affect the state of the others” (p. 214). Organizational positions fall on a spectrum of task interdependent levels, depending on the nature of the work. An assembly line worker, for example, would have a position with a high level of task interdependence, giving them less freedom to take part in job crafting activities. A marketing

consultant, on the other hand, has the ability to create their own work, thus meaning they would have low task interdependence. The latter would then have more of an ability to job craft, given the fact that changing one of their tasks would likely have little effect on the other parts of work. The opportunities to job craft for the subjects of this study vary, considering that the sample includes a variety of job descriptions.

The second contributor to perceived opportunities to job craft is how closely supervision monitors tasks. In other words, if leadership within the company keeps a close eye on the day-to-day activities of their employees, the latter will believe that it will be difficult to change their tasks without supervision intervening. It is important to note here that job crafting is largely done without explicit permission or sanction from their direct supervisor or upper management. One of the objectives of this research is to make a case for leadership to become directly involved in the support, encouragement and execution of job crafting behaviors among their employees. By discovering a positive relationship between employees who job craft and their job satisfaction, it can lead to a strong argument that leaders—and organizations as a whole—could benefit from having employees who are more satisfied with their work and, by extension, with being an employee of the organization. As will be discussed later, job satisfaction is related to many outcomes that are positive for organizational growth and health such as low turnover, employee engagement and overall well-being.

Generally, companies are organized in a way that inhibits the ability to change tasks or take on new roles. Rather, they demand the status quo and reward systems are set up to reinforce behavior that is consistent with the expectations of supervisors and upper management. Within this context, employees tend to adhere to the status quo unless otherwise primed to initiate any form of action that is outside the norm (Staw & Boettger, 1990). This suggests that employees do

not normally engage in job crafting behaviors unless others around them are job crafting or if they are encouraged by management to alter the nature of their position.

Since management is involved in the design of the work and generally wants to ensure that their employees are adhering to the guidelines of the job description, job crafting largely is done without the knowledge of direct supervisors for fear of heightened micro-management and oversight of daily activities if discovered (Lyons, 2008). When employees perceive higher levels of tight supervision, research has shown that it leads to decreased morale and lower job satisfaction (Manz & Sims, 1987).

#### Support for Job Crafting

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) support the notion of organizations increasing their awareness of job crafting activities, saying that “in organizations in which crafting behavior is a means for ‘growing a job’ or developing an employee, active acknowledgement and encouragement of job crafting are likely to yield tangible and intangible results” (p. 195). It’s important to repeat that job crafting is not inherently good for a company. It can be construed that it is first done for the benefit of the individual and his or her own goals, with the interests of the organization being secondary or not a consideration at all. It can be done in a way that is subversive to an organization’s values or mission, making it a detrimental form of action.

Berg, et al. (2008) supports the notion that it is up to the manager to determine whether or not job crafting activities will be positive or negative for the organization; it would be wise for those in leadership to support job crafting that aligns with company values or is in step with goals and mission, while monitoring and discouraging negative job crafting activities. The authors go on to argue that “since job crafting has the capacity to positively influence individual and organizational performance, managers may want to create a context that fosters resourceful

job crafting” (p. 7). They suggest that managers maintain open lines of communication with their employees about their job crafting in order to ensure that the most beneficial forms of job crafting are occurring.

In an article that explores the relationship of job crafting, work engagement and job satisfaction, de Beer, et al. (2016) discuss the benefits job crafting has for individual employees and the organization as a whole. They argue that job crafting is a proactive behavior taken on by an employee (Lu, et al., 2014, as cited in de Beer, et al., 2016; Grant & Parker, 2009, as cited in Tims, et al., 2013). Proactive behavior, in turn, has been determined as being a beneficial activity for an organization, since it relies upon the proactivity of its employees in order to maintain a competitive edge in its industry (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 2015, as cited in de Beer, et al., 2016). The results of their research did find that job crafting has a positive relationship with both job satisfaction and employee engagement.

Tims, et al. (2013), in their article discussing job crafting and self-efficacy, cite the work of Bakker, et al. (2012), who found that employees who job craft reported higher levels of work engagement as well as higher performance ratings from their coworkers. In addition, they cite the research of Petrou, et al. (2012) who also found that daily job crafting had a positive relationship with work engagement. In a study by Leana, et al. (2009), the authors found that early childhood education teachers who job crafted provided higher quality care. The authors concluded that job crafting can be seen as a “promising concept in organizations” because it can positively influence employee well-being and performance (Tims, et al., 2013, p. 500).

In an article by Petrou, et al. (2012), the authors attempt to further conceptualize job crafting. They specifically discussed three particular job activities: seeking resources, seeking challenges and reducing demands. All of these activities have been shown to have benefits for an



individual. Employees who seek resources do so in an effort to cope with job demands (Tims & Bakker, 2010). Those who seek more challenging tasks often do so due to a lack of work or a need to take on more responsibilities. Many employees take on these tasks in an effort to seek mastery of their work (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Finally, employees reduce job demands as a way to cope; this activity can also be described as task avoidance, which is a withdrawal-oriented coping mechanism (Parker & Endler, 1996). This can be interpreted as a more inactive form of job crafting, where workers choose not to do certain tasks within their job description due to a self-perceived demand upon them. For example, a waiter at a restaurant may avoid waiting on large parties due to constant need to attend to questions or orders. The individual may lose confidence and get anxious when too much demand is placed on them. In order to cope with these feelings, they choose not to engage in waiting on tables of larger sizes.

Further, the authors discuss a positive link that job crafting has with several beneficial outcomes for employees, such as job satisfaction, commitment and job effectiveness, as well as having a negative correlation with absenteeism (Ghitulescu, 2006). This further supports the evidence that job crafting activities, whether they are done in a way to indirectly support the organization (seeking challenges) or in a way to potentially harm the organization (reducing demand), it is clear that job crafting can improve the experience of employees in their profession.

As discussed earlier in Staw and Boettger's (1990) research, management typically maintains a level of control over their employees to sustain the status quo. The authors support the clandestine act of unapproved task revision, noting that "having individuals protest improper organizational actions or practices can improve the long-term welfare of an organization" (Hirschman, 1970, as cited in Staw & Boettger, 1990). Dissent and conflict has also been found to be a source of innovation and adaptation (Coser, 1957, 1967). In other words, employees who

challenge the status quo often will produce outcomes that will benefit the organization. The key variable is how upper management chooses to engage with the employee's actions. As cited above, the organization could potentially have a lot to gain by learning from individuals who are dissatisfied with the status quo and take the initiative to make changes without sanction from management.

Katz and Kahn (1978) argued that in order for an organization to be effective, it must encourage its employees to participate in "innovative and spontaneous" behaviors that go beyond their job description. Job crafting would certainly fulfill that requirement, but there are many other forms of these behaviors. I will describe these concepts that are akin to job crafting as well as make key distinctions as to set them apart from job crafting.

#### Related Concepts

It is important at this juncture to discuss related concepts to job crafting in order to further illuminate the characteristics of job crafting. There have been many other similar ways in which individuals change the conditions or features of their work, some that have inspired the development of job crafting as an accepted concept.

Staw and Boettger (1990) discussed the idea of *task revision*, defining it as "taking action to correct a faulty procedure, inaccurate job description, or dysfunctional role expectation" (p. 537). In a similar fashion to job crafting, individuals take the initiative to redefine their role or shift their responsibilities in response to a part of their job they feel is unmerited or needs altering. As the definition implies, task revision strictly is an action someone takes to change their roles as a reaction to a negative condition of their work environment. Job crafting, by contrast, is not solely a reactive behavior; employees may not be dissatisfied with any part of their job, but may simply want to enhance their experience or expand their responsibilities.

Another similar concept is *work redesign*, defined as “changes in skills variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback” (Chen & Chen, 2008, p. 281). Work redesign was born out of the pioneering work of Hackman and Oldham’s (1976) creation of the job characteristics model. The authors argue that employees can become highly motivated when five job dimensions are engaged:

- 1) Skill variety: the degree to which a job requires a variety of different activities in carrying out the work, which involve the use of a number of different skills and talents of the person.
- 2) Task identity: the degree to which the job requires completion of a “whole” and identifiable piece of work; that is, doing a job from beginning to end with a visible outcome
- 3) Task significance: the degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.
- 4) Autonomy: the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.
- 5) Feedback: the degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the individual obtaining direct and clear information about the effectiveness of his or her performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, pp. 257-258).

These job dimensions have significant relevance to the discussion around job crafting; if one or all of these dimensions are missing or unsatisfactory in the work of an individual, they may be

motivated to change or alter their work in order to, for example, increase the variety of their work or increase their level of freedom in decision-making.

Autonomy is a key job dimension for this discussion as it is an important feature of job crafting. The entire concept of job crafting is grounded in the fact that individuals engage in job altering behaviors that are done almost completely without the approval, support or assistance from others. Having autonomy on the job has been determined to be an important variable for subjective job satisfaction (Irerri, 2016).

The authors also reference the work of Hackman and Lawler (1971), whose model postulates that in order for an employee to experience positive affect, they must learn that they personally performed well on a task they care about. Three conditions are at play here: (1) the employee is receiving feedback from supervision, (2) they feel personally responsible for the results, and (3) they care about the task. In other words, if an employee is performing a task they do not care for, they will not experience the full positive affect of completing the task, even if they do it well.

*Organizational citizenship behavior* (OCB) is another construct that can be compared to job crafting. Organ (1988) defined it as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4). One major feature of OCB that makes it akin to job crafting is that it involves activities that are done by the volition of the individual. However, OCB requires that it contributes to the overall effectiveness of the organization. It is seen as behavior that is altruistic and goes beyond the requirements of the formal system (Organ, 1997). Therefore, it could be determined that OCB is not only a similar concept, but also could be considered as a form of job crafting. Obviously supervisors and organizations would prefer this

type of job crafting, especially since it has been found to increase organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1997).

On the other end of the spectrum, voluntary actions that are undesirable for organizations are referred to as counterproductive work behaviors. This would include more benign activities such as when employees take extended breaks, intentionally work slower or leave early, or make more serious offenses such as sabotage, embezzlement or theft (Czarnota-Bojarska, 2015).

Personal initiative was explored by Frese, et al. (1996) as a form of organizational citizenship behavior or organizational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992). The authors defined *personal initiative* as “a behavior syndrome resulting in an individual’s taking an active and self-starting approach to work and going beyond what is formally required in a given job” (Frese et al., 1996, p. 38). This type of behavior mimics organizational citizenship behavior in that it is meant to have a positive impact on the organization, as it has the following aspects: (1) it is consistent with the organization’s mission, (2) has a long-term focus, (3) is goal-directed and action-oriented, (4) is persistent in the face of barriers and setbacks, and (5) is self-starting and proactive. Due to the current state of organizational rules and procedures, personal initiative is normally not supported by supervisors and is often punished (Frese et al., 1996). This is consistent with the earlier discussion on how organizations tend to maintain the status quo (Staw & Boettger, 1990).

Job crafting could also be compared to *intrapreneurship*, discussed by Hisrich (1990), which is defined as someone who possesses the same spirit of an entrepreneur, but operates within the confines of an organization. As the author states, they are individuals who thrive on the ability to be independent and create, rather than being motivated by promotions or monetary rewards. Due to the typical corporate culture’s tendency to inhibit independent behavior or efforts to pave your

own way, people who act as intrapreneurs tend to be reined in by upper management or they choose to leave by their own volition. One major similarity of job crafters and intrapreneurs is that the latter also operates independently, concealing their creative efforts from top management. Hisrich (1990) argues that a climate for intrapreneurship needs to be established in order for these individuals to thrive. The author suggests that organizations should encourage experimentation from their employees, ensure that there are no parameters that may inhibit creativity, provide resources to individuals passionate about developing new ideas, develop a reward system specifically for new ventures and the act of intrapreneurship should be strictly voluntary. For the purposes of this research, the most relevant characteristic that needs to be in place in order to encourage intrapreneurship is support from top management (George & MacMillan, 1985, as cited in Hisrich, 1990).

A final concept related to job crafting is *taking charge*, as discussed by Morrison and Phelps (1999).

They define this term as “voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations” (p. 403). Just like other concepts that have been explored, efforts of taking charge are voluntary. The authors build a case for taking charge, claiming that it is change-oriented and its goal is to improve conditions in a workplace. They cite further evidence that these types of extra-role efforts ultimately benefit the organization, noting that organizations need innovation and change for long-term success (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, as cited in Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Therefore, having a workforce that has the freedom to use their creativity and have their input be heard will catalyze this necessary growth and expansion.

In addition, Staw and Boettger (1990) emphasize the importance of employees taking on the responsibility of correcting faulty tasks or misdirected work roles. Because the employees themselves are the main experts at the viability or effectiveness of their job tasks, it seems logical that it would be beneficial to devote some of their time to changing their roles to improve performance rather than feeling resigned to only maintaining the status quo. Just as is the case with intrapreneurship, the same conditions need to be present in order for taking charge efforts to take place. The authors recognize that taking charge is a high risk, high reward effort. If their efforts to improve their role or job function fails, they could face a damaged reputation, punishment or, at worst, termination. If they succeed, they could be viewed as a hero or heroine for the company and may be rewarded with a promotion or monetary reward.

The authors also support the aim of this study—it is essential that supervision supports job crafting efforts—in their argument that employees will feel more confident about taking risky, change-oriented actions if they perceive that top management will respond favorably (Ashford, et al., as cited in Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Scott and Bruce (1994) found that employees will be more inclined to engage in innovative behaviors when they feel there is a “climate for innovation.” Clearly, there is evidence to support the fact that in order for employees to feel empowered to innovate, redesign their work, or initiate procedural changes, there needs to be explicit—or at least perceived—support from the management level.

### Job Satisfaction

It is no secret that most organizations—if not all—place a heavy emphasis on retention and keeping turnover low. Naturally, there is extensive research on what companies can do to ensure that their employees don't leave or become disengaged in their work. An employee leaving the organization not only is very costly, but it may be losing talent to the competition.

Job satisfaction has become a widely used variable in research regarding employee wellbeing and predicting individual or organizational success. If workers stay satisfied, there are several benefits for both the individual and the overall effectiveness of the company. These benefits will be discussed below as a means to build the argument that high levels of job satisfaction in employees is indeed a crucial outcome for organizations.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) were pioneers in the research on job satisfaction, exploring the specific components that measure employee fulfillment on the job, including task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy and feedback. Although there are several interpretations of what defines job satisfaction, it is well known that it is an important factor for organizations to invest energy and resources in measuring and monitoring.

Koppula (2006) emphasized the importance of job satisfaction, noting that it is widely accepted that it affects life satisfaction, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, role withdrawal and counterproductive behavior. If employees are not satisfied with their work, they tend to not only perform at a lower level compared to their more satisfied counterparts, but they also can engage in behaviors that can be detrimental to the organization. In addition, lower levels of job satisfaction can lead to costly outcomes such as absenteeism (Cote & Morgan, 2002, as cited in Koppula, 2006) and turnover.

In short, job satisfaction is not only an important variable for organizations to measure for its negative consequences, but it is also related to many concepts that can enhance organizational effectiveness. These relationships will be discussed below.

#### Job Satisfaction and Employee Engagement

Another hot topic in business research is employee engagement. Abraham (2012) explored the potential correlation between job satisfaction and employee engagement. The author



explains that the degree to which an employee is satisfied with their job depends on whether or not the “person’s work environment fulfills his or her needs, values or personal characteristics” (p.27). Returning to the definition of job crafting, these needs that the author discusses relates to the central needs that a job crafter intends to fulfill: personal control, creating and sustaining a positive sense of self, and fostering human connections. Another definition of *job satisfaction* to consider is “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke & Henne, 1986). Abraham (2012) also cites a recent study on factors of job satisfaction, revealing what employees feel contributes the most to their level of satisfaction on the job. The author found that the number one factor was job security, which makes sense from the perspective of the basic needs of humans: we all need to feel safe, including the stability of our work which contributes to the feeling of financial stability.

Other factors draw insight into the need for employees to job craft in order to maintain their level of satisfaction. Three of the main factors that the study found were 1) opportunity to use skills and abilities, 2) the work itself, and 3) autonomy and independence (Abraham, 2012).

Additionally, *employee engagement* was explored in the article. The author provided a definition of the concept as “the harnessing of organization members selves to their work roles; in engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances” (Kahn, 1990, as cited in Abraham, 2012). Studies have found that employees who are engaged tend to be dedicated to their role, stay at the organization longer, be more productive, provide better customer service, and create a larger profit for the organization (Gallup, 2005). Additionally, engaged employees take pride in their work and will put in extra time if necessary to get the job done not for financial gain, but out of their own sense of personal commitment (Frank, et al., 2004).

One survey explored the association of job satisfaction and employee engagement, citing the factors that lead to the latter. Again, many of these factors related to the motivations for job crafting, including opportunities to use skills and abilities, autonomy and independence, and variety of work. The author also cited the research which found that three important factors of job satisfaction are career development opportunities and training, more opportunities to do what one does best, and more challenging work (Blessingwhite, 2011, as cited in Abraham, 2012).

Ultimately the study found that job satisfaction is indeed an antecedent to employee engagement. This is supported by the research of Garg and Kumar (2012), who found that job satisfaction is an important driver of employee engagement. As revealed in the surveys, there are specific conditions that need to be fulfilled in order to increase job satisfaction. Many of these needs are satisfied by engaging in job crafting activities, such as opportunities to use one's skills and abilities, variety of work, autonomy and independence.

A study done by Kamalanabhan, et al. (2009) found similar results about the relationship of job satisfaction and employee engagement. The authors discovered that there was a positive correlation between the two variables among professionals in the informational technology field. They discussed the benefits of having engaged employees, including a commitment to stay at the company longer and their ability to find smarter, more effective ways to add value to the organization. Job satisfaction was said to be linked to profitability and organizational performance, in addition to explaining turnover and intentions to quit. In fact, Tett and Meyer (1993) found a significant negative correlation between job satisfaction and intention to quit. As long as employees feel that their needs are being met and their subjective satisfaction of their work is high, the chances that they leave the organization diminish.

A discussion on retaining employees and decreasing turnover by Frank, et al. (2004) further confirms that it is essential that organizations are cognizant of what will fulfill their employees' needs. The authors paint a bleak picture for the future, predicting high turnover rates and a shrinking labor force. Employee engagement is also explored; they cite reports that found that upwards of 75% of the workforce is not fully engaged (Loehr & Groppe, 2004, as cited in Frank, et al, 2004), costing businesses billions of dollars. The authors argue that engagement is a type of mutual contract between the employer and the employee, with the former having the responsibility to create a meaningful work environment for the latter. They contrast the "old deal," which can be defined as the contract between employee and employer that is simply a fair day's work for a fair day's pay with the "new deal," characterized as the expectation from employees to "continuously develop and apply skills that the company needs, and in turn, the employer will provide a challenging work environment" (p. 17).

Traditionally employers mediate low levels of engagement and high turnover using monetarily based incentives such as tuition reimbursement or competitive benefits. However, clearly these efforts are not sufficient. The authors discuss alternative strategies that involve the relationship between the employee and the front-line leader. They cite that employees will likely stay if they have a good relationship with their boss and if their boss both cares about them and helps them achieve their goals. Two key capabilities for supervisors that are identified that are relevant to this study are 1) being flexible in recognizing, understanding, and adapting to individual needs and views and 2) developing talent and coaching team members to help them grow, resulting in greater commitment and loyalty to the organization.

In fact, there is already evidence that job crafting is positively correlated with work engagement (Chen, et al., 2014; Tims & Bakker, 2010; Vogt, et al., 2016). Chen, et al. (2014)

explain that “job crafting enables employees to alter the task and relational boundaries of their jobs, and they thus become more engaged in their jobs” (p. 25).

#### Job Satisfaction and Turnover

Another key concept in the discussion on improving organizational effectiveness and employee wellbeing is turnover. It was established long ago that job satisfaction is negatively correlated with turnover and absenteeism (Vroom, 1964). Many other subsequent studies have further confirmed this relationship, specifically between job satisfaction and turnover (Mobley, et al., 1978; Valentine, et al., 2010). In addition, Valentine, et al. (2010) claimed that job satisfaction was the most effective predictor of turnover tendency, while Price (1977) theorized that turnover was best predicted by job dissatisfaction.

Singh and Loncar (2010) explored the relationship between pay satisfaction, job satisfaction and turnover intention among registered nurses. The authors emphasize the major costs of turnover, noting several studies that estimate these costs to be as high as two times the person’s salary (Cascio, 2000; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Holtom, Mitchell, & Lee, 2008, as cited in Singh & Loncar, 2010). Wright and Bonett (2007) reported that these costs range from 1.5 to 2.5 times the employee’s salary. Within the context of this research, the authors cited that autonomy, professional status and pay had the most influence on job satisfaction. Many organizations do their due diligence to offer competitive pay and benefits, as well as creating paths for their employees to advance within the company. However, as discussed above, organizations naturally strive to maintain the status quo and place strict parameters on the roles and responsibilities of their employees, thus limiting the perceived and actual levels of autonomy among workers.

Patre and Gawande (2013) further confirmed the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover, citing many studies that found a negative correlation (Boxall, et al., 2003; Griffeth, et al., 2000; Lum, et al, 1998; Mobley, et al., 1979), as well as finding a similar relationship in their own research. Additionally, they postulate that “satisfied employees would also contribute their best towards their organization thus increasing the overall productivity” (p. 49).

A study by Lum, et al. (1998) specifically explored the field of nursing which, at the time, was experiencing high levels of turnover. It seemed that pay was not sufficient to retain nurses, so other variables were explored. Job satisfaction was found to have an indirect influence on intention to quit; in terms of organizational commitment, however, it had the strongest impact on nurses’ turnover intentions. These two variables are linked, as Popoola (2005) found a positive correlation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Finally, job crafting efforts may reduce turnover due to improving the person-organization fit. By making the job description better match the interests and skills of the employee, the company increases the probability that the employee feels like the company is a good fit for them. A study by Memon et al. (2014) found that increasing employee engagement will have a mediating effect between person-organization fit and turnover intention. In addition, the authors determined that better person-organization fit will provide greater meaningfulness and psychological attachment. As discussed above, job satisfaction and employee engagement are correlated, so if it is determined that job crafting does in fact increase the former, it may improve person-organization fit and therefore reduce turnover.

#### Job Satisfaction and Employee Wellbeing

A final concept to be explored in order to emphasize the viability of job satisfaction being a key component in the area of organizational effectiveness is employee wellbeing. “A happy

worker is a productive worker” is a commonly accepted mantra in the business world. As mentioned above, many organizations go above and beyond to offer many different fringe benefits or competitive compensation packages in order to keep their workers happy. *Employee well-being* is the term used in the academic world, and can be defined as the experience of meaning, behavior, social relationships and the person’s interconnectedness with their environment (Kirsten, et al., 2009).

Narainsamy and Van Der Westhuizen (2013) explored the components that make up work-related wellbeing. For the purposes of their study, they specifically looked at burnout, engagement, occupational stress and job satisfaction. Although they found that all of these factors had a relationship with wellbeing, job satisfaction came out on top as the strongest predictor of well-being. Specifically, job satisfaction has both extrinsic and intrinsic factors, the former being important elements of the job such as the competence of their supervisor, benefits and recognition. Intrinsic factors include how much the person values their work, the level of autonomy and security, and the status of their job.

Wright and Bonett (2007) discussed the concept of *psychological well-being*, which they define as referring to the aspects of one’s life on and off the job. Job satisfaction, in contrast, concerns specifically one’s fulfillment at work. In their discussion, the lack of job satisfaction—and, consequently, the lower levels of well-being on the job—results in higher turnover rates, as was illuminated above. The authors cite several studies that support this claim (Carsten & Spector, 1987; Hom, et al., 1992; Tett & Meyer, 1993, as cited in Wright & Bonett, 2007).

Roelen, et al. (2008) found a relationship between job dissatisfaction and burnout, noting that unsatisfied employees are at high risk for emotional exhaustion. The authors recommend that in order to prevent burnout, organizations should help dissatisfied employees change the

aspects of their jobs that are causing them stress. This is related to one of the four components of job crafting— decreasing hindrance job demands —that Tims (2012) discussed.

It's clear from the research that job satisfaction is a critical component to employee well-being, and both variables are key factors in determining whether or not employees will stay or if they are effective performers in their work. This is a critical finding that has deep implications for leaders, especially because job satisfaction is correlated with employee engagement (Abraham, 2012). This article discusses several factors that influence job satisfaction and employee engagement via survey responses. Several of these factors describe components of job crafting behaviors. For example, four of the top ten factors for job satisfaction were: opportunities to use skills and abilities, the work itself, autonomy and independence, and relationship with co-workers. Similarly, six of the top answers for employee engagement were: relationship with coworkers, the work itself, contribution of work to organization's business goals, opportunities to use skills and abilities, autonomy and independence, variety of work, and meaningfulness of job. Generally speaking, employees have some perceived sense of control over these factors in contrast to other responses such as: organization's financial stability, overall corporate culture, management recognition of employee job performance, career development opportunities or job specific training (Abraham, 2012).

#### Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance

Job satisfaction is also known to effect employee performance in business. A study by Gu, et al. (2009) examined the relationship between work performance and job satisfaction in casino hotels in Macao. The authors reported that job satisfaction was significantly correlated with employee performance.

A study by Springer (2011) further confirmed this relationship, as the author found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and job performance in bank employees. The research also looked at job motivation as a mediating factor in that when it is combined with job satisfaction it significantly predicts job performance. The author recommended applying managerial strategies to increase job motivation and job satisfaction in an effort to improve job performance. Job crafting could be one of these managerial strategies that can be leveraged in order to boost employee motivation and performance.

A meta-analysis done by Petty et al. (1984) looked at five major organizational research journals to look at studies that addressed the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The authors found that the overall consensus from all of these studies was that job satisfaction and job performance are positively correlated.

One study that was particularly relevant to the topic of this paper was a study done by Siengthai and Pila-Ngarm (2016) that looked at the intersection of job redesign, job satisfaction and employee performance. Job design is a related concept discussed above that shares some characteristics with job crafting. The authors of the aforementioned study looked at the hotel and resort and banking industries, arguing that these companies need “to continually redesign jobs to align with their business strategy and enhance organizational performance.” The authors found that although job design had a negative effect on employee performance, job satisfaction was positively correlated with employee performance and it also acted as a positive mediator between job design and employee performance.

## Leadership

Since my research will be done through the lens of leadership in business, it is necessary that the concept of leadership be defined for this study. There are multiple types and definitions



of leadership, so I will choose one type that appears to be a good fit with the qualities of job crafting. However, for the purposes of clarity, leadership encompasses anyone who has direct reports and therefore has power over their employees. Therefore, in this study the terms “leader” or “leadership” are interchangeable with “manager,” “management,” and “supervisor.”

Job crafting, by its very nature, empowers the employee because of a shift in power; the employee takes the initiative to craft their job in the way they desire with or without the approval of their direct supervisor. In order for job crafting to be a practice that management sanctions, they must be willing to transfer some of their power to their direct reports. This particular power is the function of determining the tasks, scope, parameters and goals of a position. Since many job crafting behaviors include shifting and altering these qualities, a manager would have to allow the employee to have the freedom to determine the changes on their own. Traditionally, authorities in organizations solely hold the power to create and modify position descriptions. In order for employees to job craft in the truest sense of its definition, management needs to utilize a form of leadership that enables this paradigm shift.

Therefore, the style of leadership that would best fit for this model would be servant leadership. Robert Greenleaf is credited with coining the term, and it has since been a widely studied form of leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011). In his own words, he describes servant leadership as follows: “The servant leader is servant first [...] It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first [...] The best test...is: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants?” (Greenleaf, 1991, as cited in Mertel & Brill, 2015). Greenleaf implies that servant leadership includes the transfer of power; the leader makes it their goal to ensure that the follower experiences freedom in their role and becomes autonomous.

Empowerment, by definition, includes the transfer of power, especially from a person in authority to another under their command. Specifically, studies have defined empowerment in the context of the workplace as “the involvement of employees in the decision-making process” (Cole, et al., 1993 as cited in Pardo del Val & Lloyd, 2003; Mitchell, 1973; Vroom & Jago, 1988). One definition holds that empowerment involves sharing knowledge, information and power with subordinates (Hales & Klida, 1998, as cited in Pelit, et al., 2011). Another emphasizes that to be empowered means that one has volition in their dealings, citing that empowerment is defined as “internal motivation that can be explained by four perceptible dimensions, which are sense, competence, *choice* and impact (Thomas & Velthouse, as cited in Pelit et al, 2011, emphasis added). Empowerment has two dimensions, psychological and behavioral, the former being “the perception of employees towards the behavior of superiors” whereas the latter deals with “the role of top management in employee empowering” (Pelit et al., 2011). For the purposes of this research, behavioral empowerment would be most relevant. However, both psychological empowerment (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Corsun & Enz, 1999; Hechanova et al., 2006; Kuo et al., 2007; Laschinger et al., 2004; Riggs & Knight, 1994; Spreitzer et al., 1997, as cited in Pelit et al., 2011) and behavioral empowerment (Babin & Boles, 1996; Yoon et al. 2001, as cited in Pelit et al., 2011) have even been found to have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction.

Many studies have found that servant leadership increases the levels of empowerment in subordinates (Murari & Gupta, 2012; Van Winkle, 2013). Coetzer et al. (2017) specifically argues that empowerment is an essential leadership competency for servant leaders, noting that they should be committed to the process of “transferring responsibility and authority to followers.” The authors also cite a positive relationship between servant leadership and job

satisfaction, among other desirable variables such as work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, innovative behavior, organizational commitment and person-job fit.

Studies have found that there already exists a relationship between servant leadership and related concepts, such as extra-role behavior (discussed above). Panaccio et al. (2015) studied the mediating effects of psychological contract fulfillment—the degree to which the employee perceives the employer fulfills implicit promises—and extra-role behaviors. The researchers found that servant leadership and the fulfillment of the psychological contract led to innovative behaviors, individual initiative and organizational citizenship behavior. Zehir et al. (2013) cites that servant leadership is a leadership paradigm that has a link to organizational citizenship behavior. This research on concepts related to job crafting justifies that servant leadership may be an effective leadership style to facilitate job crafting behaviors.

#### Research Purpose

The purpose of this research is twofold. First, I intend to determine a relationship between job crafting and job satisfaction. I hypothesize that there will be a positive correlation between these two variables. In other words, those who engage in job crafting activities will tend to have higher self-reported levels of job satisfaction.

Second, based off of the results of the research, I will discuss the implications that this relationship has for leadership in business. I intend to make recommendations to leaders on how and why they should provide opportunities for their employees to job craft. Although job crafting is defined as a bottom-up process done mainly without the knowledge of a direct supervisor, management can be facilitators of their employees' job crafting activities and, in fact, research supports this (LeBlanc, et al., 2013 as cited in Bakker et al., 2016). In many cases, the

opportunity for employees to job craft may depend heavily on their supervisors (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

This research is important because according to a recent Gallup survey, around 70% of America's workforce is disengaged. At the global level, this percentage reaches up into the mid-eighties. Clearly the average modern workplace has not created an environment or culture that is conducive to employees enjoying their work and being immersed in it.

It would be difficult to argue that this is just a natural consequence of work itself, considering people experience "flow"—the mental state of operation in which a person performing an activity is fully immersed in a feeling of energized focus, full involvement and enjoyment in the process of the activity—more at work than they do in any other activity, including leisure (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). In fact, much of science has found evidence that there are specific and reproducible factors that can contribute to engaged and satisfied employees. Author Daniel Pink created a compelling argument that employees are highly motivated by three opportunities in their work: the ability to be autonomous, to master their craft and to find purpose in their work (2009). When these conditions are true, companies have highly motivated and engaged employees.

In summary, the problem is not work itself, it is the conditions in which people work that needs to be addressed. More and more data supporting the fact that monetary incentives do not satisfy employees as much as once considered (Judge et al, 2010). This study aims to discuss and illuminate one of the possible solutions to a highly disengaged workforce by thinking outside the box to develop strategies that will better connect employees to their work. Naturally, leaders are in a critical position to create the environment and set the conditions in a workplace, so their role

in this research is important to discuss. Below there will be recommendations for these leaders for how to apply the results of this study to their work and their direct reports.

### Research Questions

The central question addressed in this study focus on the relationship between job crafting and job satisfaction, the nature of job crafting activities and leadership's role in job crafting behaviors. Therefore, the following questions were addressed:

R1: What is the correlational relationship between job satisfaction and job crafting?

R2: What are the correlational relationships between job satisfaction and each of the components of job crafting (increasing structural job resources; increasing social job resources; increasing job demands; decreasing job demands)?

R3: What kinds of job crafting behavior are people participating in?

R4: What has been leadership's response to job crafting behavior?

R5: How can individuals in leadership or management positions leverage job crafting in order to improve employee job satisfaction and, subsequently, other measures of positive outcomes?

### Methodology

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were used to conduct this study. For the former, correlational analysis was used to determine the correlational relationship between the job crafting and job satisfaction (R1) as well as the relationship between job satisfaction and each of the components of job crafting (R2). The purpose of using this method was to determine if the extent at which individuals job craft may influence their level of job satisfaction. In other words, if they engaging in job crafting behaviors, are they more satisfied at work?

The variable of job satisfaction was selected due to its relevance for business outcomes such as retention, performance and wellbeing (Gu, et al, 2009; Koppula, 2006; Narainsamy and Van Der Westhuizen, 2013; Petty, et al., 1984; Roelen, et al., 2008; Springer, 2011; Vroom, 1964; Wright and Bonett, 2007). Further, job satisfaction is correlated with other important measurable employee variables such as employee engagement (Abraham, 2012; Garg and Kumar, 2012; Kamalanabhan, et al., 2009). Content analysis was used to translate the qualitative data received from survey responses and to use these responses to help answer the above-mentioned research questions (specifically R3 and R4).

#### Procedures

This study was done using current students and alumni of the Masters in Leadership (MAL) program at Augsburg University as well as students of a psychology class at Metropolitan State University. Approval from Augsburg University Institutional Research Board (IRB) was received on October 7<sup>th</sup>, 2016. The IRB approval number is 2016-127-03. Approval to work with Metropolitan State University students was received on June 26<sup>th</sup>, 2017 from Kimberly Halverson, Assistant Professor in the Psychology Department.

Due to the nature of the study, the only requirement to participate in the study was that participants were currently employed. Research participants were recruited using direct and indirect methods. For all of the Augsburg University alumni participants, I sent an invitation via email that explained the aim of my study and instructions for participation. Appendix A includes a copy of the invitation.

Current MAL students were recruited via both email and in-person. I went to four spring MAL classes and presented the research in front of the students as well as invited them to participate. For classes that I was unable to attend, I reached out to students via email.

Metropolitan State University students were recruited via their professor, Laura Harder. I attended one Professor Harder's classes to present the research study and collect responses and data from volunteer participants.

### Participants

In all, 348 individuals were recruited for the study and a total of 42 completed the necessary components to be included in the research, the response rate then being 12%. Of the 42 participants, 4 were male and 38 were female. The average age of participant was 42 years old, with the youngest being 19 years and the oldest being 63 years with a standard deviation of 14.37. The average length tenure in their position of which was being surveyed was 59 months (approximately 5 years), the lowest being 2 months and the highest being 480 months and a standard deviation of 78.80.

Given that participants were recruited from an educational environment, there was a wide variety of positions that participants held from a variety of industries. Participants had titles such as "Toddler Teacher," "Financial Aid Advisor," "Leadership Consultant," "Nurse Manager," "Writer," "Talent Acquisition Partner," "Regional Director," and "Microbiology Director." Given the diversity of tenure and types of work, the results can more easily be generalized, compared to if all of the participants held the same position.

### Measurement

The variables that were explored in this study were job crafting and job satisfaction. The former was measured using the Job Crafting Scale, developed by Tims, Dekker, and Derks (2012). The scale consists of 21 questions that aim to measure the level of job crafting an individual does in their work. Specifically, it measures how often employees 1) increase their structural job resources (autonomy, variety and opportunity for development), 2) increase their

social job resources (feedback, social support and coaching), 3) increase their job demands, and 4) decrease their job demands (mental and emotional job demands). The survey uses a 5-point scale, with options being “Never,” “Seldom,” “Regularly,” “Often,” and “Very Often.” The Job Crafting Scale is included in Appendix B.

Participants also filled out a survey to measure their level of job satisfaction using the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). The MSQ has long been an established and valid instrument to measure job satisfaction. A copy of this questionnaire is included in Appendix C. Correlational analysis was used to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and job crafting.

Finally, participants were invited to take an online survey via SurveyMonkey that asked open-ended questions specifically about their job crafting behaviors in their current position. The survey aimed to discover if and how they job craft, as well as their perceptions of job crafting and how their organization views job crafting. A copy of the survey is included in Appendix D.

The qualitative data was collected by exporting the responses on SurveyMonkey to an Excel spreadsheet. Each tab contained all the responses for each question (there were 18 questions in all). I read through all of the responses to identify themes related to job crafting and job satisfaction (discussed below). Additionally, for questions that required a “yes/no” response, I calculated the percentage of such responses. For example, 68% of respondents answered “yes” to the question “If you were to alter the tasks of your job, would your supervisor be supportive?” Some respondents did not answer with an explicit “yes” or “no” so I used my discretion to categorize their answer. For example, some respondents had answers such as “sometimes yes” or “mostly no.” In future research, I would design the survey so that people had to select from a set of options when answering close-ended questions.



In all, participation in the research required filling out 3 surveys: Job Crafting Scale, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the online job crafting survey. This study did not involve any risks that go beyond minimal risks. The participants were engaging only in interview questions and paper assessments, so there was no risk of physical injury. The questions were strictly related to their work life, so there was no use of private records, no discussion around sensitive topics, no invasion of privacy of subject or family, and no probing of personal information. I was able to maintain anonymity of the participants by designating each participant with a label such as “Participant 1, Participant 2,” etc. Finally, I revealed the true purpose of the study to participants prior to interview questions so there was no use of deception.

A potential indirect benefit for participating in this study was developing an understanding of the concept of job crafting, therefore empowering the participants to utilize it in their work. Participants may be able to enhance their work life as a result of gaining this knowledge. Additionally, a direct benefit for participating in the study was that each participant was entered in a drawing to win a \$50 Target gift card.

Participants were fully informed of the definition of job crafting and the goal of this study: to determine a relationship between job crafting and job satisfaction. Consent was obtained from each participant and they were free to withdraw anytime or refuse to take any of the surveys, thus eliminating any risk of unethical methods. See Appendix E for the informed consent form.

## Results

Correlational analyses were performed to determine the relationship between job crafting and job satisfaction, as well as the relationship between each of the components of job crafting and job satisfaction. The research questions addressed here were:

R1: What is the correlational relationship between job satisfaction and job crafting?

R2: What are the correlational relationships between job satisfaction and each of the components of job crafting (increasing structural job resources; increasing social job resources; increasing job demands; decreasing job demands)?

The results of the correlational analysis between the variables in R1 demonstrated a significant correlation ( $r = .374, p < .01$ ). Likewise, a significant correlation was discovered between increasing job demands and job satisfaction ( $r = .355, p < .015$ ), as well as between decreasing job demands and job satisfaction ( $r = .323, p < .01$ ). No significant correlation was found between increasing structural job resources and job satisfaction ( $r = .189, p < .01$ ) nor between increasing social job resources and job satisfaction ( $r = .258, p = .1$ ).

The next set of questions were of the qualitative variety, seeking to find out the particular job crafting activities that participants engaged in and leaderships' response to such behaviors. Specifically, these questions were:

R3: What kinds of job crafting behavior are people participating in?

R4: What has been leadership's response to job crafting behavior?

These data were collected via the SurveyMonkey survey. There were several common themes that emerged from the responses from participants that aligned with the components of job crafting, specifically in terms of task crafting and relationship crafting. Recalling Tims et al. (2012) and the four components of job crafting (increasing structural job resources, increasing social job resources, increasing challenge job demands, and decreasing hindrance job demands), the data revealed varying levels of the components of job crafting were occurring among the participants.

Respondents participated in increasing structural job resources mostly by increasing skill variety and autonomy by adding new tasks to their job. One question in the survey asked, in reference to the tasks of one's job, "Did you take on any of these tasks by your own choice?" Of 36 responses, 26 (72%) responded "yes." The data doesn't explicitly suggest that they took on these new tasks to increase skill variety and autonomy, but it can be construed from some of the responses that participants wanted a new challenge or had skills they wanted to use on the job.

In terms of increasing social job resources, 26% of respondents reported that they "often" go out of their way to seek feedback from their supervisor or a co-worker, while 42% said they "sometimes" do and 31% said "rarely" they seek out feedback. Other evidence of increasing structural job resources were responses to the question "If there are individuals you don't have to interact with but you choose to do so anyway, why do you choose to interact with these individuals?" A theme that emerged from these responses were that people sought to work with others because their colleagues help them get the work done and they can learn from these other colleagues.

The third component, increasing challenge job demands, was not addressed in the scope of this study.

Finally, the data revealed evidence of decreasing hindrance job demands. Participants answered the question "What tasks do you avoid doing and why?" Of the 35 respondents, 26 (74%) reported avoiding doing at least one task of their job.

Overall, it is clear that job crafting is common among the participants, and there were four major themes that emerged from the qualitative data about why people choose to job craft.

- 1) Participants chose to take on new tasks in order to
  - a. Help others

- b. Gain extrinsic benefits
  - c. Respond to an organizational or departmental need
- 2) Participants avoided tasks because:
- a. They were not stimulating or were tasks they were not naturally inclined to enjoy
  - b. There were other, more important tasks to focus on
  - c. They did not give them an opportunity to use their strengths
  - d. They made participants feel uncomfortable
- 3) Participants chose to invest in new relationships because:
- a. Collaboration helped make their work easier
  - b. Their co-workers had positive characteristics
  - c. They gained a benefit from the social contact
  - d. Networking opportunities
  - e. They felt that camaraderie and teamwork lead to organizational success
- 4) People avoided others because
- a. They impede their ability to work
  - b. Their co-workers had negative traits or characteristics that made it difficult to work with them

Responses from participants that support these themes are discussed below.

Many participants chose to go above and beyond their job description to add tasks to their job. Although there were different explanations for why they chose to take on more responsibilities, there seemed to be a common thread that these participants were intrinsically motivated to do so. In the survey portion of the study, participants were asked (of the tasks of

their jobs) “Did you take on any of these tasks by your own choice? If yes, which ones and why did you take these on?” Participant 1 reported that:

“as an interpreter there are tasks I complete that I do not necessarily have to (do) such as making reminder calls to the clients the night before or reading their mails [sic] for them or calling (a) taxi for them. I do such task [sic] mainly because I enjoy helping my clients as they are often new to the country and are unable to do many things for themselves...”

Participant 34 said that they took on the task of mentoring others. They commented that “I do get satisfaction from helping get people out of a jam as well as helping them grow and hopefully help them out so they have an easier time of some things than I did.” Participant 35 took on public speaking engagements because they “enjoy public speaking and audience participation.”

Other participants job crafted by taking on tasks that benefits them personally from an extrinsic perspective. For example, Participant 32 said that they took on a “relationship broker role” because “I enjoy connecting people to each other and because I find that it builds my personal network.”

Finally, other participants added tasks to their job description in response to a department or organizational need. Participant 10 said they work with EBD students “because there isn’t enough staff available to help all the students that need help.” Participant 16 reported that “I have initiated some of the projects that I think connect with my department’s goals...to both help meet a need that seemed to be missing...” Participant 20 chose to focus on strategy because “it seemed to be needed.” Overall, 26 of the 38 participants (68%) self-reported that they took on one or more tasks by their choice.

Participants were also asked “What tasks do you avoid doing and why?” Most participants avoided certain tasks simply because they were not stimulating or were tasks that they were not naturally inclined to enjoy. For example, Participant 6 said they avoid reporting because “it is tedious.” Participant 20 said that they avoid “accounting/filing-it is usually boring and often I don’t have enough information to actually complete any given task.” Participant 30 said “The only task I really avoid doing is putting in information into our database. It’s tedious, but I do know how important it is to do so.” Participant 30 reported that they avoided “documentation. It’s necessarily but can be mind numbing.”

Other participants avoided tasks because there were other tasks that were more important to focus on. Participant 14 responded that they avoid “producing status reports. In my current role, the complexities of leading teams in systems integration is often a higher priority. I still produce status reports, but at a lower frequency than I otherwise would.” Participant 16 said that “I tend to put off the routine tasks that don’t take a lot of thought and only involve me (I tend to prioritize tasks that involve working with other people.)”

Some participants avoided certain tasks because they do not allow them to use their particular strengths. Participant 17 responded that they avoid “reporting (creating spreadsheets). I do not typically enjoy busywork I would much rather come up with ideas, engage with people, or present information than put the actual numbers together.”

A few participants avoided tasks that made them uncomfortable. Participant 1 responded “I avoid going to mental health appointments because I find them to be emotionally draining as brother is mental [sic] sick and I am afraid my personal feelings will get in the way of my professional duty to remind [sic] impartial.” Participant 29 said that “I prefer not to sell memberships or ask for large amounts of money; I always say it’s the Scandinavian in me.”

Participant 24 said “Personal difficult conversations are never fun, but necessary.” Participant 18 said “I avoid cold calling candidates, whose resumes I find online...I avoid it simply because it feels like an invasion of privacy at some points, and don’t like being turned down 99 of 100 times.”

Other participants avoided working with individuals who they perceived were difficult to communicate with. Participant 31 said they avoiding “presenting in front of board, they do not understand science & technology and can make very dangerous suggestions to increase profits.” Participant 32 said “I avoid dealing with stubborn leaders.” Participant 37 said they avoid “communications management. Organizationally we have too many ‘cooks in the kitchen’ and the people involved lack the skills and time management necessary to do the job well.”

Participants were also asked in the survey about their job crafting behaviors in regards to social resources. Specifically, the question read “If there are individuals (in your job) you don’t have to interact with but choose to do so anyway, why do you choose to interact with these individuals?” Many participants reported their reasons for expanding their network within their organization.

Some participants choose to interact with others in an effort to collaborate. Participant 16 said “One major reason is that I hope to learn from a variety of people and to see ways my department doesn’t have to be silo-ed [sic] but can better support the big picture.” and participant 34 said “I look for support and collaboration.” Participant 17 reported “I have worked with many other individuals within different subsets of the group throughout my career at the bank. I choose to interact with these individuals because I believe it is important to keep those working relationships, and you never know who will have great ideas or support in the future.” Participant

10 said they interact with others because “they choose to help me with my job and make me a better leader.”

Other participants choose to interact with others due to the positive characteristics of their co-workers and the benefits they get from the social contact. Participant 32 said they choose to interact with others “because they’re fun, optimistic, and have a strong work ethic.” Participant 25 said “I go out of my way to interact with individuals I enjoy talking to or find personally engaging.” Participant 14 said “I like to work with people who have strong interpersonal skills. I find that engagement with these types of people, and usually very effective.” Participant 34 said they look for “people who are supportive and friendly. Those who enhance my interaction with them.” Participant 31 said they interact with others for “pleasant personalities, break from on going [sic] work.” Participant 28 said they seek out others because they “are authentic and easy to talk to.”

Some participants broadened their social relationships to benefit from networking opportunities. Participant 18 said “I interact with many people within my department so I can network.” Participant 19 said they interact with others for “networking. Isn’t that how you get your name out there when you are looking for something bigger and better.”

Other participants choose to interact with others because they understand that camaraderie and teamwork are important for organizational success. Participant 22 said that they interact with others for the purpose of “relationship building across the entire staff. It is critical.” Participant 30 said “I interact with many people in my organization because my team supports the work of the organization. So, I need to talk with program directors and managers so...we know what is needed and how things are going.”



Another question was asked in regards to job crafting social resources: “Are there individuals you avoid working with, especially someone who is on a team or project with you? If so, why do you avoid them?” Many participants identified one or more persons they avoid because these individuals impede their ability to work. For example, participant 14 said “I sometimes avoid people who exhibit an aggressive type-a approach. I avoid them because I believe I can be more effective when working with other people besides them.” Participant 18 said they avoid some co-workers “because they overthink situations and slow down the process.” Participant 31 said some people they work with “slow down progress and try to understand business instead of working.” Participant 37 said “there is one member of the team that is extremely disorganized and a poor time manager. I do find that I work around them periodically just so that I can get my work done on time.”

The majority of responses were in regards to negative traits of co-workers or team members. Participant 7 said “I avoid most of the others that work on 1<sup>st</sup> shift. They constantly complain and create drama.” Participant 10 said they avoid individuals “because they are negative in their behavior.” Participant 21 said they don’t work with one person “because of the angry attitude they bring to work every time I interact with them.” Participant 15 avoids some individuals because “they are obnoxious! -talk to [sic] much, try to change things that are not possible to change.” Participant 23 said “there have been business partners in the organization I avoided if I had the choice, because of their negative behavior.” Participant 26 said they avoid some individuals “if they have a bad attitude towards project/program management. They make it difficult to make progress on a project.” Participant 33 said “there are just one or two people that I really try to avoid working with. Different reasons – arrogance, back-stabbing, unable to

meet deadlines.” Participant 34 said “there are some people I would avoid working with again. This is usually because they have some toxic traits.”

Another dimension of job crafting behavior is taking the initiative to seek out feedback from a direct supervisor or peer. Participants were asked “How often do you go out of your way to seek feedback from your supervisor or a co-worker?” The results showed that 26% responded that they did this often, 42% sometimes, and 32% rarely. They also had an opportunity to explain why they answered the way they did. Participant 6—who replied with “often”—said that they do this because “I want to make sure that I am reaching the organizational goals.” Participant 10 said they seek feedback often because “I want to learn how to do my job better.” Participant 21 said they seek feedback often to “learn about how I am perceived in the organization and what I can wrong [sic] to be more effective.” Participant 22 also replied “often” because “every piece of feedback helps me be better next time I am in this situation.” Participant 25 replied with “often” to make sure “things were carried out to her liking.” Participant 30 said “I mostly seek feedback because I’m still new at the job. Also, I’m managing more staff and have had to ask for feedback in dealing with performance issues.” Participant 34 seeks out feedback often to “bounce my perceptions off of others and get their perspective. I feel it gives me better insight.”

The final research question that I explored was “What has been leadership’s response to job crafting behavior?” A question in the survey read “If you were to alter the tasks of your job, would your supervisor be supportive? Why or why not?” Of the 38 participants, 26 of them (68%) responded “yes.”

Those who responded “no” seemed to have a perception that they are powerless to change the tasks of their work. For example, participant 15 said that their job “is not for me to alter.” Participant 26 said “if it’s not their idea, it doesn’t fly.” Participant 26 said “management

is very protective of the 'goodies,' preferring to do these things themselves." Participant 27 said their supervisor would say "no" because "she likes to have the authority." Participant 4 said leadership would say "no" because "they always done it this way."

As mentioned, most participants have had a positive experience with leadership when discussing job crafting activities. Participant 7 said "I think my supervisor would be supportive because happy residents means that the customer service is above and beyond as well as their wellbeing." Participant 10 reported that their supervisor would be supportive because "my supervisor has learned to trust me because of my actions in the past." Participant 13 said "if I wanted to do something more, my supervisor would be more than happy for me to take on the extra task." Participant 21 said "yes, she is great at supporting development of her direct reports." Participant 30 said "I'm sure he would. He trusts me and I have 30 years of experience doing this work, so he knows what I'm capable of accomplishing."

Most participants, however, responded with that their supervisors would be conditionally supportive. For example, participant 5 said "I think he would as long as I am completing my job duties." Participant 16 said "My supervisor is supportive of me adding tasks to grow in my development (and what our department can do), yet he would not be supportive of the taking away of administrative tasks because there is no one else to do it." Participant 17 said "Yes, as long as what I wanted to alter was more efficient (that could be time efficient, energy efficient, etc)." Participant 18 said "I believe my supervisor would be somewhat supportive- as long as I'm maintaining my districts and getting people hired." Participant 25 said "Yes, with hesitation. I think that she only wants me to do things that are useful to her." Participant 31 said "Very possible if there was a financial benefit." Participant 33 said "Only within a small range of my current responsibilities. I asked to go from 40 hrs/week to 32 hrs/week and my supervisor was

supportive. I couldn't, for instance, suggest that we skip the chain of command and just do projects by myself.”

The qualitative data overall seem to suggest that the majority of participants are actively job crafting in some way. For those who responded to the question “Did you take on any of these tasks by your own choice?” 26 of 36 participants (72%) agreed that they took on one or many tasks that are not part of their official job description. For those who responded to the question “What tasks do you avoid doing and why?” 26 of 35 participants (74%) said they avoid one or more tasks that are inherent to their job description. For those who responded to the question “Are there individuals you avoid working with, especially someone who is on a team or project with you?” 19 of 37 participants (51%) said they avoid one or more individuals. For those who responded to the question “If there are individuals you don’t have to interact with but you choose to do so anyway, why do you choose to interact with these individuals?” 22 of 31 (71%) said they go out of their way to interact with other individuals they may not normally work with due to their job description.

Overall, the vast majority (79%) of participants agreed that they would be more engaged if they were given the freedom to craft their job in a way that better fits their skills and interests.

### Discussion

The ultimate goal of this research was two-fold: 1) to find if there is a significant relationship between job crafting and job satisfaction and 2) to discuss the implications this relationship may have from a leadership perspective.

A significant positive correlation was found between job crafting and job satisfaction, as well as significant positive correlations between job satisfaction and two components of job crafting: increasing job demands and decreasing job demands. The results show that job crafting

efforts by employees may lead to higher levels of job satisfaction. This is significant because job satisfaction is closely related to employee engagement—as discussed in the literature review—and the majority of participants agreed in the qualitative research that given the chance to job craft would increase engagement in their work.

Based on the results above, it can be construed that people have the natural tendency to craft their job in some way, whether that be by altering the tasks or their job or by expanding or contracting their social network within the scope of their work. Participants who took the survey were given an opportunity to explain why they job craft, and the vast majority of participants had a rationale that was related to improving the conditions of their work. They avoid tasks because they are “tedious,” “boring,” “time-consuming,” or “mind numbing.” They take on new tasks because their team or organization needed someone to step up or because the tasks are a good fit for their interests and skills. They avoid working with some individuals because of their personalities, their tendency to micromanage, or they generally impede the work that the participants are trying to do. Conversely, some participants seek out other individuals for networking reasons or the other individuals help enhance the work that they do.

Humans are rational beings; our actions are intentional and have meaning whether that is for survival or for self-actualization efforts. This is supported by the concept of the expectancy model, which claims that “people *will do* what they *can do* when they *want* something” (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978, p.225). In other words, if an individual is properly motivated to change their circumstances, they will take matters into their own hands. This explains the widespread proliferation of job crafting and other types of job redesign; many people are resourceful and self-motivated and don’t need explicit permission or support to take action. It’s clear from previous research and the results of this study that when most people job craft, they are altering

the parameters and conditions of their job in order to—whether intentional or not—increase their satisfaction. Their efforts, however, are not always done in a manner that benefits the team or organization as a whole. Further, some participants voiced that they have limited opportunities to job craft or their direct supervisor would not support job crafting efforts.

Therein lies the critical leadership call-to-action: they must accept the reality that their direct reports are job crafting and that in order to ensure that job crafting activities will benefit the individual, the team and the organization, they must find a way to facilitate the job crafting behaviors of their employees. As mentioned in the literature review, most job crafting activities are done without the knowledge of management. Without sponsorship of job crafting or intrapreneurial efforts from top management, efforts go unrewarded, unnoticed or, in many cases, punished if discovered. As a consequence, companies are missing out on potential talent, skills, innovation or new ventures that could give them the competitive edge in their respective market. If managers and supervisors can help align their employees' intentions to job craft with the strategic plans or the overall goals of the organization, leadership can be assured that most job crafting activity will be done to benefit the organization rather than work in opposition of it.

This paper shows that there is not only evidence that many individuals are crafting their jobs, but also that there is a correlation between job crafting and job satisfaction. The qualitative results also showed that participants have generally experienced a supportive and positive response from leadership when they want to craft their jobs. This is encouraging and may indicate that the conditions may be ripe for job crafting to become a formalized activity in the workplace.

The challenge is that the nature of a job description is static; it is a set of tasks and expectations written on an official document, sometimes even requiring a signature of

agreement. The prevailing belief is that the job description defines the employee rather than the other way around. Therefore, traditional business models do not naturally facilitate alterations to job descriptions and tasks. In more bureaucratic organizations, it can sometimes take months of traveling through the system to get a request approved to make a slight adjustment in a job description. Therefore, managers and leaders are disincentivized to even have a conversation with their direct report about alter their job description. As a result, managers and supervisors are forced to fit their direct reports into a mold that does not work for them; they are trying to put a square peg in a round hole, as the saying goes.

The research discussed above supports the idea that employees are given opportunities to use their talents. Naturally, most people seek out jobs due to it being a good fit for their interests and skills, but this cannot be assumed to be true in every case. Not all people have the luxury to pursue a position that perfectly fits their talents; many settle for a job that they are not necessarily interested in, but that pays well or is easily accessible. Perhaps parts of their responsibilities are appealing, which piqued their interest in the first place, but they may have found that over time some of their talents are not being used. In addition, an individual's interests and skills are not static—they change, grow and develop over time.

By no means am I suggesting that leaders should allow their employees to have complete freedom over what their daily tasks are or who they work with, but leaders can facilitate intentional conversations with their staff to discover their needs and, subsequently, make slight alterations to their job description or the purpose of their work. Examples may include relieving an employee of a certain task and delegating it to another individual who is more interested in the particular task, or it could be allowing an employee to spend 5 hours a week working on

projects that appeal to a particular skill or interest that is not being utilized in their current position.

This refers back to work the work of Hackman and Lawler (1971) which concluded that people will gain more satisfaction out of performing job tasks they care about and are personally invested in. It is assumed that in most cases job crafters who take on new responsibilities are adding tasks they personally care about, leading to the conclusion that conditions (2) and (3) are fulfilled. However, the first condition (receiving feedback from a supervisor) would frequently be missing from the equation since most job crafting activities are done without the knowledge of supervision. Therefore, to support the aim of this study, managers who support and approve job crafting activities would help complete this equation, giving their employees the freedom to take on tasks they care about and are personally invested in, while receiving feedback from their direct supervisor about their performance.

By helping facilitate job crafting efforts, companies may succeed in gaining more commitment to the company through the act of reciprocity. A study by Jia et al. (2007) determined that reciprocity initiated by leaders played a role in the promotion of employee commitment and a decrease in intention to quit. By allowing employees to craft their jobs, leaders are implicitly, and sometimes explicitly, giving something to their staff, therefore an act to “return the favor” is naturally the consequence. Although there is no research on what exactly those acts are from employees, it could be hypothesized that much of the time it is a commitment to either give more effort and/or stay at the company longer.

The implications of this research are that it would be advantageous and beneficial for leaders to work in concert with their direct reports to engage in job crafting efforts. As stated above, it is likely that most, if not all, of a leader’s direct reports are engaged in job crafting



behaviors. This seems to be the reality of the modern workforce; jobs have evolved from the simple and straightforward repetitive tasks that were prominent during the industrial revolution (i.e. assembly line work) to more ambiguous and heuristic work that can be completed and approached in a multitude of ways (Pink, 2006). As work becomes less algorithmic, the need for employees to craft their work to meet their unique needs, skills and abilities becomes more urgent and necessary.

As a solution, leaders and managers can empower their staff to craft their job to better fit their skills, interests and preferences. The compromise, of course, is that employees do not shed or shirk any required and necessary job duties, but rather redesign them. Employees would also have the freedom to add tasks that both they and leadership within the organization determine is in line with the mission and goals of the department or company. Employees could also reconfigure their social network in order to maximize their efforts and increase levels of collaboration within the organization. Finally, job crafting behaviors can help employees reframe the purpose and meaning of their job duties, which can reinvigorate their work and open up new possibilities.

As discussed above, leaders and managers will have to take a more servant leadership approach with this strategy, as it requires a more equal distribution of power over decision-making. The employee's job description becomes more of a fluid document and entity, and both the employee and the manager get to discuss any changes or reconfigurations. The latter, of course, is the final authority on any alterations. However, this innovative model of employee/manager relationship facilitates discussions on what skills, interests and strengths the employee has, as well as a conversation about what creative ideas the employee may have and

how they can incorporate new tasks into their job duties in order to solve organizational problems or fulfill its mission.

The bottom line is that humans crave autonomy in all aspects of life, and work is not exception. Vogt, et al. (2016) determined that individuals who—by their own volition—build a challenging and resourceful workplace can produce several positive outcomes that lead to wellbeing. This conclusion is grounded in self-determination theory, which says that individuals have a deep desire for a personal sense of freedom and a choice in matters that affect them, rather than feeling controlled or pressured. When job crafting, individuals autonomously make decisions and take on new tasks that they know are beneficial to them. Self-determination theory also states that humans have a basic need for autonomy, relatedness and competence; two of these needs—autonomy and competence—align closely with the job dimensions discussed in Oldman and Hackman’s (1976) job characteristics model discussed above. Meeting these needs can improve employee motivation and engagement (Deci & Ryan, 2000). By crafting their jobs, workers satisfy these needs by exerting control over their environment which can lead to increased feelings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997 as cited in Vogt, et al., 2016) and optimism (Seligman, 2006 as cited in Vogt, et al., 2016).

Giving employees the freedom to be creative and have choice in the goals, tasks, parameters, purpose and social components of their job will increase their satisfaction which, in turn, positively influences other desirable outcomes such as engagement, wellbeing, performance and turnover. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century world of work, job crafting may be the preeminent strategy for managers and leaders to get the most out of their employees and reap the benefits of a fully engaged workforce.

## Limitations

A major limitation in this research was the small sample size of participants. In all, there were 42 total participants. Due to the qualitative nature of the study, it would have been difficult to work with significantly more participants. However, the sample size was large enough in order to determine a correlation.

Another limitation was the low response rate from participants. Of the 348 individuals solicited to participate, only 42 (12%) responded with all the requisite documents to be considered a full participant. This low response rate most likely can be attributed to the nature of the solicitations, which were mainly via email. More individuals would likely have participated had the invitation been in person.

Further, convenience sampling used to obtain participants can be considered a limitation. Participants were pulled from the Augsburg University community and from Metropolitan State class taught by a former colleague. Some participants were in the same classes, while others were in the same MAL cohort. Potentially these participants would alter their responses in an effort to support my desired results.

Social desirability bias may have also been a factor in this study. The two scales that were used to measure job satisfaction and job crafting provide participants the opportunity to select responses that may reflect more favorable on the individual. For example, participants may have presented themselves to be more satisfied in their work than they really are because they recognize a potential internal conflict of being dissatisfied with one's work, or a fear that the results may somehow get back to their supervisor. Further, some participants may have recognized that being a job crafter may be viewed positively by their social circles, therefore

they may have been inclined to say they participate in job crafting more than what occurs in reality.

Additionally, a low response rate could be attributed to the number of tasks that were required for participants to complete (2 assessments, 1 survey and a consent form). Many people may have found it difficult and too time consuming to print out all of the forms, scan them, and then return them via email. As stated above, administering and collecting the necessary documents in person would have likely increased the response rate.

#### Future Research

As discussed earlier, job crafting efforts can be misdirected, misapplied or a detriment to organizational values or goals. Therefore, I would recommend that future research explore tools that would help facilitate conversations between leaders and direct reports to leverage the benefits of job crafting. The ideal scenario with job crafting is that the job crafter has the autonomy to alter their job in a way that aligns with their interests and skills, while at the same time these efforts are in alignment with the overall objectives and mission of their job description, department and organization. One tool that is available is the Job Crafting™ Exercise developed by researchers from Job Crafting, LLC. This exercise book allows people to explore their strengths, passions and values, then redesign their work by altering how much time and energy they put into each task, as well as exploring the relational components of these tasks.

A recommended resource would be Gallup's StrengthsFinder assessment. This tool measures a person's natural patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving in order to discover what they are naturally talented at doing and what activities give them energy. Leveraging this resource would provide both the leader and employee clarity on what the latter is more inclined to enjoy and do well. This would open up conversation on what tasks utilizes their strengths and

which ones do not, as well as tasks they are not doing that would bring them energy. The goal is not to allow the employee to stop doing tasks they don't enjoy and only do tasks they do enjoy, as this would be impractical and damaging to the company. Instead, the goal is to maximize the opportunities for the employee to use their strengths as much as possible, while also strategizing how to complete the less desired tasks, whether that be by creatively using their strengths or by partnering with others who have complementary strengths.

Therefore, future research may include measuring metrics such as job satisfaction and engagement for employees whose managers know their strengths and facilitate job crafting activities that enables them to use their strengths at work. Gallup has already done similar research and has found that when organizations invest in strengths-based development of their employees, they see an increase in employee engagement, an increase in profit and a decrease in turnover. (Asplund, et al., 2016). Specifically, future research would focus on employees who use their strengths to inform their job crafting activities and its impact on job satisfaction and engagement.

Further research should also explore generational differences in job crafting. As the millennial generation begins to take over the workforce, it would be wise for leaders to see how this generation job crafts. This paper had generation differences in participants, but this dynamic was not explored nor were there enough participants to merit a significant relationship.

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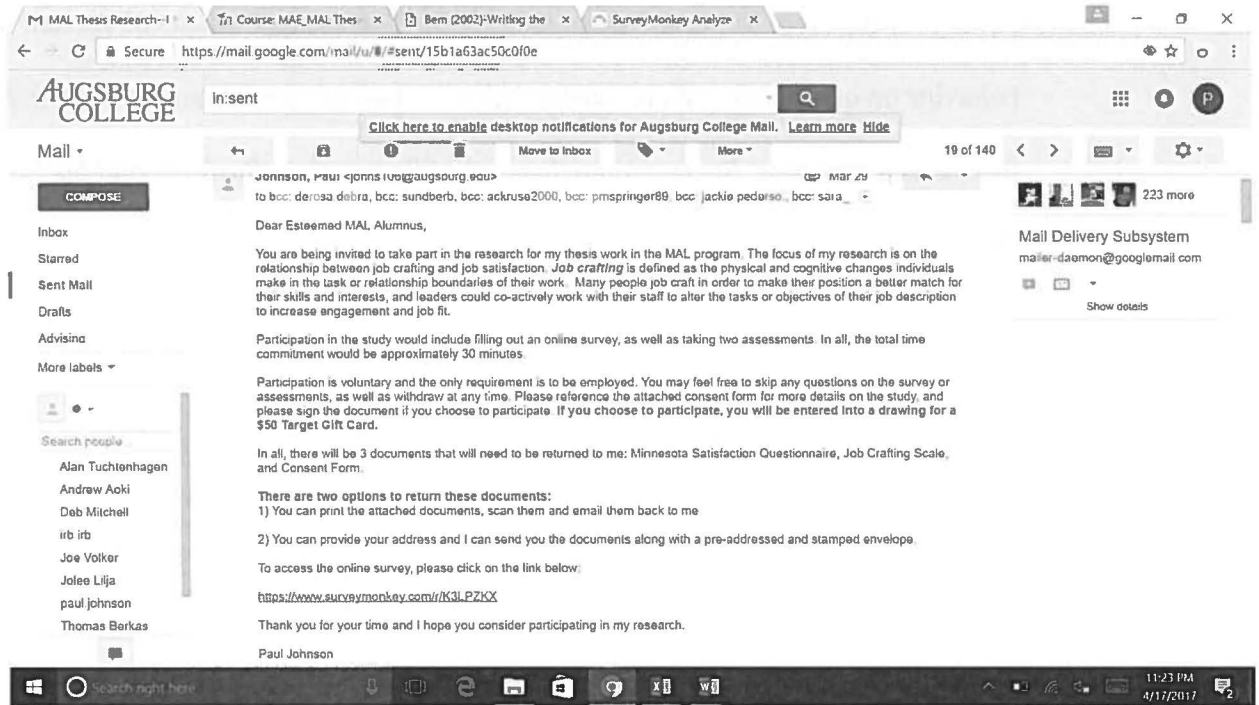
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Appendix

A. Example of invitation to participants



B. SurveyMonkey questionnaire

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/K3LPZKX>

C. Consent Form

You are invited to participate in a research study on the effect of job crafting on job satisfaction. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to participate in the study.

The study is being conducted by me, Paul Johnson, who is a current graduate student at Augsburg College in the Masters in Leadership program. My advisor is Velma Lashbrook, Associate Professor at Augsburg College in the Masters in Leadership program.

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete a short survey and two assessments. The survey should take no longer than 20 minutes and the assessments should take no longer than 10 minutes to complete. In all, your participation should take no longer than 30 minutes. The survey portion will be done via Survey Money, and the assessments are paper forms.

Each participant will be entered in a drawing to win a \$50 Target Gift Card.

There are no direct risks to participating in this study. Potential indirect benefits could be your development of an understanding of job crafting and its benefits to your work.

The records of this study will be kept confidential unless required by law. All data will be kept in a locked file and only the researcher and his advisor, Dr. Lashbrook, will have access to the data. The results will be disseminated in a final paper and presented to the faculty in the Masters in Leadership department at Augsburg College. The paper will be placed in the Lindell Library and they also may be published in a professional journal or at local, regional, national, or international conferences via a poster or oral presentation. In any form of dissemination, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. If granted permission, direct quotes may be used, but a pseudonym, rather than your actual name will be used. All other identifying information will be changed to protect your identity. Despite these precautions, absolute anonymity cannot be guaranteed due to the small number to be interviewed.

Your decision about whether or not to participate in this study will not affect your current or future relations with Augsburg College or the researcher. If you decide to participate, you are free to skip questions any questions in the interview or the surveys, or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you may contact me, Paul Johnson, at 715-222-1125 or johns106@augsborg.edu. You may also contact my advisor, Velma Lashbrook at 952-937-8100 or lashbroo@augsborg.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research subject or want to discuss problems/complaints about the research study, send an e-mail to [IRB@augsborg.edu](mailto:IRB@augsborg.edu).

Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from this study at any time? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

Do you understand that you may skip any questions or tasks? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

Do you have any questions about what you are being asked to do? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

*I have read the above information or have had it read to me. I have received answers to questions asked. I consent to participate in the study.*

Subject Printed Name \_\_\_\_\_

Subject Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_



Investigator Printed Name \_\_\_\_\_

Investigator Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

I consent to allow use of my direct quotations

Subject Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_



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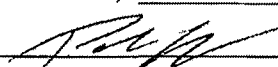
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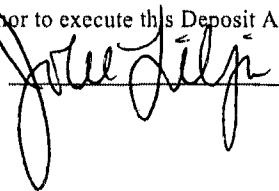
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