

JOB CRAFTING
A DISTINCT FORM OF PROACTIVE EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOR

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

1.	INTRODUCTION.....	1
2.	DOES JOB CRAFTING ALWAYS LEAD TO EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING AND PERFORMANCE? META-ANALYTICAL EVIDENCE ON THE MODERATING ROLE OF SOCIETAL CULTURE.....	15
3.	JOB CRAFTING OPPORTUNITIES AND APPLICANT ATTRACTION A MULTI-STUDY APPROACH.....	63
4.	WHEN DO EMPLOYEES DECIDE TO CRAFT THEIR JOB-TASKS? AN OPPORTUNITY EVALUATION PERSPECTIVE.....	105
5.	WHEN DOES SELF-SACRIFICIAL LEADERSHIP MOTIVATE EXPANSIVE VERSUS REDUCTIVE FOLLOWER TASK CRAFTING? - THE MODERATING ROLE OF PREVENTION FOCUS.....	153
6.	CONCLUSION.....	184

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Employees do not always act like puppets in the organizational masterplan but shape their work environments according to individual strengths, needs, and interests. Job crafting refers to proactive employee behaviors that involve shifting work boundaries in terms of tasks, relations, and cognitions about their jobs, in order to increase their overall job experience and meaningfulness (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In their seminal work, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) challenged basic assumptions of previous work design theories and stimulated a plethora of follow-up research efforts aiming to understand today's dynamics and motivations at work.

Over the last two decades, scholars have sought to accumulate empirical evidence in meta-analyses (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017) and focused on the conceptual refinement of job crafting (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2019; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Zhang & Parker, 2019). Here, two major conceptualizations have emerged and prevailed to be used in subsequent research: First, the initial conceptualization by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), which is rooted in social information processing (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and work design theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). According to this conceptualization, job crafting involves shaping task, relationships, and cognitions about job characteristics in expansive or reductive manners. Second, the conceptualization by Tims and Bakker (2010), which draws on the job demands-resources framework (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), discerning the job crafting behaviors of increasing structural resources, increasing social resources, increasing challenging demands, and reducing hindering demands (Tims & Bakker, 2010; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). The vast scholarly interest in job crafting issues underscores the relevance and scientific importance of untangling of the processes and mechanisms associated with job crafting.

Research Questions

Against this background, the goal of this dissertation divides into four concerns, on the basis of which we formulate the respective research questions. First, previous efforts to meta-analytically summarize the empirical results on job crafting illuminate the sheer volume and emphasize the scientific relevance of this phenomenon. Although these previous meta-analyses provide a first helpful overview of the research field, they also feature shortcomings that motivate our research questions of CHAPTER 2. First, they solely focus on the conceptualization of job crafting within the JD-R framework (Rudolph et al., 2017), and second, they lack to investigate specific (e.g., task-related or relational) forms of job crafting (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019), which are arguably distinct and feature different relationships with work-related outcomes (Bindl et al., 2019; Böhnlein & Baum, 2020; Zhang & Parker, 2019). Hence, the relationships between specific forms of job crafting and outcomes, such as well-being and performance, remain relatively unclear. Above that, previous meta-analyses used primary studies from multiple national societies without accounting for macro-level contingencies, such as societal culture. In search of a clearer depiction of the outcomes of job crafting behaviors, and the moderating circumstances under which job crafting may translate into increased individual performance, we pose the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1.1: Which kinds of job crafting are instrumental in achieving individual well-being and employee performance?

RQ1.2: How do societal cultural factors, such as individualism or uncertainty avoidance, moderate the relationships between the specific forms of job crafting and individual performance?

The second issue is concerned with the effect and mechanisms of job crafting as an organizational signal to attract potential applicants. Whereas major workforce trends, such as shifting demographics, increasing employee diversity and needs (Renaud, Morin, & Fray, 2016; Tarique & Schuler, 2010; Terjesen, Vinnicombe, & Freeman, 2007), call for a better understanding of job seekers' expectations and demands of their future jobs (Kumari & Saini, 2018), organizations are pressed to offer individualized resources in order to attract talented potential new employees. While literature indicates that offering individualized resources, such as innovative perks (Renaud et al., 2016), flexible work arrangements (Reb, Li, & Bagger, 2018), or ex-ante idiosyncratic deals (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006; Rousseau, Hornung, & Kim, 2009) is positively associated with employee attraction, little is known about the effects of offering opportunities to craft one's job on applicant attraction. Hence, in times of autonomous and flexible work arrangements, the question arises, how the opportunity to proactively change job designs impacts the process of applicant attraction? So, we state the following research questions:

RQ2.1: How does offered job crafting affect organizational attraction?

RQ2.2: What are the underlying mechanisms that link job crafting opportunities to organizational attraction?

The third debate centers around situational and individual characteristics that predict task crafting decisions. While there is substantial empirical evidence (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Rudolph et al., 2017) about the outcomes of task crafting, the literature remains relatively silent on the antecedents of individual task crafting (Lyons, 2008; van Wingerden & Niks, 2017). Moreover, previous studies suggest that

whether or not employees will proactively shape their jobs may depend on the perception of job crafting opportunities (van Wingerden & Poell, 2017; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, although seminal job crafting concepts already articulate the central role of opportunity recognition for job crafting behaviors (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), the research field largely ignored the internal evaluation processes associated with task crafting opportunities. In other words, although we have some knowledge about beneficial conditions for recognizing task crafting opportunities, the process of assessing task crafting opportunities and subsequently deciding to engage in task crafting behaviors remains a “black box” in job crafting research. We seek to open this black box and address a central question in job crafting research, namely,

RQ3: When and why do some individuals (and not others) decide to exploit opportunities to engage in task crafting behaviors?

The fourth and final issue focuses on the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and job crafting and the moderating role of prevention focus. Previous studies suggest that leadership behaviors may impact expansive and reductive job crafting differently (Thun & Bakker, 2018; Wang, Demerouti, & Le Blanc, 2017). Self-sacrificial leadership has been found to be a crucial precursor of followers’ affiliate behaviors, such as OCB and performance (Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002; Cremer, van Knippenberg, van Dijke, & Bos, 2006; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Despite the importance of these subordinate behaviors for organizational functioning, very little is known about how self-sacrificial leadership may influence proactive work behaviors, such as job crafting. We seek to advance this burgeoning literature by unraveling the role of self-sacrificial leadership as a potential predictor of expansive- and reductive task crafting, proposing the following research question:

RQ4.1: How does self-sacrificial leadership relate to expansive vs. reductive forms of task crafting?

In addition, recent theoretical developments strongly associated expansive job crafting with promotion focus, while reductive job crafting behaviors were related to prevention focus (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). However, it remains unresolved how individual prevention focus may impact the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership style and expansive vs. reductive task crafting behavior. Hence, we state the following research question:

RQ4.2: How does prevention focus moderate the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive vs. reductive forms of task crafting?

Outline and Contributions

In a multifaceted and comprehensive effort to contribute to the rapidly expanding literature on job crafting, this cumulative dissertation seeks to pick up these four concerns in order to advance the literature in terms of novel theorizing, greater clarity, research domain cross-fertilization, and more robust research designs that potentially allow for causal attributions. To achieve this, CHAPTER 2 develops a novel integrative framework that captures job crafting behaviors from both major conceptualizations and forms distinct and coherent clusters of job crafting. CHAPTER 3 absorbs central aspects of the recruitment literature and employs a multi-study approach to investigate the role of job crafting opportunities in attracting new applicants to the organization. CHAPTER 4 turns to the literature on (entrepreneurial) opportunity evaluation and develops a framework in order to model task crafting decisions. In a between-subjects experiment, CHAPTER 5 illuminates how and when self-sacrificial leadership may differently motivate expansive versus reductive forms of task crafting.

CHAPTER 2: DOES JOB CRAFTING ALWAYS LEAD TO EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING AND PERFORMANCE? META-ANALYTIC EVIDENCE ON THE MODERATING ROLE OF SOCIETAL CULTURE is co-authored by Prof. Dr. Matthias Baum, and a similar version of this chapter is published in the *International Journal of Human Resource Management* in 2020. In this study, we quantitatively summarize existing studies on job crafting and its effects on well-being and individual employee performance. We develop an integrative framework that incorporates both major conceptualizations and differentiate job crafting behaviors by target of impact (individual vs. work environment) and regulatory focus (prevention vs. promotion focus). Considering multiple subdimensions from both major conceptualizations, we seek to advance the understanding of processes emanating from different forms of job crafting and generate theory and empirical evidence on how

distinct clusters of job crafting relate to employee well-being and performance. Using this analysis, we improve upon previous literature, e.g., Rudolph et al. (2017), who focused solely on the job demands and resources framework, or Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019), who did not differentiate between subdimensions of job crafting (such as task and relational crafting). In doing so, we offer a finer-grained framework that may be helpful to paint a clearer picture of the relationships between different forms of job crafting and work-related outcomes. This is particularly relevant because the empirical evidence on how job crafting relates to well-being and individual performance remains somewhat ambiguous, whereas multiple authors report different relationships. For example, some authors (Nielsen, Antino, Sanz-Vergel, & Rodríguez-Muñoz, 2017; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015a) report a clear positive relationship between job crafting and performance, while others (Demerouti, Bakker, & Halbesleben, 2015; Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova, 2016) detect negative correlations.

Furthermore, these studies stem from different national societies, which may crucially impact the effectiveness of job crafting behaviors (Gordon, Demerouti, Le Blanc, & Bipp, 2015). Therefore, we seek to add to the understanding of the outcomes of job crafting behaviors by explaining extent variability by distinguishing between the subdimensions of job crafting, and also by explaining between-study variability accounting for the moderating role of societal culture in which the primary studies are nested. By this, we also seek to address current pressing calls by Gagné and Bhave (2011) and Johns (2006; 2010) to advance the understanding of contextual moderators of job design, which is anchored in the surrounding cultural environment.

CHAPTER 3: JOB CRAFTING OPPORTUNITIES AND APPLICANT

ATTRACTION -A MULTI-STUDY APPROACH- is also co-authored by Prof. Dr. Matthias Baum. Drawing on signaling theory as an overarching framework, we investigate the role of job crafting opportunities on applicant attraction using a multi-study approach. We develop

theory and reason that job crafting opportunities will positively impact potential applicants' decision to apply for a job and also to accept an existing job offer. In Study 1, we test our hypotheses with the help of a multi-level within-subjects design experimental study with 944 decisions, nested in 59 individuals. In Study 2, we examine the mechanisms of job crafting opportunities on job acceptance intentions.

By this, we seek to advance theory in several distinct ways. First, we integrate reasoning from the proactive work design literature into the recruitment literature. Although research acknowledged static top-down job characteristics, such as task variety or autonomy (Zacher, Dirkers, Korek, & Hughes, 2017), it remained comparatively silent about dynamic bottom-up qualities of jobs during recruitment. We conceptualize offered job crafting opportunities as a novel potentially attractive signal of work flexibility above and beyond flextime and flexplace and test specific hypotheses on the importance of offering job crafting opportunities to new job candidates. By this, we increase the understanding of the instrumentality and the relative weight of job crafting before actual employment relationships.

Second, with Study 2, we build theorizing on the underlying mechanisms that translate job crafting opportunities into organizational attraction. We argue that anticipated organizational treatment, role ambiguity, and authentic self-expression mediate between offered job crafting opportunities and the intention to accept a job offer. Thus, we aim to clarify how the signal of job crafting opportunities may be conceived and interpreted by potential applicants. This research is essential, as mediating mechanisms are more frequently assumed and proposed, but rarely empirically tested in recruitment research (Breugh, 2008; Jones, Willness, & Madey, 2014). In this sense, very little is known about whether and how the opportunity to engage in job crafting relates to job acceptance intentions and what may be the mediating paths that explain individual decision to accept a job offer.

Overall, we seek to address current calls for more complex scenarios in recruitment research (Renaud et al., 2016), as well as calls for investigating non-student samples in the theory testing of applicant attraction in order to increase external validity (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Renaud et al., 2016; Thompson, Payne, & Taylor, 2015). Above that, drawing on the notion that there may be a threshold above which additional autonomy may be adverse for attraction, we seek to address recent calls for considering negative individual outcomes of offering flexibility in future workplaces (Thompson et al., 2015).

CHAPTER 4: WHEN DO EMPLOYEES DECIDE TO CRAFT THEIR JOB-TASKS? AN OPPORTUNITY EVALUATION PERSPECTIVE is also co-authored by Prof. Dr. Matthias Baum. Drawing on literature of opportunity evaluation and job crafting, we hypothesize that task crafting is triggered by a deliberate decision process in which employees assess characteristics of a respective opportunity.

With this study, we seek to contribute to the literature on job crafting in several ways. First, we offer new explanatory approaches on when and how employees decide to craft their tasks, and therefore, we advance the understanding of task crafting behaviors. This is highly relevant as literature on job crafting has argued for and speculated about a deliberate decision process, where individuals consider the potential outcomes of their crafting efforts (Lyons, 2008; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, the job crafting literature so far has insufficiently investigated how the decision-maker's evaluation of a task crafting opportunity may influence the likelihood of pursuing a respective opportunity. Also, we state that the evaluation of task crafting is not uniform across individuals but depends on the images of their selves. By this, we further contextualize the relative effects of task crafting predictors and show boundary conditions of their impact on decisions to engage in task crafting. This contribution is important because we offer suggestions on the dispositional factors of proactive behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008), e.g., why some employees (and not others)

decide to pursue certain opportunities to shape their job-tasks proactively. Overall, we follow Grant's (2007) call for more research that explains how, when, and why employees decide to exert agency over their work environments via job crafting.

Second, we test our theorizing with the help of two experimental conjoint designs. By modeling images of task crafting opportunities as a joint consideration of potential benefits and costs (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), we seek to unravel the evaluation policies of task crafters and their "theory in use" (Lohrke, Holloway, & Woolley, 2010). In such, our empirical testing further allows us to yield robust results and helpful knowledge about the relative weights of these antecedents in the evaluation process.

Besides shedding light on the underlying assessment processes of task crafting opportunities, we strengthen the nexus between theories of employee proactivity and entrepreneurship literature. We emphasize that task crafting behaviors occur at the individual-opportunity nexus, which offers a new perspective on how employees decide to craft their tasks. Moreover, we follow Baron's (2010, p. 371) call for developing closer theoretical connections between entrepreneurship and proactive job design literature because job crafting may be regarded as "the essence of their [entrepreneurs'] work - they create their own jobs, tasks, and roles as their new ventures emerge and take shape."

CHAPTER 5: WHEN DOES SELF-SACRIFICIAL LEADERSHIP MOTIVATE EXPANSIVE VERSUS REDUCTIVE FOLLOWER TASK CRAFTING? -THE MODERATING ROLE OF PREVENTION FOCUS is also co-authored by Prof. Dr. Matthias Baum. In this study, we investigate the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive versus reductive task crafting. Drawing on self-determination theory, we hypothesize that self-sacrificial leadership will enhance expansive follower task crafting and decrease reductive follower task crafting behavior.

We seek to contribute to the literature on self-sacrificial leadership and job crafting in several ways. First, we aim to advance the literature that links self-sacrificial leadership to proactive work behaviors. Drawing on theories of self-determination, we reason that employees are motivated to craft their jobs because they internalize the values and goals of a self-sacrificial leader, and in turn, are motivated to reciprocate their leader's dutiful behavior by proactively expanding their task responsibilities. This is highly relevant as Cremer and van Knippenberg (2005, p. 356) state that the effects of self-sacrificial leadership on employee behavior are "still largely unaddressed in empirical research". Particularly, research focused on the effects of self-sacrificial leadership on affiliate behaviors that are part of the job and not proactive in nature, and therefore, we have scant knowledge about its effects on proactive employee behavior, such as job crafting.

Second, we also add to the promising literature of job crafting because we offer explanations for why employees may engage in task expansive or reductive forms of job crafting behaviors. Here, the literature predominantly focused on individual differences, such as proactive personality (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012), self-efficacy (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014), or job characteristics (Slemp, Kern, & Vella-Brodrick, 2015) as predictors of job crafting, while previous authors emphasized the role of understanding how leadership affects expansive vs. reductive job crafting (Thun & Bakker, 2018; Wang et al., 2017).

Moreover, we seek to contextualize the effectiveness of self-sacrificial leadership, drawing on the followers' prevention focus. We develop theorizing on how prevention focus may increase the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive, respectively, reductive task crafting. Following previous research (Cremer, Mayer, van Dijke, Bardes, & Schouten, 2009), we add to the understanding of which kinds of individuals the internalization mechanism of self-sacrificial leaders may be most effective in motivating follower task crafting behaviors.

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CHAPTER 2 DOES JOB CRAFTING ALWAYS LEAD TO EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING AND PERFORMANCE? META-ANALYTICAL EVIDENCE ON THE MODERATING ROLE OF SOCIETAL CULTURE

Abstract

We quantitatively summarize existing studies on job crafting and its effects on well-being and individual in-role and extra-role performance. We differentiate job crafting behaviors by target of impact (individual vs. work environment) and regulatory focus (prevention vs. promotion focus). Drawing on 60 independent samples with a total of 20,547 participants, we use meta-analysis to show that promotion-oriented job crafting can be associated with increased well-being and both in-role and extra-role performance. Prevention-oriented crafting yielded partially significant results for well-being while showing non-significant relationships with both performance outcomes. Drawing on previous findings of the GLOBE study, we further show that the effects of job crafting on both in-role and extra-role performance are partially moderated by the cultural practices of in-group collectivism, future orientation, performance orientation, and uncertainty avoidance. By doing so, we illuminate the cultural circumstances under which job crafting behaviors are more suitable and where job crafting is less effective as a way to improve individuals' performance.

Keywords: job crafting, meta-analysis, well-being, performance, cultural moderators

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Employees proactively engage in shaping their work environment (Grant & Ashford, 2008) and do not act only as puppets in an organizational masterplan. Accordingly, the phenomenon of job crafting, defined as “the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work” (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001, p. 179), has recently garnered considerable scholarly interest. Whereas the literature on job crafting unanimously highlights the importance and relevance of job crafting in employees’ daily working lives (Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014), the empirical evidence on how job crafting relates to well-being and individual performance is far less uniform. In particular, when delving deeper into specific forms of job crafting, some authors (e.g., Nielsen, Antino, Sanz-Vergel, & Rodríguez-Muñoz, 2017; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015a) report a clearly positive relationship between job crafting and performance, while others (e.g., Demerouti, Bakker, & Halbesleben, 2015b; Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova, 2016) detect negative correlations.

Therefore, the questions remain (a) whether (specifically which kinds of job crafting), and (b) under which cultural circumstances, job crafting can be instrumental in achieving individual well-being and employee performance. Furthermore, Gordon et al. (2015) indicate that the national context may be an important factor for the effectiveness of job crafting. We seek to address the above questions with a meta-analytic synthesis of existing research while considering the moderating role of societal culture. We improve upon previous meta-analytic studies (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017), and add to the literature on job crafting in three important ways.

First, drawing on recent conceptual refinements (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2019; Zhang & Parker, 2019), we make use of a broader theoretical framework, which includes job crafting behaviors from two major conceptualizations, one by Wrzesniewski and

Dutton (2001) and the other by Tims et al. (2012). Based on this framework, we form clusters of job crafting behaviors, drawing on both regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998) and the target of impact for proactive behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008). Considering multiple subdimensions from both major conceptualizations, we seek to advance the understanding of processes emanating from different forms of job crafting, and generate theory and empirical evidence on how separate job crafting clusters relate to employee well-being and performance. Using this analysis, we improve upon previous literature, e.g., Rudolph et al.'s (2017) work that focused solely on the job demands and resources framework and Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019) that did not differentiate between subdimensions of job crafting (such as task and relational crafting). In doing so, we offer a finer-grained framework that can be used as a blueprint for future studies on job crafting behaviors stemming from both major conceptualizations.

Second, we employ different sets of work-related outcomes. Whereas Rudolph et al. (2017) examined work engagement or turnover intentions, and Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019) investigated work engagement and burnout, we study the relationships between different types of job crafting and positive and negative indicators of well-being and individuals' in-role and extra-role performance. By this, we forward the debate on job crafting and show which kinds of job crafting behaviors are more effective and which are less effective (or even detrimental) for creating positive work-related outcomes. Therefore, we add to existing research by providing information about the mean effects of job crafting behaviors on a set of relevant and broader work-related outcomes. This advances the understanding of the magnitude and heterogeneity of the effects of job crafting through a wider lens.

Third, for tackling the second question (i.e., under which circumstances is job crafting effective), we draw on informal institutional literature and cross-cultural research. Previous studies suggest that the instrumentality of an individual's proactiveness is context-specific

(Glaser, Stam, & Takeuchi, 2016) and depends on national culture (Claes & Ruiz-Quintanilla, 1998). Accordingly, we propose that the effect of job crafting on individual performance is not uniform across every societal culture and that cultural practices (e.g., uncertainty avoidance) moderate the relationships between job crafting and performance outcomes. With this, we contribute to job crafting literature by developing specific hypotheses on the moderating influence of cultural practices, and by that move beyond existing meta-analyses on job crafting. Previous studies have argued predominantly for individual (Berdicchia, Niccoli, & Masino, 2016) and firm-level moderators (Cheng, Chen, Teng, & Yen, 2016), but have remained comparatively silent on the role of informal institutions in the effectiveness of job crafting. We advance previous research by filling this void (Chinelato, Renata Silva de Carvalho, Ferreira, & Valentini, 2015). In addition, by empirically testing the moderating role of cultural practices, we are able to reduce heterogeneity in the effects of job crafting, and thus contribute to a better understanding of previous inconclusive findings. In this vein, it remains unresolved whether and under which conditions job crafting is beneficial or rather detrimental to individual employee performance. Drawing on primary data from the GLOBE study, we seek to analyze how several cultural practices (collectivism, future orientation, performance orientation, and uncertainty avoidance) act as moderators in order to shed light on the causes of empirical heterogeneity in previous studies and to allow for more general statements across country levels.

2.2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.2.1 Job Crafting

Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) initially conceptualized job crafting as a proactive employee behavior that involves three distinct crafting activities, namely task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting. Task crafting involves behaviors that actively alter

the nature and scope of tasks (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010) employees have to perform at work, by doing more or fewer tasks and by changing the means deployed to fulfill tasks (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). Relational crafting refers to the shift in quality and/or quantity of social interactions with others at work (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Cognitive crafting involves the mental efforts of employees to alter the perceptions of their jobs in order to make the work more meaningful (Niessen et al., 2016).

The second major conceptualization by Tims et al. (2012) is framed within the job demands–resources (JD–R) model (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011) and distinguishes between the four dimensions of (1) increasing structural job resources, (2) increasing social job resources, (3) increasing challenging job resources, and (4) decreasing hindering demands. Increasing structural job resources refers to a self-started process of individual skills development (Tims et al., 2012). Increasing social job resources refers to expanding social resources, such as interactions with valued colleagues and supervisors within the work environment (Tims et al., 2012). Increasing challenging job demands comprises behaviors that create additional challenging demands, such as new responsibilities and tasks at work (Tims et al., 2012). Decreasing hindering job demands refers to behaviors that reduce job demands, such as role overload or demanding interactions with unpleasant customers (Grant, Fried, Parker, & Frese, 2010).

2.2.2 Forming Theoretical Clusters of Job Crafting.

Although there are different concepts of job crafting, the underlying definitions show several parallels in dimensionality and operationalization, which motivate our aggregation. Building on previous job crafting reviews and conceptual refinements (Bindl et al., 2019; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2016; Zhang & Parker, 2019), we formulate an integrative meta-analytic framework and further differentiate job crafting activities by two criteria.

First, we differentiate job crafting by regulatory focus (Higgins, 1998), which is evidently helpful for resolving empirical and theoretical inconsistencies within the job crafting literature (Bruning & Campion, 2018). In this sense, regulatory focus theory offers explanations for why and how prevention-oriented crafting can negatively affect well-being (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2016). Bindl et al. (2019) argue that regulatory focus is likely to relate to how one engages in job crafting because job crafting is motivated by internal processes. Their results suggest that job-crafting behaviors can be distinguished meaningfully by employees' particular regulatory focus. We follow this notion that job crafting refers to a self-regulatory process whereby employees can alter their jobs in a promotion- or prevention-oriented manner (e.g., Bipp & Demerouti, 2015; Brenninkmeijer & Hekkert-Koning, 2015). From a gains perspective, promotion-oriented job crafting is concerned with adding to and extending aspects of the job according to individual hopes and aspirations (Bindl et al., 2019). It involves behaviors such as seeking new challenges and enhancing employee capabilities, activities, or social connections at work (Zhang & Parker, 2019). In contrast, from a loss-avoidance perspective, prevention-oriented job crafting is concerned with altering job characteristics to minimize or prevent possible obstacles or negative results (Bindl et al., 2019). It comprises behaviors that avoid certain situations, colleagues, or tasks at work that are perceived as hindering or are associated with negative outcomes, such as strain (Zhang & Parker, 2019).

Second, we differentiate job crafting behaviors by the intended target of impact (Grant & Ashford, 2008), which refers to "whom or what the [proactive] behavior is intended to change" (p. 12). As current job crafting theory elaborations (Bindl et al., 2019) and primary research distinguish between crafting one's own qualities versus crafting environmental aspects of the job, we emphasize this distinction for our meta-analytic reasoning. Accordingly, employees can either craft aspects of the work environment or craft their own

individual characteristics (Tims & Bakker, 2010). We hold this theoretical perspective as fruitful because it offers new explanations of the job crafting mechanism that cannot be deduced by regulatory focus theory alone. Summing up, we propose four separate clusters of job crafting behaviors (see Table 1).

The first cluster contains *developmental crafting* behaviors that focus on proactive development of individual skills and capabilities. Conceptual revisions (Bindl et al., 2019; Zhang & Parker, 2019) have acknowledged this as an important perspective for capturing job crafting behaviors because it considers interactional effects between the job holder and the occupation (Tims et al., 2015a). We characterize these job crafting behaviors as promotion-focused because they center on growth and enhancement of personal resources. These behaviors differ from all other forms of job crafting, as their intended target of impact is not the work environment itself, but rather individual factors. The empirical measurement that falls within the cluster of crafting oneself is *increasing structural resources* (Tims et al., 2012).

The second cluster comprises *task crafting* behaviors that focus on proactively expanding tasks, responsibilities, and challenges at work. Here, we agree with previous authors who acknowledge that while crafting a task, an employee can also increase his/her challenging demands and vice versa (Zhang & Parker, 2019). As these job crafting behaviors involve adding tasks, volunteering for tasks besides the core job responsibilities, or engaging in new and interesting projects, we conceptualize them as promotion-focused. Their intended target of impact involves environmental aspects and work boundaries. Consequently, we include the concepts of *increasing challenging job demands* (Tims et al., 2012; sample item is: “I regularly take on extra tasks even though I do not receive extra salary for them”, p. 177) and *task crafting* (Niessen et al., 2016; sample item is: “I undertake or seek for additional tasks”, p. 13) into this cluster.

The third cluster entails *relational crafting* behaviors that proactively maintain and extend social connections within the workplace. This comprises activities such as proactive networking, mentoring, or feedback-seeking. As these behaviors only involve actions broadening or expanding the social network, we classified them as promotion-oriented job crafting. In addition, they are intended to change one's (social) work environment via crafting efforts. Previous studies designated these behaviors as relational crafting (e.g., Lu, Wang, Lu, Du, & Bakker, 2014; Niessen et al., 2016; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013) or increasing social resources (e.g., Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Tims et al., 2012).

The fourth cluster comprises reductive dimensions of job crafting and represents a potential downside of job crafting. *Reductive crafting* involves decreasing the scope or depth of effort put into one's job in order to prevent losses. It relates to activities such as avoiding certain tasks or colleagues at work or reducing obstacles within an occupation. We characterize these behaviors as prevention-oriented because they are intended to prevent negative effects (e.g., exhaustion) or negative experiences at work (e.g., avoiding unpleasant customers). As these behaviors affect the task and the social boundaries of work, we regard their intended target of impact to be the work environment. Previous authors referred to these behaviors as reductive crafting (Weseler & Niessen, 2016), reducing demands (Petrou et al., 2012), or decreasing (hindering) job demands (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012; Tims et al., 2012).

TABLE 1
Development of Job Crafting Clusters

Cluster	Target of Impact	Regulatory Focus	Definition	Measurements
Developmental Crafting	Individual	Promotion	Job crafting behaviors that involve proactively expanding individual skills and capabilities.	Tims, 2012: Increasing Structural Resources
Task Crafting	Work Environment	Promotion	Job crafting behaviors that involve proactively expanding task responsibilities and challenges at work.	Laurence et al. 2010: Physical Job Crafting; Leana et al. 2009: Individual Crafting; Nielsen et al. 2012: Increasing Challenging & Quantitative Job Demands; Niessen et al. 2016: Task Crafting; Petrou et al. 2012: Seeking Challenges; Slemp et al. 2013: Task Crafting; Shusha et al. 2014 Task Crafting; Tims et al. 2012: Increasing Challenging Job Demands; Weseler et al. 2016 Task Crafting-Extending;
Relational Crafting	Work Environment	Promotion	Job crafting behaviors that involve maintaining or extending social connections within the workplace.	Laurence et al. 2010: Relational Job Crafting; Nielsen et al. 2012: Increasing Social Job Resources; Niessen et al. 2016: Relational Crafting; Petrou et al. 2012: Seeking Resources; Slemp et al. 2013: Relational Crafting; Shusha et al. 2014 Relational Crafting; Tims et al. 2012: Increasing Social Job Resources; Weseler et al. 2016 Relational Crafting-Extending;
Reductive Crafting	Work Environment	Prevention	Job crafting behaviors that involve reducing the scope or depth of efforts put into one's job in order to prevent losses.	Nielsen et al. 2012: Decreasing Hindering & Social Job Demands; Petrou et al. 2012: Reducing Demands; Tims et al. 2012: Decreasing Hindering Job Demands; Weseler et al. 2016 Task Crafting-Reducing;

2.2.3 Job Crafting and Employee Well-Being

In line with previous studies (e.g., Peral, 2016; Slemp, Kern, & Vella-Brodrick, 2015; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013b), we argue that job crafting affects employee well-being. We follow the tradition in challenge–hindrance research of capturing differences by empirically separating positive and negative well-being (e.g., Widmer, Semmer, Kälin, Jacobshagen, & Meier, 2012). Considering the early state of job crafting research, we also chose to include two theoretical perspectives on well-being, which arguably load on well-being at a higher order (Linley, Maltby, Wood, Osborne, & Hurling, 2009). First, according to the eudaimonic perspective, well-being refers to indicators of human functioning (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), such as work engagement or burnout (Crawford, Lepine, & Rich, 2010; Siddiqi, 2015). Second, according to the hedonic approach, well-being indicates subjective and affective states, such as positive or negative affect (Slemp et al., 2015), or job satisfaction (Cenciotti, Alessandri, & Borgogni, 2016b; Ingusci, Callea, Chirumbolo, & Urbini, 2016).

We contend that promotion-oriented crafting behaviors are likely to increase employee well-being because they may lead to positive end-states, such as an enhanced positive self-image (Lyons, 2008; Niessen et al., 2016; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and perception of work meaningfulness (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013; Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016; Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). Specifically, through developmental crafting, employees feel more endowed with relevant knowledge and better prepared for future actions, which in turn lead to increased resources and enhanced well-being (Tims et al., 2013b; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2015b). When employees engage in task crafting, they tend to focus on their individual skills and interests (Niessen et al., 2016; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013), and thus they are likely to succeed, receive positive feedback and gain mastery from their crafting efforts (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In this sense, task crafting has also been portrayed as a coping mechanism to deal with boredom at work, a negative indicator of well-

being (Harju, Hakanen, & Schaufeli, 2016). In addition, through relational crafting, employees can create and shape more satisfactory and interesting social interactions that improve their personal experiences (Slemp et al., 2015), and, therefore, increase their well-being at work (van Hooff & van Hooft, 2014).

In sum, these experiences contribute to individual well-being by fostering meaningfulness of the job and perception of a positive self-image at work. Previous studies support positive relationships between promotion-oriented crafting and positive indicators of well-being (Harju et al., 2016; Mäkikangas, Aunola, Seppälä, & Hakanen, 2016) and negative relationships between promotion-oriented crafting and negative indicators of well-being (Harju et al., 2016; Petrou, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2017).

H1a–H1c: Promotion-oriented crafting behaviors (a. developmental crafting, b. task crafting, and c. relational crafting) have a positive relationship with positive indicators of well-being.

H2a–H2c: Promotion-oriented crafting behaviors (a. developmental crafting, b. task crafting, and c. relational crafting) have a negative relationship with negative indicators of well-being.

In contrast, we argue that prevention-oriented crafting behaviors have a negative relationship with employee well-being. In line with previous conceptualizations, we regard prevention-oriented crafting as tangible expressions that oppose promotion-oriented crafting behaviors (Tims et al., 2012; Weseler & Niessen, 2016). Therefore, prevention-oriented crafting behaviors lack the psychological benefits of promotion-oriented crafting for well-being. For example, when engaging in prevention-oriented task crafting, employees are likely to lack experience of mastery, as they do not yield observable, successful outcomes. Accordingly, individual self-evaluations may be negative and one's positive self-image is likely to be diminished. Meta-analytical evidence supports this reasoning, as Chang et al.

(2011) suggest a positive association between core self-evaluations and well-being. Furthermore, prevention-oriented crafting may lead to withdrawal behaviors that are related to negative indicators of well-being, such as exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2015b). Although prevention-oriented crafting may intuitively protect employee well-being, for example, through reducing workload, employees are also likely to feel stress by anticipating negative consequences. This may impair well-being in two ways. First, as prevention-oriented crafting needs to be planned, executed, and possibly monitored for whether there are negative consequences (e.g., of not fulfilling assigned duties), it may be demanding to overlook one's prevention-oriented crafting activities. Second, by avoiding certain tasks and colleagues, these responsibilities do not necessarily resolve but may accumulate over time and become a potential stressor. Summing up, although prevention-oriented crafting behaviors may be driven by the urge to avoid negative end states, they lack the positive psychological benefits of promotion-oriented crafting, and, furthermore, are likely to have adverse side effects at the operative level. Accordingly, we consider prevention-oriented crafting to have a negative relationship with well-being. Empirical results support this reasoning, as prevention-oriented crafting is negatively related to positive indicators of well-being (Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015a; Tims et al., 2012) while it is positively related to negative indicators of well-being (Demerouti et al., 2015b; Tims et al., 2013b).

H1d: Prevention-oriented crafting (reductive crafting) has a negative relationship with positive indicators of well-being.

H2d: Prevention-oriented crafting (reductive crafting) has a positive relationship with negative indicators of well-being.

2.2.4 Job Crafting and Employee Performance

In line with Williams and Anderson (1991), we consider employee performance as both in-role and extra-role performance. Behaviors summarized under in-role performance can be regarded as a constituent part of the job description. They directly support organizational functioning while being consistent with organizational goals (Williams & Anderson, 1991). In contrast, extra-role behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), comprise actions that go beyond formal job descriptions but indirectly increase organizational effectiveness (Williams & Anderson, 1991).

We argue that all forms of promotion-oriented job crafting may have a positive relationship with both in-role and extra-role performance for several reasons. First, employees who engage in promotion-oriented crafting enhance their perceptions of growth and positive self-image (Niessen et al., 2016) and gain interesting tasks (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001); as a result, they are likely to experience higher levels of intrinsic motivation (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). These employees are likely to work more enthusiastically and increase the individual effort put into their whole job (Deci & Ryan, 2000), including both in- and extra-role performance behaviors (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Second, when employees craft their skills and capabilities, they create foundations for performing new actions that may go beyond previous formal job descriptions. This suggests that there may be certain activities that can be better executed by a job crafter who has potentially learned new performance behaviors on-the-job. In sum, we reason that promotion-oriented job crafting may push employees to perform more challenging jobs, which involve doing more or even doing more complex tasks (Tims, Bakker, Derks, & van Rhenen, 2013a). Empirical findings report positive relationships between promotion-oriented crafting activities and in-role (Tims et al., 2012; Vogel, Rodell, & Lynch, 2016) and extra-role performance (Rofcanin, Berber, Koch, & Sevinc, 2015; Shusha, 2014).

H3a–H3c: Promotion-oriented crafting behaviors (a. developmental crafting, b. task crafting, and c. relational crafting) have a positive relationship with employee performance.

In contrast, we consider prevention-oriented crafting behaviors to be negatively related to both employee in-role and extra-role performance. These job crafting behaviors refer to reducing effort and avoiding certain unpleasant situations at work in order to prevent losses. When employees engage in prevention-oriented crafting, it is likely that performance outcomes will suffer from avoidance and disengagement. More specifically, prevention-oriented crafting is likely to lower the level of perceived self-competence and frustrate perceptions of a positive self-image, which negatively affects motivation to engage in performance-oriented behaviors (Weseler & Niessen, 2016). In addition, by minimizing relationships or avoiding colleagues at work, employees may isolate themselves from others and also hinder the exchange of performance-relevant information and experiences (Daniels, Glover, & Mellor, 2014). Furthermore, as employees reduce their social connections at work, they are less likely to contribute to extra-role performance, which entails altruistic helping behaviors. Empirical evidence endorses our theoretical propositions for both in-role (Petrou, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2015; Weseler & Niessen, 2016) and extra-role performance (Demerouti et al., 2015b; Petrou et al., 2015).

H3d: Prevention-oriented crafting (reductive crafting) has a negative relationship with employee performance.

2.2.5 The Moderating Role of Societal Culture

Grant et al. (2011) stated that culture should be considered as a macro-level variable in work-design research because the processes related to workplace design depend on the national culture in which companies operate. Consequently, we argue that societal culture will

likely affect the effectiveness of job crafting because the structure of work design is nested within culture (Johns, 2006; Johns, 2010). Liu et al. (2013) found that societal culture moderated the relationship between redesigning work via idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) and employee behavior. Addressing recent calls (Erez, 2010; Gagné & Bhave, 2011; Oldham & Fried, 2016), we submit that the effectiveness of job crafting is not uniform across cultural contexts, and that societal culture may moderate the relationships between job crafting and performance outcomes. Empirical evidence supports our reasoning for job crafting and highlights this theoretical void. Gordon et al. (2015) emphasize the necessity of further exploring cultural influences on the effectiveness of job crafting for task performance, while they report differences in size and significance of effects in a multinational sample (Canada and the Netherlands).

We focus on the relationships between job crafting and performance outcomes for three reasons. First, primary research provides an appropriate distribution among different nations and different performance measures. Second, performance is a crucially important variable for theory and practice that has received much scholarly attention in different cultures (e.g., Gordon et al., 2015; Rosenbusch, Brinckmann, & Bausch, 2011). Third, there is an ongoing debate about the behavioral consequences of job crafting, and it remains unclear under which conditions job crafting is beneficial or detrimental for employee performance (Demerouti et al., 2015a; Demerouti et al., 2015b; Dierdorff & Jensen, 2018). Using the GLOBE framework, we focus on the cultural practices of in-group collectivism, future orientation, performance orientation, and uncertainty avoidance as moderators. In what follows, we argue for the relevance of these practices, and how they are likely to moderate the job crafting–performance relationships. For our theorizing and empirical testing, we chose cultural practices (as is) over values (as should be), because practices reflect typical behaviors in a given society (Rauch et al., 2013) and resonate with proactive behavior (Autio, Pathak, &

Wennberg, 2013). In contrast, values are relatively abstract and distal to individual action (Stephan & Uhlaner, 2010).

We argue that in-group collectivism moderates the relationship between job crafting and individual performance. In-group collectivism refers to “the degree to which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations and families” (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 12). Less collectivistic cultures tend to endorse individual accomplishment and being superior to and distinct from others (Hofstede, 1980). We focus on in-group collectivism (rather than institutional collectivism) because job crafters are more likely to be affected by their immediate environment rather than by more abstract and distant national factors, as expressed within institutional collectivism.

Collectivistic practices are likely to impact the relationship between job crafting and individual performance. They facilitate cooperation (Marcus & Le, 2013) and social exchange (Liu et al., 2013). In presence of collectivistic societal practices, crafting one’s job is likely to be more strongly aligned with the goals of the workgroup. By orchestrating individual resources as well as individual prevention- and promotion-oriented crafting within the workgroup, employees in collectivistic cultures may better improve their individual performance outcomes. In particular, collectivistic practices likely increase the effectiveness of those job crafting actions that express pride and loyalty towards the work unit, and in turn, contribute to individual performance evaluations. For example, job crafters in collectivistic cultural societies may more frequently support and be supported by their colleagues and thus mutually increase their performances. In contrast, in less collectivistic cultures, proactive behaviors aimed at environmental change are suggested to be less effective (Kreiser, Marino, Dickson, & Weaver, 2010) because employees are less able to aggregate and collectively marshal the resources necessary to pursue environmental opportunities (Morris, Davis, &

Allen, 1994; Tiessen, 1997). Empirical research suggests that crafting the environment contributes to collective performance advancements (Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009).

H4a–H4c: Collectivism positively moderates the relationships between job crafting dimensions targeted at the environment (a. task crafting, b. relational crafting, and c. reductive crafting) and employee performance.

We furthermore argue that future orientation moderates the relationship between job crafting and individual performance outcomes. Future orientation refers to “the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies engage in future-oriented behaviors, such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying individual or collective gratification” (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 12). It describes how members of a given society think their current behaviors would impact their future and predicts their tendency for planning (Ashkanasy, Gupta, Mayfield, & Trevor-Roberts, 2004). Previous studies have acknowledged the relevance of time perspectives in the domains of organizational psychology (Sonnentag, 2012) and work design (Steel & Konig, 2006). So far, studies have portrayed job crafting as a future-oriented behavior (Parker & Collins, 2010) concerned with improving one’s person–job fit (Tims et al., 2016). However, studies have also shown job crafting as occurring in somewhat unplanned and spontaneous ways (Lyons, 2006) driven by current individual needs (Niessen et al., 2016). We agree with Kooij et al. (2016) that temporal orientations influence job crafting behaviors, but we disagree in terms of differentiation. Whereas they distinguished between promotion - and prevention focus for explaining the effects of job crafting on work-related outcomes, we argue, instead, that the intended target of impact (crafting individual vs. work environment) may affect this interaction. Moreover, they found that both promotion- and prevention-oriented job crafting are positively associated with an open-ended future time perspective (Kooij et al., 2016), which supports our reasoning.

Consequently, we argue that future orientation positively moderates developmental crafting, and negatively moderates crafting the work environment. First, future orientation is likely to augment the relationship between developmental crafting and individual performance because it is particularly congruent with future-oriented practices. Employees in future-oriented societies are more likely to invest time and energy to their personal future selves, delaying success or rewards to the future. We contend that in future-oriented societies, developmental crafting will be more performance-effective because employees reveal a greater level of longanimity and perseverance in the face of longer-term developments, such as learning a new skill. In addition, a higher degree of future orientation likely boosts the effectiveness of developmental crafting as future works selves are more accessible (Strauss, Griffin, & Parker, 2012) and, therefore, more feasible. By this, future-oriented societies provide contexts in which developmental crafting can be more efficiently and efficaciously translated into individual performance. Joireman et al. (2012) suggested that individuals with high consideration of future consequences reveal greater intentions to develop their personal physique through exercising.

H5a: Future orientation positively moderates the relationship between developmental crafting (increasing structural resources) and employee performance.

In contrast, we contend that future orientation may negatively influence the connection between crafting one's work environment and performance outcomes. In line with previous authors, we argue that crafting the work environment is most likely to occur on-the-job, in a spontaneous and unplanned manner (Lyons, 2006). It is intended to satisfy current needs (Niessen et al., 2016) in the short-term (Petrou et al., 2012). Thus, by influencing work design on a daily basis (Demerouti et al., 2015b; Tims et al., 2014), crafting one's work environment involves rather present-oriented practices. Therefore, in future-oriented societies crafting one's environment is likely to have weaker associations with performance because it may be

perceived as negligent and unprepared behavior leading to lower performance evaluations.

Hence, in contexts of high future orientation, casually crafting one's work will be regarded as less favorable and therefore have weaker links to performance assessments.

H5b–H5d: Future orientation negatively moderates the relationships between job-crafting dimensions targeted at the environment (b. task crafting, c. relational crafting, and d. reductive crafting) and employee performance.

Performance orientation is also likely to moderate the relationships between job crafting and performance outcomes. This practice refers to “the degree to which an organization or society encourages and rewards group members for performance improvement and excellence” (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 13). Societies with a high degree of performance orientation usually emphasize training and development, value challenging and clear goals, and have a drive to produce results, while people are motivated by external rewards (Javidan, 2004). As proactive behaviors strongly relate to performance (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010), we reason performance orientation to be helpful in explaining the effectiveness of job crafting.

We argue that developmental crafting may have stronger relationships with employee performance in societies with more performance-oriented practices. In sum, crafting individual skills and competencies in order to be better equipped, or to reach goals and complete challenges, is congruent with the practices of a performance-oriented culture. Therefore, having an affinity for challenge and a striving for excellence are likely to boost the effectiveness of developmental crafting in performance outcomes. We contend that societies high on performance orientation provide rewarding and challenging contexts where developmental crafting is a potential vehicle to achieve performance-related outcomes. Furthermore, individuals in performance-oriented societies tend to evaluate developmental efforts more fruitful for upcoming performance outcomes.

H6a: Performance orientation positively moderates the relationship between developmental crafting (increasing structural resources) and employee performance.

In contrast, we contend that performance orientation may negatively moderate the relationship between crafting the work environment and employee performance. As crafting work environments occurs beyond the radar of supervisors (Lyons, 2006; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), it cannot be directly associated with external rewards. In addition, proactively changing work environments, through task -, relational -, or reductive crafting does not entail clear means–ends relationships. As the outcomes of crafting work environments are hard to predict and often not visible (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), these behaviors may decrease one’s own and others’ performance evaluations. In addition, performance-oriented societies tend to discourage experimentation and disdain democracy (Javidan, 2004), which points towards a poor appreciation of alternative approaches to work design, such as job crafting. In sum, the higher the level of performance orientation, the higher the likelihood of job crafting being interpreted as an unrewarded waste of time or an unproductive, deviant job behavior, which has been argued and shown to decrease task performance (Demerouti et al., 2015b).

H6b–H6d: Performance orientation negatively moderates the relationships between job crafting dimensions targeted at the environment (b. task crafting, c. relational crafting, and d. reductive crafting) and employee performance.

The cultural practice of uncertainty avoidance is also likely to influence the effectiveness of job crafting behaviors. It describes “the extent to which members of an organization or society strive to avoid uncertainty by relying on established norms, rituals, and bureaucratic practices.” (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 11). Uncertainty avoidance relates to the ability of a society to tolerate and deal with inherent ambiguities (Kreiser et al., 2010), as well as the need to proactively seek ways to remedy uncertainty (Ashford, Blatt, &

VandeWalle, 2003; Hofstede, 1980). Within work design theory, environmental uncertainty is argued to be a contextual factor that impacts both the probability and necessity of proactive agentic job-change behavior (Grant & Parker, 2009). By implication, whether a work role can be formally prescribed or has rather to be crafted presumably depends on the prevailing uncertainty (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007).

In particular, we contend that practices of uncertainty avoidance are likely to resonate with the effectiveness of job crafting in two distinct ways. First, developmental crafting may work better in cultures with a high degree of uncertainty avoidance because it is highly congruent with the cultural practice of reducing ambiguity. Employees who develop their skills and capabilities are better equipped to perform in unanticipated situations (Tims et al., 2014). In this sense, individual capabilities can be regarded as coping resources (Callan, 1993) that enable better performance in ambiguous situations. Moreover, developmental crafting is likely more effective and stronger linked to performance because these societies tend to define achievement and performance in terms of security and being prepared (Hofstede, 1980). Thus, developmental crafting may yield greater associations with individual performance in societies that practice high levels of uncertainty avoidance.

H7a: Uncertainty avoidance positively moderates the relationship between developmental crafting (increasing structural resources) and employee performance.

Second, we argue that uncertainty-avoiding practices may negatively moderate the effects of crafting one's work environment on employee performance. As societies with a low degree of uncertainty avoidance tend to tolerate undefined means–ends relationships and task design is less structured (Erez, 2010), job crafting is likely more flexible and unrestrained. Members of these societies are less compelled by the need to either attach to existing norms or to adapt themselves to their work environment (Baker & Carson, 2011). Hence, employees may be better able to translate their individual strengths and capabilities into performance

outcomes. We argue that in societies that rather accept uncertainty, environmental crafting may be more innovative, efficient, and beneficial for individual performance because employees are not blinded or paralyzed by ambiguity. Empirical results suggest that less bounded and richer crafting activities (Kim & Lee, 2016; Leana et al., 2009; Niessen et al., 2016) yield greater performance outcomes (Petrou et al., 2015; Tims et al., 2014).

H7b–H7d: Uncertainty avoidance negatively moderates the job-crafting dimensions targeted at the environment (b. task crafting, c. relational crafting, and d. reductive crafting) and employee performance.

2.3 METHODS

2.3.1 Search Strategy and Inclusion Criteria

We conducted an extensive literature search to collect relevant, published articles. We included only peer-reviewed journal articles in our analysis to account for a higher quality of input, as proposed by Aguinis et al. (2011). We searched nine online databases (Ebsco Host, EconBiz, Econpapers, Emerald Insight, Google Scholar, Proquest, PsycInfo, Sage Journals, and Science Direct) using the search term “job crafting”, resulting in more than 1,200 hits.

Next, we applied several inclusion criteria to ensure transparency in gathering our eligible participant sample. First, after canceling duplicate results, we examined the title and abstract of each hit for actual topic fit, which yielded 93 studies. Second, we included only studies that reported correlations between individual job crafting and constructs that indicate well-being or performance in the meta-analysis, which resulted in 64 studies. Excluded studies examined relationships between job crafting and turnover intention (Esteves & Lopes, 2016), job characteristics (Solberg & Wong, 2016), or personality traits (Bell & Njoli, 2016). Third, consistent with the scope of our research, we included only studies that reported subdimensions of job crafting behaviors. Here, we excluded studies that only reported a

combined job crafting measure (e.g., Travagianti, Babic, & Hansez, 2016), without giving sufficient details about how this measure was calculated. We also contacted these authors and included the studies later on, if they responded to our request (e.g., Ingusci et al., 2016; Sakuraya, Shimazu, Imamura, Namba, & Kawakami, 2016). Fourth, we inspected the sample characteristics of each primary study and rejected studies that reported results that were obviously derived from the same sample (e.g., Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012; Tims et al., 2012). Here, we kept the studies that reported the most details. The final sample for our meta-analysis of effect sizes comprised 55 studies (60 independent samples) and 20,547 participants, covering job crafting research from 2009 to early 2018.

For the meta-regression moderator analysis, we applied two additional inclusion criteria. First, we included only primary research collected in national regions that are also included in the GLOBE study (excluding Golparvar & Rezaie, 2014; Karatepe & Eslamlou, 2017). Second, in case of multinational samples, we incorporated only primary research that provided national fractions of their sample (excluding Cullinane, Bosak, Flood, & Demerouti, 2017; Plomp et al., 2016).

2.3.2 Coding and Reporting

We relied on the Meta-Analytical Reporting Standards (APA Publications and Communications Board Working Group on Journal Article Reporting Standards, 2008) and the further elaborations of meta-analytical reporting practices proposed by Aytug et al. (2012) for coding. We conducted six steps for coding. First, the primary data were coded by one author and independently checked by a second author for each single effect size. Disagreements among coders were discussed and resolved. Second, when an article reported effect sizes derived from multiple independent samples, we included each sample separately in our meta-analysis (e.g., Beer, Tims, & Bakker, 2016; Gordon et al., 2017). Third, when

studies reported results derived from different subjects (e.g., Tims et al., 2015b; Weseler & Niessen, 2016), we included each relationship separately in our meta-analysis, rather than taking the average. Fourth, when results from longitudinal analyses were reported, we coded correlates based on time-one relationships for complete panel designs (e.g., Petrou et al., 2015; Vogt, Hakanen, Brauchli, Jenny, & Bauer, 2015) and between job crafting and relevant outcomes at other time points for incomplete panel designs (e.g., Petrou, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2018; Tims et al., 2013a; Tims et al., 2013b). Fifth, when studies had a treatment or an intervention (e.g., van den Heuvel, Demerouti, & Peeters, 2015; van Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2016b; van Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2016a; van Wingerden, Bakker, & Derks, 2017), we only considered pre-treatment correlations. Sixth, when there was more than one job crafting dimension per study relating to one job crafting cluster, such as in Nielsen and Abildgaard (2012) or Nielsen et al. (2017) who measured reductive crafting via two dimensions, we applied the treatment for complex data structures; in order to incorporate as much information from primary studies as possible, we integrated simple data structures and complex data structures (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2009) for both job crafting and outcome variables. Simple data structures in this sense refer to single effects, while complex data structures comprise studies that report multiple effects. Treating simple and complex data structures equally would assume statistical independence among the multiple effects within one sample, which leads to an overweighting of one study and to improper estimates of the precision of the summary effect (Borenstein et al., 2009). Thus, we calculated the composite average effect and adjusted the variance of the effect following Borenstein et al. (2009). By doing so, we obtained one effect size per study and per examined relationship as input for the meta-analysis.

We coded our first set of independent variables (the job crafting clusters) based on our theoretical elaboration of clusters and controlled for statistical differences in pooled effect

sizes due to conceptualization. Because we did not find significant differences in the means for each relationship available, we chose to integrate job crafting behaviors from both major conceptualizations.

For the second set of independent variables (the societal cultural moderators), we used the response bias-corrected scores of cultural practices scales from the GLOBE study (Hanges, 2004). These scores represent better indicators of actual practices because they attenuate culturally manifested patterns that are not a function of the respective constructs. For example, Asian cultures tend to avoid the extreme ends of the scales in order not to diverge too strongly from their group, whereas Mediterranean societies prefer to avoid the midpoint of a scale in order to prevent a non-committal appearance (Hui & Triandis, 1989; Stening & Everett, 1984). In addition, for multinational samples, we calculated weighted averages for each cultural practice according to the national fractions within a sample.

We coded the dependent variables based on our elaborations in the Theoretical Background section. For well-being, we distinguished between positive and negative indicators (Widmer et al., 2012), approaching this abstract construct from two angles in order to derive a more comprehensive conclusion. Positive indicators of employee well-being included in this study were positive affect, work engagement (Tims & Akkermans, 2017), job engagement (Chen, Yen, & Tsai, 2014), feeling energy, thriving (Li, 2015), job satisfaction (Hakanen, Peeters, & Schaufeli, 2018), job happiness, and work meaningfulness (e.g., Tims et al., 2016). Indicators of negative well-being included in this study were boredom at work, cynicism, exhaustion (Bakker, Rodriguez-Munoz, & Sanz Vergel, 2015), and burnout (Hakanen, Seppälä, & Peeters, 2017). We assume that there is an underlying common mechanism within these constructs that affects employees in being satisfied, energized, happy, or simply feeling well about their work in the case of positive indicators of well-being and the opposite in the case of negative indicators of well-being. In line with Stajkovic (2006), we

suggest that there can be unique added value in conducting a meta-analysis of the aggregate components of the higher-order construct.

For in-role performance, we followed Gilboa et al. (2008) by including measures that captured how well the job was done—both supervisor assessment and self-ratings (Viswesvaran, Ones, & Schmidt, 1996). Accordingly, we integrated task performance, in-role performance, quality of work (care), overall performance (Berdicchia, 2015), and service recovery performance into our dataset, as these behaviors directly relate to evaluations of in-role behaviors that contribute to organizational functioning. In contrast, extra-role performance comprises constructs, such as contextual performance, OCB (Organ, 1988), helping behaviors, and altruism, that indirectly support organizational functioning (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

2.3.3 Meta-Analytic Procedure

We chose Hedges and Olkin's (1985) random effects meta-analysis method to derive the average correlations between job crafting and its outcomes of well-being and performance using the metaphor package (Viechtbauer, 2010). Considering that raw correlation coefficients are derived from a skewed distribution, we applied Fisher z-transformation (see Erez, Bloom, & Wells, 1996). Following Viechtbauer (2005), we chose the random maximum likelihood estimator for estimating heterogeneity within our sample, because it gives a proper balance of biases and efficiency. Thus, we used Hedges' Q -test of homogeneity (Hedges & Olkin, 1985) and the I^2 measure of relative heterogeneity (Higgins & Thompson, 2002), where a significant Q -test and high values of I^2 suggest the presence of moderators, such as study characteristics (Higgins & Thompson, 2002). We assumed statistical significance at the $p < 0.05$ level for the meta-analysis of effect sizes and at the $p < 0.1$ level for the meta-regression. We checked for potential publication bias using Egger's test of the intercept

(Egger, Smith, Schneider, & Minder, 1997) and the rank correlation test (Begg & Mazumdar, 1994). Only two relationships (H1c, H3b) revealed potential publication bias issues because of significant funnel plot asymmetry. Previous studies (e.g., Peters, Sutton, Jones, Abrams, & Rushton, 2007) have suggested trim-and-fill methods as a potential remedy for this problem. However, as we relied on study nationality in our meta-analysis, we would have had to make assumptions about the nationality of the hypothetical studies used to fill the studies excluded by the trim-and-fill method. Due to the small number of studies, we used only bivariate meta-regressions with only one cultural practice as a moderator at a time, and we adjusted the standard errors of the estimated coefficients, following Knapp and Hartung (2003).

2.4 RESULTS

Table 2 reports the meta-analyzed correlations and the relevant test statistics.

Due to the small number of primary studies, the relationships between developmental crafting and extra-role performance were not testable for hypotheses 3a, 5a, 6a, and 7a. In addition, due to non-significant heterogeneity, we could not test for moderating effects for the relationships between relational crafting and in-role performance for hypotheses 4b, 5c, 6c, and 7c (see Tables 2 and 3). We will focus on the results of the testable hypotheses henceforth.

Supporting our hypotheses, every dimension of promotion-oriented job crafting yielded a significantly positive correlation ($p < 0.001$) with positive indicators of well-being (H1a, $k = 26$; H1b, $k = 45$; H1c, $k = 43$) and a significantly negative correlation ($p < 0.001$) with negative indicators of well-being (H2a, $k = 9$; H2b, $k = 19$; H2c, $k = 19$). Promotion-oriented crafting also showed a significantly positive correlation ($p < 0.001$) with in-role performance (H3a, $k = 7$; H3b, $k = 21$; H3c, $k = 16$) and with extra-role performance (H3b, $k = 13$; H3c, $k = 11$).

TABLE 2
Results of the Random Effects Meta-Analysis

Relationship	Sample		Effect Size Estimation				Heterogeneity			H	
	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>ES</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>I² (%)</i>			
Positive WB with											
Devel. Craft	26	11,732	0.45 ***	0.03	<0.001	[.40, .50]	265 ***	91.4		1a	
Task Craft.	45	16,168	0.34 ***	0.02	<0.001	[.30, .38]	302 ***	88.5		1b	
Relational Craft.	43	15,663	0.30 ***	0.02	<0.001	[.27, .33]	193 ***	79.0		1c	
Reductive Craft.	25	8,045	-0.06 †	0.03	0.057	[-.12, .00]	216 ***	87.7		1d	
Negative WB with											
Devel. Craft.	9	5,823	-0.25 ***	0.04	<0.001	[-.32, -.17]	112 ***	89.0		2a	
Task Craft.	19	8,277	-0.13 ***	0.03	<0.001	[-.19, -.07]	126 ***	85.1		2b	
Relational Craft.	19	8,277	-0.13 ***	0.03	<0.001	[-.18, -.08]	62 ***	77.6		2c	
Reductive Craft.	15	5,403	0.23 ***	0.03	<0.001	[.17, .28]	50 ***	69.6		2d	
In-Role Perf. with											
Devel. Craft.	7	2,005	0.32 ***	0.06	<0.001	[.22, .42]	34 ***	83.0		3a	
Task Craft.	21	5,040	0.28 ***	0.05	<0.001	[.18, .37]	258 ***	92.8		3b	
Relational Craft.	16	3,860	0.15 ***	0.02	<0.001	[.12, .18]	11	0		3c	
Reductive Craft.	14	3,140	-0.03	0.09	0.767	[-.20, .14]	343 ***	95.8		3d	
Extra-Role Perf. with											
Devel. Craft.	1	288	0.31	not testable							3a
Task Craft.	13	3,197	0.28 ***	0.04	<0.001	[.21, .43]	47 ***	73.8		3b	
Relational Craft.	11	2,700	0.21 ***	0.04	<0.001	[.14, .28]	32 ***	69.9		3c	
Reductive Craft.	9	1,890	0.00	0.07	0.975	[-.15, .14]	80 ***	90.2		3d	

Note: Coefficient is significant (2-tailed) at the 0.001 level ***; 0.01 level **; 0.05 level *; 0.10 level †; *k* = number of independent samples in a analysis; *N* = total sample size; *ES* = mean weighted effect size (correlation); *SD* = standard deviation of observed effect size; *CI* = confidence interval; *Q* = between study X^2 statistic ($df=k-1$); I^2 = % of the variability in effect size estimates due to heterogeneity; Abbreviations: WB = well-being, Perf. = performance, Devel. Craft. = developmental crafting, H = hypothesis.

The results of reductive crafting are somewhat more ambiguous. In contrast to our hypotheses, we did not find significant effects on positive indicators of well-being (H1d, $p = 0.057$) and on employee performance outcomes (H3d, $p = 0.09$, $k = 14$ for in-role; $p = 0.07$, $k = 9$ for extra-role). As hypothesized, reductive crafting showed a positive relationship with negative indicators of well-being (H2d, $p < 0.001$, $k = 15$). Although these results do not support our hypotheses fully, they provide an incentive for further investigations, because they consistently imply contextual factors that may interact with reductive crafting. Furthermore, the high cross-study variabilities within most of the investigated relationships

(shown by the Q and I^2 measures; see Table 3) suggest the presence of study characteristics as moderator variables.

TABLE 3
Results of the Cultural Moderator Analysis

Ind. Var.:		Dep. Var.: Employee Performance										
Job Crafting Dimensions	Mod.	In-Role Performance					Extra-Role Performance					<i>H</i>
		<i>k</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ² (%)	<i>k</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ² (%)	
Task Craft.	I.C.	20	0.22**	0.06	0.001	42.4	13	0.10*	0.04	0.022	43.9	4a
Relational Craft.	I.C.	17	no heterogeneity				11	0.02	0.06	0.776	0	4b
Reductive Craft.	I.C.	14	0.36**	0.10	0.003	50.6	9	0.19*	0.07	0.034	48.8	4c
Devel. Craft.	F.O.	6	0.21†	0.08	0.063	70.3	1	not testable				5a
Task Craft.	F.O.	20	-0.23*	0.10	0.030	19.8	13	-0.21**	0.06	0.004	70.5	5b
Relational Craft.	F.O.	17	no heterogeneity				11	-0.05	0.10	0.580	0	5c
Reductive Craft.	F.O.	14	-0.50*	0.20	0.024	31.2	9	-0.26	0.16	0.142	22.5	5d
Devel. Craft.	P.O.	6	0.38*	0.14	0.049	79.2	1	not testable				6a
Task Craft.	P.O.	20	-0.50*	0.18	0.012	27.6	13	-0.37*	0.15	0.028	37.6	6b
Relational Craft.	P.O.	17	no heterogeneity				11	-0.15	0.32	0.650	0	6c
Reductive Craft.	P.O.	14	-1.37***	0.32	0.001	59.8	9	-0.79**	0.18	0.003	81.7	6d
Devel. Craft.	U.A.	6	0.20	0.12	0.154	35.1	1	not testable				7a
Task Craft.	U.A.	20	-0.20†	0.10	0.070	13.8	13	-0.09	0.07	0.247	2.7	7b
Relational Craft.	U.A.	17	no heterogeneity				11	-0.08	0.10	0.408	0.2	7c
Reductive Craft.	U.A.	14	-0.56**	0.15	0.003	52.7	9	-0.35*	0.14	0.047	52.3	7d

Note: Coefficients *b* are reported unstandardized; Coefficient is significant (2-tailed) at the 0.001 level ***, 0.01 level **, 0.05 level *, 0.10 level †; *k* = number of independent samples in an analysis; *SE* = standard error, *R*² = % of the variability accounted for by including cultural practice as a moderator; Abbreviations: Ind. Var. = independent variable, Dep. Var. = dependent variable, Mod. = moderator, Devel. Craft. = developmental crafting, I.C. = ingroup collectivism, F.O. = future orientation, P.O. = performance orientation, U.A. = uncertainty avoidance, *H* = hypothesis.

Table 3 shows the results of our meta-regression for cultural moderators. As hypothesized, collectivism positively moderated the relationships between task crafting and employee performance (H4a, $p < 0.01$, $k = 20$ for in-role; $p < 0.05$, $k = 13$ for extra-role). The relationship between relational crafting and extra-role performance was not significantly moderated by collectivism (H4b). However, collectivism positively moderated the relationship between reductive crafting and employee performance (H4c, $p < 0.05$, $k = 14$ for in-role; $p < 0.05$, $k = 13$ for extra-role). As hypothesized, future orientation reveals positive

interaction effects with developmental crafting for in-role performance (H5a, $p < 0.1$, $k = 6$). Moreover, future orientation negatively moderated the relationship between task crafting and both types of employee performance ($p < 0.05$, $k = 20$ for in-role; $p < 0.01$, $k = 13$ for extra-role) supporting Hypothesis 5b. In contrast to our hypothesis, relational crafting did not yield a significant interaction effect with future orientation for extra-role performance (H5c). In addition, future orientation significantly moderated the relationship between reductive crafting (H5d) and in-role performance ($p < 0.05$, $k = 14$), but not that between reductive crafting and extra-role performance ($p = 0.16$, $k = 9$). Performance orientation positively moderated the relationship between developmental crafting and in-role performance, supporting our hypothesis (H6a, $p < 0.05$, $k = 6$). Furthermore, it negatively moderated associations between task crafting and both in-role performance ($p < 0.05$, $k = 20$) and extra-role performance ($p < 0.05$, $k = 13$), supporting Hypothesis 6b. However, performance orientation did not show a significant interaction effect with relational crafting for extra-role performance (H6c). Hypothesis 6d was supported for both types of employee performance ($p < 0.001$, $k = 14$ for in-role; $p < 0.01$, $k = 9$ for extra-role). Rejecting our hypothesis, uncertainty avoidance did not significantly moderate the relationship between increasing developmental crafting and in-role performance (H7a). The interaction effect of task crafting with uncertainty avoidance (H7b) can be supported for in-role performance ($p = 0.1$, $k = 20$), but cannot be supported for extra-role performance ($p = 0.25$, $k = 13$). Uncertainty avoidance did not show a significant interaction effect with relational crafting for extra-role performance (H7c). Finally, H7d is supported, as uncertainty avoidance negatively moderated the association between reductive crafting and employee performance ($p < 0.01$, $k=14$ for in-role; $p < 0.05$, $k = 9$ for extra-role).

In sum, we hypothesized 30 relationships for cultural moderators, of which 16 yielded significant results in the directions we hypothesized, 7 were not testable, and 7 were not found to be significant (see Table 3). Altogether, our findings suggest that both promotion-oriented

and prevention-oriented job crafting directed at the work environment have stronger relationships with individual performance in cultures of high collectivism, low future orientation, low performance orientation, and low uncertainty avoidance. In contrast, the relationship between developmental crafting and individual performance can be catalyzed by high levels of future orientation and performance orientation.

2.5 DISCUSSION

2.5.1 Main Effects and Previous Meta-Analyses

This study meta-analytically researched the effects of job crafting on well-being and performance outcomes at the employee level. Our study features several important differences from the recently published meta-analyses by Rudolph et al. (2017) and Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019), and, therefore, advances the understanding of job crafting behaviors.

First, drawing on the target of impact (Grant & Ashford, 2008) and regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), we develop a framework that incorporates both major conceptualizations of job crafting behaviors. Whereas Rudolph et al. (2017) focused solely on the job demands and resources framework to examine job crafting behaviors, and Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019) did not differentiate between subdimensions of job crafting (such as task and relational crafting), we incorporated the major theoretical perspectives of Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) and Tims et al. (2012), and also accounted for different subdimensions of job crafting. This differentiation is highly important because theory and empirical evidence of job crafting suggest that subdimensions are distinct (Bindl et al., 2019; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Zhang & Parker, 2019). Consequently, our study adds to the understanding of job crafting by summarizing a diffuse set of primary research (Zhang & Parker, 2019); it forms clusters of job crafting behaviors,

driven by theoretical elaborations from the job crafting domain and literature on proactive work behavior (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Second, our outcome variables differ from previous meta-analytic syntheses. Whereas Rudolph et al. (2017) focused on work engagement and job strain, and Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019) regarded work engagement and burnout, we focused on the broader concepts of positive and negative well-being as umbrella constructs. By providing a more comprehensive representation of these constructs, we advance the understanding of different forms of job crafting on general work-related outcomes. Note that although the constructs of task crafting and OCB may have similarities, Niessen et al. (2016) found that task crafting was related (convergent) to but yet distinct (discriminant) from OCB.

As far as our results for the meta-analytic direct relationships are comparable, due to the different frameworks and study goals, they are mainly consistent with previous meta-analytic syntheses. Our results are in agreement with Rudolph et al. (2017) and Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2019), as each promotion-oriented job crafting behavior is positively related to job satisfaction, work engagement, and the inspected performance measures, and negatively related to job strain. However, our results also differ; prevention-oriented job crafting yielded significant associations with the respective indicators of well-being and with in-role performance in their studies but not in ours. This may also be due to the fact that they incorporated unpublished data while we deliberately chose not to. However, our results align perfectly with the results of Bindl et al. (2019), who found that promotion-oriented crafting was positively related to performance, whereas prevention-oriented crafting yielded non-significant associations. Finally, the relatively high levels of between-study variability for nearly every relationship investigated point to contextual factors, i.e., societal cultural practices.

2.5.2 When is Job Crafting Good for Performance? The Role of Societal Culture

We theorize and empirically show that (to some extent) the relationships between job crafting and individual performance are contingent on the respective cultural circumstances. By this, we advance the understanding of contextual moderators of job design research, following the calls by Gagné and Bhave (2011) and Johns (2006, 2010). Furthermore, we contribute to literature above and beyond existing quantitative summaries. More specifically, our results add to the understanding of the impact of some cultural practices on the effectiveness of job crafting. In line with previous research, we find that collectivism is beneficial for proactive behavior targeted at the environment (Marcus & Le, 2013; Kreiser et al., 2013). Hence, we infer that proactively crafting one's work environment may yield greater employee performance outcomes in more collectivistic units or work contexts.

We also contribute by incorporating the role of time perspective to the effectiveness of job crafting. Here, our results suggest that societies with a high future orientation tend to procrastinate their crafting efforts targeted at improving work performance while being more motivated by current needs. However, previous studies have suggested that trait-based promotion focus may predict future orientation (Kooij, Bal, & Kanfer, 2014; Zacher & Lange, 2011), and future hoped-for identities have also been shown to motivate proactive career behaviors (Strauss et al., 2012). In light of these theoretical and empirical ambiguities, the underlying mechanisms for proactive job behaviors and temporal orientations remain comparatively unclear and lack further exploration.

Furthermore, our study also advances the understanding of the effectiveness of job crafting in light of performance-oriented practices. We find that high levels of performance orientation can be harmful to the relationship between the crafting environment and individual performance. Empirical evidence supports this notion as higher levels of performance evaluations have been associated with work overload (Brown, 2005), creating pressuring

work atmospheres. For work contexts, we conclude that relaxation of performance orientation, as well as a greater tolerance for alternative approaches to work design, may be fruitful for augmenting the relationships between crafting environmental aspects and performance outcomes. In addition, as performance evaluations may depend on the type of work and obligatory clarity of means–ends relationships, there may not always be a single correct method or result (Quinn, 2016). In this light, research may benefit from more appropriate or context-specific performance measures.

Finally, our results indicate that uncertainty-avoiding practices may decrease the effectiveness of crafting one’s work environment for employee performance. Whereas rigorously defined work roles are not appropriate in highly uncertain contexts (Griffin et al., 2007), they become more necessary for goal accomplishment and compliance under stable conditions. Empirically, studies on uncertainty–performance relationships suggest that, under high levels of production uncertainty, enhancing employee autonomy yields greater performance (Cordery, Morrison, Wright, & Wall, 2010). In line with this, our findings suggest that when job crafters accept the prevailing uncertainty, their performance can be enhanced via crafting their environment. Finally, although previous studies have portrayed uncertainty as a potential predictor of job crafting (e.g., Petrou et al., 2015; Petrou et al., 2017), our results support the position of Dierdorff and Jensen (2018), suggest moderating effects on performance. However, as mechanisms of uncertainty acceptance in job crafting seem to be complex and not well understood (Oldham & Fried, 2016), it may be fruitful to examine different types of uncertainty, such as resource, task, or outcome uncertainty (Leach et al., 2013).

Considering the overall implications of our framework and integration of cultural practices into job crafting research, two things become salient. First, considering the non-significant relationships between prevention-oriented crafting and individual performance,

specific cultural moderators seem to be pivotal in explaining the direction of the reported effects. Therefore, our study adds to the question of under which conditions even reductive crafting can be beneficial to employee performance. The results of our moderator analysis suggest that under high levels of collectivism (and low levels of performance orientation and uncertainty avoidance) reductive crafting may be beneficial to both in-role and extra-role performance.

Second, the intended target of impact rather than regulatory focus helps to explain the direction of the interactions with cultural practices. In particular, regulatory focus alone is not able to offer explanations, for example, for why increasing structural resources and task crafting are conversely moderated by performance orientation and uncertainty avoidance, although both behaviors are defined as promotion-oriented. Similarly, for each of the four cultural moderators investigated in this study, prevention-oriented crafting reveals the same interactional direction as promotion-oriented task crafting. This supports our hypotheses and empirically corroborates our framework's distinction between the two targets of impact. Similar constructs such as i-deals (Hornung, Rousseau, & Glaser, 2008) distinguish between flexibility i-deals (targeted at the environment) and developmental i-deals (targeted at individual characteristics). Concerning the relationships between i-deals and proactive behavior, our results are in agreement with Liu et al. (2013), who suggested that individualism moderates flexibility i-deals differently than development i-deals. Thus, we infer that the distinction between developmental crafting and environmental crafting generates a helpful and finer-grained approach to job crafting, when investigating moderating effects, such as the role of societal culture.

2.5.3 Limitations and Future Research

The present study has some limitations, and partially on this basis, offers opportunities for future research. Similar to all other meta-analyses, our investigation is limited to the currently available empirical research on job crafting. Although we have found a sufficient body of research allowing for meta-analytic techniques, we have also encountered some limitations concerning the number of primary studies available so far, which resulted in the following issues. First, some hypotheses regarding cultural moderators were not testable or lacked power in detecting potential effects.

Second, geographically, the majority of studies were performed in the West, especially in the Netherlands (18 studies), while the relationship between job crafting and work engagement dominated previous research. In contrast, larger geographical regions such as South America (1 study), Africa (3 studies), and Asia (6 studies), have not been adequately represented in primary research. Our study suggests that geographical aspects may affect the job crafting–performance relationship. Therefore, understanding the impact of cultural differences on the effectiveness of job crafting is of theoretical and practical interest. More studies in multiple cultural settings should yield more accurate insights and allow for more sophisticated multivariate moderator analyses and inferences on this topic.

Third, the dimension of cognitive crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) is not examined sufficiently in primary research, and, therefore, could not be included in our meta-analytic framework. Thus, choosing job-crafting behaviors over cognition may limit the value of our framework; on the other hand, it could also enhance our study’s profile. However, as cognitive crafting seems to be involved in psychological mechanisms, such as in making sense of one’s occupation (Vuori, San, & Kira, 2012), it may predict assignment of individual meaning to one’s job (Wrzesniewski et al., 2013), as well as follow-up crafting actions.

Hence, exploring the interaction between behavioral - and cognitive crafting is potentially interesting for future research.

Fourth, our research on reductive crafting indicates two limitations, which provide a stimulus for future research. The number of publications reporting reductive job crafting outcomes is vastly smaller than the one of promotion-oriented job crafting behaviors. Previous meta-analyses that looked at organizational research also focused on positive rather than negative work behaviors (e.g., Dalal, 2005; O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012). Consequently, we would like to stimulate research on reductive crafting behaviors in general. In addition, reductive crafting is positively related to negative indicators of well-being, but it is not significantly associated with positive indicators of well-being. Studies to date lack causal mechanisms for explaining these inconclusive findings. Although intuitively it could be argued that reductive crafting should reduce workload, create space for recovery, and protect the employee in stressful situations (Demerouti et al., 2015a), it appears to be always associated with low levels of energy and lack of motivation (Petrou et al., 2017). Drawing on regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), Lichtenthaler and Fischbach (2016) argued for a mutual counterweighing of tangible and intangible factors, which eventually overcomes the positive effects of reduced demands at work. However, the underlying mechanisms in prevention-oriented forms of job crafting remain unclear and need further clarification.

Fifth, we focused on the performance relationship and excluded the well-being relationship from our moderator analysis. However, societal culture may also moderate the effects of job crafting on well-being outcomes, which may be a fruitful area for future research.

Finally, our research suggests that the effectiveness of job crafting is dependent on contextual factors, such as culture. As mentioned above, we chose cultural practices from the

GLOBE study for several reasons. Although we incorporated four out of five distinct cultural syndromes, as condensed by Nardon and Steers (2009), in our analysis, we are not able to fully grasp the impact of societal culture on the effectiveness of job crafting. However, other operationalizations of culture (Uz, 2015) or other cultural characteristics, such as tightness–looseness (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006), may account for between-study variability. It is also likely that other contextual factors, such as organizational artifacts and orientations, may work as potential moderators for job crafting behaviors. Future research needs to delve deeper into these contextual influences to explore the conditions under which job crafting is particularly fruitful.

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CHAPTER 3: JOB CRAFTING OPPORTUNITIES AND APPLICANT ATTRACTION - A MULTI-STUDY APPROACH-

ABSTRACT

Drawing on signaling theory, we investigate the role of job crafting opportunities on applicant attraction using a multi-study approach. We develop theory and reason that job crafting opportunities will positively impact potential applicants' decision to apply for a job and also to accept an existing job offer. In Study 1, we test our hypotheses with the help of a multi-level within-subjects design experimental study with 944 decisions, nested in 59 individuals. The results support our hypothesis that individuals are more likely to apply for a job when they believe there are more opportunities for job crafting. In Study 2, we examine the mechanisms of job crafting opportunities on job acceptance intentions. We argue that anticipated organizational treatment, role ambiguity, and authentic self-expression mediate between offered job crafting opportunities and the intention to accept a job offer. We test our hypotheses with an experimental vignette between-subjects design study and a sample of 429 German employees. The results confirm our hypotheses that anticipated treatment and anticipated authentic self-expression, but not role ambiguity, fully mediate between offered job crafting and the intention to accept a job offer. We discuss our findings and show avenues for future research.

Keywords: applicant attraction, job crafting opportunities, signaling theory

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Attracting and retaining talented employees is crucial for organizations (Harold & Ployhart, 2008; Ployhart, 2006). Major workforce trends such as shifting demographics, increasing employee diversity and needs (Renaud, Morin, & Fray, 2016; Tarique & Schuler, 2010; Terjesen, Vinnicombe, & Freeman, 2007) call for a better understanding of job seekers' expectations and demands of their future jobs (Kumari & Saini, 2018). Hence, in the war for talents, organizations are offering various individualized resources in order to attract potential new employees, such as innovative perks (Renaud et al., 2016), flexible work arrangements (Reb, Li, & Bagger, 2018; Thompson, Payne, & Taylor, 2015), or ex-ante idiosyncratic deals (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006; Rousseau, Hornung, & Kim, 2009).

While literature indicates that offering such individualized resources is positively associated with employee attraction, little is known about the effects of offering opportunities to craft one's job on applicant attraction. In the meantime, job crafting research has predominantly focused on the process of employees proactively shifting characteristics within their jobs in order to achieve greater person-job fit or increased meaningfulness (Tims, Derks, & Bakker, 2016) or employee performance (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020). However, in times of autonomous and flexible work arrangements, the question arises, how the opportunity to proactively change job designs impacts the process of applicant attraction?

Drawing on signaling theory as an overarching theoretical framework, we seek to address this question with first, an experimental fractional factorial within-subjects study, and second, an experimental vignette between-subjects study. Within the first study, we juxtapose the opportunity to craft one's tasks against four other relevant job characteristics (i.e., career development opportunities, training opportunities, organizational image, and attractive tasks) concerning individual intentions to apply.

Within the second study, we explore the mechanisms that applicants derive from organizations that signal job crafting opportunities during the later stages of the recruitment process. Hence, we argue and survey the paths through which job crafting opportunities translate into job acceptance intentions. Here we focus on anticipated resources of the future occupation, such as anticipated organizational treatment, anticipated role clarity, and anticipated authentic self-expression as mediators.

By this, we seek to advance theory in several distinct ways. First, we integrate reasoning from the proactive work design literature into the recruitment literature. Although research acknowledged static top-down job characteristics, such as task variety or autonomy (Zacher, Dirkers, Korek, & Hughes, 2017), it remained comparatively silent about dynamic bottom-up qualities of jobs during recruitment. We conceptualize anticipated or offered job crafting opportunities as a novel potentially attractive signal of work flexibility above and beyond flextime and flexplace. Moreover, we develop and test specific hypotheses on the importance of offering job crafting opportunities to new job candidates and compare it to other highly relevant factors that trigger organizational attraction. By this, we add the understanding and the instrumentality and the relative weight of job crafting opportunities before actual employment relationships. Also, we seek to advance theory as we connect job crafting theory with signaling theory and add to the literature of early-stage applicant attraction. Moreover, by illuminating the relevance of job crafting opportunities as a potentially useful instrument for applicant attraction, we pave the grounds for further research on the relationship between opportunities for proactive work behaviors on applicant attraction.

Second, with Study 2, we build theorizing on the underlying mechanisms that drive applicant attraction through later and more involved stages of the recruitment process. Hence, we seek to increase our understanding of underlying mechanisms that translate job crafting opportunities into organizational attraction. Thus, we advance the understanding of how this

signal may be conceived and interpreted. This research is essential, as mediating mechanisms are more frequently assumed and proposed, but rarely empirically tested in recruitment research (Breugh, 2008; Jones, Willness, & Madey, 2014). In this sense, very little is known about whether and how the opportunity to engage in job crafting relates to job acceptance intentions and what may be the mediating paths that explain individual decision to accept a job offer.

Overall, we seek to address current calls for more complex scenarios in recruitment research (Renaud et al., 2016), as well as calls for investigating non-student samples in the theory testing of applicant attraction in order to increase external validity (Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Renaud et al., 2016; Thompson et al., 2015). Above that, drawing on the notion that there may be a threshold above which additional autonomy may be adverse for attraction, we seek to address recent calls for considering negative individual outcomes of offering flexibility in future workplaces (Thompson et al., 2015).

3.2 THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

3.2.1 Main Theory

In order to derive our hypotheses, we draw on signaling theory as an overarching framework (Rynes, S., L., 1991; Spence, 1973). According to signaling theory, organizations attract applicants by intentionally conveying information to potential prospects (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011). Based on this information, prospects form their individual job characteristics beliefs (Ehrhart, 2006). Furthermore, as prospects often have incomplete or superficial information, they have to rely on and interpret observable information provided by an organization as signs of less observable organization and job attributes (Chapman, Uggerslev, Carroll, Piasentin, & Jones, 2005; Ehrhart & Ziegert, 2005; Rynes, S., L., 1991; Turban, 2001).

Signaling theory has been used to explain various phenomena in the recruitment context, such as how offering different types of employment and payment practices (Belogolovsky & Bamberger, 2014) affects employee retention. In addition, research shows that recruitment experiences provide signals that are likely to guide prospects' evaluations of the potential future occupation (Cable & Turban, 2003; Jones et al., 2014), or that work-related practices and employee-centered HR practices can serve as signals about the organizational working conditions (Thompson et al., 2015). Drawing on this information, applicants construe a mental schema and anticipate what it would be like to work at a particular organization (Wayne & Casper, 2012). For example, applicants may infer the extent to which an organization is "family-friendly" based on the types of policies made transparent in a recruitment environment (Casper & Harris, 2008). Besides, signals during recruitment, such as subjective value perceptions made in job offer negotiations, can affect employees' subsequent attitudes and intentions to turn over even one year later (Curhan, Elfenbein, & Kilduff, 2009).

Ehrhart and Ziegert (2005) state that signals which affect organizational perceptions are very diverse and can be "virtually any characteristic observable to individuals" (p. 904). Drawing on this notion, we seek to underscore the relevance of offered job crafting opportunities, as the employers may use them in order to convey the benefits of working for the employer and elicit desired intentional responses (e.g., attraction). On this account, offering job crafting opportunities may increase perceptions of person-job fit, or opportunities to use of individual strengths and skills. By this, they are likely to elicit positive employee attitudes, intentions, and behavior from which the signaling organization may benefit in turn. Besides, as providing such individualized resources is regulated by the signaler, the effectiveness of signaling opportunities for job crafting depends on the signaler's willingness to convey these signals.

3.2.2 Job Crafting in the Recruitment Context

We argue that the presence of specific organizational attributes, such as opportunities for job crafting, can signal that the organization generally encourages its employees to be proactive in how they design and execute their work. From an applicant's perspective, such organizations are likely to be perceived as supportive, granting space for self-directed behavior, mastery experiences, and competence building (Ho & Kong, 2015), and therefore, is likely attractive. From an employer perspective, offering job crafting opportunities can be regarded as market signals which may be conceived by potential applicants and work as competitive advantages in order to excel from other employers (Celani & Singh, 2011).

To our knowledge, this research is the first to examine the signals conveyed by job crafting opportunities in depth. However, similar constructs from proactive individual work design, such as i-deals (Rousseau et al., 2006), have been investigated in light of applicant attraction while drawing on signaling theory (Ho & Kong, 2015). Within i-deals literature, Rousseau et al. (2006) referred to *ex-ante i-deals* as individual work arrangements before employment. These flexible work arrangements can signal how valuable job incumbents are to their employers. They provide signals to the applicant that are likely integrated into the organizational image and interpreted when forming intentions to apply (Guerrero & Chaliol-Jeanblanc, 2017).

3.2.3 Hypotheses Development

Drawing on signaling theory and job crafting literature, we assert that first, job crafting opportunities are generally perceived as a positive signal by the employer, which leads to increased intentions to apply (H1a) and even stronger for promotion-focused employees (H1b). Second, we reason that offering job crafting opportunities informs three signal-based mechanisms, expected treatment (H2a), role ambiguity (H2b), and authentic self-expression

(H2c), which mediate the relationship between job crafting opportunities and job acceptance intention.

Signaling theory suggests that, on the basis of observing and interpreting information, potential applicants derive inferences about their potential future employment. In this vein, company descriptions and job designs are considered among the most crucial information addressed in job advertisements (Bullinger & Treisch, 2015). When assessing a given organization, applicants are likely to evaluate current and anticipated resources offered by the organization (Thompson et al., 2015). Previous studies suggest that individuals develop expectations and attitudes before they even start working (Jones et al., 2014; Wanous, Poland, Premack, & Davis, 1992). Other research suggests that applicants anticipate job characteristics, such as high workload (Casper, Sonnentag, & Tremmel, 2017), role stress (Tuckey, Searle, Boyd, Winefield, & Winefield, 2015), or job insecurity (Eilam-Shamir & Yaakobi, 2014), or organizational support (Wayne & Casper, 2012) in order to guide evaluations of the prospective future job.

We argue that signaling job crafting opportunities will increase the likelihood of applying for a given job vacancy. Job crafting opportunities are likely to send relevant information about how an organization may empower, treat, and lead its employees. Potential applicants are likely attracted to such organizations because they provide them with resources for creating and shaping individual work environments, where they can utilize their individual skills (Ho & Kong, 2015). We contend that job crafting opportunities may signal specific attractive organizational characteristics, such as employer creativity and people focus, which have been suggested attractive to potential applicants (Yu & Davis, 2019).

In addition, job crafting as a bottom-up individualized redesigning of work is likely to meet many demands of today's workforce, resulting in more meaningful jobs with a higher individual fit (Tims et al., 2016). Previous studies theorize that job characteristics, such as

autonomy, task variety, or task significance can be attractive to applicants, and that employees develop job-related attitudes based on evaluations of these job characteristics (Zacher et al., 2017). Furthermore, there is meta-analytical evidence suggesting that job characteristics account for vast amounts of variance in application intentions (Chapman et al., 2005). We argue that by offering job crafting opportunities, employers signal granting discretion over one's own future job characteristics, which in turn is likely interpreted as positive and attractive.

H1a: The opportunity to engage in job crafting is positively related to the intention to apply for a job.

Moreover, we assume that the attractiveness of such job crafting opportunities is not uniform across individuals but rather depends on individual disposition, such as promotion focus. We argue that depending on their promotion focus, individuals may differently interpret and observe conveyed information about their future potential employment.

In particular, as highly promotion-focused individuals tend to seek out opportunities for growth, set ambitious goals and aim to maximize positive outcomes (Higgins, 1998), they are more likely to observe and interpret signals for job crafting opportunities as a chance to reach their professional goals, compared to less promotion-focused individuals. In addition, employees with high degrees of promotion focus, pursue chances related to their ideal self, are guided by their hopes and wishes, and like to try out new things (Higgins, 1997; Sassenberg & Scholl, 2013). We argue that these individuals will find opportunities to engage in job crafting more attractive because they may signal that employees can pursue opportunities helpful to achieve their goals and states that are related to their ideal self. In this manner, job crafting opportunities are likely to resonate with promotion focus as both of them draw on self-direction and autonomy. Previous research suggests that promotion-focused individuals use job crafting behaviors (Brennkmeijer & Hekkert-Koning, 2015) in order to increase their

individual employability. In addition, Sassenberg and Scholl (2013) suggest that promotion-focused applicants are more attracted to jobs that endorse values, such as power and self-direction.

H1b: Promotion focus positively moderates the effect of the opportunity to engage in job crafting on the intention to apply. In this sense, a stronger individual promotion focus further enhances the positive effect of opportunities to engage in job crafting on the likelihood of applying for a job.

Signal-based mechanisms. In order to understand the effects that offered job crafting may have on job acceptance intention, we seek to explore the different mechanisms and inferences made by the receivers (Highhouse, Thornbury, & Little, 2007). Particularly in recruitment research, signal-based models have been criticized for being underdeveloped (Breugh, 2008), while the mechanisms that connect signals to outcomes, and the inferences that individuals draw from these signals (Highhouse et al., 2007) often lack conceptual specification and empirical testing (Celani & Singh, 2011).

Signals about job crafting opportunities that inform expected organizational treatment. Drawing on Jones et al. (2014), we assume that offering opportunities to craft one's job will impact applicants' expectations about how this organization will treat its members (Breugh & Starke, 2000). Expected organizational treatment is related to how the organization supports, empowers or obstructs its employees in the execution of their jobs. We argue that offering job crafting opportunities will convey signals that the organization cares about their well-being and generally supports them in what they professionally do and how they do it. (Kröll, Nüesch, & Foege, 2018). The underlying mechanism here is that the organization's treatment will empower and support their employees to perform well (Yu & Davis, 2019), which in turn should impact the likelihood to accept the job offer (Breugh

& Starke, 2000). Moreover, we assume that offering job crafting opportunities to applicants send signals about the working conditions and the autonomy granted and also implies a credit of trust to employees in executing their tasks and duties. Employees who are treated well and provided with autonomy are motivated to apply and prevented them from leaving the organization (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Zacher et al., 2017). Catanzaro et al. (2010) suggested that the majority of both men and women preferred working in a supportive environment, even if the salary was lower. Casper and Buffardi (2004) found that anticipated organizational support fully mediated the effects of work schedule flexibility on job pursuit intentions. Thus, we hypothesize:

H2a: Expected organizational treatment mediates the positive relationship between opportunities to engage in job crafting and job acceptance intentions. In that sense, job crafting opportunities are positively related to expected organizational treatment, which in turn is positively related to job acceptance intentions.

Signals about job crafting opportunities that inform role ambiguity. We argue that offering job crafting opportunities may also send signals that inform negative aspects of a future occupation, e.g., role ambiguity, which may decrease the likelihood of job acceptance. Role ambiguity refers to perceptions that a role is not clearly defined and lacks substantial direction (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). It occurs when individuals do not clearly understand their duties task requirements and authorities and are not endowed with the relevant information to perform the job (Kauppila, 2014). This is relevant, as recruitment research tends to focus on positive aspects and also because there may be a threshold beyond which additional workplace discretion may not lead to desirable outcomes (Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006; Thompson et al., 2015).

Drawing on this notion, we argue that offering job crafting opportunities convey signals associated with unclear job requirements, expectations, and incomplete job descriptions, which, in turn, may negatively impact job acceptance decisions. Moreover, in light of unclear expectations, prospect applicants may feel anxious about whether they will be able to perform adequately. In particular, organizational newcomers are already likely to experience entry stressors related to ambiguities and uncertainty about their future responsibilities and roles (Lapointe, Vandenberghe, & Boudrias, 2014; Miller & Jablin, 1991; Saks & Ashforth, 2000).

Besides that, offering job crafting opportunities may be perceived as reduced organizational guidance or limited organizational socialization efforts, which may result in perceptions of poor individual performance appraisals (Gilboa, Shirom, Fried, & Cooper, 2008). In this manner, leadership research suggests that perceived laissez-faire leadership is associated with experiencing role ambiguity (Skogstad, Hetland, Glasø, & Einarsen, 2014), which in turn may decrease perceptions of performing well. In contrast, Bolino et al. (2010) suggest that employees may feel burdened by the expectation to be proactive and that there may be friction between proactive employees and those who are not. Employees who do not feel that they can perform well are also less likely to accept a job offer (Breugh & Starke, 2000). Previous authors suggest that role ambiguity is positively related to intentions to leave the organization (Fried, Shirom, Gilboa, & Cooper, 2008; Hang-yue, Foley, & Loi, 2005; Harris, Artis, Walters, & Licata, 2006) and negatively to job acceptance intention (Carless & Imber, 2007).

H2b: Anticipated role ambiguity mediates the relationship between opportunities to engage in job crafting and job acceptance intentions. In that sense, job crafting opportunities are positively related to anticipated role ambiguity, which in turn is negatively related to job acceptance intentions.

Signals about job crafting opportunities that inform anticipated opportunities for authentic self-expression. We argue that offering job crafting opportunities will signal that an organization allows and encourages authentic self-expression during work. In line with Banks et al. (2016), we contend that individuals have an inherent tendency to expand and enhance their social identities and that they are likely to be attracted by organizations that enable them to do so. Previous authors state that the motivation behind job crafting is to adjust jobs that do not fit one's actual self-image (Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova, 2016; Scott & Kowalski, 2011). Thus, when applicants are offered opportunities to shift work boundaries, they can infuse their jobs with what they perceive their true and authentic best selves. Hence, job crafting opportunities are likely to signal to applicants that the organization strongly values them as an individual, as a unique combination of skills, characteristics, and attitudes and not just as an interchangeable factor of production, from which the organization can benefit. So individual appreciation and personal valuing is a strong signal that informs anticipated opportunities for self-expression. In this vein, Cable et al. (2013) found that actively encouraging and emphasizing newcomers' authentic best selves led to greater performance and increased employee retention. Avery et al. (2013) inferred that organizational support for diversity was perceived attractive to applicants because it potentially provided climates that support expressing applicants' personal identities. Similarly, Wille et al. (2018) found that actual and ideal self-congruity with the organization's personality traits positively relates to intentions to apply. Kira et al. (2012) suggest that employees who undergo organizational change can increase their alignment between their identity and work itself via job crafting and thus facilitate perceptions of authentic work. Thus, we hypothesize:

H2c: Anticipated self-expression mediates the effect of opportunity to engage in job crafting on job acceptance intentions. In that sense, job crafting opportunities are

positively related to anticipated self-expression, which in turn is positively related to job acceptance intentions.

3.3 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDIES

To test our hypotheses, we conducted two experimental field studies, one metric conjoint (within-subjects design) and one vignette study (between-subjects design). The goal of Study 1 is to test Hypotheses 1 and also to increase our understanding of the actual relevance and magnitude of job crafting opportunities compared to other work-related factors, such as attractive tasks or training opportunities. To do so, Study 1 regards the very early stages of applicant attraction, the screening of potential job vacancies with the intention to apply as the dependent variable. Study 2 addresses the question of what are the signal-based mechanisms that explain the effects of offering job crafting opportunities to potential job candidates. To increase realism in terms of signals conveyed, Study 2 regards the later stage of applicant attraction, involving first-hand in-depth information about the actual job from the respective team leader.

3.4 STUDY 1

3.4.1 Methods

Data and sample. For Study 1, we approached our participants via professional social media (Xing). We chose to search for employees via Xing because it features the most considerable number of members in Germany and also entails helpful search filters. We executed several rounds of advanced search for German-speaking, full-time employees, with job experience and job starters, excluding CEOs, directors, or self-employed individuals, as those were not part of our target group. Our list of potential participants contained 1005 persons, from which 75 gave complete answers, and 69 passed the attention checks and

instructional manipulation checks (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009). Out of those, 59 participants gave significantly reliable responses, nested in 944 decisions. Following recommendations by Shepherd and Zacharakis (1999) that the minimum sample size for this research design should be 50, we inferred that sample as eligible in terms of size and included these answers into further calculations. In addition, this procedure allows us to control for non-response bias. Here, we compared respondents and non-respondents in terms of their gender, and Xing profile calls. Results of the respective t-Test did not indicate potential non-response bias in terms of gender ($p = 0.245$) and the number of profile calls ($p = 0.266$). Thus, respondents did not significantly differ from non-respondents.

Study design and experimental procedure. In line with previous studies on job preferences and organizational attributes (e.g. Aiman-Smith, Bauer, & Cable, 2001; Baum & Kabst, 2013; Zacher et al., 2017), we applied a multi-level design in order to test the (relative) importance of job crafting opportunities for applicant attraction. Following previous authors (Jones et al., 2014), and also to involve participants in the story framing, we created an introduction scenario (see Appendix) in which we introduced “job cards”. We asked them to imagine that they were currently looking for a job and already gathered many potentially interesting job vacancies. Next, we told participants that in order to have a better overview, they created these job cards as summarizing tables of their recent efforts to search for a job vacancy.

In the next step, we used these job cards to represent a job advertisement which comprised five characteristics (attractive tasks, training opportunities, organizational image, job crafting opportunities and opportunities for career development) and asked participants to rate their personal likelihood of applying for the respective job vacancy (see Appendix).

As recommended by (Hsu, Simmons, & Wieland, 2017), we conducted a pre-test of our manipulations to control for external validity. We asked two research colleagues in-depth

whether they understood the scenarios and the tasks they were asked to execute. In addition, we tested our experiment in a pre-study with $N = 62$ student participants yielding 1,984 decisions. The results of this pre-study confirm the results of our main study and add to the robustness of our findings. In order to avoid fatigue and to keep the number of decisions tasks manageable, we applied Hahn and Shapiro's (1966) orthogonal fractional design, resulting in 8 job cards, which we fully replicated to estimate participants' test-retest correlation (Louviere, 1988; Shepherd & Patzelt, 2015). This common approach in conjoint analyses also reduces problems of multicollinearity between attributes (Hauswald, Hack, Kellermanns, & Patzelt, 2016; Moser, Tumasjan, & Welppe, 2017).

Measures. Dependent variables: Participants in the conjoint decision-making experiment were asked to fulfill the task of evaluating a series of hypothetical scenarios in terms of likelihood to apply for this vacancy. This task required the decision-makers to make a series of judgments about the presented jobs, which were based on a set of theoretically derived attributes. Drawing on specific combinations of these attributes, the participants then decided on the likelihood of applying for this respective job. We captured this likelihood using a 7-point scale anchored by 1 "very unlikely" to 7 "very likely". When making these decisions we briefed them to 1) only focus on the information provided on the job cards assuming all else similar, 2) they are looking for a full-time job for themselves, 3) they are able to actually apply for each job, i.e., applying for a job does not affect other applications.

Independent variables (manipulated on the conjoint profiles, "job cards"): Guided by previous research on attractive organizational and job characteristics (Baum & Kabst, 2013; Boswell, Roehling, LePine, & Moynihan, 2003; Chapman et al., 2005), we integrated four level-one characteristics relevant for applicant attraction (attractive tasks, training opportunities, organizational image, and opportunities for career development) and added job crafting opportunities as a fifth attribute. Each of the five level-one characteristics of a job

vacancy was varied at two levels, high and low. This procedure allows us to observe the influences of every single component of the job cards while controlling for the other ones. Including five potential predictors helps us to provide a more comprehensive and realistic picture of forming intentions to apply and thus is likely to trigger more valid decisions. The manipulations of the independent variables are all derived from the respective construct's theoretical definitions, or adapted from existing research. For both the pre-study and the main-study, we operationalized the level-one independent variables, as Table 1 shows.

TABLE 1
Manipulations of the Independent Variable, “job cards” (Study 1)

	High	Low
Attractive Tasks	Many tasks are interesting and exciting.	Few tasks are interesting and exciting.
Training Opportunities	There are many opportunities for training or to attend workshops.	There are few opportunities for training or to attend workshops.
Organizational Image	The public perceives the company rather positively.	The public perceives the company rather negatively.
Job Crafting Opportunities	There are only few possibilities to adjust my tasks to my personal values, strengths and interests.	There are numerous possibilities to adjust my tasks to my personal values, strengths and interests.
Opportunities for Career Development	There are many opportunities for advancement and promotion.	There are few opportunities for advancement and promotion.

In addition, all individual level (level-2) constructs used in this study (e.g., perceived marketability, promotion focus) have been validated in previous research. Unless otherwise indicated, every individual-level construct used a response scale in which 1 was “strongly disagree”, and 7 was “strongly agree.”.

We measured promotion focus with a nine-item instrument by Lockwood et al. (2002). Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$ and a sample item was "I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations."

We controlled for gender, profile calls in Xing, and perceived marketability as being potentially influential. Specifically, Hauswald et al. (2016) argue that while more employment opportunities become available and lower-order needs can be satisfied more easily, individuals tend to focus more closely on higher-order needs, such as self-expression or self-actualization. We measured perceived (external) marketability with a three-item instrument by Eby et al. (2003). Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$ and a sample item was "There are many jobs available for me, given my skills and experience."

3.4.2 Results

Table 2 shows the results of the descriptive statistics of the level-2 variables for Study 1. In orthogonal designs, the correlation between the manipulated variables is zero, and thus, we do not report them on a correlations table.

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics of Level-2 Variables: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations (Study 1)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1 Intention to apply	3.97	2.33					
2 Age	36.47	9.94	-0.05				
3 Gender	0.73	0.44	0.01	0.17**			
4 Profilecalls in Xing	1952.76	1799.31	-0.09**	0.43**	0.12**		
5 Perceived Marketability	7.63	1.16	-0.08*	0.11**	0.11**	0.12**	
6 Promotion Focus	6.67	1.43	0.14**	-0.29**	0.04	-0.13**	0.11**

Notes: N = 59, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

We first tested if respondents produced reliable assessments of the scenarios by checking the test-retest reliability. Here, 86% of the responses were significantly reliable, with

a mean test-retest reliability of 0.71, which is comparable with other studies (for example, Holland and Shepherd (2013) reported a mean test-retest reliability = 0.72). Thus, we decided to include both the test and the retest decisions in our analyses, following previous studies (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Shepherd & Patzelt, 2015) yielding 16 decisions per participant. Finally, Study 1 involved 59 respondents, each providing 16 decision on intentions to apply, thus we ended up with 944 nested decisions.

Given the nested data structure, our observations are not independent of each other, and we have to account for that in our model. Thus, we applied a multi-level regression, which allowed us to account for varying variance at different levels (involving fixed and random effects models). Also, standard errors are less biased and for nested data structures, and we can calculate cross-level interactions. Table 3 shows the results of our multi-level regression analyses. For a better interpretation of the interaction effects, we z-standardized the variables included in the interaction terms.

As recommended by Aguinis et al. (2013), we conducted our analysis in multiple steps. Moreover, we first ran a null-model for the dependent variable, which only involves the intercept without any predictor following (Glaser, Stam, & Takeuchi, 2016) in order to warrant enough variance between individuals. The null models had an intercept of 3.97, standard error of 0.12, a level-one variance of 4.83, and -2 Log-Likelihood of 4,233. We also calculated the intra-class correlation (ICC) as an indicator of the proportion of variance between groups variance to total variance (Heck, Thomas, & Tabata, 2012). Although we had a relatively small between-group variability (ICC Sample 1 = 0.11), we chose to follow suggestions by Hayes (2006), and proceed with a multi-level design even though the ICC is near zero, because there are substantial benefits of applying an HLM to nested data structures.

Second, we ran a random intercept fixed slope model (RIFS, Model 1), adding only the control variables. We calculated R^2 , following Raudenbush and Bryk (2002), which indicates that the control model explains 0 % of the variance.

In the next steps, we added the five level-1 predictors and the level-2 variables and ran an RIFS model (Model 2), explaining 47% variability. For Model 3, we ran a random intercept random slope model (RIRS). As Model 3 also explained 47% of the variability, it is not beneficial to regard the less parsimonious model. Model 4 was calculated with the cross-level interaction effects with RIRS explaining 47% of the variance. As Model 2 yields the highest model fit and is the most parsimonious one, we choose to consider it for further reporting.

TABLE 3
Results from the Multi-level Regression Analyses (Study 1), Dependent Variable = Intention to Apply

Variables	Model 1 (RIFS)		Model 2 (RIFS)		Model 3 (RIRS)		Model 4 (Cross-Level)	
	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE
Intercept	5.46 ***	0.94	5.38 ***	0.74	5.65 ***	0.76	5.78 ***	0.76
<i>Level 2 Controls</i>								
Age	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.01	-0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01
Gender	-0.13	0.28	-0.08	0.25	-0.15	0.25	-0.14	0.24
Profile Calls	-0.00	0.00	-0.00 †	0.00	0.00 †	0.00	0.00 *	0.00
Perc. Marketability	-0.15	0.11	-0.19 *	0.09	-0.18 *	0.09	-0.20 *	0.08
<i>Level 1 Variables</i>								
Attractive Tasks			0.98 ***	0.08	0.98 ***	0.08	0.98 ***	0.1
Training Opportunities			0.36 ***	0.06	0.36 ***	0.06	0.36 ***	0.1
Organizational Image			0.85 ***	0.10	0.85 ***	0.1	0.85 ***	0.10
H1a Job Crafting Opportunities (JCO)			0.42 ***	0.06	0.42 ***	0.06	0.47 ***	0.1
Opportunities for Career Developm.			0.41 ***	0.09	0.41 ***	0.09	0.41 ***	0.1
<i>Level 2 Variable</i>								
Promotion Focus			0.34 *	0.17	0.22	0.15	0.19	0.14
<i>Cross-Level Interactions</i>								
H1b JCO X Promotion Focus							-0.03	0.06
<i>Variance components</i>								
Within (Level 1) var. $\hat{\sigma}^2$	4.83		2.56		2.56		2.55	
Intercept (Level 2) var. $\hat{\tau}_{00}$	0.60		0.65		0.47		0.47	
Slope (L2) var. $\hat{\tau}_{11}$					0.17		0.23	
Intercept-slope (L2) covar. $\hat{\tau}_{01}$					0.08		0.05	
R ²	0.0		0.47		0.47		0.47	
-2 Log Likelihood	4255		3704		3702		3701	

Note: N = 59 for Level 2 Variables, N = 944 for Level 1 Variables. *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05, † p < 0.1

The data supported Hypotheses 1, opportunities to engage in job crafting have a significant positive effect ($\beta = 0.42$; $p < 0.001$) on the intention to apply for a job vacancy. In addition, the relative weights of job crafting opportunities are comparable to other relevant factors, such as opportunities for training or career development.

The control variables, perceived marketability ($\beta = - 0.20$; $p < 0.015$) and the number of profile calls ($\beta = - 9,7 * 10^{-5}$; $p = 0.010$) yielded significant effects on the intention to apply for a job, which means that individuals who perceive that they have better chances at the current job market are less likely to apply and that individuals with more profile calls are less likely to apply. Gender and age did not reveal any significant relationship with the dependent variable. In addition, we are interested in the interaction effects of job crafting opportunities and promotion focus (H1b). Here, the results do not support our hypothesis that promotion focus positively moderates the effect of job crafting opportunities on the intention to apply for a job. However, the results indicate that promotion focus plays a positive role in the formation of intentions to apply, suggested by a significant direct effect.

3.5 STUDY 2

3.5.1 Methods

Data and sample. We collected the sample with a German panel provider. This panel provider allows potential study participants to log into their accounts and take part in potentially fitting, incentivized surveys while seeing only the survey duration but not the topic. As research indicates that job crafting is a potentially helpful strategy for nearly every kind of employee (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), we chose to not limit our sample to certain business branches or occupational groups. We collected data from 701 German employees. Out of those 485 individuals passed our attention checks and instructional manipulation checks, as suggested by Oppenheimer et al. (2009).

Finally, after clearing out participants who did not understand the manipulation, we ended up with 429 full responses to test our hypotheses.

Study design and experimental procedure. We created a hypothetical scenario (between-subjects design) which involved having applied a potentially suitable and promising job vacancy and basic mutual interest to progress towards employment. Here, we draw literature in order to cover most relevant job information (e.g., pay, location, or career advancements) and set them to a base level (Collins et al., 2007). Next, we told the participant that they passed the assessment center and were invited to a second appointment in order to meet the team leader and talk about potential job characteristics, following recommendations for realism and source credibility and respondent's attention by Breugh and Starke (2000) (see Appendix).

Guided by previous literature on job crafting (Niessen et al., 2016; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) and job crafting opportunities (van Wingerden & Niks, 2017), we manipulated job crafting opportunities in a high and low condition (see Appendix). In order to reduce confounding effects, we ensured that both the high and the low conditions were comparable in terms of word count and content (Highhouse, 2009). Following Hsu et al. (2017), we tested both the scenario and the manipulation of job crafting opportunities in a pre-study of $N = 66$ student participants.

For the main study, results from a two-groups independent t-Test suggest that our manipulation worked as intended ($p = 0.025$). By this, we ensured our treatment is representative of the latent independent construct, job crafting opportunities. More specifically, in order to produce and test generalizable theoretical explanations, it is of crucial importance that the operationalizations of the constructs allow generalizable inferences (Highhouse, 2009). Here, it is central to involve generalizable causes (offered job crafting opportunities) and generalizable effects (job acceptance intentions). Following

recommendations by Stone-Romero and Rosopa (2011), we randomized the two manipulation conditions and applied an SEM-based mediation analysis, as there are several advantages compared to regression-based approaches (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017).

Measures. Dependent variables: We measured *Anticipated Organizational Treatment* using the 5-items instrument for expected treatment by Jones et al. (2014), Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.96$. A sample item is: "I think this company would treat me well".

Anticipated Role Ambiguity was measured using an adapted version of the role ambiguity subscale by consisting of 5 reverse coded items, which reflects the clarity of behavioral requirements in a given occupation. Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.90$ and a sample item is: "In this job, I knew what my responsibilities would be."

Anticipated Self-Expression was measured using a 6-items measurement by Cable et al. (2013). Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.96$ and a sample item is: "In this job, I can be who I really am".

We measured *job acceptance intentions* with a single item, asking participant how likely they would accept this job offer, using a response rate from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely).

Independent variables: All variables were measured on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) response scale. We applied a manipulation checks, using 3-items of the perceived job crafting opportunities scale by van Wingerden and Niks (2017), Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.96$. A sample item is "I believe in this job I will have many opportunities to vary the type of tasks I carry out".

Control variables: We controlled for *age*, *gender*, *perceived marketability*, and *promotion focus* using the same instruments as in Study 1.

3.5.2 Results

As Table 4 reveals, expected treatment highly correlates with anticipated self-expression ($r = 0.79$, $p < 0.01$), which may cause problems of multicollinearity, and thus lead to biased estimators. In order to test for potential multicollinearity, we calculated the variance inflation factors (VIF). Expected treatment yielded a VIF of 3.20 and anticipated self-expression resulted in a VIF of 3.53, which is below the usually suggested threshold of 10 (Campbell & Weese, 2017; O'Brien, 2007). Thus, we conclude that multicollinearity is not a major threat to this study.

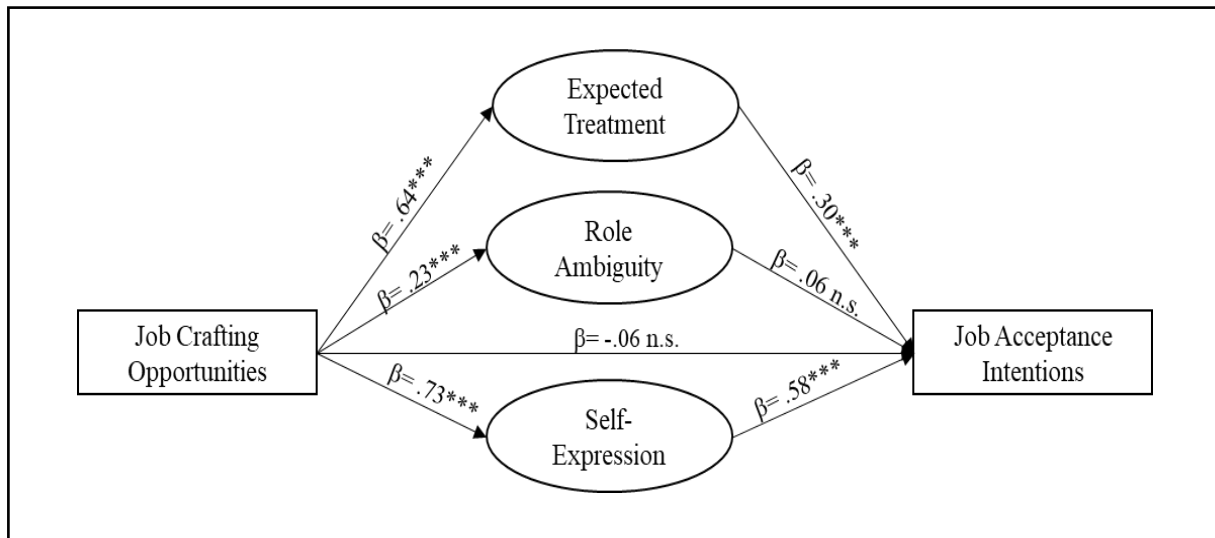
TABLE 4
Descriptive Statistics: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) and Correlations (Study 2)

Variables	M	SD	VIF	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Age	47.65	12.49	3.16										
2 Gender	0.43	0.50	1.06	.15**									
3 Experience	24.34	13.19	3.19	.81**	.20**								
4 Marketability	4.30	1.57	1.40	-.09	.10*	.07							
5 Promotion Focus	4.57	1.15	1.48	-.17**	-.01	-.07	.48**						
6 Job Craft. Opport.	0.57	0.50	2.55	-.04	.04	-.02	.04	.06					
7 Manipulation Check	4.29	2.05	-	-.03	.03	-.04	.04	.11*	.90**				
8 Expected Treatment	4.85	1.33	3.20	.02	.04	.03	.12*	.24**	.60**	.69**			
9 Role Ambiguity	5.22	1.18	1.68	.20**	.01	.25**	.23**	.33**	-.14**	-.06	.33**		
10 Self-Expression	4.32	1.68	3.53	.03	.06	.05	.08	.17**	.70**	.79**	.79**	.21**	
11 Job Accept. Intent.	4.67	1.75	-	.02	.02	.01	.01	.10*	.56**	.65**	.70**	.16**	.76**

Note: N =429, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05, Abbreviations: Job Craft. Opport. = job crafting opportunities, Job Accept. Intent. = job acceptance intentions.

Figure 1 shows the theoretical model with regression-based weights for the hypothesized mediation effects and the respective model fit.

**FIGURE 1:
Results of the Mediation Model (Study 2)**



Notes: N = 429. The β coefficients represent standardized regression weights. *** $p < 0.001$, Model fit: $\chi^2 = 336.4$; $df = 127$; p -value < 0.000 ; $\chi^2/df = 2.64$; TLI = 0.972; CFI = 0.977; RMSEA = 0.062.

Job crafting opportunities revealed positive effects on all three mediators (expected treatment, $\beta = 0.64$, $p < 0.001$; role ambiguity, $\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.001$; and self-expression $\beta = 0.73$ $p < 0.001$) but no significant direct effect on job acceptance intention. In addition, expected treatment and self-expression revealed significant positive effects on job acceptance intention ($\beta = 0.30$ $p < 0.001$; $\beta = 0.58$ $p < 0.001$), while role ambiguity did not have a significant effect on job acceptance intention.

TABLE 5
Standardized Specific Indirect and Direct Effects between Job Crafting Opportunities Offered and Job Acceptance Intention (Study 2)

Relationship between constructs	β	S.E.	CI low [2,5%]	CI upp [2,5%]	p
<i>Standardized Specific Indirect Effects</i>					
H2a Job Craft. Opport. -> Exp. Treatm. -> Job Accept. Intent.	0.19	0.05	0.101	0.278	0.000
H2b Job Craft. Opport. -> Role Ambig. -> Job Accept. Intent.	0.01	0.01	-0.007	0.003	0.202
H2c Job Craft. Opport. -> Self-Express. -> Job Accept. Intent.	0.42	0.06	0.298	0.547	0.000
<i>Standardized Direct Effects</i>					
Job Craft. Opport. -> Job Accept. Intent.	-0.06	0.06	-0.177	0.044	0.079

Notes: N= 429, Abbreviations: β = standardized regression coefficients, S.E. = standard errors, CI = Confidence Intervals, Job Craft. Opport. = job crafting opportunities, Manip. = manipulation, Exp. Treatm. = expected organizational treatment, Ambig. = ambiguity, Self-Express. = self-expression, Job Accept. Intent. = job acceptance intentions.

Furthermore, we tested for mediation effects, using Mplus following recommendations by Muthén and Muthén (1998-2012), applying 5,000 bootstraps in order to estimate indirect effects and confidence intervals (see Table 5). The resulting model fits the data well ($\chi^2 = 336.4$; $df = 127$; $p\text{-value} < 0.000$; $\chi^2/df = 2.64$; $TLI = 0.972$; $CFI = 0.977$; $RMSEA = 0.062$). Due to our experimental setting, reversed causality is not a major issue, as we manipulated the independent variables, whereas the mediators involved timely occur before the dependent variables, the decision to accept the job offer. As aforementioned, we also tested a model with controls (age, gender, perceived marketability), which also revealed acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 1227.4$; $df = 444$; $p\text{-value} < 0.000$; $\chi^2/df = 2.76$; $TLI = 0.927$; $CFI = 0.934$; $RMSEA = 0.064$). In comparison, this control model yields the same results in terms of significance and effect sizes but is less parsimonious. Thus, we decided to focus on the model without controls.

Here, our results support Hypotheses 2a and Hypothesis 2c, but not Hypothesis 2b. In that sense, expected organizational treatment and self-expression fully mediated the effects of offered job crafting opportunities on job acceptance.

3.6 GENERAL RESULTS

The overall results mainly support our hypothesizing. In Study 1, we find that the opportunity to engage in job crafting significantly increases the likelihood of applying for a vacancy. However, we do not find support for Hypotheses 1b that promotion focus moderates this relationship, meaning that job crafting opportunities may be more attractive to individuals ranging high on promotion focus. The results of Study 2 indicate that job crafting opportunities during later recruitment stages increase the likelihood of accepting a job offer. More nuanced, this effect is fully mediated through the anticipated resources expected organizational treatment and self-expression but not mediated through role ambiguity.

3.7 DISCUSSION

3.7.1 General Discussion

Within this research, we investigate the role of job crafting opportunities in applicant attraction. Drawing on signaling theory as an overarching framework, we build hypotheses on how job crafting opportunities increase the likelihood to apply for a job vacancy and also how job crafting opportunities may be translated into job acceptance intentions. Using a multi-study approach, with two distinct experimental designs, we test our hypotheses within two German samples. By this, we seek to advance literature in several ways.

First, we conceptualize job crafting opportunities as a signal of underlying organizational attributes and connect job crafting theory to signaling theory. In addition, we test the relative importance of this signal against other relevant antecedents of decisions to apply, such as opportunities for career development, opportunities for training, or organizational image. Drawing on our results on both studies, we infer that job crafting opportunities can be an important aspect in guiding applicants' decisions. In terms of forming intentions to apply, job crafting opportunities revealed to be comparable to opportunities for training or career development. In terms of deciding to accept a job offer, job crafting opportunities activate the pathways of anticipated supportive organizational treatment and self-expression. This suggests that job crafting opportunities may not be the utmost important aspect of a given vacancy but still significantly affects organizational attraction. Besides, we add to the perspective of Brenninkmeijer and Hekkert-Koning (2015), who focused on the instrumentality of job crafting for increasing the employability of employees. Therefore, we contend that job crafting opportunities should be considered when developing recruitment strategies and operations, as they can be useful signaling instruments. These inferences are in line with Anand et al. (2010), who concluded that i-deals – which are conceptually similar to job crafting (Rofcanin, Berber, Koch, & Sevinc, 2015) - may be “instrumental in recruiting

ambitious individuals” (p. 972). By this, we bring forth and discuss new reasoning on the instrumentality of job crafting for theorists and for recruiting organizations. This is particularly relevant as Ployhart (2006) criticizes that even though there has been a plethora of recruitment research over the last three decades (Breugh & Starke, 2000; Uggerslev, Fassina, & Kraichy, 2012), there are only a few practical implications for recruiting organizations and these are “at best obvious and at worst trivial” (Saks, 2005, p. 69).

Second, we explain and test three signal-based mechanisms (e.g., through anticipated organizational treatment, anticipated role ambiguity, and anticipated authentic self-expression) on how job crafting opportunities may translate into organizational attraction. By this, we extend knowledge on how individuals observe and interpret the signal of job crafting opportunities, which is crucial to this paper’s contribution. Previous recruitment research guided by signaling theory states that “Understanding the effect of those signals requires an understanding of the inferences drawn by the receivers” (Highhouse et al., 2007, p. 136). In this light, we advance job crafting literature by investigating three different signal-based inferences individuals may derive from perceiving opportunities to craft their jobs within the recruitment context. Within our framework, we also reason for mechanisms that involve adverse effects and, thus, refrain from the tendency within recruitment research to solely focus on positive aspects of organizational attraction. Here, we follow the call by Ehrhart and Ziegert (2005) to consider concepts that revise or paths that influence judgments of applicant attraction. Unfortunately, we only find support for the positive paths through which job crafting opportunities are mediated on job acceptance intention. However, these findings stem from strong empirics and methods.

Third, we provide a comprehensive methodological and empirical approach. Our experimental within-subjects design in Study 1 aligns with recent recruitment research in terms of originality and research design. For example, Renaud et al. (2016) used a similar

policy-capturing design in order to generate causal evidence on the impact of innovative perks, training, and ethics on applicant attraction, while focusing on three organizational attributes. Furthermore, Tews et al. (2012) examined the influence of workplace fun on applicant attraction relative to compensation and opportunities for career advancement. We build on these authors by juxtaposing job crafting opportunities against four relevant factors of applicant attraction, and thus, we draw our inferences on similarly complex and realistic scenarios. Within Study 2, we make use of a between-subjects design using SEM methods for analysis. In particular, signal-based models in recruitment research have been criticized for being underdeveloped (Breugh, 2008), while the inferences drawn from signals are rarely tested within conceptually specified models (Celani & Singh, 2011).

Forth, our research also adds to current empirical developments. Jobs get more complex and thus harder to specify and design from top-down, while research faces problems of recommending the right signals and factors to attract the right talent. In addition, previous research acknowledged this empirical development and regarded related phenomena, such as flexible work arrangements (Thompson et al., 2015) and ex-ante idiosyncratic deals (Rousseau et al., 2006). We complement this perspective and conceptualize job crafting opportunities as a potentially helpful signal in order to attract applicants who undergo demographic change (Terjesen et al., 2007).

3.7.2 Implications and Limitations

Our study is not without limitations, which we regard as avenues for future research. First, although we combined two studies in order to paint a more comprehensive picture of the role of job crafting opportunities in applicant attraction, we have two different dependent variables, intention to apply and job acceptance intention. This limits the comparability of the results, and we did not examine multiple layers of the same dependent variables, and

therefore, our results may lack density. However, our goal was to provide early-stage research on the respective relationships, which involves breadth rather than density. Future research may benefit from this foundation and examine the role of different moderators on the attractiveness of job crafting opportunities on applicant attraction, or even consider other opportunities for proactive behavior as signals of organizational attributes behind. In terms of moderators, proactive personality may influence the evaluation of those signals because it has been related to proactive behaviors, such as job crafting (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012) and also to affect situational judgment (Chan, 2006).

Second, relatedly, considering the early-stage of experimental job crafting research, we chose to focus on basic general conceptualizations of job crafting (Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2013) and neglected particular forms of job crafting, such as contraction-oriented vs. expansion-oriented crafting or relational and cognitive crafting (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2019; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Zhang & Parker, 2019). As job crafting may occur in a variety of different forms, shifting task, relational, and cognitive boundaries of the job, future research may use conjoint or vignette experimental designs to unravel the attractive effects of certain forms of job crafting and investigate whether our results generalize across different job crafting activities.

Third, we tested our hypotheses solely on German employees. Previous meta-analytic evidence suggests that job crafting's effectivity is context-dependent and varies within different socio-cultural settings (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020). In this manner, job crafting opportunities may be more attractive to employees in cultures that excel by low power distance and uncertainty avoidance because they are more likely to appreciate autonomy and also tolerate ambiguities within job design. Future research may investigate the role of societal culture on factors that attract potential applicants because job designs are nested within a culture (Erez, 2010; Johns, 2006).

Fourth, in Study 2, we were not able to compare respondents to non-respondents, as we were in Study 1. This limits our ability to make inferences on the generalizability of the results of Study 2. However, Study 1 revealed no differences between respondents and non-respondents in terms of their gender and the number of profile calls in the professional social network Xing. This suggests that potential applicants are attracted by job crafting opportunities across domains and individuals, whereas there may be more paths to explain this attraction than the ones we chose. Relatedly, although our choice of variables is based on previous research and theoretical elaborations on job crafting and applicant attraction, there may be other relevant factors that trigger intentions to apply and other constructs that may mediate between job crafting and job acceptance.

Fourth, although we employ two experimental settings that yield consistent and uniform results, we did not consider time effects or include time lags. Although we are not at major risk of common method bias, we do not know about the long-term consequences of employees who were attracted due to job crafting opportunities nor what actually may happen after getting the job. For example, it may be that individual expectations are not met, and employees become frustrated and leave the organization. In this regard, ex-ante i-deals have been suggested as potentially corrosive in recruitment research, as they may undermine the formation of long-time relationships (Rousseau et al., 2009). It may be similar that job crafting opportunities likely help to attract talent but also foster turnovers and hamper retention. However, future research may resolve these questions and increase our understanding in these regards.

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APPENDIX

Introduction Scenario (Study 1)

“Pretend that you are looking for a full-time job. You started your search with employers who are already known to you and are similarly attractive (salary, location, etc.). In the next step, you have created a list of all vacancies that you would consider from the location. Due to the long list of vacancies, you have decided to structure the information about the vacancies in order to get a better overview. Therefore, you have created the following "job cards".

Introduction Scenario (Study 2)

“Imagine that you have applied for a promising job. The position basically corresponds to your expectations (salary, location, opportunities for advancement and further training) as well as your personal skills and qualifications. In the first rounds of the assessment center, you successfully prevailed against other applicants and the organization would generally be interested in entering into an employment relationship with you.

In order to get a better impression of your potentially future job and to get to know every day work and organizational culture a little better, you will be invited to a further interview. As part of this conversation, your future team leader will guide you through the department and provide you with more detailed information about the details of the job. It is all about the content of your future tasks and activities, i.e. how to do it.”

High Condition Manipulation: Many Job Crafting Opportunities (Study 2)

“Your team leader informs you that you can individualize your job very strongly. That means you will have many options to design your job yourself so that it fits your interests and skills better and you can better contribute your individual strengths. You will have many options to vary the way you perform the tasks. You will have numerous options to tailor the number of tasks and activities that you perform to yourself. You will also often have the opportunity to take on new activities and challenges if you wish.”

Low Condition Manipulation: Little Job Crafting Opportunities (Study 2)

“Your team leader informs you that you can only customize your job very little, because the job is designed and specified quite precisely. That means you will have few options for designing your job yourself, since the work processes and processes follow predefined processes. You will also have few options to vary the type of tasks you perform (for example, because other employees depend on your output). You will rarely be able to tailor the number of tasks and activities that you perform to yourself. You will have few opportunities to take on new activities and challenges, even if you would like to.”

CHAPTER 4 WHEN DO EMPLOYEES DECIDE TO CRAFT THEIR JOB-TASKS? AN OPPORTUNITY EVALUATION PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

Drawing on literature on opportunity evaluation and job crafting, we hypothesize that task crafting is triggered by a deliberate decision process in which employees assess characteristics of a respective opportunity. We argue that images of the task crafting opportunity (e.g., potential value, knowledge relatedness, colleagues crafting, situational autonomy, or impacting direct colleagues at work) and images of the self (e.g., image risk, role breadth self-efficacy) work as situational and individual antecedents that explain variability in individuals' task crafting decisions. In a multi-level design, we test our hypotheses using two samples -one collected via regional networks and one collected via professional social network (Xing) - and find support for the reasoned effects of the images of the opportunity. For example, knowledge relatedness and colleagues crafting positively affect the likelihood of deciding to craft one's task. Interestingly, we only find weak support for our moderator hypotheses that a task crafting decision can be influenced by images of the self (e.g., image risk weakens the effects of potential value). By this, we seek to add to the understanding of how individuals evaluate opportunities to engage in task crafting behaviors, discuss implications, and show avenues for future research.

Keywords: Job crafting, opportunity evaluation, metric conjoint design.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The perceived opportunity to engage in task crafting refers to a sense of discretion over how and which kind of work is done and the perceived ability to pursue a respective opportunity (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). While there is substantial empirical evidence (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019; Rudolph, Katz, Lavigne, & Zacher, 2017) about the outcomes of task crafting, the literature remains comparatively silent on the antecedents of individual task crafting decisions (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010; Lyons, 2008; van Wingerden & Niks, 2017). Previous studies suggest that whether or not employees will proactively shape their jobs may depend on the perception of job crafting opportunities (van Wingerden & Poell, 2017; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Although seminal job crafting concepts already articulate the central role of opportunity recognition for job crafting behaviors (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), the research field largely ignored the internal evaluation processes associated with task crafting opportunities. In other words, although we have some knowledge about beneficial conditions for recognizing task crafting opportunities, the process of assessing task crafting opportunities remains a “black box” in job crafting research. We seek to open this black box and address a central question in job crafting research, namely, when and why do some individuals (and not others) exploit opportunities to engage in task crafting behaviors?

We turn to the literature on (entrepreneurial) opportunity evaluation and reason that individuals decide to craft their tasks based on evaluations of task crafting opportunities by assessing situational (e.g., feasibility to conduct job crafting) and individual characteristics (e.g., their role-breadth self-efficacy). More specifically, we transfer a theoretical framework by Mitchell and Shepherd (2010) on the images of the opportunities and the images of the self to the task crafting context and test the resulting predictions with two separate within-subject design experiments. This framework basically states that opportunity images (composed by

desirability, feasibility, and the external environment) influence opportunity evaluation, and in turn, are influenced by images of the self (composed by perceptions of one's own abilities and fears). Guided by theoretical elaborations on job crafting, we hypothesize that 1) potential value, 2) knowledge relatedness, 3) direct colleagues' crafting behavior, 4) autonomy, and 5) consequences for colleagues display attributes that build an image of an opportunity. Potential value of an opportunity refers to the individually perceived usefulness of exploiting a given opportunity. Knowledge relatedness involves being endowed with complementary knowledge, helpful to exploit an opportunity. We define direct colleagues crafting as situations where close coworkers also crafted their tasks. Situational autonomy refers to the authority and discretion to exploit a given task crafting opportunity. Finally, consequences for colleagues involves forcing direct coworker to react and adjust their work routines.

Furthermore, we contend that the evaluation of an image of the opportunity is not uniform across individuals, but depends on individual characteristics (images of the self), such as image risk and role-breadth-self-efficacy. Image risk comprises perception of threats to one's professional image (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998), and role-breadth self-efficacy entails feeling capable of broadening one's role at work (Parker, 1998).

With this study, we seek to contribute to the literature on job crafting in several ways. First, we develop new theorizing as we adapt and integrate a framework from (entrepreneurial) opportunity evaluation to the task crafting context. In such, we offer new explanatory approaches on when and how employees decide to craft their tasks, and therefore, we advance the understanding of task crafting behaviors. This is highly relevant as literature on job crafting has argued for and speculated about a deliberate decision process, where individuals consider the potential outcomes of their crafting efforts (Lyons, 2008; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, the job crafting literature so far has insufficiently

investigated how the decision-maker's evaluation of a task crafting opportunity may influence the likelihood of pursuing a respective opportunity.

Also, we state that the evaluation of task crafting depends on the images of their selves. We hypothesize that the image of the self is likely to influence an employee's opportunity images as they shape how an employee perceives and values characteristics of a task crafting opportunity. By this, we further contextualize the relative effects of task crafting predictors and show boundary conditions of their impact on decisions to engage in task crafting. This contribution is important because we offer suggestions on the dispositional factors of proactive behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008), e.g., why some employees (and not others) decide to pursue certain opportunities to shape their job-tasks proactively. Overall, we follow Grant's (2007) call for more research that explains how, when, and why employees decide to exert agency over their work environments via job crafting. Particularly, under which conditions employees decide to pursue task crafting actions and what are the intra-individual differences in the formation of choosing to craft one's tasks remain unresolved but highly relevant questions in job crafting research.

Second, we test theorizing about the images of task crafting opportunities and images of the self, using experimental conjoint designs. By modeling images of task crafting opportunities as a joint consideration of potential benefits and costs (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), we seek to unravel the evaluation policies of task crafters and their "theory in use" (Lohrke, Holloway, & Woolley, 2010). Here, our empirical testing further allows us to yield knowledge about the relative weights of these antecedents in the evaluation process. Except a few studies (Bipp & Demerouti, 2015), the literature on job crafting conspicuously missed to provide evidence and inferences based on experimental designs. In such, we seek to spur the discourse on when individuals decide to pursue task crafting opportunities and provide strong empirical data that allows for more sophisticated conclusions.

Besides shedding light on the underlying assessment processes of task crafting opportunities, we strengthen the nexus between theories of employee proactivity and entrepreneurship literature. We infuse job crafting literature with notions of entrepreneurship literature and state that employees evaluate opportunities to craft their tasks in terms of desirability and feasibility and perceptions of personal characteristics, all set in an environmental context (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006). By this, we emphasize that task crafting behaviors occur at the individual-opportunity nexus, which offers a new perspective on how employees decide to craft their tasks. Moreover, we follow Baron's (2010, p. 371) call for developing closer theoretical connections between entrepreneurship and proactive job design literature because job crafting may be regarded as "the essence of their [entrepreneurs'] work - they create their own jobs, tasks, and roles as their new ventures emerge and take shape."

4.2 THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

4.2.1 Images of Task Crafting Opportunities

We rely on the literature of entrepreneurial opportunity evaluation (Haynie, Shepherd, & McMullen, 2009; Mitchell & Beach, 1990; Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010; Wood & Williams, 2014) to model an opportunity evaluation framework within the task crafting context. With foundations in decision literature (Beach & Mitchell, 1987; Mitchell & Beach, 1990) images are defined as "information structures, with different kinds of images representing different kinds of information about what the actor is doing, why and how, and what kind of progress is being made" (Mitchell & Beach, 1990, p. 7). Images share commonalities with scripts and schemas, as they provide individuals with resources to organize information to build certain expectations and to enact upon that information (Gioia & Poole, 1984). In this sense, processing images implies recognizing patterns while juxtaposing novel information against

existing mental prototypes. Images of the opportunity concern desirability and feasibility (Baron & Ensley, 2006; Haynie et al., 2009; Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010; Tumasjan, 2013) alongside a consideration of environmental factors (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010). This offers an overarching theoretical basis for opportunity evaluation in the task crafting context. We hold this perspective as potentially fruitful as task crafters' actions share some common features with entrepreneurs' actions (Baron, 2010). Both groups of individuals tend to act proactively, invest efforts and exploit opportunities in the face of uncertainty while creating new and adjusting existing work tasks (Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001).

However, the idea that individuals balance the potential benefits and costs of the outcomes of exploiting an opportunity may not be novel to the domain of proactive work behavior. The literature on proactive work behaviors suggests individuals across many domains tend to anticipate the consequences of their proactivity and consider whether proactive behavior is worth the effort or the associated risk (Glaser, Stam, & Takeuchi, 2016; Parker & Collins, 2010). There is a substantial number of proactive work behaviors and authors - such as voice (Withey & Cooper, 1989), feedback-seeking (VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla, & Brown, 2000), proactive coping (Aspinwall, 2005), or innovative behavior (Yuan & Woodman, 2010) – that unanimously suggest that proactive or agentic behaviors represent calculated, deliberate pondering decisions. Hence, an opportunity may be more attractive and thus more likely to be exploited, when the potential value of pursuing the opportunity is rather high compared to its costs. Furthermore, exploiting an opportunity may be more likely, when it is perceived highly feasible, and the individual feels that exploiting this opportunity can be easily achieved (Tumasjan, 2013). In this vein, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) refer to job crafting as a proactive work behavior “in which the employee decides how and when to shape job tasks and interactions.” and Lyons (2006) regarded a job

crafters as a person, “who is the primary actor who decides to make changes in work”. Thus, we follow previous authors who suggest that job crafting relies on a deliberate process of deciding to behave proactively based on opportunity evaluations.

Transferring this overarching theoretical framework of opportunity evaluation to the task crafting context, and in order to increase external validity in terms of realism, we made adaptations to the framework of Mitchell and Shepherd (2010). Whereas predictors, such as potential value and knowledge relatedness, are basically in line with previous research (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001; Yuan & Woodman, 2010), others do not really fit the employee context and have to be adapted or expanded.

First, whereas Mitchell and Shepherd (2010) operationalized feasibility solely by knowledge relatedness, we chose to operationalize it by knowledge relatedness and the task crafting behavior of direct colleagues. With roots in social information processing (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), job crafting theory suggests that information from coworkers is likely to affect employees choosing to engage in agentic behavior. More specifically, this information is expected to affect whether or not initiating workplace change is interpreted as socially appropriate and feasible. Moreover, social comparison attributes similarities between oneself and direct colleagues in terms of social status, skills, and abilities (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Thus, when immediate colleagues craft their tasks, this sends cues that it is legitimate and also that one may be capable of crafting one’s own responsibilities.

Second, we adapted the framework in terms of the environment of an image concerning the window of opportunity. Whereas Mitchell and Shepherd (2010) operationalized the window of opportunity as limited temporal availability and scarcity of opportunities – e.g., externally present constraints, we conceptualize these factors as possessing the particular situational autonomy to enact upon one certain opportunity and as consequences for direct colleagues, for several reasons. Primarily, we do not consider

opportunities to craft one's job as uniquely prevalent or exclusively apparent for a short period of time, such as "take it or leave it". As most jobs involve routines, repeated tasks, and enduring responsibilities, we believe that similar opportunities to craft one's tasks are also likely to unfold repeatedly over time. Instead, in the domain of proactive work behavior, autonomy for crafting one's job reflects the broader organizational, environmental conditions in which job crafting decisions occur (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Furthermore, we believe that well-experienced employees themselves are in the best position to know about their authorities and permissions at work.

Also, we acknowledge the importance of considering employees not working all by themselves but rather in teams, and interdependent of each other, in order to warrant for realism. Job crafting theory highlights that the close external environment is likely influenced by individual crafting actions that do not occur in a vacuum with no interweaving or consequences for colleagues (Leana, Appelbaum, & Shevchuk, 2009) so that dependent others are likely to be affected by those crafting actions (Tims & Bakker, 2010).

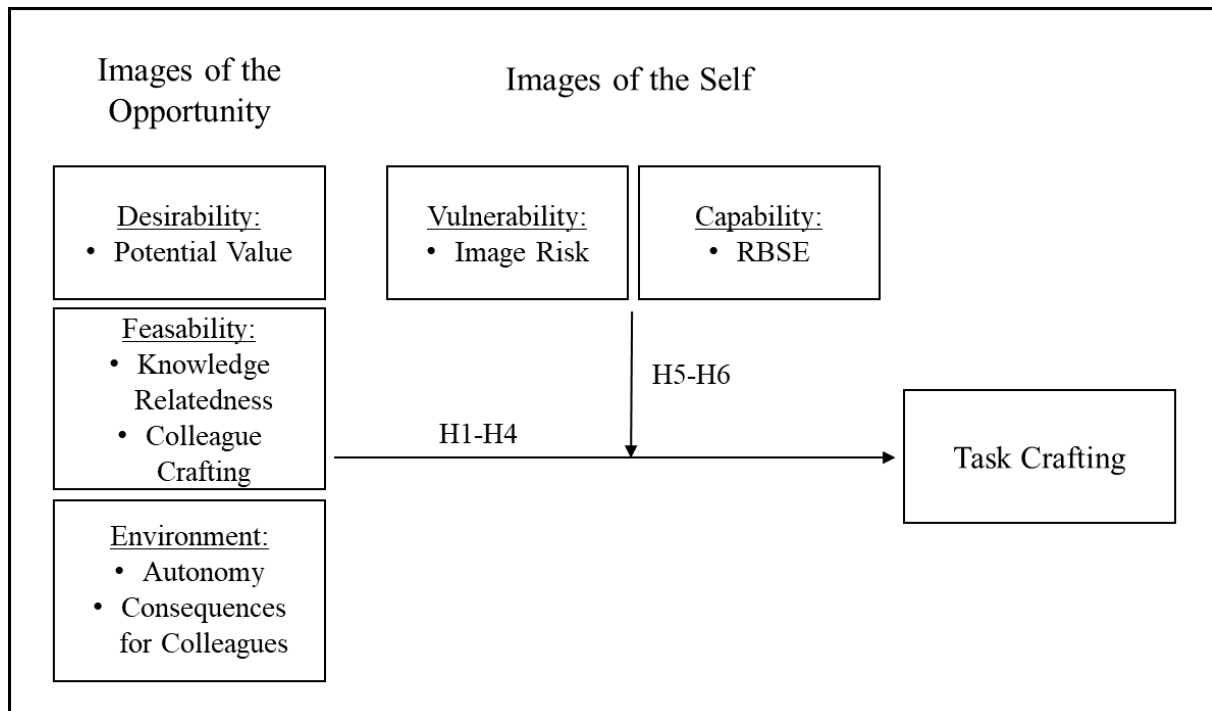
In sum, we model images of a job crafting opportunity with potential value (desirability), knowledge relatedness and colleagues crafting (feasibility), situational autonomy and impacting direct colleagues at work (environment), see Figure 1.

4.2.2 Images of the Self

We argue that job crafting opportunities will be differently evaluated depending on the individual's image of the self. Here, images of the self focus on questions of why certain individuals (and not others) pursue a given opportunity. In this sense, the evaluation of future task crafting strongly relies on the decision-makers' images of opportunities (within-individual differences), which are in turn, influenced by their images of the self (between-individual differences). Self-images can be regarded as "the total set of beliefs about and

attitudes toward the self as an object of reflection” (Morgan & Schwalbe, 1990: 154). In general, these beliefs are prototypes of the self, which can be positive or negative, actual or ideal, singular or multifaceted, static, or dynamic (Markus & Wurf, 1987).

**FIGURE 1:
Theoretical Model**



The broader concept of vulnerability is highly relevant to organizational literature and refers to fears of failure (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Wood, McKelvie, & Haynie, 2014) or individual image concerns (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003; Lacetera & Macis, 2010; Stobbeleir, Ashford, & Sully de Luque, 2010) as well as to job crafting literature (Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova, 2016). Previous research supports the assumption that individuals are striving for a positive self-image (Swann & Bosson, 2010) while investing “a considerable amount of energy into constructing viable professional images by enacting personas that represent desirable qualities” (Roberts 2005: 687). This striving is particularly likely for job crafters, who are motivated by a need for a positive self-image and self-expression in the

pursuit of meaningfulness in the workplace (Berg, Dutton, & Wrzesniewski, 2013; Lyons, 2008; Niessen et al., 2016; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Thus, we state that vulnerability moderates opportunity evaluation of task crafting opportunities (expected risks vs. benefits) because it facilitates a stronger “consideration of personal consequences” (Wood & Williams, 2014, p. 579).

Perceptions of their capabilities entail individual beliefs of being able to perform desired tasks. From a proactive behaviors perspective, self-efficacy fosters perceptions of control and success likelihood (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) while triggering a more ambitious goal setting (Locke, Latham, & Smith, 1990). In this sense, the perceived self-efficacy reflects one’s can-do motivation, a highly relevant predictor of proactive work behavior (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Moreover, self-efficacy beliefs are particularly relevant for proactivity decisions because they regulate human functioning through a motivational and decisional process (Bandura & Locke, 2003). We argue for role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE), which refers to one’s perceived ability to assume a broader and more ambiguous role (Parker, 1998), as a potential moderator of task crafting decisions. Role breadth self-efficacy is also characterized by carrying out a range of proactive and integrative activities that exceed the “prescribed technical core” (Parker & Collins, 2010, p. 641), and therefore, likely to resonate with task crafting behaviors. Finally, we model images of the self as image risk (vulnerability) and role breadth self-efficacy (see Figure 1).

4.2.3 Hypotheses Development

The direct relationships between images of the opportunity and task crafting decisions. We contend that the potential value of an opportunity will positively impact the decisions to engage in task crafting activities. Thus, an opportunity becomes more desirable to pursue when there is any perceived individual value behind it. This is important as it serves as

a payoff for invested resources or potentially accepted risks and ambiguities. Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) stated that employees are likely to gauge the likelihood of successfully crafting their tasks against the risks and obstacles (cf. (Lin, Law, & Zhou, 2017)). In this manner, individuals anticipate how likely their crafting actions will be successful and what would be the individual value. In doing so, individuals will scrutinize opportunities using different criteria and cognitive patterns to derive an opportunity image, and based on that, decide whether or not it is desirable to initiate workplace changes or rather accept the status quo. Thus, we argue that the higher employees perceive a potential benefit of their task crafting, the more likely they will perceive that pursuing this opportunity as desirable and decide to pursue this opportunity. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H1: The higher the potential value (desirability) of an opportunity, the more likely an employee decides to pursue a task crafting opportunity.

We argue that feasibility will also impact the decisions to engage in task crafting activities. As we compose the feasibility of an opportunity image by first, individual knowledge relatedness and second, by colleagues' behavior, we reason the following.

First, guided by entrepreneurial opportunity evaluation literature (Dimov, 2007; Haynie et al., 2009; McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010), we argue that knowledge relatedness will positively impact the likelihood to engage in task crafting. When sensing an opportunity to craft their tasks, the extent to which employees rate this opportunity as feasible depends on the individual related knowledge complementary to the opportunity. With vast related knowledge, feasibility assessment will likely improve, making an opportunity easier to enact, as employees perceive fewer barriers (Tumasjan, 2013). Moreover, individuals are more likely to exploit the opportunity of crafting a task when they feel that they can be successful (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), and increased related knowledge may also enhance the perceived chances of being successful. Empirical results

suggest that, as employees are gaining more insights into their jobs and accumulate more specific contextual knowledge, they are more likely to rate an opportunity as feasible (Wood & Williams, 2014).

Second, we contend that colleagues also crafting their tasks will increase the likelihood of engaging in task crafting. Information from the social context is likely to play a role in affecting the choice of whether to engage in agentic behavior (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), such as job crafting. Previous research has shown that employees try to glean cues about how a certain behavior will be perceived and regarded by relevant others, before resolving whether or not to pursue proactive behaviors (Dutton, Ashford, O' Neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997). These social cues can provide helpful information about whether a particular behavior is rather tolerable versus likely to be sanctioned (Ashford et al., 1998). In this sense, similar others, such as direct colleagues, can serve as relevant and credible suppliers of first-hand social cues (Morrison, 2006). Yuan and Woodman (2010) propose that, when employees introduce new ideas or procedures to their work environments, these behaviors provide information about the actors to their surrounding social context. Thus, if other employees learn that direct coworkers have engaged in task crafting, they will be more likely to believe that it is legitimate to do for themselves. Besides, information suggesting that similar others have sometimes broken a specific rule may increase the likelihood of employees breaking that rule as well as it is (morally) legitimate to the social group, even if there is a risk of punishment (Morrison, 2006). Furthermore, previous research suggests that job crafting behaviors can be contagious and that there may be some crossover effects among coworkers (Demerouti & Peeters, 2018; Peeters, Arts, & Demerouti, 2016).

H2: The higher the feasibility of an opportunity (a) knowledge relatedness, b) extent of colleagues crafting), the more likely an employee decides to pursue a task crafting opportunity.

We contend that high levels of situational autonomy will positively impact employees' decisions to engage in task crafting behaviors. Grant and Ashford (2008) proposed that situational autonomy would trigger proactivity, and research has suggested that autonomy support as a climate (Slemp, Kern, & Vella-Brodrick, 2015) or discretion over how work is conceptualized and carried out (Leana et al., 2009) may positively promote job crafting behaviors. Drawing on these notions, we argue that situational autonomy will also affect opportunity evaluations and decisions to pursue task crafting opportunities. As the outcomes of task crafting opportunities are not always predictable and inhere some uncertainty, employees may feel safer when they perceive autonomy for pursuing a given opportunity to change their tasks and, in turn, are more likely to decide to craft their tasks. By this, they may be still accountable for the outcomes though there may not be a clear directive, whereas they do not violate their task authorities. In sum, we assume that situational autonomy will impact the decisions to engage in task crafting activities.

H3: The higher the autonomy within an opportunity, the more likely an employee decides to pursue a task crafting opportunity.

We reason that consequences for colleagues will impact the decisions to engage in task crafting activities. Previous theoretical elaborations emphasize job crafting's self-oriented nature, while job crafters are modeled to predominantly focus on personal motives (Wrzesniewski and Dutton 2001), individual development (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012) or personal needs (Niessen et al. 2016). However, job crafting does not occur in a vacuum without interweaving or consequences for colleagues (Leana et al., 2009), so that dependent others are likely to be affected by those crafting actions (Tims & Bakker, 2010). We argue that although or even because job crafters may be self-oriented, they are likely to anticipate the consequences of their crafting actions. In this sense, crafting one's tasks, and thereby, causing a colleague more work, may not be worthwhile because of anticipated reciprocity and

potential workplace conflict. Spsychala and Sonnentag (2011) suggest that promotion-oriented initiative -which is conceptually similar to task crafting- may invoke an increase in task conflicts. As a job crafters may rely on good relationships at work (Grant, 2007), they are less likely to engage in task crafting that brings negative consequences for their coworkers, such as a change in their work procedures. Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) offer meta-analytical evidence that coworker support and antagonism impact employees' attitudes and behavior at work. Furthermore, Tims et al. (2015b) suggest that reductive job crafting relates to undesired job characteristics and impaired well-being of colleagues. We assume that crafting one's tasks in ways that direct colleagues have to adjust their routines, inducing task interdependence, will negatively impact the decision to engage in job crafting.

H4: The higher the consequences of an opportunity for direct colleagues, the less likely an employee decides to act on task crafting opportunity.

The Moderating Role of Images of the Self. We model the images of the self with two components, which we believe are relevant to job crafting literature so far, vulnerability perceived capability: image risk and role breadth self-efficacy.

First, we argue that individual image risk will moderate the effects of images of an opportunity on the likelihood of choosing to exploit a task crafting opportunity. As proactive behaviors induce inherent change or affect others at work, they are associated with image risks, such as losing reputation or positive regard by oneself but also reflected in the minds of close and relevant others (Ashford et al., 2003; Stobbeleir et al., 2010). Image risk should moderate the likelihood of choosing to engage in task crafting because individual dispositions regulate human decision making (Crowe & Higgins, 1997) and also job crafting (Petrou & Demerouti, 2015). We argue that employees high on image risk may focus their attention on maintaining a positive image by “playing it safe wherever possible”, and not causing any

trouble by initiating change or crafting their tasks. In this sense, image risk restricts innovative behaviors because employees may strive to prevent negative social evaluations of behaving socially inappropriate (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). In contrast, individuals low on image risk are more likely to engage in task crafting, as they do not feel constrained by what others may attribute to them. More specifically, individuals with higher image risk are more vulnerable to social judgment and more afraid of behaving socially inappropriate, and the potential value of an opportunity will have a weaker impact on the decision to craft one's tasks. In contrast, individuals low on image risk are likely to put more emphasis on the image of the opportunity and thus more strongly evaluate the potential value of an opportunity.

Moreover, individual image risk will likely moderate the effect of knowledge relatedness on task crafting decisions. Individuals with high image risk tend to focus on avoiding negative outcomes and failure. As knowledge relatedness reduces the chances of failure and being judged in turn, employees high on image risk are likely to favor knowledge complementary to the respective opportunity. In contrast, employees who do not fear image threats are expectedly more tolerant to failure, and thus, pay less attention to knowledge relatedness when evaluating an opportunity.

Also, image risk likely moderates the effect of colleagues also crafting their tasks on the likelihood to engage in task crafting. We argue that employees high on image risk place greater emphasis on colleagues also doing so, as their behaviors provide guidelines for socially appropriate workplace behaviors. Thus, high image risk may augment the relationship between colleagues crafting their tasks on the individual decision to engage in task crafting. In contrast, employees low on image risk may not perceive necessities to be vigilant to their social surroundings and thus are less likely impacted in their task crafting decisions.

Furthermore, image risk is likely to impact the effect of situational autonomy on the likelihood to engage in task crafting. It differs from colleagues crafting their tasks, as it less

on a group and social level, but more on a formal, rule level. Thus, a lack of autonomy may create risks to one's image, as it may be associated with rule-breaking (Morrison, 2006), or deviant, counterproductive behavior (Fox, Spector, Goh, & Bruursema, 2007). Employees high on image risk may put more emphasis on situational autonomy as it provides the environmental, organizational formal boundaries to their individual behavior. Hence, employees who are sensitive and vulnerable to image threats, and may more strongly favor opportunities for task crafting, when they perceive autonomy to do so.

Finally, image risk will likely impact the effect of consequences for colleagues on the likelihood to engage in task crafting. We argue that because individuals with high image risk are more strongly concerned about what relevant others think about them, they are more careful not to impose any procedural change or extra work upon them. Thus, the hypothesized negative effect of causing consequences for colleagues within an opportunity image will be strengthened by a high individual image risk. In contrast, individuals with low image risk may not be influenced by consequences for their colleagues when deciding to craft their tasks.

H5: Employees with higher image risk place lesser emphasis on a) potential value and b) greater emphasis on knowledge relatedness c) colleagues crafting, d) autonomy, and e) consequences for direct colleagues in their likelihood of action decisions than those with lower image risk.

Moreover, we propose that role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) will moderate individual assessment of an opportunity image. Previous research has argued (Parker et al., 2010) and provided evidence for RBSE as an antecedent of proactive behaviors such as personal initiative, proactive problem solving (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006), taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), and even increasing challenging demands (Berdicchia, 2015).

We contend that RBSE impacts the effectivity of potential predictors of task crafting decisions as it guides employees' perceptions of being capable of doing so. Individuals with

higher levels of RBSE are more confident and believe that they are endowed with the resources they need to assume a broader role successfully (Parker, 1998). For them, the assessment of an opportunity is largely dependent on their beliefs about their personal resources and abilities. Thus, their overall assessment of an opportunity is rather located within themselves, their experiences, and their confidence in what they can achieve. In contrast, individuals with lower RBSE believe that they do not possess “what it takes” to assume a broader work role and craft their tasks. As they feel that they have little abilities to successfully broaden their task set, for them, the evaluation of an opportunity largely depends on the opportunity itself. That might be the reason why individuals with lower self-efficacy are less likely to be resistant to opportunity-based risks than those with higher self-efficacy (Krueger & Dickson, 1994). Conversely, individuals with lower levels of RBSE are more likely affected by components of opportunity images because they perceive those components as more momentous of the results than their own abilities and efforts. Thus, we argue that employees with lower levels of RBSE are more likely to exploit an opportunity with high potential value, knowledge relatedness, colleagues crafting, autonomy and more likely to exploit an opportunity, even if it comes with high consequences for colleagues, than employees with higher levels of RBSE.

H6: Employees with higher role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) place lesser emphasis on a) potential value b) knowledge relatedness and c) colleagues crafting, d) autonomy, and e) consequences for colleagues than those with lower RBSE.

4.3 METHODS

4.3.1 Data and Sampling

To test our hypotheses, we make use of two different German samples. Considering the novelty of this approach, we believe there is a specific added value related to testing and

comparing the empirical results of our framework within two distinct samples in terms of robustness, generalizability, and external validity. We make use of a paper and pencil approach in Sample 1 and an online experiment in Sample 2 in order to balance the potential advantages and limitations of both approaches.

Sample 1 consists of employees from small- to medium-sized enterprises located in the South-Western region of Germany. In order to recruit an eligible sample for investigating task crafting behaviors, we regionally advertised a job crafting training. By this, we attempted to recruit participants who are fruitful for early-stage experimental research on task crafting, as they shared an interest in change-oriented and proactive employee behaviors. Drawing on a business register, we contacted 56 suitable firms, used local radio spots, and distributed the request for study participation via the regional economic development agency. From these sources, 59 individuals took part in our survey. Out of those, 46 gave full and significantly reliable responses and 1,472 decisions, which we included in further calculations.

Due to this sampling strategy, Sample 1 entails three crucial limitations. First, it is potentially biased by self-selection and regional distortions. Second, as it only comprises 46 reliable responses, Sample 1 is rather small. In this regard, Shepherd and Zacharakis (1999) recommend 50 as a minimum number at level-1 responses. Third, we could not compare Sample 1 to any population or other group by controlling for non-response bias, and thus, we do not know if this sample is representative.

Sample 2 was collected online via professional social media (Xing), whereby we sought to address the limitations mentioned above of Sample 1. First, Xing features the most considerable number of members distributed over the whole of Germany, and it also entails helpful search filters. Hence, we executed several rounds of advanced search in order to involve employees from the whole of Germany in our sample. We searched for German-speaking, full-time employees, with job experience, excluding job-starters, CEOs, directors,

or self-employed individuals, as those were not part of our target group. Second, this approach allowed us to contact and recruit more participants for our experiment. Finally, we contacted 866 employees, from which 165 agreed to participate, and 161 passed the attention checks via bogus items. Out of those, 126 gave full and significantly reliable responses, providing us 2,016 decisions, which we included in further calculations. Third, this procedure allowed us to control for non-response bias in Sample 2. Here, we compared respondents and non-respondents in terms of their gender and Xing profile calls. *T*-tests between the two groups yielded significant differences between respondents and non-respondents in terms of gender ($p=0.020$) and Xing profile calls ($p=0.018$), suggesting potential non-response bias threat. More detailed, within the participant group were significantly more women and individuals with more profile calls than in the non-respondent group. Thus, following Rogelberg and Stanton (2007), we chose to incorporate gender and Xing profile calls as controls in order to compensate for these biases.

In order to have two comparable sets of data, we kept the within-subject design experimental setup and the same measurement instruments, following the *ceteris paribus* principle. We believe the two samples can compensate for individual limitations, and based on that, we may draw more generalizable inferences. Thus, we decided to include both samples in this study but analyze them separately as both samples resulted independently of each other and differ as aforementioned. As both samples yield very similar results in terms of significances and coefficients, we can partially rule out or at least evaluate potential biases as non-threatening to the generalizability of our results. Moreover, by comparing the two samples, we can increase the robustness and assess the relative importance of hypothesized predictors of task crafting.

4.3.2 Study Design

We chose to address our research questions applying metric conjoint experimental designs in both studies – an approach often applied in entrepreneurship, Marketing, HRM, and other fields of research (Baum & Kabst, 2013; Green & Srinivasan, 1990; Moser, Tumasjan, & Welppe, 2017). As we are interested in observing employees’ evaluations of different task crafting opportunities, we find a conjoint study design appropriate for addressing our research questions. In this vein, Aguinis and Bradley (2014) called for research that investigates the decision processes of job crafters using experimental vignette designs or policy capturing methods. They argue that “These types of studies could help shed light into the decision processes of employees that engage in job crafting as well as those that choose not to do so” (p.365).

In a conjoint experiment, multiple hypothetical scenarios are presented to participants. In each scenario, multiple distinct attributes with varying attribute levels, such as high vs. low, are manipulated (Lohrke et al., 2010). After being confronted with each scenario, participants were asked to make decisions (e.g., how likely they would enact upon this opportunity given the described situation in the scenario). In this manner, “Conjoint experiments are sophisticated within-subject designs that are effective for decomposing decision policies” (Hsu, Simmons, & Wieland, 2017, p. 382). Furthermore, conjoint analysis avoids validity threats such as post hoc revisionism biases caused by social desirability, faulty memory, and allows decomposing and articulating complex decisions (Shepherd & Zacharakis, 1997). Following Hsu et al. (2017), we conducted a pre-test of our manipulations to control for external validity. We asked two research colleagues in-depth whether they understood the scenarios and the tasks they were asked to execute. This feedback served as an indicator of face validity, as scenarios and the measure were rated understandable.

In order to avoid fatigue and to keep the number of decision tasks manageable, we applied Hahn and Shapiro's (1966) orthogonal fractional design. For Sample 1, the paper and pencil study, we resulted in 16 distinct decision profiles. In contrast, for Sample 2 (the online study), we chose substantially shorten the survey and created 8 distinct decision profiles, as we assumed reduced levels of perseverance and longanimity among online participants, compared to physically present participants. The orthogonal fractional design is a common approach in conjoint analysis and also reduces problems of multicollinearity between attributes (Hauswald, Hack, Kellermanns, & Patzelt, 2016; Moser et al., 2017). In both cases (Sample 1 and Sample 2), these profiles were fully replicated to estimate participants' test-retest correlation (Louviere, 1988; Shepherd & Patzelt, 2015). To control for potential ordering effects, we randomized the order of the scenarios shown and also the ordering of the different attributes within one scenario in Sample 2, as noted by previous research (Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010; Wood et al., 2014).

In addition, we included a bogus item, as recommended by Meade and Craig (2012), in order to assess for careless responses, and informed respondents about the presence of those quality control mechanisms because Breitsohl and Steidelmüller (2018) suggest that this message may increase response quality.

4.3.3 Experimental Procedure

Before providing Sample 1 with the job crafting training, we asked the participants to join a short experiment voluntarily. To further enhance external validity, we demonstrated how their responses would be kept strictly confidential (Hsu et al., 2017), and eventually, every participant agreed to take part. We decided to collect all data via paper and pencil, as we wanted to secure that employees take time for the experiment and show an adequate level of

involvement. Also, for Sample 2, we assured confidentiality to our respondents and emphasized the voluntary nature of this study.

The studies started with an introduction section, where we asked participants to spend some time thinking about a regular day at work, followed by a practice profile, (which was not part of the original set of profiles). Thereafter, we presented the original profiles, which included the dependent variable, how likely they would take this opportunity, and craft their tasks given the respective scenarios. Before making these decisions, we briefed them 1) to only focus on the information provided in the hypothetical scenarios while other than the presented information can be assumed similar across opportunities, 2) that they basically possess the resources to pursue this opportunity, if they decide to, 3) that they are making these decisions referring to their current jobs, in order to increase mundane realism. Next, participants were asked to answer the post-experiment questionnaire, which contained the moderator variable, control variables. In order to further enhance external validity for Sample 2, we followed the recommendations by Monsen et al. (2010). We administered a feedback session with participants and asked them to evaluate 1) whether they perceived the scenarios as realistic, 2) the decision-making tasks as feasible, and 3) whether they could easily apply the scenarios to their current jobs.

4.3.4 Measures

Dependent variables. Participants in the metric conjoint decision-making experiment were asked to fulfill the task of evaluating a series of hypothetical opportunities to craft their tasks and to decide whether or not they would enact the opportunity. This task required the decision-makers to make a series of judgments about the presented opportunities, which were based on a set of theoretically derived attributes. Drawing on specific combinations of these attributes, the participants then decided the likelihood of exploiting this opportunity to craft

their tasks. We derived this measure of the dependent variable based on the task crafting subscale by Slemp and Vella-Brodrick (2013), which was based on the original conceptualization of job crafting by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001). We captured this likelihood using a 10-point scale anchored by 1 very unlikely to 10 very likely, and respondents were asked to rate how likely they would take this opportunity and customize the way they performed their tasks in the respective scenarios.

Independent variables (manipulated on the conjoint profiles). Each of the five level-1 components of opportunity image (potential value, knowledge relatedness, colleagues crafting, autonomy, and consequences for colleagues) was varied at two levels, high and low.

This procedure allows us to observe the influences of every single component of the opportunity images while controlling for the other ones. Including five potential predictors helps us to provide a more comprehensive and realistic picture of task crafting decisions and thus is likely to trigger more accurate decisions. The manipulations of the independent variables are all derived from the respective construct's theoretical definitions, if available, and adapted from existing research. For both samples, we operationalized the level-1 independent variables, as Table 1 depicts.

TABLE 1
Manipulations of the Independent Variable

	High	Low
Potential Value	This opportunity to adjust my job gives me <u>more benefit</u> than other adjustments I have successfully pursued (taking into account time and effort).	This opportunity to adjust my job gives me <u>less benefit</u> than other adjustments I have successfully pursued (taking into account time and effort).
Knowledge Relatedness	The knowledge necessary to exploit this potential opportunity to adapt my job is <u>very similar</u> to my existing knowledge.	The knowledge necessary to exploit this potential opportunity to adapt my job is <u>very different</u> to my existing knowledge.
Colleagues Crafting	Direct colleagues <u>have exploited</u> similar opportunities to adapt their own jobs.	Direct colleagues <u>have not exploited</u> similar opportunities to adapt their own jobs.
Autonomy	Basically, I <u>have</u> the autonomy to do this customization of my job.	Basically, I <u>do not have</u> the autonomy to do this customization of my job.
Consequences for Colleagues	Customizing my job with this potential opportunity <u>will affect</u> my colleagues, so they have to react and adjust their own work procedures.	Customizing my job with this potential opportunity <u>will not affect</u> my colleagues.

In addition, all individual level (level-2) constructs used in both samples have been validated in previous research. Unless otherwise indicated, every individual-level construct used a response scale in which 1 was “strongly disagree” and 5 was “strongly agree.”.

Image risk was measured by measured using a three-item scale by Yuan and Woodman (2010) (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.7$ in Sample 1 and 0.83 in Sample 2). A Sample item was: “My coworkers will think worse of me if I often try out new approaches on my job.”

RBSE was measured using a 10-item scale by Parker (1998) (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$ in Sample 1 and 0.82 in Sample 2). Participants were asked to rate how confident they would feel if they were asked to execute 10 tasks. A sample task was: "Designing new procedures for your work area." Response scale was from 1 *not confident at all* to 5 *very confident*.

Controls. In both samples, we included the participant's hierarchical rank - binarily operationalized as having a leadership position - as a control variable. We did this because Berg et al. (2010) suggest that employees at higher ranks perceive more constraining responsibilities when evaluating opportunities to engage in job crafting behaviors than lower-ranked employees, who seem to find it relatively easier to recognize or create those opportunities. Moreover, we controlled for gender and age because they were argued and suggested to potentially influence proactive work behaviors (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010) and particularly job crafting (Bipp, 2010; Petrou, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2018; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Furthermore, we controlled for the number of colleagues within the work unit because this might explain variability in consequences for colleagues and colleagues' crafting and also influence perceived constraints to engage in task crafting. As mentioned above, we further controlled for Xing profile calls only in Sample 2.

4.4 RESULTS

Table 2 and Table 3 show the results of the descriptive statistics of the level-2 variables for Sample 1 and Sample 2, respectively. In orthogonal designs, the correlation between the manipulated variables is zero, and therefore, we do not report them on a correlations table.

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics of Level-2 Variables: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations (Sample 1)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Task Crafting	5.40	1.06							
2. Gender	0.44	0.50	-0.09 **						
3. Age	39.00	8.13	0.06 *	-0.30 **					
4. Work Experience	14.43	8.68	0.13 **	-0.24 **	0.90 **				
5. Nr. Coworkers	11.61	9.24	-0.14 **	0.07 **	-0.07 **	0.05 *			
6. Leader Position	0.43	0.50	-0.08 **	-0.02	0.20 **	0.15 **	0.31 **		
7. Image Risk	1.86	0.72	0.02	0.09 **	-0.13 **	0.02	-0.01	-0.15 **	
8. RBSE	3.97	0.83	-0.16 **	0.10 **	0.29 **	0.27 **	0.24 **	0.43 **	-0.23 **

Note: N=46, * p <0.05, **p<0.01

Within both samples, the construct means are slightly biased towards the scales' ends. The mean of image risk is 1.86 and 1.73 for Sample 1 and Sample 2, meaning that participants did not fear their image at great danger when being proactive. The mean of RBSE is 3.97 and 4.27 for Sample 1 and Sample 2, meaning that participants are more than average confident in being capable of broadening their roles. Besides that, the relative variance of these constructs was rather small, which may potentially threaten to detect significant interaction effects (see Table 2 and Table 3).

Also for both samples, we first tested if respondents produced reliable assessments of the task crafting opportunity scenarios by checking the test-retest reliability. In Sample 1, 89% of the responses were significantly reliable, with a mean test-retest reliability of 0.64 and in Sample 2, 78% of the responses were significantly reliable with a mean test-retest reliability of 0.75, which is comparable with other studies (for example, Holland and Shepherd (2013) reported a mean test-retest reliability = 0.72). Thus, we decided to include both the test and the retest decisions in our analyses, following previous studies (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006; Shepherd & Patzelt, 2015). Finally, we ended up with 1,472 task crafting decisions nested in 46 individuals for Sample 1 and 2,016 task crafting decisions nested within 126 individuals for Sample 2.

TABLE 3
Descriptive Statistics of Level-2 Variables: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations (Sample 2)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Task Crafting	5.71	3.02							
2. Gender	0.67	0.47	-0.05						
3. Age	37.88	8.70	0.04	0.37 **					
4. Nr. Coworkers	17.18	38.52	-0.01	0.16 **	0.29 **				
5. Leader Position	0.52	0.50	0.01	0.23 **	0.30 **	0.12 **			
6. Image Risk	1.73	0.76	-0.01	-0.02	-0.07 **	-0.07 **	0.01		
7. RBSE	4.27	0.49	0.05 *	0.23 **	0.31 **	0.12 **	0.24 **	-0.13 **	
8. profilecalls	2679	2789	0.01	0.23 **	0.24 **	0.28 **	0.29 **	-0.04	0.13 **

Note: N=126, * p <0.05, **p<0.01

Given the nested data structure, our observations are not independent of each other, and we have to account for that in our model. Thus, we applied a multi-level regression, which allowed us to account for varying variance at different levels (involving fixed and random effects models). Also, standard errors are less biased, and for nested data structures, we can calculate cross-level interactions.

Table 4 shows the results from our multi-level regression analyses for Sample 1, and Table 5 for Sample 2. For a better interpretation of the interaction effects, we z-standardized the variables included in the interaction terms.

TABLE 4:
Results from the Multi-level Regression Analyses Sample 1, Paper and Pencil Study

Dependent Variable: Likelihood to Engage in Task Crafting											
Variables	Model 1 RIFS		Model 2 RIFS		Model 3 RIRS		Model 4 Cross Lvl		Model 5 Cross Lvl		
	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	
Intercept	5.19 ***	0.98	5.48 ***	0.95	5.70 ***	0.94	4.72 ***	0.94	5.38 ***	0.91	
Gender	0.16	0.33	0.27	0.33	0.27	0.32	-0.31	0.29	0.16	0.29	
Age	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.02	
Education	-0.02	0.18	-0.04	0.17	-0.01	0.18	-0.01	0.18	-0.01	0.18	
Work Experience	0.55	0.42	0.57	0.41	0.70	0.18	0.70	0.42	0.70	0.42	
Nr. of Coworkers	-0.01	0.02	-0.02	0.02	-0.20	0.02	-0.03	0.01	-0.02	0.01	
Leader Position	0.11	0.31	0.27	0.32	0.20	0.31	0.13	0.32	0.07	0.30	
H1 Potential Value			1.81 ***	0.11	1.81 ***	0.11	1.86 ***	0.20	1.84 ***	0.17	
H2a Knowledge Relatedness			0.30 ***	0.08	0.30 ***	0.08	0.37 ***	0.07	0.48 ***	0.08	
H2b Colleagues Crafting			0.25 ***	0.04	0.25 ***	0.04	0.27 ***	0.05	0.30 ***	0.04	
H3 Autonomy			0.81 ***	0.07	0.81 ***	0.07	0.90 ***	0.10	0.81 ***	0.07	
H4 Consequences for Colleagues			-0.20 ***	0.05	-0.20 ***	0.05	-0.18 ***	0.05	-0.21 ***	0.05	
Image Risk			0.08	0.17	0.06	0.17	0.01	0.17			
RBSE			0.30 †	0.14	0.31 *	0.13			0.18	0.13	
H5a Potential Value x IR							-0.06	0.25			
H5b Knowledge Relatedness x IR							-0.03	0.11			
H5c Colleagues Crafting x IR							-0.01	0.05			
H5d Autonomy x IR							0.20 †	0.11			
H5e Conseq. f. Colleagues x IR							-0.04	0.07			
H6a Potential Value x RBSE									-0.21	0.23	
H6b Knowledge Relatedness x RBSE									0.07	0.14	
H6c Colleagues Crafting x RBSE									0.05	0.05	
H6d Autonomy x RBSE									0.03	0.14	
H6e Conseq. f. Colleagues x RBSE									0.11	0.07	
Within (Level 1) var. $\hat{\sigma}^2$	6.70		2.44		2.45		1.43		1.59		
Intercept (Level 2) var. $\hat{\tau}_{00}$	1.02		0.90		1.15		0.97 **		1.44		
Slope (L2) var. $\hat{\tau}_{11}$					0.25		0.62		0.05		
Intercept-slope (L2) covar. $\hat{\tau}_{01}$					0.00		-0.03		-0.07		
R ²	0.00		0.64		0.63		0.79		0.76		
-2 Log Likelihood	7069		5653		5653		5258		5424		

Note: N = 46 for Level 2 Variables, N = 1,472 for Level 1 Variables, Abbreviations: IR = Image Risk, RBSE = Role Breadth Self-Efficacy, Conseq. f. = Consequences for, *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05, † p < 0.1

As recommended by Aguinis et al. (2013), we conducted both analyses in multiple steps. Moreover, we first ran a null-model for the dependent variable, which only involves the intercept without any predictor following (Glaser et al., 2016) in order to warrant enough variance between individuals. The null models had an intercept of 5.40 and 5.71, standard errors of 0.16 and 0.09, a level-1 variance of 6.70 and 8.65, and -2 Log-Likelihood of 7,058 and 10,551 for Sample 1 and Sample 2, respectively.

We calculated the intra-class correlation (ICC) as an indicator of the proportion of variance between groups variance to total variance (Heck, Thomas, & Tabata, 2012). Although we had a relatively small between-group variability (ICC Sample 1 = 0.12, ICC Sample 2 = 0.05), we follow Hayes (2006), who suggests that even when the ICC is near zero, there are substantial benefits to the procedure of applying an HLM to nested data structures.

Second, we ran a random intercept fixed slope model (RIFS, Model 1), adding only the control variables. We calculated R^2 , following Raudenbush and Bryk (2002), which indicates that the control model explains 0% of the variance in both samples. In the next step, we added the five level-1 predictors and the level-2 variables and ran an RIFS model (Model 2), explaining 65% and 68% variability in Sample 1 and Sample 2, respectively. For Model 3, we ran a random intercept random slope model (RIRS), which did not improve the variance explained compared to Model 2. Model 4 was calculated with the cross-level interaction effects with RIRS. Due to the relatively small number of participants in Sample 1, we ran two separate cross-level models, each for the moderator image risk (Model 4) and role-breadth self-efficacy (Model 5), explaining 79% and 69% of the variance. For Sample 2, the cross-level interaction (Model 4) explained 87% of the variance. As Model 4 yielded the highest model fit for both samples, we chose to consider it for further reporting.

TABLE 5:
Results from the Multi-level Regression Analyses Sample 2, Online Study

Dependent Variable: Likelihood to Engage in Task Crafting									
Variables	Model 1 RIFS		Model 2 RIFS		Model 3 RIRS		Model 4 Cross Lvl		SE
	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	Coef.	SE	
Intercept	4.57 ***	0.39	4.71 ***	0.40	4.64 ***	0.62	4.70 ***	0.35	
Gender	-0.50 *	0.19	-0.53 **	0.19	-0.49 *	0.19	-0.64 ***	0.15	
Age	0.02 *	0.01	0.02 †	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.01	
Nr. of Coworkers	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Leader Position	-0.02	0.17	0.05	0.18	0.28	0.26	0.06	0.14	
Profile Calls	0.00 †	0.00	0.00 †	0.00	0.00 †	0.00	0 *	0	
H1 Potential Value			2.11 ***	0.09	2.11 ***	0.09	2.14 ***	0.17	
H2a Knowledge Relatedness			0.19 ***	0.05	0.19 ***	0.05	0.16 **	0.08	
H2b Colleagues Crafting			0.37 ***	0.04	0.37 ***	0.04	0.35 ***	0.05	
H3 Autonomy			0.95 ***	0.06	0.95 ***	0.06	1.06 ***	0.10	
H4 Consequences for Colleagues			-0.13 ***	0.03	-0.13 ***	0.03	-0.11 †	0.06	
Image Risk			-0.01	0.09	-0.06	0.11	0.03	0.10	
RBSE			0.17 †	0.10	0.24 *	0.10	0.14	0.09	
H5a Potential Value x IR							-0.17	0.13	
H5b Knowledge Relatedness x IR							0.00	0.08	
H5c Colleagues Crafting x IR							0.06	0.05	
H5d Autonomy x IR							-0.01	0.09	
H5e Conseq. f. Colleagues x IR							0.02	0.06	
H6a Potential Value x RBSE							0.13	0.13	
H6b Knowledge Relatedness x RBSE							-0.07	0.07	
H6c Colleagues Crafting x RBSE							-0.09	0.06	
H6d Autonomy x RBSE							-0.06	0.09	
H6e Consequ. f. Colleagues x RBSE							0.14 *	0.06	
Within (Level 1) var. $\hat{\sigma}^2$		8.65		2.77		2.77		1.09	
Intercept (Level 2) var. $\hat{\tau}_{00}$		0.42		0.77		0.37 **		0.94	
Slope (L2) var. $\hat{\tau}_{11}$						0.18		0.21	
Intercept-slope (L2) covar. $\hat{\tau}_{01}$						0.03		0.15	
R ²		0.00		0.68		0.68		0.87	
-2 Log Likelihood		10181		8049		8130		7596	

Note: N = 126 for Level 2 Variables, N = 2,016 for Level 1 Variables, Abbreviations: IR = Image Risk, RBSE = Role Breadth Self-Efficacy, Conseq. f. = Consequences for, *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05, † p < 0.1

Both samples were very similar in the results for the hypothesized direct effects, all significant at the $p < 0.001$ level (unless indicated differently), which supports the robustness of our findings. The data supported Hypotheses 1, potential value has a significant positive effect (Sample 1 $\beta = 1.81$; Sample 2 $\beta = 2.14$), Hypotheses 2a, knowledge relatedness has a positive significant effect (Sample 1 $\beta = 0.37$; Sample 2 $\beta = 0.16$), Hypothesis 2b colleagues crafting has a positive effect (Sample 1 $\beta = 0.27$; Sample 2 $\beta = 0.35$) autonomy has a positive effect (Sample 1 $\beta = 0.90$; Sample 2 $\beta = 1.06$) and consequences for colleagues (Sample 1 $\beta = -0.18$; Sample 2 $\beta = -0.11$, $p = 0.06$) on the likelihood to engage in task crafting. In addition, the relative weights of these characteristics of the opportunity image are consistent across both samples, whereas potential value and autonomy are the strongest predictors of task crafting, while consequences for colleagues revealed the weakest impact.

For Sample 1, none of our controls (age, gender, number of direct coworkers, and employee rank) revealed significant effects on the decision processes of crafting one's tasks.

In Sample 2, gender revealed a significant influence on the likelihood to craft one's tasks ($\beta = -0.64$, $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, the number of profile calls yielded a significant positive effect on the dependent variable ($\beta = 0.000045$, $p = 0.032$), potentially suggesting that individuals who feature more social connections may be more proactive.

In addition, we are interested in the interaction effects between the level-1 variables and image risk as well as RBSE (H5a-6e). In Sample 1, only autonomy was positively moderated by image risk ($\beta = 0.20$, $p = 0.09$), meaning that employees high on image risk are more likely to engage in task crafting when they have the autonomy to do so (see Figure 2). Furthermore, in Sample 2, only consequences for colleagues was positively moderated by RBSE ($\beta = 0.14$, $p = 0.02$), meaning that individuals low on RBSE are less likely to engage in task crafting when the opportunity comes with higher consequences for direct colleagues (see Figure 3). However, RBSE revealed a significant positive direct effect on the decision to

engage in task crafting in Model 3 for both samples, which indicates that it does not moderate but directly influence task crafting behaviors. So, in sum, we find only limited support for the moderating role of images of the self.

FIGURE 2
Interaction between Image Risk and Autonomy on the Likelihood to Task Craft
(Sample 1, N = 46)

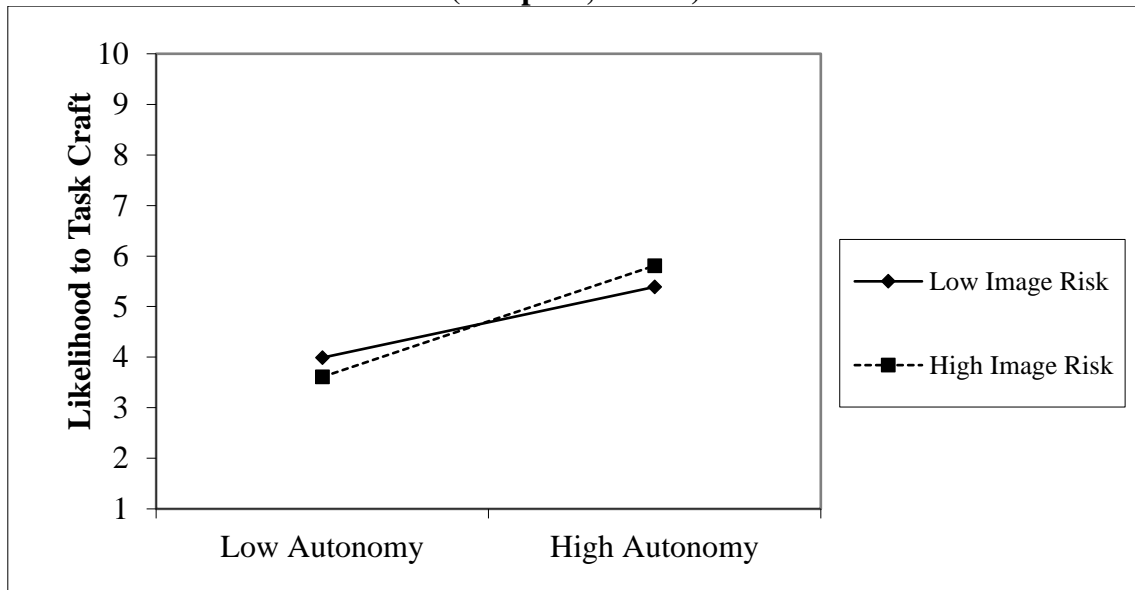
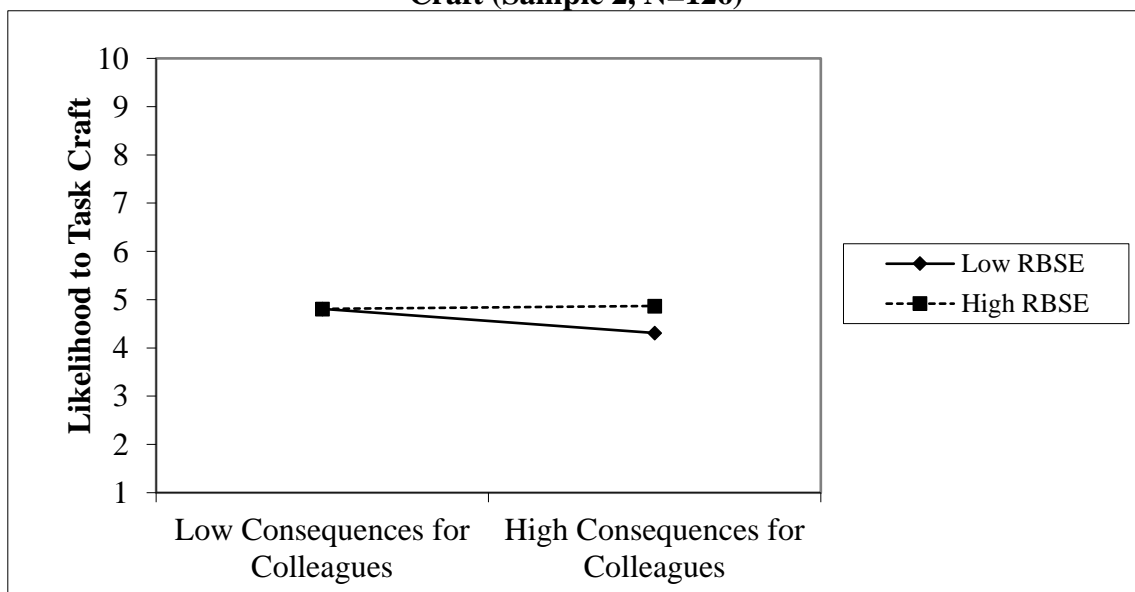


FIGURE 3
Interaction between RBSE and Consequences for Colleagues on the Likelihood to Task Craft
(Sample 2, N=126)



4.5 DISCUSSION

4.5.1 General Discussion

With this study, we aimed to contribute to the job crafting literature in multiple ways. First, we advance theory on job crafting by providing reasoning on the role of opportunity images and images of the self into the domain of task crafting. In the job crafting domain, we develop a novel framework and conceptualize several predictors of task crafting as factors that reflect an opportunity image. By modeling particular task crafting opportunities, we offer a new explanatory approach on when and how employees evaluate task crafting opportunities that complements previous research. For example, we develop theorizing about how the potential value of an opportunity or the consequences for direct colleagues affect the likelihood to pursue a respective task crafting opportunity. We advance this perspective as we consider predictors of task crafting opportunities as compounds of an opportunity image to engage in task crafting, which will be evaluated before deciding to craft.

Although Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) frame opportunity perceptions as psychologically positive, our results demonstrate that characteristics of a task crafting opportunity may be negatively evaluated and decrease the likelihood of exploiting a job crafting opportunity. Hence, we also provide new insights on when employees choose not to craft their tasks, which has been largely ignored by scholars. This emphasizes that proactive workplace behaviors, such as task crafting or taking charge, are not composed of risks alone but involve “a joint consideration of relative costs and benefits” (Morrison & Phelps, p. 405). Hence, our study builds on previous work in the field of job crafting and also adds to the testing of more complex and comprehensive models that describe manifold processes that explain task crafting decisions.

Furthermore, we add to the understanding of the relative weights of those factors of opportunity images. Whereas the potential value of an opportunity and the situational

autonomy to enact the opportunity revealed the greatest impact, the two factors comprising feasibility (related knowledge and colleagues crafting) as well as consequences for colleagues seem to play a weaker role in shaping these decisions. Based on these results, one intriguing inference is that employees may more strongly pursue those task crafting opportunities that yield the highest individual benefit while minimizing risks of being sanctioned due to a lack of autonomy. Although the other predictors also resulted in significant effects on the decision to pursue a task crafting opportunity, potential value, and situational autonomy yielded the strongest predictive power by far.

Even though this finding appears plausible and even somewhat intuitive, we believe that our results are still helpful for several reasons. First, previous authors have emphasized job crafting's self-centered nature (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Niessen et al., 2016; Weseler & Niessen, 2016), assuming that job crafters above all, seek to maximize their individual job experience and meaningfulness. However, although deemphasizing the former is not a viable option, one major issue with previous studies is that they tended to proxy decision-making for job crafting with attitudinal (e.g., need for control) or general environmental attributes (e.g., job autonomy) creating a decision-making "black-box" filled with intuition (Mitchell, Friga, & Mitchell, 2005) and tested within non-experimental, simplistic designs. With the aforementioned advantages of conjoint studies in observing respondents "theory in use", and our rich number of predictors investigated, this study helps to open this box and provides finer-grained insights into task crafting decision making.

Furthermore, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) proposed and multiple authors, thereafter suggested (e.g., Leana et al., 2009; Sekiguchi, Li, & Hosomi, 2017; van Wingerden & Niks, 2017) that individuals with greater general autonomy may perceive more available opportunities for task crafting. However, our study excels from previous works, and by this, it seeks to clarify the relationship between autonomy and task crafting in a twofold manner.

First, as we focus on how situational autonomy for pursuing a respective job crafting opportunity may impact the evaluation of an opportunity, the specific contribution lies within the finer-grained situational approach. Similarly, Fritz and Sonnentag (2009) suggest that situational constraints may affect proactive work behavior on the same workday, emphasizing the value of a situational approach. We hold this distinction important because employees may be endowed with increasingly rich autonomy (Wegman, Hoffman, Carter, Twenge, & Guenole, 2018), but at the same time, may not be authorized to craft a certain procedure or task that could vastly improve their job experience. Hence, whereas previous authors speculated about the role of general levels of (job) autonomy in the *recognition* of a job crafting opportunity, we focus on the role of situational autonomy for pursuing an opportunity in the *evaluation* process.

In addition, we believe that well-experienced employees themselves are in the best position to know about their authorities and permissions at work and that this may vary across situations and task crafting opportunities. In this regard, we strongly argue for a more nuanced consideration of autonomy as an antecedent of job crafting, whereas previous research reported ambiguous effects, particularly when considering different forms and subdimensions of job crafting. For example, Petrou et al. (2012) found that job autonomy was positively associated with relational forms of job crafting, but not with task-related forms of job crafting on a daily level. Other authors report a significant positive correlation between autonomy and composite forms job crafting (Debus, Gross, & Kleinmann, 2020; Leana et al., 2009; Sekiguchi et al., 2017), whereas Niessen et al. (2016) find that job autonomy does not predict task crafting. Our study adds to the ongoing debate about whether and what kind of autonomy is important for job crafting (e.g., (Leana et al., 2009; Niessen et al., 2016; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001) by suggesting that perceived situational autonomy is a strong trigger for positively evaluating a given task crafting opportunity and deciding to craft one's tasks.

Besides the potential value and situational autonomy, our results offer several specific insights for task crafting literature. We add to the role of related knowledge, revealing that when individuals possess potentially helpful information in order to adapt their tasks, they are more likely to do so. In addition, research on opportunity evaluation suggests that entrepreneurs would favor related knowledge when exploitation is near over potential value when exploitation is rather distant (Tumasjan, 2013). The meta-analysis by Böhnlein and Baum (2020) suggests that present-oriented rather than future-oriented employees perform better when crafting their tasks. Thus, it may be potentially fruitful for future research to investigate how individuals assess task crafting opportunities while involving temporal orientation.

Moreover, similar to other extra-role behaviors, job crafting does not occur in a vacuum so that close coworkers are likely affected by task crafting actions, and in turn, may affect the decision to craft itself (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2015). Therefore, we accounted for direct colleagues within the evaluation of a task crafting opportunity, and two things became salient. First, the task crafting of close colleagues positively affected the image of a task crafting opportunity while inducing consequences for colleagues negatively impacted the former. This suggests that in proactive work units, where many employees tend to craft their tasks, this behavior may be contagious for others or for new members, so that in turn, the climate or culture of that team may develop over time and become more proactive. In a related vein, Tims et al. (2015) found that reducing hindering demands (a reductive form of job crafting) of a colleague was positively related to the colleague's workload and conflict, which, in turn, related positively to colleague burnout. Demerouti and Peeters (2018) found that reductive forms of job crafting may be transmitted from one employee to another. We complement that perspective and suggest that employees more likely choose to exploit task crafting opportunities when direct coworkers also display task crafting behaviors.

Second, in situations where close colleagues are affected in their routines and work procedures, our respondents were less likely to pursue a task crafting opportunity. Although previous research has argued and empirically suggested task interdependence working as a bidirectional constraint, to hinder the perception of job crafting opportunities (Leana et al., 2009; Tims & Bakker, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), our study provides a more direct approach and thus allows for a clearer inference. We model consequences for colleagues as an indication of one-sided task dependence and investigate how affecting relevant others may impact the likelihood of deciding to exploit a task crafting opportunity. Here, the negative weight is in line with Grant and Ashford (2008), who proposed that when individuals engage in proactive work behavior that displeases coworkers or subordinates, they will be more likely punished and thus less likely to engage.

Furthermore, we feel that discussing our controls can contribute to the understanding of task crafting. In their seminal qualitative study, Berg et al. (2010) concluded that the opportunity to craft one's job differs across organizational ranks. Therefore, we controlled for leadership responsibilities in both samples. Surprisingly, we could not detect significant direct effects of leadership, with respect to how likely one would pursue a task crafting opportunity. However, as aforementioned, we did not collect responses from directors and senior managers and thus, missed the very upper echelon of employees. Thus, future research may elaborate on a quantitative basis on how task crafting may be inhibited or promoted by organizational status, which likely interferes with both freedom and obligations.

Beyond that, our coefficients for both samples are very similar (relative to each other and in absolute numbers). Given that we have two independent samples - Sample 1, which may be biased by stronger self-selection and regional distortion and Sample 2, which may be compromised by non-response bias in terms of gender and Xing profile calls - we infer that our results demonstrate high levels of robustness and broad generalizability. Also, for both

samples, the model explains a large portion of variance (76% and 79% in Model 4 and Model 5, Sample 1, and 87% in Model 5, Sample 2). However, we find weak support for our interaction hypotheses. These results illuminate the boundary conditions of this theoretical framework. Against our theoretical rationale, it seems that decisions to pursue task crafting opportunities are predominantly triggered by the image of the opportunity itself, whereas the image of the self only seems to play a smaller role. Again, both samples have a strong overlap in their results. This is consensus with the notion of Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) that nearly every employee may engage in job crafting behaviors, given a respective opportunity. This suggests that task crafting behaviors are rather predicted by external circumstances (opportunity images) than by individual factors, such as RBSE and image risk. Non-the-less, the results show a direct effect of one aspect of the image of the self (Model 3 in both samples), which indirectly supports our theoretical model, as images of the self are existent (Mitchell & Shepherd, 2010). RBSE had significant positive direct effects on the decision to engage in task crafting behavior. Hence, we call for a more nuanced perspective in order to explore why some and not others pursue job crafting opportunities.

Third, we attempt to address Baron's (2010) call for closer theoretical connections between entrepreneurship and job crafting. We did this by adapting a theoretical framework from entrepreneurship and by adopting it into the literature of task crafting opportunities. As mentioned above, we find strong empirical evidence for our hypothesizing of all five direct effects within two different samples, explaining great proportions of variability. Thus, we conclude that job crafters -alike entrepreneurs- assess opportunities in terms of their desirability and feasibility, and environment and that task crafting occurs at the individual-opportunity nexus. Therefore, we link entrepreneurship theories to theories of job crafting, demonstrate the helpfulness of this cross-fertilization, and call for more research that informs theory above and beyond existing domains.

In addition, we believe that our framework can be utilized as a blueprint for further investigations on employee proactivity. Thus, we also intend to contribute to the broader understanding of opportunity evaluation for proactive work behaviors. Previous research suggests that many proactive behaviors provide a considerable overlap in their dynamics and underlying processes while featuring similar predictors and outcomes (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Thomas et al., 2010). Intriguingly, multiple authors have theoretically proposed deliberate decision processes to occur within various proactive work behaviors, such as, personal initiative (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996), issue selling (Ashford et al., 1998), or taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999). However, to date, this prominent proposition lacks empirical testing and validation, and therefore, our early-stage research appears to be a highly relevant contribution to the broader context of proactive employee behavior in order to investigate the decision processes of other proactive behavioral concepts. Refining the conceptualization of opportunities for task crafting - a proactive form of work behavior, concerned with changing task boundaries within one's job - we produce strong empirical evidence of how employees anticipate future consequences of their proactive behavior. By this, our work exemplifies how this opportunity evaluation framework can be fruitful for future investigations of other proactive constructs, such as feedback-seeking, taking charge, voice, or prosocial rule-breaking. In this vein, Morrison (2006, p. 23) emphasized the value of better understanding "how individuals weigh perceived benefits and risks of prosocial rule-breaking".

4.5.2 Limitations and Future Research

Our study is not without limitations in which we see as avenues for further research. First, despite the considerable advantages for addressing our research question, it is important to acknowledge the limitations of conjoint experiments. As a common issue in experimental

research, this procedure potentially sacrifices external validity in order to strengthen internal validity (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Although we undertook several efforts to enhance the external validity of our conjoint experiments and used two samples of real employees with considerable amounts of work experience, participants nevertheless had to evaluate hypothetical scenarios of task crafting opportunities. However, previous research has shown that results obtained with conjoint studies provide accurate reflections of real-world decision-making behaviors (Brown, 1972; Hammond & Adelman, 1976), even when the manipulated scenarios resulted in arguably unrealistic combinations (Moore & Holbrook, 1990). Furthermore, the goal of conjoint studies is to test a theorized effect and not a statistical effect (Highhouse, 2009), whereas we seek to understand the underlying preference structures to assess individuals' "theory in use" and not their "espoused theories of action" (Lohrke et al., p. 17).

Second, we transferred and adapted the framework by Mitchell and Shepherd (2010) from the entrepreneurship context to the task crafting context. Although recent elaborations on theories of job crafting and proactive work behavior guided our choice of predictors, this may influence our results and inferences. Furthermore, the weak support of our moderator hypotheses demands further clarification on the applicability of this framework to the job crafting context. However, as we find strong empirical support for our direct effects of the image of the opportunity in two different samples - explaining enormous proportions of variability - we call for further research, which possibly involves other moderator variables. On that behalf, in both samples, individual perceptions of RBSE and image risk were relatively uniform, revealing relatively low levels of between-subject variances, which may explain why we could not detect significant moderator effects.

Third, considering the early-stage of experimental job crafting research, we chose to focus on basic conceptualizations of task crafting (Leana et al., 2009; Slemp & Vella-

Brodrick, 2013) and neglected finer-grained theoretical distinctions, such as contraction-oriented vs. expansion-oriented crafting or relational and cognitive crafting (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2019; Bruning & Campion, 2018; Zhang & Parker, 2019). As job crafting may occur in a variety of different forms, shifting task, relational, and cognitive boundaries of the job, future research may use conjoint or vignette experimental designs to unravel the underlying decision processes and explore whether our results generalize across different types of job crafting activities.

Forth, in Sample 2, we detected potential non-response bias threats in terms of gender and profile calls in Xing, meaning that we have significantly more women and employees with more profile calls in our responding sample than in the non-response group. As aforementioned, we tried to compensate for that by including these variables to our model, as suggested by Rogelberg and Stanton (2007). By this, we could at least partially control for potential bias concerning these variables. On this account, we also had a significant effect of gender on the decisions to craft one's tasks, suggesting that women were more likely to craft their tasks. Possibly, this effect is triggered by the relatively lower rank of women in Sample 2, which may come with more freedom, lower rank, and with less complex tasks and responsibilities. In fact, we also find a significant correlation between gender and employee rank in this sample. In addition, in Sample 2, we find that individuals with more profile calls on a professional network (Xing) rather tend to proactively pursue task crafting opportunities. This is in line with meta-analytic findings by Thomas et al. (2010), who report a positive relationship between employee proactivity and social networking abilities. However, as this study features two distinct samples, which are very robust in their results, we assume that these biases are not a major threat to our study's overall value.

Fifth, we only involved German employees. A recent meta-analysis suggests that the effectivity of job crafting behavior may depend on its national context and its respective

socio-cultural factors, such as uncertainty avoidance or individualism (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020). As culture impacts individual perceptions of satisfying job designs (Lee & Antonakis, 2014) and proactive behaviors (Liu, Lee, Hui, Kwan, & Wu, 2013; Marcus & Le, 2013), we assume that the evaluation of task crafting opportunities may also be contingent on the prevalent socio-cultural factors. Thus, we hold research that transfers our framework to different socio-cultural settings in order to increase the understanding of job crafting decisions as potentially fruitful.

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**CHAPTER 5: WHEN DOES SELF-SACRIFICIAL LEADERSHIP
MOTIVATE EXPANSIVE VERSUS REDUCTIVE
FOLLOWER TASK CRAFTING? THE MODERATING
ROLE OF PREVENTION FOCUS**

ABSTRACT

We investigate the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive versus reductive task crafting. Drawing on self-determination theory, we hypothesize that self-sacrificial leadership will enhance expansive follower task crafting and decrease reductive follower task crafting behavior. Furthermore, we argue for mechanisms on how prevention focus moderates these relationships. Drawing on previous research, we employ an experimental design, where we manipulate self-sacrificial leadership style. We use a between-subject experimental design and apply structural equation modeling (SEM) in order to test our hypotheses on a sample of 401 employees from various German organizations. The results partially support our hypotheses. We find that self-sacrificial leadership positively relates to expansive task crafting but not to reductive task crafting. In addition, prevention focus positively moderates the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive task crafting, whereas we could not detect significant moderation for the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and reductive task crafting.

Keywords: self-sacrificial leadership, task crafting, self-determination theory

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The leadership literature suggests that leaders play a critical role in stimulating proactive work behaviors among their followers (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Rank, Nelson, Allen, & Xu, 2009; Schmitt, Den Hartog, & Belschak, 2016). Whereas different types of leadership offer more or less freedom and various resources to their followers, they also provide different motivations to engage in proactive behaviors (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010), including job crafting behaviors (Hetland, Hetland, Bakker, & Demerouti, 2018; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). For example, transformational leadership may trigger job crafting via increasing individual adaptability (Wang, Demerouti, & Le Blanc, 2017), or by demonstrating a clear vision and expressing high expectations on a daily basis (Hetland et al., 2018). Servant leaders motivate followers' job crafting by showing a genuine concern for them and by empowering them to develop and use their capabilities (Bavik, Bavik, & Tang, 2017), or by providing a supportive environment (Yang, Ming, Ma, & Huo, 2017). However, it is still not thoroughly explored how self-sacrificial leadership may motivate follower job crafting.

In the meantime, self-sacrificial leadership has been found to be a crucial precursor of followers affiliate behaviors, such as employee cooperation, OCB and performance (Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002; Cremer, van Knippenberg, van Dijke, & Bos, 2006; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Despite the importance of these subordinate behaviors for organizational functioning, very little is known about how self-sacrificial leadership may influence proactive work behaviors. That is somehow surprising, as Choi and Mai-Dalton (1998) proposed that self-sacrificial leadership would foster individual adaptive behaviors, and by this, pointing towards change-initiating employee behaviors. In this vein, Li et al. (2016) suggest that self-sacrificial leaders can positively impact their follower's proactive engagement in challenging the status quo and taking charge.

We build on these initial works to resolve the question if self-sacrificial leadership motivates task crafting as a distinct proactive behavior? More specifically, we seek to address how self-sacrificial leadership motivates followers' expansive and reductive task crafting. Understanding the effects on expansive vs. reductive forms of job crafting is theoretically and practically interesting because research associates expansive vs. reductive crafting with different outcomes. For example, expansive job crafting relates to increased well-being and performance, whereas reductive crafting may lead to burnout and disengagement (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020; Demerouti, 2015; Demerouti, Bakker, & Halbesleben, 2015). Moreover, recent research suggests that leadership behaviors might impact expansive and reductive crafting differently (Thun & Bakker, 2018; Wang et al., 2017). We seek to advance this burgeoning literature by unraveling the role of self-sacrificial leadership as a potential predictor of expansive- and reductive crafting.

In addition, we assume that self-sacrificial leadership will be more effective in stimulating subordinates' task crafting behavior depending on subordinates' individual differences, such as self-regulative dispositions. Recent theoretical developments acknowledge that expansive job crafting can be associated with promotion focus while reductive job crafting behaviors may be related to prevention focus (Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019). However, it remains unresolved how individual regulatory foci might impact the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership style and the two forms of task crafting behavior. We argue that depending on the prevention focus, employees are more likely to internalize their leader's goal orientation to work harder in order to fulfill one's duties.

With this study, we seek to contribute to the literature on self-sacrificial leadership and job crafting in several ways. First, we aim advance the literature that links self-sacrificial leadership to proactive work behaviors. Drawing on theories of self-determination, we reason

that employees are motivated to craft their jobs because they internalize the values and goals of a self-sacrificial leader, and in turn, are motivated to reciprocate their leader's dutiful behavior by proactively expanding their task responsibilities. This is highly relevant as Cremer and van Knippenberg (2005, p. 356) state that the effects of self-sacrificial leadership on employee behavior are "still largely unaddressed in empirical research". Particularly, research focused on the effects of self-sacrificial leadership on affiliate behaviors that are part of the job and not proactive in nature, and therefore, we have scant knowledge about its effects on employee proactive behavior or behaviors that exceed formal job requirements, such as job crafting.

Second, we also add to the promising literature of job crafting because we offer explanations for why employees may engage in task expansive or reductive forms of job crafting behaviors. Here, the literature predominantly focused on individual differences, such as proactive personality (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012) or self-efficacy (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014) or job characteristics (Slemp, Kern, & Vella-Brodrick, 2015) as predictors of job crafting, while previous authors emphasized the role of understanding how leadership affects expansive vs. reductive job crafting (Thun & Bakker, 2018; Wang et al., 2017).

Moreover, we seek to contextualize the effectiveness of self-sacrificial leadership, drawing on the followers' prevention focus. We offer theorizing how prevention focus may increase the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive, respectively, reductive task crafting. Although we follow extent previous research and relate these notions to job crafting research, we add to the understanding for which kinds of individuals the internalization mechanism of self-sacrificial leaders may be most effective in motivating follower task crafting behaviors. We test our hypotheses with a between-subject experimental design on a sample of 401 employees.

5.2 THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000) has been used to understand motivation towards a plethora of work behaviors, including why individuals engage in job crafting (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2019; Niessen, Weseler, & Kostova, 2016). It proposes a continuum between extrinsic motivation with external regulation, as the most controlled form of motivation, and intrinsic motivation, as the most autonomous motivation. Besides external regulation, extrinsic motivation involves three types of internalization (introjection, identification, and integration) being more autonomous and self-determined in respective (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Internalization, in general, describes a process where individuals „take in values, attitudes, and regulatory structures such that behavior is internally regulated“ (Parker & Ohly, 2008, p. 251). First, introjection refers to taking in extrinsic motivations but having not accepted them as one’s own, such as socially accepted behaviors. For example, a sick nurse may show up to work, instead of taking sick days, because she does not want to leave her colleagues high and dry, but not because of a high level of commitment for the organization. Second, identification happens when an individual identifies with the underlying value of a particular behavior and its intended consequences because it serves an important purpose. Although the task itself may not be intrinsically motivating, it may be perceived as relatively autonomous because the actions become congruent with one’s individual goals. For example, a nurse who carries out unpleasant tasks, which are recognizably important for the patient’s recovery, which is important to her.

Third, integration involves fully accepting the values that guide the behavior and integrating them into the self-concept. Although the tasks may not be enjoyable, the goals they try to achieve are valued, and the actions to accomplish it are considered as a part of who one is and what the individual goals are. For example, a nurse who not only identifies with the

importance of the activities for fostering a patient's recovery but who also regards these actions as central to her broader self-concept.

Previous research suggests that intrinsic motivation yielded better performance when the tasks were interesting, whereas identified or integrated motivation resulted in better performance when the tasks were not perceived as very interesting but were important or required determination (Koestner & Losier, 2002), as it may occur for task crafting actions.

In order to function optimally, self-determination theory states that both intrinsic motivation and internalization depend on particular nutrients, the fulfillment of the three basic needs of competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

5.2.1 Self-Sacrificial Leadership

Self-sacrificial leadership, defined as sacrificial leader behavior in an organizational context, manifests in three subdimensions, division of labor, distribution of rewards, and exercise of power (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998).

Self-sacrifice in the division of labor involves working harder, volunteering for risky behaviors, arduous actions and tasks, and also assuming responsibilities for others' failures and mistakes (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998). Self-sacrifice in the distribution of rewards refers to postponing one's fair or benefits for the greater good or for the sake of the community. Self-sacrifice in the exercise of power entails giving up or refraining from emphasizing one's power, position or status while using one's personal resources (time, money) for the progress of the work unit, or the organization. Although these forms have been conceptualized separately, self-sacrificial leadership can occur in just one form, or even a combination of those three (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998). For example, a leader who volunteers to do extra work and assumes additional responsibilities that are not formally prescribed in his/ her job

responsibilities and will not be rewarded. This refers to the division of labor, as the leader takes on additional work beyond his/ her requirements but also to the distribution of rewards as he/ she will not be rewarded for this.

Self-sacrificial leadership may share commonalities with other forms of leadership, such as servant leadership (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2019), but differs in behavioral dimensions. Whereas servant leadership reflects behaviors such as stewardship, seeking to satisfy follower needs or to help and heal (Graham, 1991), self-sacrificial leadership involves behaviors that focus on duty, facilitating the work units functioning or an organizational mission (Matteson, Jeffrey, A. & Justin, A., Irving, 2006) despite or in the face of personal pains and refraining.

Summing up, self-sacrificial leadership involves an abandonment of personal interests, advantages, or resources for the sake of the work unit, the organization, or the mission (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; Matteson, Jeffrey, A. & Justin, A., Irving, 2006). Self-sacrificial leaders often forfeit their personal benefits and emphasize that the mission and purpose of the collective are paramount (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; Cremer, Mayer, van Dijke, Bardes, & Schouten, 2009).

5.2.2 The Relationship between Self-Sacrificial Leadership and Task Crafting

In line with previous authors, we rely on self-determination theory as a helpful theoretical framework for explaining motivations for job crafting which, by definition, is self-initiated (autonomous) and rather motivated by internal than by external regulations (Bindl et al., 2019; Niessen et al., 2016). Parker et al. (2010) stated that autonomous motivation, including intrinsic, integrated, and identified forms are explanative reasons for employees to engage in proactive behaviors. Following this perspective and in line with Li et al. (2016), we assert that self-sacrificial leadership can elicit followers' job crafting behavior by enhancing

their autonomous motivation. Moreover, we contend that self-sacrificial leadership may foster followers' internalization of values, goals, and behavioral regulations. Self-sacrificial leaders may be perceived as role models because subordinates attribute charisma, selflessness and trust to them (Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002; Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2005). Accumulating research acknowledged the significant role of leaders in affecting their followers' internalization and the importance of this process (Bono & Judge, 2003; Cremer et al., 2009; Li et al., 2016).

Particularly, we argue that self-sacrificial leadership will emphasize dutifulness accompanied by selflessness, and flatter hierarchies that employees are likely to observe and internalize. In turn, this may increase employees' autonomous motivation and also satisfy their needs for competence, relatedness, autonomy, and a positive self-image, which are central drivers of self-determination (Gagné & Deci, 2005) and job crafting (Niessen et al., 2016).

First, the self-sacrificial division of labor will positively relate to expansive negatively to reductive task crafting. When leaders take arduous actions, work harder, take risks, and assume additional responsibilities, this behavior often goes far beyond their job description and usual expectations, and thus, sets a new benchmark for engagement and job involvement among the work unit. Subordinates are likely to internalize their leader's dutifulness and exert extra efforts because they accept the necessity of this behavior as a part of their own duty or as a part of their selves. In these situations, followers are likely to identify expanding their jobs with self-selected goals (prosperity of the work unit) and integrate such identifications into their self-concept (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Li et al., 2016). Hence, we argue that employees who notice their leader's self-sacrificial division of labor are likely to reciprocate that behavior and expand their work roles via expansive task crafting, whereas they are unlikely to reduce their work roles via reductive crafting. When fulfilling their internalized expanded

goals and responsibilities, employees are likely to facilitate their need for competence and positive self-image. In addition, when employees internalize the leader's dutifulness, they are likely to refrain from reducing their task responsibilities or making their job easier. Previous authors suggest that self-sacrificial leadership may pressure subordinates emotionally and cognitively to reciprocate the leader's self-sacrifice (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999) and to promote subordinate expansive proactivity (Li et al., 2016).

Second, the self-sacrificial distribution of rewards may positively relate to expansive task crafting and negatively to reductive task crafting. When leaders forfeit individual rewards or benefits for the community, they are likely perceived as selfless and trustworthy (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002; Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2005). Although job crafting has been argued as rather self-centered (Niessen et al., 2016; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), it may also contain selfless actions that benefit the greater collective and yield organizational citizenship behaviors (Lin, Law, & Zhou, 2017). Also, followers do not fear being exploited by their leader (Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2005), and thus, we assume that self-sacrificial leadership will rather motivate those forms of job crafting that are also perceived as selfless and contributing to the work unit and its performance. Furthermore, by internalizing the leader's selflessness, expansive rather than reductive job crafting is likely to facilitate the need for competence and relatedness and positive self-image (Böhnlein & Baum, 2020; Niessen et al., 2016).

Third, self-sacrificial exercise of power, reflecting actions that postpone their position and investing more personal resources, is likely to have a positive relationship with both expansive task crafting and reductive task crafting. We argue that self-sacrificial exercise of power may loosen the perception of being monitored and yield in perceptions of autonomy-support. As self-sacrificial leaders refrain from their power for the sake of the collective progress, this will likely be interpreted as humility by the followers, reduce the social distance

(Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998) and foster the needs for relatedness and autonomy. Therefore, self-sacrificial leaders are likely to flatten perceptions of hierarchy and strict formal job designs and motivate both expansive and reductive task crafting. Research on self-sacrificial leadership supports this assumption as it increases collaborative work practices and cooperation with the leader (Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002). Although job crafting often goes unnoticed by supervisors (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001), autonomy is a strong predictor of job crafting (Slemp et al., 2015), and thus, we assert that self-sacrificial leadership will be positively related with both expansive and reductive task crafting.

In sum, we believe that followers of self-sacrificial leaders are likely to identify (expansive) task crafting as congruent with their internalized values and goals and integrate these in their broader self-concept. As a result, they may feel more autonomy and volition to engage in expansive rather than reductive crafting, as they regard such behavior as valuable and important while it emanates from their sense of self (Gagné & Deci, 2005; Li et al., 2016). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H1a: Self-sacrificial leadership has a positive relationship with expansive task crafting.

H1b: Self-sacrificial leadership has a negative relationship with reductive task crafting.

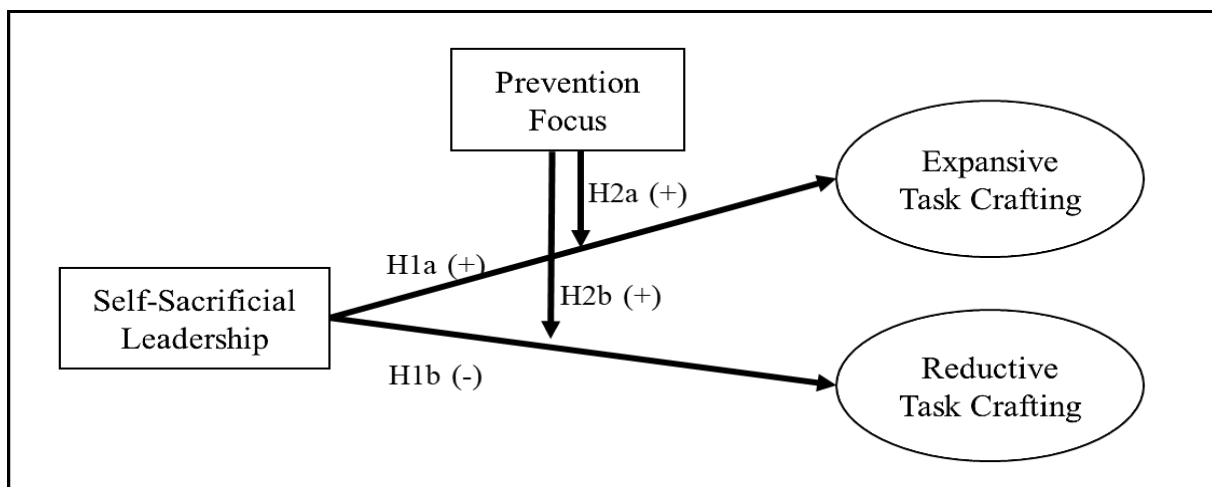
5.2.3 The Moderating Role of Prevention Focus

Regulatory focus theory posits that two distinct forms of self-regulation (promotion and prevention focus) govern individuals' behavior during goal pursuit (Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 1998). A promotion focus refers to individual ideals and aspirations, maximization of gains, and an approach orientation. In contrast, a prevention focus involves oughts, responsibilities, minimization of losses, and an avoidance approach. Empirical research has

positively related promotion focus to helping behavior and creativity (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008) whereas prevention focus has been associated with in-role performance (Neubert et al., 2008) safety performance (Wallace & Chen, 2006) task accuracy (Förster, Higgins, & Bianco, 2003), and negatively with deviant work behavior (Neubert et al., 2008).

We argue that prevention focus will influence the effects of self-sacrificial leadership on task crafting for several reasons. First, we agree with previous work, that strongly emphasizes the dutiful nature (Cremer et al., 2009; Li et al., 2016) of self-sacrificial leadership, which is likely to resonate with prevention-oriented values and goals and, thus motivates employees to step out of their comfort zone. As Cremer et al. state (2009, p. 889) “self-sacrificial leader behavior activates values that are focused on conserving and protecting the group’s interest by being dutiful and responsible”. In addition, prevention-oriented employees are suggested to rely on role modeling and managerial behaviors more than promotion-oriented ones (Zhang, Higgins, & Chen, 2011), and thus, are more receptive to self-sacrificial leadership. Figure 1 shows the theoretical framework, developed and tested in this study.

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Framework



We assume that because self-sacrificial leadership behavior resonates with the regulatory concern of the prevention-oriented followers, these individuals are more likely to internalize the leader's values and goals and thus likely to engage in job crafting. This is in line with Petrou et al. (2015), who suggest that only for prevention-oriented individuals regulatory fit is beneficial for motivation and performance. In fact, subordinates high on prevention focus are concerned more with fulfilling their duties and responsibilities, whereas goals are consistent with the values salient to self-sacrificial leadership (Cremer et al., 2009). In this manner, self-sacrificial leaders reflect qualities of role models (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; Cremer et al., 2006; Cremer et al., 2009) as they may reflect a regulatory fit for prevention-oriented individuals. Accumulating empirical evidence suggests that prevention-oriented employees leave their comfort zone and engage in various and unconventional behaviors when these are helpful for avoiding losses or adverse environmental states (Baas, Dreu, & Nijstad, 2011; Scholer, Zou, Fujita, Stroessner, & Higgins, 2010). In other words, suboptimal external conditions may be especially motivating and activating for prevention-oriented individuals, as they are more alert and susceptible to unmet prevention goals. Regulatory focus theory proposes that unmet prevention- rather than promotion goals are related to arousal and activation, and when channeled, these feelings can discharge in energized beneficial behavior (Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Previous authors on job crafting state that prevention-oriented individuals may not be natural job crafters, but they may engage in various job crafting actions in order to prevent failure (Petrou, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2018). We argue that especially prevention-oriented employees are likely to engage in expansive task crafting because they internalize and identify with the value and necessity of engaging in expansive behaviors from their self-sacrificial leader and thus are likely to refrain from reductive forms of task crafting. Thus, we hypothesize the following:

H2a: The relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive task is positively moderated by prevention focus. In that sense, for individuals with greater prevention focus, a self-sacrificial leader will further strengthen the positive relationship.

H2b: The relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and reductive task is negatively moderated by prevention focus. In that sense, for individuals with greater prevention focus, a self-sacrificial leader will further strengthen the negative relationship.

5.3 METHODS

5.3.1 Data and Sample

Following previous authors (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011; Kappes, Balcetis, & Cremer, 2018; Landers & Behrend, 2015), we chose to recruit our participants via Kantar, a platform and panel provider for conducting research designed as an alternative to Amazon.com's M Turk or Prolific Academic. Kantar provides a large pool of international and German participants that allowed us to pre-screen participants on demographic variables (e.g., country, gender, employment status). Previous research acknowledged this type of data to be comparably reliable to responses collected in surveys that were not administered via panel providers (Behrend et al., 2011; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013).

We screened-out participants who were currently unemployed, as they were not part of our target group. A total of 627 participants agreed to participate in our study. After applying attention checks, such as instructional manipulation checks (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009), for example, "please select a "2" here", we encountered 491 participants. Out of this group, 401 understood the manipulation correctly, and thus, we considered them

for further calculations. This group entailed 195 males and 206 females with an average age of 46 years ($SD=11.2$). By this, we followed recommendations by (Lonati, Quiroga, Zehnder, & Antonakis, 2018) for eligible sample size and randomization to have at least 50 participants per experimental cell for appropriate covariate balance and statistical power (Simmons, Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2013).

5.3.2 Experimental Procedure

Participants were invited to take part in an experimental study that was advertised on the panel provider's web site and were randomly assigned to a leader type: self-sacrifice vs. self-benefiting, in a between-subject design. They could visit the web site and log-in to get access to incentivized studies, among which our study ranged. As suggested by Lonati et al. (2018), we linked the participants' effort to the monetary compensation they would receive, as only full and reliable participation would be remunerated. In order to test for careless response and insufficient efforts, we administered instructional manipulation checks (Meade & Craig, 2012; Oppenheimer et al., 2009). We informed participants about checking for insufficient effort responding during the experiment, as Breitsohl and Steidelmüller (2018) suggest that this likely increases general attentiveness. This is also in line with Antonakis (2017), who proposed that financial compensations would motivate participants to be more focused and immersed in the experiment.

In order to handle issues of endogeneity, which are a major threat to a study's validity (Antonakis, 2017; Guide & Ketokivi, 2015), we chose an experimental design, where we induced a randomized treatment and manipulated the independent variable while measuring the dependent variables with previously validated instruments. By manipulating (instead of measuring) our independent variable, we further minimize the chance of common method variance, because measurement errors in the dependent variable are independent of the

randomized manipulation condition, which is exogenous by design (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010; Guide & Ketokivi, 2015). In addition, we applied an SEM-based analysis, as there are several advantages compared to regression-based approaches, such as the modeling of measurement errors (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017).

Designing our experiment, we followed recommendations by Hsu et al. (2017) and Lonati et al. (2018) and tested the manipulation of job crafting opportunities in a pre-study of $N = 141$ participants, which we recruited via the professional network Xing. By this, we sought to apply an “external manipulation check” using a different and yet comparable sample, following recommendations of Bendahan et al. (2015). Here, results from a two-groups independent t-Test suggest that our manipulation worked as intended ($p < 0.001$). For the main study, the results from a two-groups independent t-Test suggest that our manipulation also worked as intended ($p < 0.001$). By this, we ensured our treatment is representative of the latent independent construct, self-sacrificial leadership. More specifically, in order to produce and test generalizable theoretical explanations, it is of crucial importance that the operationalizations of the constructs allow generalizable inferences (Highhouse, 2009). Here, it is central to involve generalizable causes (self-sacrificial leadership) and generalizable effects (task crafting behavior). Due to this, we only involved measurement instruments and manipulations that have been validated in previous research, e.g., self-sacrificial leadership (Cremer et al., 2009) or regulatory focus (Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002) the independent variable.

We asked participants to imagine that they were employed for a medium-sized company for several months. In this company, they were part of a team that was responsible for a variety of tasks ranging from production, marketing, and distribution of products. We told them their team was led by a group supervisor, Mr./ Mrs. Schneider, which is a very common German last name. Currently, this company would undergo some organizational

restructuring, and due to this, much more work than regular had to be done. Next, we introduced the self-sacrificial leadership manipulation by Cremer et al. (2009), in order to warrant for internal validity of the independent variable. This manipulation was based on previous research (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002) and reflects core elements of self-sacrificial leader behavior, such as making personal sacrifices for the collective good in terms of division of labor, distribution of rewards, and exercise of power (see Appendix). For example, we stated that the self-sacrificial/ self-beneficial leader would invest significantly more effort in the team than expected on average. This scenario also entails self-less actions in order to fulfill one's duty, such as refraining from rewards by missing opportunities to promote her/ his own interests. Finally, it also reflects a self-sacrificial exercise of power, which involves spending one's own resources in order to maintain the functionality of the workgroup by donating food or beverages to the team. Next, the manipulation check, the independent, and dependent measures were solicited.

5.3.3 Measures

If not otherwise indicated, all questions were answered on a 7-point scale (1 - not at all to 7 - very much). Furthermore, all variables and items and manipulations have been validated in previous research.

Manipulation check. We used 4 items to assess the function of our manipulation in order to cover several reflective dimensions of self-sacrificial leadership, following previous authors (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Cremer et al., 2009). The items were: 1. "To what extent, does this leader show self-sacrificial behavior?" 2. "To what extent does this leader show self-beneficial behavior?" (reverse coded) 3. To what extent does the behavior of the team leader go beyond his/ her own interest? 4. "To what extent does this leader consider the moral and

ethical consequences of his/ her decisions?”. The internal consistency of these items revealed a Cronbach’s alpha = 0.84.

Moderator variables. Prevention focus was assessed with the Lockwood et al. (2002) measure, which comprises 9 items. The reliability of this instrument is sufficient with Cronbach’s alpha of 0.89, the composite reliability was 0.88, and AVE was 0.46. Despite the relatively low AVE, we chose to use the full scale and refrain from a scale purification in order to capture the full continuum of the reflective construct. A Sample item is “In general, I focus on preventing negative events in my life.”.

Controls. We controlled for gender and age because they were argued and suggested to potentially influence proactive work behaviors (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010) and particularly job crafting (Bipp, 2010; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In addition, we also controlled for promotion focus measured by nine-items (Lockwood et al., 2002). The reliability of this instrument is sufficient with Cronbach’s alpha = 0.86, the composite reliability was 0.86, and AVE was 0.42. A sample item is “I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations”.

Dependent variables. We asked participants to think about the situation described in the scenario and the behavior of the team leader. In order to measure *expansive task crafting*, we adapted the four items by Bindl et al. (2019) to our scenario. We asked them how likely they would be to engage in activities that expand their job content? Such as “...actively take on more tasks in your work?” “...add complexity to your tasks by changing their structure or sequence”, “...change your tasks so that they were more challenging?”, and “...increase the number of difficult decisions you would make in your work?”. The internal consistency was satisfying (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.91), the composite reliability was 0.92, and AVE was 0.74.

In order to measure *reductive task crafting*, we adapted the three items by Bindl et al. (2019) to our scenario. We asked them how likely they would be to engage in activities that

reduce their job content? Such as “... reduce the areas of activity you are working on actively?”, “... simplify the content of your tasks?”, “... make some of your work less demanding?”. The internal consistency was satisfying as Cronbach’s alpha was 0.87, the composite reliability was 0.86 and AVE was 0.67.

5.4 RESULTS

Table 1 shows the results of the descriptive statistics of the variables. Besides our hypothesizing, promotion focus was significantly associated with expansive task crafting ($\beta = 0.39, p < 0.001$), whereas prevention focus positively related to reductive task crafting ($\beta = 0.27, p < 0.001$).

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics: Means (M), Standard Deviations (SD), and Correlations

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	4	5	6	7	8
1 Age	46.65	11.22									
2 Gender	0.49	0.50	0.20**								
3 Experience	24.13	12.29	0.90**	0.23**							
4 Leadership Position	0.32	0.47	0.14**	0.09	0.11*						
4 Manipulation Check	3.71	1.76	-0.16**	0.02	-0.12*	-0.02					
5 SSL	0.50	0.50	-0.12*	0.05	-0.08	-0.02	0.87**				
6 Promotion Focus	4.65	1.05	-0.10*	-0.05	-0.04	0.16**	0.17**	0.13*			
7 Prevention Focus	3.37	1.21	-0.23**	-0.10*	-0.21**	-0.13*	0.16**	0.13**	0.20**		
8 Task Crafting Exp.	4.52	1.37	-0.01	-0.01	0.03	0.15**	0.36**	0.30**	0.39**	0.09	
9 Task Crafting Red.	3.84	1.46	0.01	0.07	0.02	-0.01	-0.03	-0.03	0.08	0.29**	-0.17**

Notes: N= 401, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, Abbreviations: SSL = Self-Sacrificial Leadership, Exp. = Expansive, Red. = Reductive.

Table 2 shows the results from the structural equation modeling and the respective model fit. Fit indicators suggest a reasonable fit ($\chi^2(df) = 92.9(36), p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.97; TLI = 0.96; CFI = 0.98; RMSEA = 0.06) even though the χ^2 -statistic is significant. Considering the sample size of N = 401 and the sensitivity of χ^2 -Tests to sample size the significant test,

though, is not surprising. Given that the other fit indicators consistently suggest a good model fit, we deem our model to fit the data adequately well.

The results partially support our theoretical reasoning, in particular for expansive task crafting. As hypothesized in H1a, self-sacrificial leadership revealed a significant positive relationship with expansive task crafting ($\beta = 0.25, p < 0.001$). In contrast, self-sacrificial leadership did not have a significant (negative) relationship with reductive task crafting, not supporting H1b ($\beta = -0.07, p = 0.21$). In line with our reasoning, prevention focus positively moderated the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive task crafting, supporting H2a ($\beta = 0.15, p = 0.03$). However, prevention focus did not significantly moderate the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and reductive task crafting ($\beta = 0.04, p < 0.59$). In sum, the empirical data supported our hypotheses on expansive task crafting but did not support our predictions for reductive task crafting.

TABLE 2
Results from the Structural Equation Modeling: Standardized Regression Coefficients (β), Unstandardized Regression Weights (b), Standard Errors (SE) and p-values

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables									
	Task Crafting Expansive					Task Crafting Reductive				
	β	b	SE	p	Hyp.	β	b	SE	p	Hyp.
Prevention Focus	-0.114	-0.146	0.089	0.10		0.268***	0.324***	0.096	>0.001	
Self-Sacrificial Leadership (SSL)	0.253***	0.651***	0.120	>0.001	H1a	-0.066	-0.158	0.126	0.208	H1b
Promotion Focus	0.392***	0.504***	0.087	>0.001		0.031	0.037	0.090	0.681	
SSL X Prevention Focus	0.146*	0.254*	0.120	0.034	H2a	0.042	0.069	0.128	0.588	H2b
SSL X Promotion Focus	-0.036	-0.066	0.119	0.579		0.007	0.012	0.127	0.922	

Note: N=401, *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01, * p < 0.05, Model fit: Chi²=92.9, df=36, p<0.001, Chi²/df=2.58, GFI=0.97, TLI=0.96, CFI=0.98, RMSEA= 0.06;

Although we do not assume a theoretical connection, we incorporated Promotion Focus and the interaction terms into our modelling and controlled for its impact due to theoretical comprehensiveness.

5.5 DISCUSSION

5.5.1 General Discussion

This study investigates the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and task crafting accounting for follower's prevention focus as a moderating individual difference. Our results yield partial support for our hypothesizing. Self-sacrificial leadership was positively related to expansive task crafting but not to significantly related to reductive task crafting. Thus, we suggest that self-sacrificial leadership may motivate expansive proactivity, while it does not seem to affect reductive proactivity (neither positively nor negatively). This result is in line with Li et al. (2016), who reported a positive relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and expansive proactivity in the form of taking charge. By this, we advanced the understanding of how self-sacrificial leadership may motivate follower behaviors. Our results are also in line with other authors, who suggest that a leader's behavior may motivate proactive work behaviors, such as voice (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010) among followers. Hence, we infer that via internalization of the self-sacrificial leader's dutifulness, employees perceive autonomous motivation to expand their tasks via job crafting.

Besides, previous research indicates that the motivation to engage in different forms of job crafting may be transferable among employees (Demerouti & Peeters, 2018; Peeters, Arts, & Demerouti, 2016) and Brett and Stroh (2003) demonstrated that also working long hours seems something that can be transferred from one individual to another. We advance this picture by suggesting that also leader's self-sacrificial behavior, reflected in dutiful goals and values, may be contagious and can motivate task crafting behavior. Although previous authors already suggested that leaders may prime follower's promotion focus, who in turn, are more likely to take risks and try new directions (Kark & van Dijk, 2007), we offer new reasoning for how self-sacrificial leaders may impact their followers' perceptions of autonomous motivation by influencing their individual goals. This is also in consensus with other authors,

who have demonstrated that when leader-specific goals entail high degrees of self-sacrifice, followers are likely to exhibit greater energy and perseverance to these goals (Choi & Mair-Dalton, 1999; Cremer et al., 2006; Cremer, van Knippenberg, & Cremer, 2004). Above that, we add to the understanding of self-sacrificial leadership's outcomes by relating it to task crafting as a proactive employee behavior.

Moreover, our results also add to the question of how leadership motivates expansive versus reductive job crafting. Previous authors have argued that, for example, transformational leadership and empowering leadership may positively relate to expansive and negatively relate to reductive forms of job crafting (Thun & Bakker, 2018; Wang et al., 2017). We align with these authors in the results of our reasoning – that leadership may encourage expansive and discourage reductive job crafting – and also in our empirical results. Similar to these authors, we could not detect a negative relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and reductive crafting. However, we offer new reasoning on how self-sacrificial leadership may impact followers' internalization of values and goals, and by this, yield autonomous motivation to engage in task crafting. Furthermore, although Parker and Ohly (2008) assumed that internalization might not invariably result in positive outcomes, such as expansive task crafting, we cannot draw inferences on how it may be associated with less positive outcomes, such as reductive crafting. Future research may be fruitful to uncover leadership styles that may motivate employees to refrain or even engage in reductive forms of job crafting behaviors. Although the literature on job crafting has derived various assumptions on the nomological network of reductive crafting (Bindl et al., 2019; Thun & Bakker, 2018; Zhang & Parker, 2019), we have little empirical support for these relationships.

We also investigated the moderating role of prevention focus and found partial support for our hypotheses. Previous research has associated promotion focus with expansive and prevention focus with reductive forms of job crafting (Bindl et al., 2019; Lichtenthaler

& Fischbach, 2019). Assuming this perspective -that regulatory foci are directly associated to either expansive or reductive job crafting - our results suggest that self-sacrificial leadership may particularly motivate prevention-oriented employees to engage in promotion-oriented task crafting. This means although individuals may tend to craft their tasks according to their corresponding regulatory focus, self-sacrificial leadership is likely to influence and invert this relationship as followers internalize the leader's (prevention-oriented) goal and values. This advances previous works who stated that individual "work-related regulatory foci will activate the engagement in either promotion- or prevention-oriented forms of job crafting" (Bindl et al., 2019, p. 619). Thus, our study adds a new perspective to how leadership may motivate promotion-oriented crafting among prevention-oriented employees accounting for the complex structure of self-regulatory strategies and their behavioral outcomes (Koopmann et al., 2018).

5.52 Implications and Limitations

This study is not without limitations, on the basis of which we see fruitful opportunities for future research. First, we only controlled for promotion focus and strongly defended our position to illuminate the role of prevention focus, and by this, also followed previous authors. Hence, we do not provide reasoning for the relationships between promotion focus and the other variables involved in this study. However, controlling for promotion focus in the model involves several advantages, compared to neglecting it. First, our results are in line with previous work, who found a significant positive association between promotion focus and expansive crafting or prevention focus and reductive crafting. By comparing our results to previous ones, we can get a feeling for the accuracy and validity of our research. Second, as it yielded strong significant effects, we were also able to improve model fit. Third, we found that promotion focus and prevention focus positively correlated, whereas

theoretically, they should be unrelated (Gagné & Deci, 2005). However, we follow previous authors, who found similar empirical results and stated that “Such a significant association between the two regulatory foci might be due to their common function in work behaviors, which alerts individuals and regulates their actions to achieve their goals” (Shin, Kim, Choi, Kim, & Oh, 2017, p. 1227).

Second, we only investigated the behavioral job crafting dimension of task crafting, whereas literature has defined three behavioral and one cognitive dimension of job crafting (Bindl et al., 2019; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In this manner, self-sacrificial leadership may likely motivate expansive relational crafting, for example, employees approaching co-workers from different departments in order to better fulfill their jobs. However, we regard this study as early-stage research and recommend future research to examine the effects of self-sacrificial leadership on other facets of employee job crafting while we offer this as a potentially helpful basis for subsequent investigations.

Third, we did not account for relationship characteristics, such as closeness or intensity, between the leader and the followers. To this end, social factors, such as likeability, charisma or closeness of the relationship, operationalized as leader-member-exchange (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010) may influence our suggestions. Gagné and Deci (2005) assumed that the need for relatedness would play a central role in the process of internalization in which leadership provides sources of meaning and values (Parker & Ohly, 2008). Relatedly, Strauss, Griffin and Rafferty (in press) suggest that besides the type of leadership approach also the level of the leader is important for motivating follower proactive behavior, as there are different underlying mechanisms. Thus, future research on self-sacrificial leadership may incorporate particularities of the dyad in order to further contextualize the outcomes of leadership behaviors. However, drawing on accumulating previous research, we chose to model prevention focus as an individual characteristic that

relates the leader's goals and values to the followers' personalities and by this, partially account for social distance.

Fourth, like other recent investigations of job crafting behavior (e.g., (Demerouti et al., 2015; Dierdorff & Jensen, 2018; Niessen et al., 2016), this study makes use of a self-report measure of task crafting. Although self-reported measures have sometimes been criticized, they may be of particular value when such behaviors are not necessarily observable by others (Bolino, Turnley, Gilstrap, & Suazo, 2010) which also applies for job crafting behaviors (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010; Niessen et al., 2016; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In this vein, Conway and Lance (2010) strongly defend the appropriateness of self-reported measures for several psychological concepts related to job crafting that involve job satisfaction, needs, or perceived job characteristics. In analogy to Lepine et al. (2002) and Bolino et al. (2010) for OCB, we believe that theory and rationale should be imperative to the source of data. For the task crafting behaviors in our study, the employee himself/ herself is arguably the most qualified data source to assess. For instance, employees should be in the finest position to report behaviors about adding or dropping task elements to their job responsibilities. Besides, previous empirical research argues for the appropriateness of self-reports in the domain of job crafting (Demerouti et al., 2015; Solberg & Wong, 2016)

Fourth, our experimental research design focuses on the leader's behavior but does not consider team dynamics. Although the leadership literature suggests, that leaders play a critical role in motivating their subordinates (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Kark & van Dijk, 2007), relevant others from the employee level, such as close colleagues, may be situational forces to engage in reductive versus expansive job crafting (Demerouti & Peeters, 2018). Future research may benefit from considering leader and team influences within the same studies in order to paint a more comprehensive picture.

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5.7 APPENDIX

Manipulations:

In the self-sacrificial condition, the scenario said:

The team leader, Mr. Schneider / Mrs. Schneider reacts to these changes by investing significantly more effort in the team than would be expected on average. Because of this self-sacrifice, he/ she usually doesn't have enough time to do the things he/ she would normally do. So, Mr. Schneider/ Mrs. Schneider is often at work late into the evening, sacrificing his family time and hobbies. He/ she also invests his own financial resources to ensure that the team can continue to work efficiently during this restructuring phase (donates a round of pizza or coffee to the team). Due to his great commitment to the team, Mr. Schneider/ Mrs. Schneider often misses opportunities to pursue his own interests.

In the self-beneficial condition, the scenario said:

The team leader, Mr. Schneider/ Mrs. Schneider, responds to these changes by investing significantly less effort and effort into the team than would be expected on average. Because of these selfish acts, he/ she always has enough time to do the other things he would normally do. So, Mr. Schneider/ Mrs. Schneider is rarely at work late into the evening and is also not willing to sacrifice his/ her family time or hobbies. He/ she never invests his own financial resources to ensure that the team can continue to work efficiently during this restructuring phase (e.g. when the team orders food, it pays attention to an exact allocation of costs). Due to his comparatively low level of involvement in the team, Mr. Schneider/ Mrs. Schneider does not miss any opportunity to pursue his own interests and if this happens, he solely benefits from it.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

The goal of this dissertation is to contribute to the rapidly burgeoning literature on job crafting by picking up four concerns and, on that basis, addressing the respective research questions. In doing so, we hope to help the job crafting literature move forward with novel theorizing, greater clarity, research domain cross-fertilization, and more robust research designs.

CHAPTER 2: DOES JOB CRAFTING ALWAYS LEAD TO EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING AND PERFORMANCE? META-ANALYTIC EVIDENCE ON THE

MODERATING ROLE OF SOCIETAL CULTURE quantitatively summarizes existing empirical results on job crafting and its effects on well-being and individual employee performance with the help of a novel integrative framework. In sum, our study features several important differences from the previously published meta-analyses by Rudolph et al. (2017) and Lichtenhaler and Fischbach (2019). In contrast to these previous authors, we developed a novel framework that incorporated the major theoretical perspectives of Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) and Tims and Bakker (2010), and also accounted for different subdimensions of job crafting. This differentiation is highly important because theory and empirical evidence of job crafting suggest that subdimensions are distinct (Bindl, Unsworth, Gibson, & Stride, 2019; Bruning & Campion, 2018). Hence, this chapter brings forth a clearer understanding of job crafting's outcomes by summarizing a diffuse set of primary research (Zhang & Parker, 2019).

Second, we theorize and empirically show that (to some extent) the relationships between job crafting and individual performance are contingent on the respective cultural circumstances. For example, task crafting revealed greater associations with employee performance in more collectivistic societies, and reductive crafting showed weaker relationships with performance in societies that tend to avoid uncertainty. By this, we extend

the comprehension of contextual moderators of job design research, following previous pressing calls (Gagné & Bhave, 2011; Johns, 2006; Johns, 2010). More specifically, this chapter puts job crafting behaviors in the respective societal context, and therefore, clarifies the effectiveness of job crafting behaviors contingent on different societal cultural factors.

CHAPTER 3: JOB CRAFTING OPPORTUNITIES AND APPLICANT

ATTRACTION -A MULTI-STUDY APPROACH illustrates that individuals are more likely to apply for a job when they perceive more opportunities for job crafting. Above that, this chapter reveals that anticipated treatment and anticipated authentic self-expression, but not role ambiguity, mediate between offered job crafting opportunities and the intention to accept a job offer. By this, we extend the literature on job crafting in several ways.

First, we conceptualize job crafting opportunities as a signal of underlying organizational attributes and connect job crafting theory to signaling theory. In addition, we test the relative importance of this signal against other relevant antecedents of decisions to apply, such as opportunities for career development, opportunities for training, or organizational image. Drawing on our results on both studies, we infer that job crafting opportunities can be an important aspect in guiding applicants' decisions to apply for a job or accept a job offer. By this, we bring forth and discuss new reasoning on the instrumentality of job crafting for theorists and for researchers and practitioners. This is particularly relevant as Ployhart (2006) criticizes that even though there has been a plethora of recruitment research over the last three decades (Breugh & Starke, 2000; Uggerslev, Fassina, & Kraichy, 2012), there are only a few practical implications for recruiting organizations and these are "at best obvious and at worst trivial" (Saks, 2005, p. 69).

Second, we explain and test three signal-based mechanisms (e.g., through anticipated organizational treatment, anticipated role ambiguity, and anticipated authentic self-expression) on how job crafting opportunities may translate into organizational attraction. By

this, we extend knowledge on how individuals observe and interpret the signal of job crafting opportunities, which is crucial to this chapter's contribution. Previous recruitment research guided by signaling theory states that "Understanding the effect of those signals requires an understanding of the inferences drawn by the receivers" (Highhouse, Thornbury, & Little, 2007, p. 136). In this light, we extend job crafting literature by investigating three different signal-based inferences individuals may derive from perceiving opportunities to craft their jobs within the recruitment context.

CHAPTER 4: WHEN DO EMPLOYEES DECIDE TO CRAFT THEIR JOB-TASKS? AN OPPORTUNITY EVALUATION PERSPECTIVE offers new explanatory approaches on when and how employees decide to craft their tasks, and therefore, enhances the understanding of task crafting behaviors. This is highly relevant as literature on job crafting has argued for and speculated about a deliberate decision process, where individuals consider the potential outcomes of their crafting efforts (Lyons, 2008; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, the job crafting literature so far has insufficiently investigated how the decision-maker's evaluation of a task crafting opportunity may influence the likelihood of pursuing a respective opportunity.

Moreover, we test our theorizing with the help of two sophisticated experimental conjoint designs. By modeling images of task crafting opportunities as a joint consideration of potential benefits and costs (Morrison & Phelps, 1999), we unravel the evaluation policies of task crafters and their "theory in use" (Lohrke, Holloway, & Woolley, 2010, p. 17). In such, our empirical testing further allows us to yield robust results and helpful knowledge about the relative weights of these antecedents in the evaluation process. Here, we show that opportunity characteristics, such as situational autonomy or potential value of exploiting a task crafting opportunity, are strong drivers of task crafting decisions, whereas potential

negative side effects for colleagues may decrease the likelihood of pursuing a task crafting opportunity.

Also, we state that the evaluation of task crafting is not uniform across individuals but depends on the images of their selves. Unfortunately, we only find weak support for our reasoning, which, in addition, varies across our two samples. Thus, we need more research that helps to understand how, when, and why employees decide to exert agency over their work via job crafting, which may potentially involve other individual characteristics, such as promotion or prevention focus.

Besides shedding light on the underlying assessment processes of task crafting opportunities, we strengthen the nexus between theories of employee proactivity and entrepreneurship literature. We offer a new perspective in which job crafters act upon a respective opportunity, as we seek to address Baron's (2010) call for closer theoretical connections between entrepreneurship and job crafting. We illuminate that job crafters - similar to entrepreneurs- assess opportunities in terms of their desirability, feasibility, and the environment and that task crafting occurs at the individual-opportunity nexus.

CHAPTER 5: WHEN DOES SELF-SACRIFICIAL LEADERSHIP MOTIVATE EXPANSIVE VERSUS REDUCTIVE FOLLOWER TASK CRAFTING? -THE MODERATING ROLE OF PREVENTION FOCUS investigates the relationship between self-sacrificial leadership and task crafting, accounting for follower's prevention focus as a moderating individual difference. This chapter reveals that self-sacrificial leadership is positively related to expansive task crafting but not significantly related to reductive task crafting. By this, we add to the promising literature on how self-sacrificial leadership may motivate proactive follower behaviors. Besides, previous research indicates that the motivation to engage in different forms of job crafting may be transferable among employees (Demerouti & Peeters, 2018; Peeters, Arts, & Demerouti, 2016). We advance this picture by

suggesting that also leader's self-sacrificial behavior, reflected in dutiful goals and values, may be contagious and can motivate task crafting behaviors.

Furthermore, we also investigate the moderating role of prevention focus and find partial support for our hypotheses. Although previous research has associated promotion focus with expansive and prevention focus with reductive forms of job crafting (Bindl et al., 2019; Lichtenthaler & Fischbach, 2019), our results demonstrate that self-sacrificial leadership behaviors may particularly motivate prevention-oriented employees to engage in promotion-oriented task crafting. By this, our study challenges previous works who stated that individual "work-related regulatory foci will activate the engagement in either promotion- or prevention-oriented forms of job crafting" (Bindl et al., 2019, p. 619). Thus, we add a new perspective to how leadership may motivate promotion-oriented crafting behaviors among essentially prevention-oriented employees.

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