The mediating role of job crafting in the relationship between psychological empowerment and employee performance.

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Project theme:	Work Design
Date:	20-11-2017

Abstract

In a sample of 372 employees from various branches and organizations in the Netherlands, this study examined the mediating effect of three forms of job crafting (i.e. seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands) on the relationship between psychological empowerment and two types of employee performance (i.e. task- and contextual performance). Building on work design theory (i.e. empowerment theory, job characteristics model, and job-demands resource model) and theory of motivation (i.e. self-determination theory), it was hypothesized that the relationship between psychological empowerment and both types of performance would be positively mediated by seeking resources, and negatively mediated by reducing demands. In addition, it was expected that seeking challenges would solely positively mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. Mediated regression analyses revealed a significant relationship between psychological empowerment and both types of performance. As proposed, reducing demands negatively mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance. Moreover, seeking resources and seeking challenges positively mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. However, no evidence was found for the mediating effect of seeking resources in the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance, nor was there any confirmation for the mediating effect of reducing demands in the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. Limitations, practical implications, and directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: Psychological Empowerment, Job Crafting, Task Performance, Contextual Performance, Work Design.

Introduction

During the last few years, there has been a shift in the work design literature, as well as in organizations' perspectives towards work design (Demerouti & Bakker, 2014; Tims & Bakker, 2010). For many years, researchers and organizations have focused on a top-down approach towards work design, in which organizations are responsible for the creation of jobs as well as for the formation of the conditions under which the job holders will execute their tasks (i.e. job design) (Demerouti & Bakker, 2014; Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Wrzesniewski, LoBuglio, Dutton, & Berg, 2013). In other words, job design interventions have been management-led, top-down programs that are focused on improving employee performance in order to establish organizational success in the long run (Dobre, 2013; Hackman & Oldham, 1980). However, these top-down organizational interventions are found to be less effective than researchers and practitioners had hoped for (Biron, Karanika-Murray, & Cooper, 2012; Kompier, Cooper, & Geurts, 2000; Nielsen, Taris, & Cox, 2010). Therefore, more recently, organizations and researchers are acknowledging a bottom-up approach for job design to improve

employee performance, in which the active role of employees in changing or customizing their own jobs has become more important (Demerouti & Bakker, 2014; Oldham & Hackman, 2010).

One of these active work behaviors that is taken into account by using a bottom-up approach, and that has gained its roots in the work design literature, is job crafting (Grant & Parker, 2009). Job crafting is a specific form of proactive behavior in which individuals make self-initiated changes in the task or in the relational boundaries at their work (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Given the growing importance of employee performance in achieving organizational effectiveness, and given the ineffectiveness of top-down organizational interventions in influencing this, it is highly important to investigate how employee performance may be influenced by using a bottom-up approach such as job crafting. In line with this argumentation, Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001) argue that more research is needed on how job crafting effects organizational-level outcomes like performance. In addition, since it has been argued that job crafting is not fully positive or negative, it is important for managers and organizations to empirically investigate which job crafting behaviors result in positive outcomes and which in destructive ones (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Therefore, this study will investigate how three distinct job crafting behaviors (i.e. seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands) are related to two types of employee performance (i.e. in-role and extra-role performance). Prior research on job crafting has already acknowledged the effects of job crafting on employee performance (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014, 2015; Tims, Bakker, Derks, & Van Rhenen, 2013). Yet, little research has been conducted that sheds light on how different job crafting behaviours are related to different types of performance (Kooij, Tims, & Akkermans, 2017).

Moreover, if job crafting behaviors can indeed influence employee performance, it is valuable for organizations and managers to understand why some people perform these behaviors while others do not. Therefore, more research is needed on how individual features, such as psychological empowerment, encourage or discourage important job modifications (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Psychological empowerment is described as an intrinsic motivation that reflects a need for control over one's work and an active orientation with one's work role (Spreitzer, 1995). It has been argued that an employees' need for control over the job and work meaning may be determinant for employees' job crafting intentions, and that this relationship needs to be further investigated (Spreitzer, 2007; Wrezniewski and Dutton, 2001). Therefore, this study will investigate how individual differences in psychological empowerment affect three different types of job crafting (i.e. seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands), by investigating the mediating role of job crafting in the relationship between psychological empowerment and two types of performance (i.e. in-role performance and extra-role performance).

Overall, the purpose of this study is to gain insight into the following research question:

"To what extent does job crafting mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and employee performance?"

In order to answer this research question, a quantitative cross-sectional research, using single-source data, has been conducted in order to collect empirical data and to measure to what extent the hypotheses in this paper could be confirmed. The final sample consisted of 372 employees working in an organization's department in the Netherlands. The department had to have at least 7 employees who worked together and reported to the same manager.

This study will make a relevant contribution to the research field, as well as to the practical field. In particular, little is known on the individual features that may influence job crafting behaviors, and in turn organizational outcomes (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Therefore, this study contributes to the existing literature by investigating how job crafting mediates the relationship between psychological empowerment and task- and contextual performance. This will be done by building on work design theory (i.e. empowerment theory, job characteristics model, and job-demands resource model) and theory of motivation (i.e. self-determination theory). Besides these theoretical contributions, this research is also practically relevant for several stakeholders. Namely, by conducting this research, organizations and (HR) managers will gain more insight into how job crafting can be promoted as well as on how employee performance can be improved.

Theoretical development

Psychological empowerment on job performance

The rapidly changing and evolving global economy has increased competition amongst organizations (Murtagh, 2006). Therefore, in order for organizations to stay competitive and successful, it has become necessary for employees to provide outstanding job performance (Dobre, 2013; Meiheim, 2004). Job performance has been described as a multi-dimensional construct that needs to be broken up into two conceptually distinct components, namely, task performance (i.e. in-role performance) and contextual performance (i.e. extra-role performance) (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994). Task performance can be described as the fulfilment of those officially required behaviors and outcomes that are described in formal job descriptions and that directly serve the goals of the organization (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). On the other hand, contextual performance can be achieved when employees perform behaviors that promote organizational effectiveness, but that are not part of their formal role requirements (e.g. helping coworkers, volunteering for complementary work tasks) (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). Overall, employee performance can be seen as one of the most important factors for any successful enterprise (Meiheim, 2004). Nevertheless, employers have struggled to implement methods and initiatives that improved the performance of their existing employees (Avis, Kudisch, & Fortunato, 2002).

Research on employee performance has already shown that a multitude of dispositional (e.g. personality characteristics) and situational (e.g. organizational policies and procedures) factors have the possibility of influencing employee performance (Rothmann & Coetzer, 2003). One prominent factor

that has mostly been studied as a situational factor and that has been shown to influence employee performance, is employee empowerment (Sutherland, Bruin, & Crous, 2007). However, empowerment may be viewed in both ways. Namely, empowerment as an organizational or managerial practice (e.g. increasing autonomy and responsibilities) may be seen as a situational factor (Boudrias, Gaudreau, Savoie, & Morin, 2009). Conversely, empowerment as a motivational state (i.e. psychological empowerment) may be seen as a dispositional factor (Wall, Cordery, & Clegg, 2002). The focus in this research will be on psychological empowerment.

Psychological empowerment has received a considerable amount of attention over recent years (e.g. Pieterse, Van Knippenber, Schippers, & Stam, 2010; Schermuly & Meyer, 2016; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011). At the individual level, psychological empowerment has been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct consisting of four cognitions, namely, (a) *meaning* (i.e. degree to which employees value their work), (b) *self-determination* (i.e. employees' belief of having control over the execution of work-related tasks), (c) *competence* (i.e. employees' belief in their capability of fulfilling job-related tasks), and (d) *impact* (i.e. degree to which employees belief that they can competently influence work activities and outcomes) (Spreitzer, 1995). According to Spreitzer (1995), all four cognitions of psychological empowerment combine additively to create one single mutually reinforcing construct. In other words, overall empowerment will be eliminated if it lacks one or more of the four constructs (Spreitzer, 1995). In sum, psychological empowerment is reflected by an active work orientation, in which employees want to and feel able to shape their work role and context (Spreitzer, 1995).

Prior research has provided empirical evidence of a relationship between psychological empowerment and task- and contextual performance (Aryee & Chen, 2006; Chiang & Hsieh, 2012; Li, Wei, Ren, & Di, 2015). The relationship between psychological empowerment and performance in general, can be explained by empowerment theory (Sutherland et al., 2007). Namely, a basic premise of empowerment theory is that empowered employees should perform better than relatively less empowered employees, because empowered employees believe that they have the autonomy and capability to perform meaningful work that can impact their organization (c.f. Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Such a premise is also implicit in work design theory, upon which the empowerment concept is deeply rooted (Sutherland et al., 2007). For example, Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics model explains how several job characteristics (i.e. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) positively affect work performance through three psychological states (i.e. experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of results). The psychological states that are proposed in their model are almost identical to the four cognitions of psychological empowerment (i.e. meaning, self-determination, competence, and impact) discussed earlier. Therefore, the theoretical expectation that psychological empowerment enhances employee performance appears to be strong. More particularly, it is expected that psychological empowerment will enhance both task performance as well as contextual performance, as higher levels of psychological empowerment

intrinsically motivates employees to perform well on tasks described in their role descriptions and on tasks that go beyond formal role descriptions (Bartram & Casimir, 2007; Li et al., 2015). This leads to the first hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1: Psychological empowerment has a positive relationship with both (a) task-performance and (b) contextual performance.*

Job crafting as a mediator between psychological empowerment and performance

As proposed by Tuuli and Rowlinson (2007), psychological empowerment may not directly influence employee performance. Instead, they argue that psychological empowerment may have performance consequences through its motivational effects (Tuuli and Rowlinson, 2007). More specifically, as suggested by Spreitzer (2007) and Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), psychological empowerment may influence job crafting behaviours among employees, which in turn could affect employee performance. Job crafting involves employees' proactive behaviours to shape their work tasks, as well as the relational and cognitive boundaries of their job (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Furthermore, job crafting requires employees to adapt to challenges and constraints that are posed by the job (Berg, Wrzesniewski, & Dutton, 2010). Petrou et al. (2012) identified three distinct job crafting behaviours. Namely, crafting behaviours in which employees are seeking for resources, seeking for challenges, and are reducing their job demands. First, seeking resources can be described by those help-seeking behaviours at work that result in more job resources, which in turn can be used to cope with job demands (e.g. asking for feedback or advice from colleagues and seeking new learning opportunities) (Petrou et al., 2012). Second, seeking challenges are described by Petrou et al. (2012) as proactive behaviours that enables employees to get additional tasks and more responsibilities next to their own tasks. Finally, reducing demands are those modifications in one's work that enables employees to reduce one's workload and the emotionally, mentally, or physically demanding job aspects (Petrou et al., 2012).

Building on self-determination theory (SDT), we can explain how psychological empowerment relates to the three types of job crafting. Namely, SDT posits that proactive behaviours are self-initiated and that individuals can be intrinsically motivated to perform these specific behaviours (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Furthermore, SDT proposes that individuals are more likely to perform proactive behaviours (e.g. crafting a job) when conditions support the individual's experience of autonomy, competence and relatedness (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). The four dimensions of psychological empowerment (i.e. meaning, self-determination, competence, and impact) are closely related to those of SDT. Therefore, it is expected that psychologically empowered people will experience higher levels of autonomy, competence and relatedness, and, in turn, will be intrinsically motivated to execute proactive behaviours. Summarized, psychologically empowered employees are more likely to craft their job, because they believe they have the competence and ability to influence their work activities and outcomes in a meaningful way. In addition, following SDT, no distinctions are made between the proactive behaviours that are intrinsically stimulated. Therefore, it is expected that psychological empowerment will enhance

all types of job crafting behaviours.

In turn, it is expected that job crafting behaviours will affect employee performance (Spreitzer, 2007; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Prior research on the job crafting and performance relationship have mostly treated job crafting as one construct (Tims, et al, 2013; 2014, 2015). However, as suggested by multiple scholars, not all forms of job crafting can be considered as "positive" (Petrou et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). In addition, employee performance needs to be broken up into two conceptually distinct components (i.e. task performance and contextual performance), because they both contribute independently to an employees' overall performance (Motowidlo & Scotter, 1994). As suggested by Kooij et al. (2017), job crafting behaviours may therefore relate differently to the two performance dimensions. This would mean that, for example, some job crafting behaviours may only impact one performance dimension, while others impact both in the same or in a different way (i.e. positive or negative). Therefore, to get a better understanding on how the job crafting dimensions are related to those of performance, it is important to empirically investigate which job crafting behaviors will positively or negatively influence task- and contextual performance. In this way, organizations and managers are able to encourage those behaviors that are beneficial for the organization and manage or discourage those that are detrimental.

Building on the job demands-resources model (JD-R model) (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001), the various relationships between the three forms of job crafting (i.e. seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands) and task- and contextual performance can be explained. In general, the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) provides better understanding in how job demands and job resources interact, and how they may lead to positive employee and organizational outcomes. Namely, the JD-R model posits that a combination of high job resources and low job demands, enhances employee performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Job demands are those aspects of the job that require sustained effort or skills (i.e. work pressure) that can result in certain physical or psychological costs (i.e. stress) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). On the other hand, job resources have a decreasing effect on job demands, and can help employees achieve their goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Within this theoretical framework, job crafting can be the described as the modifications employees make in their job to balance their job demands and job resources with their personal abilities and needs (Tims et al., 2012). In turn, according to the JD-R model, balancing these job demands and job resources may enhance employees' performance (Demerouti et al., 2001).

As described earlier, crafting a job may involve three different strategies, namely, seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands (Petrou et al., 2012). First, seeking resources is expected to be positively related with both task- and contextual performance. Resources minimize the negative effects of job demands and help individuals accomplish their work goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerout, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2000). Further, resources (e.g. feedback or advice from peers) help employees to improve their current execution of tasks, which may result in higher task-performance (Seibert, 1999). In line with this reasoning, Petrou et al. (2015) found that seeking job

resources positively predicted task performance. Moreover, employees who craft to seek for resources are concerned with learning new things (Petrou et al., 2012), which can be seen as a way of looking for additional or new tasks that are not necessarily described in formal role descriptions. It is therefore expected that seeking resources is also positively related to contextual performance. This leads to the third hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 2: Seeking resources positively mediates the relationship between (a) psychological empowerment and task performance, and between (b) psychological empowerment and contextual performance.*

Second, seeking for challenges includes those modifications in one's work that enables employees to gain additional and challenging tasks next to their own tasks (Petrou et al., 2012). Following the JD-R model, it could be argued that finding new tasks would increase an employees' job demands, and would therefore decrease an employees' performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). In addition, as the definition itself already makes clear, seeking challenges is primarily concerned with finding new and additional tasks, next to the tasks that are described by formal role descriptions. However, as suggested by Tims et al. (2012), employees will only craft their job and seek for challenges when they are not fully using their abilities and skills (i.e. boredom), and when they will benefit from adjusting them. Therefore, seeking challenges can be seen as a job resource to help them achieve their personal needs, which will in turn enhance performance. Therefore, it is expected that seeking challenges will only be related to contextual performance and not to task-performance, as it does not affect the core tasks of the employee that are described by the job description. This leads to the fourth hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 3: Seeking challenges (a) does not mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and task performance, but (b) does positively mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance.*

Finally, reducing demands involves proactive behaviours that are focused on reducing one's workload and the emotionally, mentally, or physically demanding job aspects (Petrou et al., 2012). Following the JD-R model, reducing demands could be seen as a coping strategy for high job demands, which would enhance employees' performance (Petrou et al., 2012). However, it is also possible that reducing demands indicates a lower level of motivation to exert effort in ones' job (Petrou et al., 2012). Moreover, Podsakoff, LePine and LePine (2007), extended the JD-R model by specifying two types of job demands. Namely, job demands as hindrances and job demands as challenges (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Job demands as hindrances involve undesirable work circumstances that interfere with an individual's ability to achieve valued goals (e.g. role overload), and are considered 'bad' demands (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000). On the other hand, job demands as challenges can promote an employees' personal growth and achievement (e.g. higher levels of responsibility), and can

be considered 'good demands' (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Reducing job demands in general, by crafting a job, might therefore not always be beneficial. It explains why Petrou et al. (2012) suggested that reducing demands might indicate lower levels of motivation. In line with this reasoning, Gordon, Demerouti, Le Blanc, & Bipp (2015), found negative relations between reducing demands and performance. Following this reasoning and previous empirical findings, it is expected that reducing demands will be negatively related to both task- and contextual performance. This leads to the final hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 4: Reducing demands negatively mediates the relationship between (a) psychological empowerment and task performance, and between (b) psychological empowerment and contextual performance.*

Combining the aforementioned hypotheses into an overall model, results in the conceptual model depicted below:

Figure 1. Conceptual Model
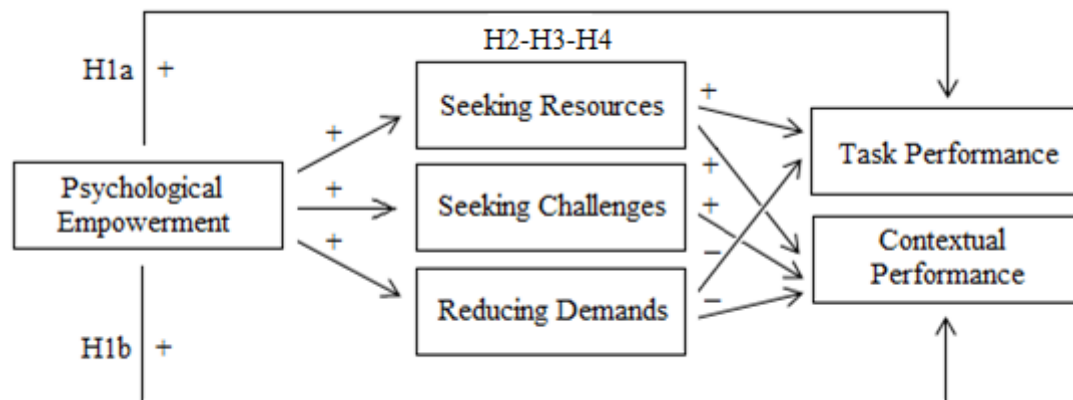
Methods

Study design

The data that was used in this research was part of a larger investigation on employee well-being in teams. Only the parts of the questionnaire were used that were relevant for this research. This included the questions that measured the following constructs: psychological empowerment, job crafting, in-role performance, and extra-role performance. Participation in the questionnaire was voluntary. Quantitative, cross-sectional, single-source data was used in order to measure these constructs.

Sample

The population of interest included employees working in an organization's department in the Netherlands. The department had to have at least 7 employees who worked together and reported to the same manager. The final sample included 372 respondents of who's age ranged from 18 to 70 (M =

37.84, SD = 12.89). 54.8% of the sample was female. Data were collected from 81 different departments from a variety of industries and occupations. On average, employees worked 29 hours per week (SD = 21,67) and had an approximate work tenure of 9,5 years (SD = 9.39). For the majority of the sample (38.3%), the highest level of education was upper secondary education or secondary vocational education, 31.5% of the respondents completed higher professional education, 20.2% had a university degree, 8.4% finished lower secondary education or lower vocational education, and for 1.6% of the respondents the highest level of education was primary school.

Procedure

Students collected data in 2016 via hardcopy questionnaires. The questionnaire consisted of 148 items which were all formulated in English. A cover letter was sent along with the questionnaire that contained the following important information regarding the questionnaire: instruction, time estimation, informed consent, confidentially, and anonymity. Anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed, because the completed questionnaires were collected in a closed envelop. Students contacted potential participants or departments within their own networks. Of the 405 questionnaires that were distributed, 372 were returned, which resulted in a response rate of 89.9%. Moreover, participants were asked to sign and fill in a verification form in order to prevent students for committing fraud.

Measures

The constructs were measured based on several previously published scales. For all scales, scores were calculated by computing a new variable and taking an average across the items with a higher score denoting a higher degree in that construct. For example, a higher score on job crafting denotes greater intention to craft a job. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to test the construct validity. The criteria of eigenvalue > 1 (Kaiser's criterion) and Catell's scree test were used to choose the number of factors. In line with the number of factors of the original scales, PCA indicated a one-factor solution for psychological empowerment, in-role performance, and extra-role performance, and a three-factor solution for job crafting. Scale reliability was evaluated using Cronbach's α and Lamdba-2. Using George and Mallery's (2002) rules of thumb, the internal consistency of reliability for all scales was either acceptable, good, or excellent. Results of the factor and reliability analyses can be found in the Appendix. The final scales of all constructs had less than 5% missings.

Psychological empowerment. A 12-item scale from Spreitzer (1995) was used to measure psychological empowerment. The scale consisted of four three-item subscales measuring meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Sample items are "The work I do is very important to me" (meaning), "I have mastered the skills necessary for my job" (competence), "I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work" (self-determination), and "I have significant influence over what happens in my department" (impact). Items were scored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Following previous studies on psychological empowerment,

(Boudrias et al., 2009; Pieterse, Van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010) a global psychological empowerment score was created by computing the mean of the four dimensions to reflect the psychological empowerment construct composed of the shared variance of these dimensions (Spreitzer, 1995b). Three items of this scale were deleted. Two items ("I have mastered the skills necessary for my job" and "I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work") were deleted because they did not correlate with other items or with the total score with a co-efficient of at least .30. The other item ("The work I do is meaningful to me") was deleted because it decreased the reliability of the total scale. The one-factor solution explained 39.4% of the total variance in psychological empowerment. Cronbach's α (.802) and Lamda-2 (.823) were both good.

Job crafting. To measure job crafting, a 13-item scale was used that was adapted from Petrou et al. (2012). Job crafting consists of three subscales, namely: seeking resources, seeking challenges, and reducing demands. Respondents were asked to indicate how often they engaged in several behaviors at work, using an answering scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). Six items measured the *seeking resources* subscale. A sample item is: "I ask others for feedback on my job performance" (Cronbach's α = .844; Lambda-2 = .846). *Seeking challenges* included three items, such as "I ask for more responsibilities" (Cronbach's α = .861; Lambda-2 = .863). *Reducing demands* was measured by four items, of which one item ("I try to simplify the complexity of my tasks at work") was deleted, as it decreased the reliability of the scale (Cronbach's α = .901; Lambda-2 = .902). The three-factor solution explained 69.5% of the total variance in job crafting. Cronbach's α and Lamda-2 were both good for seeking resources and seeking challenges. For reducing demands Cronbach's α and Lamda-2 were both excellent.

Performance. Shortened versions of Goodman and Svyantek's (1999) measures are included to measure employee performance. Respondents were asked to indicate to what extent the described statements applied to them, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*). Four items of Goodman and Svyantek's (1999) 9-item scale were used to measure *task performance*. An example item includes "I perform well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected". Chronbach's α (.862) and Lambda-2 were both good (.864) for task performance. *Contextual performance* was measured by four items of Goodman and Svyantek's 7-item scale. A sample item is: "I volunteer to do things not formally required by the job". Chronbach's α (.795) and Lambda-2 were both acceptable (.796) for contextual performance. The two-factor solution explained 66.6% of the total variance in performance.

Control variables. In the present study, the relevance of certain demographic data was considered as control variables given that they may impact the relationships between the variables (i.e. psychological empowerment, seeking resources, seeking challenges, reducing demands, task-performance, and contextual performance). Specifically, we included age, gender, education, and

organizational tenure. Firstly, age was included as a control variable, because it can influence the way and amount in which someone crafts their job (Kooij, Tims, & Kanfer, 2015), as well as employee performance (Waldman & Avolio, 1989). The average age of the respondents was 38 years (SD = 12.89; Table 1). Secondly, gender was included as it might influence employee performance in specific situations (Green, Jegadeesh, & Tan, 2009). This sample included slightly more women (54.8%) than men (45.2%). Thirdly, it is expected that educational level has an impact on both task and contextual performance (Ng & Feldman, 2009), and on proactive behaviors like job crafting (Bindl & Parker, 2010). Fourthly, Ng and Feldman (2010) found that longer tenured employees generally have greater in-role performance and citizenship (i.e. contextual) performance. Therefore, organizational tenure was included as a control variable. On average, employees worked for 9.5 years within a specific organization (SD = 9.39; Table 1).

Table 1. *Descriptive statistics and correlations*

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender[a]	.56	.50	1									
2. Age	37.84	12.89	-.02	1								
3. Education	3.60	.95	-.17**	-.03	1							
4. Organizational Tenure	9.51	9.39	-.03	.67**	-.10	1						
5. Psychological Empowerment	3.57	.53	-.13*	.10	.21**	.11*	1					
6. Seeking Resources	3.26	.75	.000	-.22**	.36**	-.19**	.34**	1				
7. Seeking Challenges	2.58	1.02	-.02	-.20**	.22**	-.14**	.21**	.54**	1			
8. Reducing Demands	1.81	.93	.06	-.14**	.17**	-.02	.11*	.18**	.25**	1		
9. Task Performance	3.85	.60	-.02	-.06	-.04	-.02	.33**	.20**	.16**	-.04	1	
10. Contextual Performance	3.01	.77	-.06	-.11*	.26**	-.03	.51**	.56**	.43**	.19**	.28**	1

Note. [a] Gender: 0 = male 1 = female | *$p < .05$; **$p < .01$

Results

Correlation analyses were conducted to examine the inter-correlations among all the variables in this study. Furthermore, two parallel multiple mediator models were tested using regression analyses in combination with a bootstrapping procedure. Since this research contains two dependent variables

(i.e. task performance and contextual performance) it was necessary to test the proposed direct and indirect effects for these two dependent variables in two separate models. First, the direct and indirect effects of psychological empowerment and the three types of job crafting on *task performance* were tested. Next, we tested the direct and indirect effects of psychological empowerment and the three types of job crafting on *contextual performance*. To explore the direct and indirect effects and to test the mediation hypotheses, we employed Preacher and Hayes' (2008) bootstrapping procedure by means of a special macro that was programmed in SPSS. This macro was used to estimate a 95% (bias corrected) confidence interval for the total and specific indirect effects of the mediators. Before doing this, we centered all continuous predictors to make the intercept meaningful and to reduce multicollinearity problems. To create centered variables, variable means were subtracted from the variable, causing new variable means to be exactly zero. Furthermore, we checked every predictor for multicollinearity, normality of residuals, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All scales showed no multicollinearity as Tolerance was not smaller than 0.1 and VIF was not bigger than 10. The Normal Probability Plot showed no major deviations from normality for all predictors, as all points lay in a reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right. Thus, linearity and normality was good for all predictors. In addition, the assumption of homoscedasticity is met, scores were randomly scattered and there was no systematic pattern of clustering of scores.

Descriptive statistics

Table 1 presents means, standard deviations, and correlations between the variables measured in this study (while controlling for gender, age, education, and organizational tenure). First, psychological empowerment is positively related with seeking resources ($r = .34$, $p < .001$), with seeking challenges ($r = .21$, $p < .001$), with reducing demands ($r = .11$, $p < .05$), with task performance ($r = .33$, $p < .001$), and with contextual performance ($r = .51$, $p < .001$). Second, seeking resources is positively related with seeking challenges ($r = .18$, $p < .001$), with reducing demands ($r = .18$, $p < .001$), with task performance ($r = .20$, $p < .001$), and with contextual performance ($r = .56$, $p < .001$). Third, reducing demands and contextual performance were also positively correlated ($r = .19$, $p < .001$). Fourth, positive correlations were found between seeking challenges and reducing demands ($r = .25$, $p < .001$), task performance ($r = 16$, $p < .001$), and contextual performance ($r = .43$, $p < .001$). Finally, positive correlations were found between task performance and contextual performance ($r = .28$, $p < .001$),

Hypothesis testing

To identify if the hypotheses were confirmed, two separate models were tested with each model containing a different type of employee performance. First, the direct effects of psychological empowerment on both task and contextual performance will be investigated (hypothesis 1). Second, the mediating effect of job crafting on the relationship between psychological empowerment and task performance will be analyzed (hypotheses 2a, 3a, and 4a). Finally, the mediating role of job crafting in the psychological empowerment and contextual performance relationship will be investigated

(hypotheses 2b, 3b, and 4b). To explore the direct and indirect effects and to test the mediation hypotheses, we employed Preacher and Hayes' (2008) bootstrapping procedure by means of a special macro (Model 4) that was programmed in SPSS, as suggested by MacKinnon, Fairchild, and Fritz (2007). This macro was based on 5000 bootstrap samples and was used to estimate a 95% (bias corrected) confidence interval for the total and specific indirect effects of the mediators.

Psychological empowerment and job performance. Psychological empowerment is found to be positively associated with task performance, including a beta coefficient of medium strength (B = .390, SE (B) = .065, p = < .01; Table 2). This confirms hypothesis 1a: Employees with higher levels of psychological empowerment show higher levels of task-performance.

In addition, confirming hypothesis 1b, positive associations were also found between psychological empowerment and contextual performance, reporting a beta coefficient of medium strength (B = .503, SE (B) = .065, p = < .01; Table 3). Thus, employees with higher levels of psychological empowerment show higher levels of contextual-performance.

Psychological empowerment, job crafting, and task performance. First, controlling for seeking challenges and reducing demands, no support was found for the indirect effect of seeking resources in the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance, as the indirect effect did not statistically differ from zero as revealed by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval (-.0003 to .096). Therefore, no support was found for hypothesis 2a.

Third, in line with hypothesis 3a, seeking challenges did not significantly mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and task performance, as the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (-.020) was not entirely below zero (-.006 to .057).

Finally, as expected, reducing demands negatively mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and task performance. A bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (-.015) based on 5000 bootstrap samples was entirely below zero (-.042 to -.001), supporting hypothesis 4a.

Psychological empowerment, job crafting, and contextual performance. Hypothesis 2b predicted that seeking resources would positively mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. Support was found for this hypothesis, as the indirect effect (.137) was statistically different from zero (.083 to .205).

Hypothesis 3b predicted that seeking challenges would positively mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. The results show that the indirect effect (.049) statistically differed from zero as revealed by the 95% bootstrap confidence interval (.016 to .104). Therefore, hypothesis 3b was supported.

Table 2. Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Multiple Mediator Model Depicted in Figure 1.

| | Consequent | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | M_1 (Job-Crafting: Seeking Resources) | | | M_2 (Job-Crafting: Reducing Demands) | | | M_3 (Job-Crafting: Seeking Challenges) | | | Y (Task Performance) | | |
Antecedent	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*
1. Age	-.012	.004	.001**	-.017	.005	.001**	-.018	.006	.001**	-.003	.003	.329
2. Sex	.094	.074	.203	.195	.102	.058	.059	.107	.584	.019	.064	.767
3. Education	.226	.040	.000**	.152	.055	.006*	.208	.058	.000**	-.115	.036	.001**
4. Organizational Tenure	-.004	.005	.463	.014	.007	.046*	.001	.007	.874	.001	.004	.868
5. Psychological Empowerment	.419	.071	.000**	.209	.099	.035*	.370	.104	.000**	.390	.065	.000**
5. Seeking Resources										.102	.053	.055
6. Seeking Challenges										.053	.037	.150
7. Reducing Demands										-.071	.035	.041*
Constant	-.019	.036	.601	.007	.050	.885	-.015	.052	.782	.015	.030	.639
	$R^2 = .252$			$R^2 = .073$			$R^2 = .132$			$R^2 = .170$		
	$F(5,331) = 22.269,$ $p = .000**$			$F(5,331) = 5.238,$ $p = .000**$			$F(5,331) = 10.091,$ $p = .000**$			$F(8,328) = 8.360,$ $p = .000*$		

Note. [a] Gender: 0 = male 1 = female | *p < .05; **p < .01

Table 3. Regression Coefficients, Standard Errors, and Model Summary Information for the Parallel Multiple Mediator Model Depicted in Figure 1.

	Consequent											
	M_1 (Job-Crafting: Seeking Resources)			M_2 (Job-Crafting: Reducing Demands)			M_3 (Job-Crafting: Seeking Challenges)			Y (Contextual Performance)		
Antecedent	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*	B	*SE*	*p*
1. Age	-.013	.004	.001**	-.017	.005	.001**	-.018	.006	.001**	-.006	.003	.096
2. Sex	.097	.073	.189	.193	.102	.058	.061	.107	.572	-.050	.063	.439
3. Education	.228	.040	.000**	.151	.055	.006*	.209	.058	.000**	.046	.036	.201
4. Organizational Tenure	-.004	.005	.462	.014	.007	.046*	.001	.007	.874	.001	.004	.136
5. Psychological Empowerment	.419	.071	.000**	.209	.099	.035*	.370	.104	.000**	.503	.065	.000**
5. Seeking Resources										.326	.053	.000**
6. Seeking Challenges										.134	.037	.000**
7. Reducing Demands										.012	.035	.723
Constant	-.018	.036	.624	.007	.050	.893	-.014	.052	.792	-.016	.031	.595
	$R^2 = .254$			$R^2 = .073$			$R^2 = .134$			$R^2 = .467$		
	$F(5,332) = 22.622,$			$F(5,332) = 5.252,$			$F(5,332) = 10.231,$			$F(8,329) = 36.032,$		
	$p = .000**$			$p = .000**$			$p = .000**$			$p = .000*$		

Note. [a] Gender: 0 = male 1 = female | *p < .05; **p < .01

Finally, rejecting hypothesis 4b, no support was found for the indirect effect of reducing demands and contextual performance, as the bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect (.003) was not entirely below zero (-.015 to .024).

Discussion

Summary of findings

The goal of this research was to examine to what extent three job crafting behaviors mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and employee performance (i.e. task- and contextual-performance). The results revealed a significant relationship between psychological empowerment and both types of performance (i.e. task- and contextual performance). As proposed, job crafting in terms of reducing demands negatively mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance. Moreover, job crafting in terms of seeking resources and seeking challenges positively mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. However, no evidence was found for the mediating effect of seeking resources in the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance, nor was there any confirmation for the mediating effect of reducing demands in the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. These findings will be explained in greater detail in the next section.

Interpretation of the results

Support was found for all direct and several indirect relationships between psychological empowerment and employee performance. Concerning the direct effects, it was found that psychological empowerment results in higher levels of both task- and contextual performance. Thus, the belief of having control in one's work, being able to fulfil job tasks, being able to influence work activities and outcomes, and the degree to which one values their job, altogether positively influence an employees' in-role and extra-extra role performance. These findings are in line with previous results of Li et al. (2015). Moreover, these findings confirm the use of empowerment theory and the job characteristics model, in developing the relationship between psychological empowerment and employee performance. Namely, empowerment theory states that higher levels of psychological empowerment will result in higher employee performance, because employees with higher levels of psychological empowerment believe that they have the autonomy and capability to perform meaningful work that can impact their organization (c.f. Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). More specifically, following the job characteristics model, employees with higher levels of psychological empowerment experience higher levels of meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results, which results in higher performance levels (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Altogether, these results highlight the importance of enhancing psychological empowerment and intrinsic work motivation to promote employees' work performance.

Tuuli and Rowlinson (2007) argue that psychological empowerment may have performance consequences through its motivational effects. Our research show support for this line of reasoning, as several forms of job crafting were found to mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and task- or contextual performance. Prior research has mostly treated job crafting as one construct (Tims, et al, 2013; 2014, 2015). However, as suggested by multiple scholars, distinct forms of job crafting exist that may have different effects on performance (Petrou et al., 2012; Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). The results of this study supported this notion, as it is shown that the three forms of job crafting differ in the direction of their effect (i.e. positive or negative) and in their relatedness to task- or contextual performance. The interpretation of these different mediating relationships will now be discussed further.

First, seeking resources was not found to mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance. A possible explanation is suggested by the latest meta-analytic review on the feedback seeking-task performance relationship, which illustrates that the relationship between these two constructs is very small (.07) and the credibility interval included zero (Anseel, Beatty, Shen, Lievens, & Sackett, 2015). Seeking resources mainly involves asking for feedback or advice from colleagues and seeking new learning opportunities (Petrou et al., 2012). As the general relationship between feedback seeking and task performance is relatively small (Anseel et al., 2015), it is not surprising that job crafting in a form of seeking resources was not significantly related to task performance. Conversely, seeking resources was found to be important in the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. This means that the motivation to seek for help on the job (e.g. learning new things, ask for feedback or advice from colleagues) is a significant result of one's active work orientation in which employees want to and feel able to shape their work role and context, and in turn causes higher levels of extra-role performance (i.e. non-formal role requirements). This finding is in line with the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001), which suggests that resources minimize the negative effects of job demands and help individuals accomplish their work goals, which in turn results in enhanced performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2000).

Second, as expected, and similar to the results of Gordon et al., (2015), no significant mediating relationship of seeking challenges was found in the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance. As suggested by Tims et al. (2012) employees will only craft their job and seek for additional challenges (e.g. tasks or responsibilities) when they are not fully using their abilities and skills (i.e. boredom), and when they will benefit from adjusting them. This explains why seeking resources did not affect task-performance, as task performance primarily concerns tasks described by formal job requirements, and therefore is not influenced by the additional tasks that are a result of job crafting in terms of seeking challenges. Our results give support to this line of reasoning. Contrary, seeking challenges positively mediated the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance. Thus, one's active work orientation in which employees want to and feel able

to shape their work role, positively influences an employees' motivation to get additional tasks and responsibilities next to their own tasks, which results in higher performance based on extra-role behaviours. This finding extends Bakker & Demerouti's (2007) JD-R model, by showing that having additional work-related tasks that are not described by formal job descriptions, not always results in an increase in job demands. Instead, they can also be seen as job resources that may help achieve employees' personal needs and, in turn, contextual performance.

Finally, as expected, and in line with the results of previous research (Gordon et al., 2015), reducing demands was found to negatively mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and task-performance. This means that the motivation to reduce one's workload and emotionally, mentally, or physically demanding job aspects, is a significant result of one's active work orientation in which employees want to and feel able to shape their work role and context, and in turn decreases the performance of tasks described by formal role descriptions. This also highlights the fact that not all job crafting behaviours are beneficial for employee performance, as previously suggested by multiple scholars (Petrou et al., 2012; Gordon et al., 2015). More particularly, this finding indicates that job crafting in terms of decreasing job demands can be destructive for an employees' task performance. This result also contributes to current research on the JD-R model, by indicating that reducing job demands, contrary to the original model, not always results in enhanced performance (Demerouti et al., 2001; Petrou et al., 2012). More precisely, it gives support to Podsakoff et al.'s (2007) argumentation of dividing job demands between job hindrances and job challenges, where reducing job hindrances may enhance performance and reducing job challenges may decrease employee performance. Contrary, the relationship between reducing demands and extra-role performance could not be established. A possible explanation for this might come from the meta-analysis of Halbesleben (2010). This meta-analysis clearly shows that engagement is an important determinant of contextual performance. Employees who craft their job in terms of reducing demands might view their work just as a source of pay check (Henson, 1996). These employees might be less engaged and therefore reduce the complexity and amount of tasks performed on the job (Henson, 1996). Concluding, as job crafting in a form of reducing demands involves low efforts of employees, engagement might be low-and contextual performance may not be achieved, as contextual performance results from the energy that employees invest into their work roles (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). This might explain why reducing demands does not mediate the relationship between psychological empowerment and contextual performance.

Summarized, the tested model contributes to the existing literature by highlighting the importance of enhancing psychological empowerment to promote employees' work performance. In addition, another contribution results from the support that is given to the notion of using a bottom-up approach in job design (i.e. job crafting) when trying to influence performance. More specifically, this study contributes to the existing literature by showing how three distinct job crafting behaviours can be positive or detrimental for employee performance. Furthermore, except for the non-established mediated effect of seeking resources in the psychological empowerment and task performance relationship, and

that of reducing demands in the psychological empowerment and contextual performance relationship, the findings of this study are in line with results of previous researchers who tested these relationships separately (cf. Gordon et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015; Petrou et al., 2015).

Limitations and implications for future research

Despite the contributions of this study, there are some limitations that must be acknowledged. First, given the cross-sectional nature of the data, the direction of causality cannot be unambiguously determined. To obtain more reliable study results, future researchers should use carefully designed longitudinal studies to clarify the causal directions, strengths, and durations of the identified relationships in this study. Second, this research relied exclusively on self-report instruments to assess our variables, and it is possible that stronger results may have been obtained if we had also included managers' ratings and other, more objective measures. Relying solely on self-report instruments, makes the results more prone to methodological artifacts (e.g. social desirability, common method variance). Future researchers should obtain multi-level data in order to address these issues. Third, to test whether our hypotheses were significant, two separate parallel multiple mediator models were used, with one performance outcome (i.e. task or contextual) for each model. While testing these models separately, we were unable to capture any relationships between the two types of performance. In addition, it might be possible that the various constructs interacted differently when both types of performance were added into the same model. Future researchers could use more advanced analyses (e.g. structural equation modeling) or different types of software (e.g. R), that are able to test the complete model that we proposed.

Besides these methodological limitations and implications for future research, there are also some limitations and implications for future research which are more theoretical in their nature. First, Zimmeran (1990) suggested that an overly individualistic conception of empowerment may limit understanding of the construct. Focusing on psychological empowerment, this research used a trait-oriented individualistic conception of empowerment, and therefore failed to consider environmental influences to empowerment (Zimmerman, 1990). It has been argued that empowering structures and practices (i.e. empowerment climate) affect employee feelings of empowerment (i.e. psychological empowerment) (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). Future researchers should use this multilevel approach of empowerment to be able to better explain the degree to which situational changes can produce motivational changes in employees. Second, there exists some inconsistency in how job crafting is conceptualized (Kooij, Tims, & Kanfer, 2015). As indicated by Kooij et al., (2015) job crafting can have many forms in practice, and the forms that were used in this study included only a few of all possibilities. In addition, Kooij et al. (2015) indicated that job crafting behaviours may vary between different occupations and ages. The job crafting behaviours that were selected in this research may therefore not apply to all respondents. Future research should explore the different forms of job crafting behaviours and examine which behaviours apply to which occupations and ages. Furthermore, our

results indicate that decreasing job demands can have detrimental effects on employee performance. As expressed earlier, this might show support for Podsakoff et al.'s (2007) suggestion of dividing job demands between job hindrances and job challenges, where reducing job hindrances may enhance performance and reducing job challenges may decrease employee performance. Future research should explore this relationship further, by determining whether reducing different types of demands (i.e. job hindrances / job challenges) may have different effects on employee performance. A final research direction pertains to understanding what other factors (e.g. situational or individual) may influence effective job crafting behaviours. Next to psychological empowerment, Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) highlight the importance of other individual and organizational features that may encourage or discourage job modifications. For example, they argue that HR managers may stimulate job crafting among employees. Future research should therefore explore the relationship between other individual and organizational factors and job crafting behaviours.

These and other limitations notwithstanding, we hope that this study spurs other researchers to explore how psychological empowerment, job crafting and organizational context interact to influence work performance and the underlying psychological mechanism.

Practical implications

The practical implications of this study may be twofold. First, the study results indicate that psychological empowerment is an important direct, as well as indirect, predictor of task- and contextual performance. Liden, Wayne, and Sparrowe (2000) argue that perceptions of psychological empowerment are partly based on external factors (e.g. organizational climate) that surround the employee. In line with this reasoning, Spreitzer (1995) argued that psychological empowerment must be seen as a mindset that is influenced by empowering conditions (e.g. job design, supervision style). Given the direct and indirect impact that psychological empowerment has on task- and contextual performance, organizations must try to enhance the psychological empowerment of their employees in order to maximize performance. Managers can do this by influencing the four dimensions of which psychological empowerment consists of (i.e. meaning, self-determination, competence, and impact). Thus, managers must try to enhance the value that employees place on their work, affirm and provide autonomy in the control over their work tasks, encourage employee competence, and emphasize on the impact that one has on work related activities and outcomes. By doing this, managers will enhance the psychological empowerment of their employees, which results in higher task and contextual employee performance, and in turn to organizational effectiveness and competitiveness (Li et al., 2015). In addition, previous studies have shown that high involvement practices enhance the psychological empowerment of employees (Messersmith, Patel, & Lepak, 2011). High involvement management is concerned with HR practices that improve employee involvement by continuously enhancing employees' skill, motivation, and opportunity to actively participate at work (Lawler, 1996; Paré & Tremblay, 2007). The practices are mainly focused on stimulating flexibility and proactivity among

employees (Kooij, 2015). In order to maximize performance by enhancing psychological empowerment, HR managers must implement high involvement practices such as flexible job descriptions, participation in decision making, training and feedback, information sharing, teamwork, and job rotation (Kooij, 2017; Messersmith, Patel, & Lepak, 2011).

Second, job crafting played an important role in predicting task- and contextual employee performance. More specifically, the results showed that job crafting behaviors can have beneficial as well as detrimental effects on these forms of employee performance. Thus, the effects of job crafting on organizational performance depends on the kind of changes that employees make to their job, and on the effects that these crafting behaviors have on the task or contextual performance of the employee. Therefore, this study supports the notion of using a bottom-up approach in job design when trying to influence performance. It is therefore noteworthy for organization to recognize and manage job crafting in such way that it will have beneficial effects on employee performance, and in turn on the overall organization. Although job crafting is a bottom-up individualistic driven approach (Grant & Parker, 2009), organizations can still try to stimulate employees to craft their jobs by implementing top-down interventions (Demerouti, 2014). For example, organizations can implement a top-down approach to job (re)design that will allow and stimulate employees to craft their job. In addition, according to Wrzesniewski & Dutton (2001), managers have the opportunity to affect the context in which employees craft their job by providing employees with opportunities to craft their jobs. In addition, they can stimulate and train their employees to craft their jobs in such way that it will be beneficial for the employee as well as for the organization (e.g. through incentives and material rewards). This is particularly important, as the study results show that job crafting in terms of decreasing demands can be detrimental for employees' task performance. Organizations are therefore challenged to find ways that reduce the likelihood of the negative effects of job crafting that may impact employee effectiveness.

Conclusion

Given the growing importance of employee performance in achieving organizational effectiveness, and given the ineffectiveness of top-down organizational interventions in influencing this, it is highly important to investigate how employee performance may be influenced by using a bottom-up approach such as job crafting. Therefore, this paper examined the relationship between psychological empowerment and performance, partially mediated by job crafting. This research provides new insights by demonstrating that the effectiveness of psychological empowerment on both task- and contextual performance, is partially owed to the effect that psychological empowerment has on different forms of job crafting behaviors. These findings highlight the importance of employee attitudinal variables and behaviors when predicting employee performance. Therefore, the use of a bottom-up approach when influencing employee performance has proven to be effective. Future research is needed to examine other individual and organizational factors that may influence job crafting behaviors.

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Appendix

Factor Tables

Table 4 *Factor Analysis Psychological Empowerment*

Scale	Psychological Empowerment
The work I do is very important to me.	**.61**
My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	**.63**
I am confident about my ability to do my job	.40
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	.42
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	.46
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	**.57**
My impact on what happens in my department is large.	**.81**
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	**.78**
I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	**.79**
Eigenvalue	3.55
% of variance	39.38
Cronbach's α	.80

Note: Factor loadings over .50 appear in bold.

Table 5 *Factor Analysis Job Crafting*

Scale	Seeking Resources	Seeking Challenges	Reducing Demands
I ask others for feedback on my job performance.	**.63**		
I ask colleagues for advice.	**.81**		
I ask my supervisor for advice.	**.79**		
I try to learn new things at work.	**.69**		
I contact other people from work (e.g. colleagues, supervisors) to get the necessary information for completing my tasks.	**.77**		
When I have difficulties or problems at my work, I discuss them with people from my work environment.	**.63**		
I ask for more tasks if I finish my work.		**.76**	
I ask for more challenging odd jobs.		**.89**	
I ask for more responsibilities.		**.85**	
I try to ensure that my work is emotionally less intense.			**.93**
I make sure that my work is mentally less intense.			**.94**
I try to ensure that my work is physically less intense.			**.86**
Eigenvalue	4.75	2.32	1.27
% of variance	39.61	19.37	10.54
Cronbach's α	.84	.86	.90

Note: Factor loadings over .50 appear in bold.

Table 6 *Factor Analysis Performance*

Scale	Task Performance	Contextual Performance
I achieve the objectives of the job.	**.80**	
I meet criteria for performance.	**.86**	
I fulfill all the requirements of the job.	**.88**	
I perform well in the overall job by carrying out tasks as expected.	**.85**	
I volunteer to do things not formally required by the job.		**.81**
I help others when their workload increases.		**.74**
I make innovative suggestions to improve the overall quality of the department.		**.80**
I willingly attend functions not required by the organization, but helps in its overall image.		**.80**
Eigenvalue	3.43	1.90
% of variance	42.81	23.76
Cronbach's α	.86	.80

Note: Factor loadings over .50 appear in bold.